

THE USE OF PREPOSITIONS IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION
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ABSTRACT

THE USE OF PREPOSITIONS IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION PROCESS

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This thesis investigates the use of three most frequent prepositions by Turkish learners of English at intermediate level of proficiency. The aim of the present study is to find out which differences between prepositions and their corresponding postpositions or case suffixes constitute difficulty on the part of second language learners. This study also examines the possible reasons of the errors/ mistakes pertaining to 'in', 'on', 'at' by native speakers of Turkish with intermediate level of proficiency in English. To fulfill the purpose of the study the participants of the study were recorded in natural classroom environment and the recorded data were transcribed. The compiled corpus was examined by two native speakers of English and the researcher. The data was classified under four main categories for each preposition inquired: (i) correct usage, (ii) misuse (i.e., instead of 'on', for instance, students use 'in' or 'at'; e.g., *in television*), (iii) overuse (i.e., no preposition is required in the context but the students use one, e.g., *I am going at home now*), (iv) omission (i.e., a preposition is needed but the students do not use one, e.g., *We go holiday*). At the end of these analyses, the problematic contexts related to the use of the prepositions 'in', 'on', 'at' for TIME and PLACE were identified. For detailed analysis of each category two tools - the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and the Computerized Language Analysis Child Language Data Exchange System (CLAN CHILDES) were used. Results indicate that Turkish learners of English produce erroneous forms of prepositions in second language acquisition process and the underlying reasons of these errors/mistakes is the interference of native language.

Keywords: Prepositions, Errors/Mistakes, Interference, Developmental Process, Second Language Acquisition

ÖZ

İKİNCİ YABANCI DİL EDİNİM SÜRECİNDE EDATLARIN KULLANIMI

Çabuk, Sakine

Yüksek Lisans, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi

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Bu tez en çok kullanılan edatların İngilizce öğrenen Türk öğrenciler tarafından orta seviyede kullanımını araştırmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın amacı edatlar ile onların karşılığı olan son eklerin hangi farklılıklarının ikinci yabancı dil öğrencileri için ne gibi zorluklara yol açacağını araştırmaktır. Bu çalışma aynı zamanda İngilizce’de orta seviyede olan ve anadili Türkçe olan konuşmacıların İngilizce’deki ‘in’, ‘on’, ‘at’ edatları ile ilgili hatalarının olası nedenlerini araştırmaktır. Çalışmanın amacını yerine getirmek için katılımcılar doğal sınıf ortamında kameraya kaydedilmişlerdir ve kayıtlar yazıya geçirilmiştir. Toplanan derlem iki yerli İngilizce konuşmacı ve araştırmacının kendisi tarafından incelenmiştir. Verilen her bir edat için dört ana başlık altında toplanmıştır: (i) doğru kullanım, (ii) yanlış kullanım, (iii) fazla/ gereksiz kullanım (iv) çıkarma. Analizlerin sonunda ‘in’, ‘on’, ‘at’ edatlarının ZAMAN ve YER kullanımları ile ilgili sorunlu bölümler belirlenmiştir. Her başlığın detaylı analizi için iki araç kullanılmıştır: Sosyal Bilimler için İstatistik Paketi (SPSS) ve Bilgisayarlı Dil Analizi: Çocuk Dili Veri Değişim Sistemi (CLAN CHILDES). Sonuçlar İngilizce öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin ikinci yabancı dil öğrenme sürecinde edatları yanlış kullandıklarını ve bunun nedeninin birinci dilin etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Edatlar, Hatalar, Karıştırma, Gelişimsel Süreç, İkinci Yabancı Dil Edinimi

To my beloved mother, who is the reason of whom I become, Meliha abuk,
For her never ending belief in me

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A	Adjective
AP	Adjective Phrase
CA	Contrastive Analysis
CLAN	Computerized Language Analysis
CHILDES	Child Language Data Exchange System
EA	Error Analysis
ELT	English Language Teaching
ELPT	English Language Proficiency Test
ITP	Institutional Testing Program
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LM	Landmark
N	Noun
NP	Noun Phrase
NNS(s)	Native Speaker(s)
NS(s)	Nonnative Speaker(s)
PP	Prepositional Phrase
TL	Target Language
TR	Trajector
TOBB ETU	TOBB Economy and Technology University
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SLL	Second Language Learners
SPSS	Statistical Packages for Social Sciences
V	Verb
VP	Verb Phrase

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Introduction

In this introductory chapter, first, the background of the study (Section 1.1) is presented and then, some important characteristics of the compared and contrasted languages (i.e., Turkish and English) are given (Section 1.2). After that, the problem that the study scrutinizes (Section 1.3), the purpose and scope of the study (Section 1.4) and the significance of the study are discussed (Section 1.5). Finally, the limitations of the study (Section 1.6) and the key terms (Section 1.7) used throughout the thesis are presented and discussed.

1.1. Background to the Study

‘Prepositions are part of the core of the English language. About every eighth word in contemporary English texts is a preposition. Prepositions are indicators of local, temporal, causal, modal and a number of other relations’ (Mindt & Weber, 1989:229). What is more in the course of the history of the English language, prepositions have taken over the role of case endings as well (Mindt & Weber, 1989). That is why linguists working in different areas have been interested in and conducted many studies focusing on this seemingly small unit of the English language. Different researchers have examined different characteristics of the members of this word category (e.g., syntactic, semantics, cross-linguistic) (Feigenbaum and Kurzon, 2002) and it looks as if each of these features is challenging and motivating both for the researchers and the second/foreign language learners.

From a syntactic view, prepositions are treated as a lexical category in that they determine spatial and temporal relationships between word classes. Additionally,

some researchers treat prepositions like content words that carry a definite semantic load (Radford, 2009) in contrast to the earlier view of prepositions in which prepositions are viewed as empty words (Feigenbaum and Kurzon, 2002). From a semantic perspective prepositions are considered as lexical elements which are polysemous and therefore result in different conceptualizations with respect to dimensionality and shape (Zelinsky-Wibbelt, 1993). As prepositions have a language-specific view of relation in our experiential world, cross-linguistic studies on semantics of prepositions have lately been at the center of attention. Furthermore, in cognitive science, psycholinguistics, and neurolinguistics prepositions have been gaining importance in that they provide insights into visual perception of items around the world and throw light on the development of artificial intelligence (Zelinsky-Wibbelt, 1993).

Native speakers are reported to hardly make mistakes in the use of prepositions while nonnative speakers either never master them (Gedikoğlu, 1987) or reach an almost native like mastery in the use of prepositions with greatest difficulty at the latest stages of the language learning process (Cooper, 1968). The author maintains that it is interesting that children also master the use of prepositions at a rather late stage of the language acquisition process. Jespersen (1977:189, cited in Abdulkarim 2008) writes, “Children tend to use prepositions much quicker than they are able to discern one preposition from another.” Thus, in addition to difficulty experienced by second language learners (SLL henceforth), prepositions seem to pose challenges in the first language acquisition process particularly in distinguishing the meaning of prepositions.

Prepositions, however, have received little attention by ELT experts and second/foreign language material writers. Lindstromberg (1997:227) claims that “Considering their prominent role in the semantics of English, remarkably little space is devoted to prepositions or directional adverbs in ELT coursebooks in the UK or the USA”. Lindstromberg (1997) also maintains that since most books teach prepositions in chunks to be memorized, they fail to provide a systematic and reasonable approach. The underlying assumption is that the semantic features of

prepositions are too complex to figure for the learners; however, by doing this they underestimate the systematicity of semantic features of prepositions.

More interestingly, the fact that prepositions function as relationship words means that the language learners have to master not only lexical equivalents, but also the manner in which speakers of the target language conceptualize relationships (Lindstromberg, 1996). Even advanced students who have completed a review grammar course often have problems with the locative and temporal prepositions due to some restrictions in the books, in the supplementary teaching materials, and due to lack of a systematic approach to learning prepositions.

Another reason why prepositions are difficult to acquire/learn for second language learners and why even at the advanced level of proficiency incorrect uses of prepositions persists is the fact that prepositions have different representations across different languages. While some languages lack prepositions and use postpositions (e.g. Turkish and Japanese), others fill their functions with cases, morphemes or particles (e.g., Hungarian clitic constructions) (Hoffman, 2005). Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) argue that when there is not a correspondence between the prepositional usages in the native and target languages, the acquisition of prepositions becomes even more problematic. These problems are more observable particularly when L1 and L2 are syntactically and semantically distinct from each other (e.g., Turkish and English). Since Turkish and English are syntactically and semantically distinct languages, L1 Turkish learners of English experience problems while learning prepositions in English (Evin, 1993; Gedikoğlu 1987).

Prepositions are broadly analyzed under three categories: *i) prepositions of place, ii) prepositions of time, and iii) prepositions of direction*. It is suggested by a number of researchers that locative meaning is the core meaning of prepositions that have multiple meanings (Hörberg, 2006; Jansson, 2006; Tseng, 2000). The focus of this study, hence, will be on space and time prepositions and their representation systems in English and Turkish. Besides, the structures of spatial expressions across languages have been described as a certain system of semantic distinctive features

(Zelinsky-Wibbelt, 1993). The present work accordingly tries to explore these distinctive semantic features in English and Turkish.

To open a window to the understanding of cross-linguistic variety of prepositions across languages, more research needs to be conducted across different languages as is the case with the current work on Turkish and English. This study, therefore, aims to be a step for the ultimate goal of exploring differences in the representation of prepositions across languages but not an end in itself.

1.2. Languages Inquired: English and Turkish

For a more comprehensive understanding of the study carried, an overview of both English and Turkish is necessary. Turkish is spoken in many regions of the world from Central Asia to the Balkans and predominantly in the Republic of Turkey with an estimated 70 million speakers (Göksel and Kerslake, 2005). It is spoken in many areas of the world like Balkan countries (Bulgaria, Romania, Macedonia, and Greece), Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, Iraq, and other European countries (mainly Germany). Turkish belongs to the Ural-Altaic language family which includes languages like Uzbek, Kazakh, Azeri, Tatar, Urum, Kypchak, and Uighur and it is an agglutinative language with vowel harmony (Kornfilt, 1997). The syntax of Turkish is Subject Object Verb (S-O-V) as in Korean and Latin, unlike English. Additionally, Turkish does not have grammatical gender of nouns. It extensively makes use of affixes especially suffixes which are endings of a noun (e.g. plural marker –s in English, and plural marker –ler in Turkish). These affixes are employed to create new words in Turkish as well.

English has recently been used as a lingua franca which is defined as a language that is used as a means of communication between groups of people who speak different languages (Cambridge Dictionary, 2005). There are approximately 375 million native speakers of English (Curtis and Romney, 2006). In his “Encyclopedia of language” Crystal (1997:289) rates English as the third language which has 427 million speakers in the speaker estimates for the world’s top 40 languages. Crystal

(1995) maintains that it is mainly spoken in the United States (215 million), the United Kingdom (61 million), Australia (15.5 million), Canada (18.2 million), and South Africa (3.7 million). English belongs to Germanic branch of Indo-European family of languages. Like Turkish, English has no grammatical gender. In contrast to Turkish, English does not use case markings and relies on pronouns instead. The word order in English is Subject Verb Object (S-V-O). Auxiliary verbs determine constructions such as passive voice, progressive aspect, interrogatives, and negatives.

1.2.1. English Prepositions versus Turkish Postpositions and Case Suffixes

Complying with the focus of study comparison of English prepositions and their corresponding Turkish case suffixes and postpositions need to be discussed briefly. Prepositions are placed in the class of adpositions that are defined as grammatically distinct closed class of words (Huddleston, 1988). Most English prepositions are single words except for complex prepositions such as ‘*in front of*’, ‘*with regard to*’, ‘*on top of*’ (For a detailed review of complex prepositions, see Hoffman, 2005). From vantage point of syntax, prepositions precede their noun complements (i.e., *preposition + complement combinations* such as “in a class, on the wall” are accepted grammatical whereas *complement + preposition combinations* are deemed ungrammatical). English prepositions explain the relationship between two entities (Lindstromberg, 1998; Cooper, 1968). These two entities refer to *Subject* and *Landmark*. Many researchers classify prepositions into three main categories: i) prepositions of place, ii) prepositions of direction (motion or movement), and iii) prepositions of time.

Corresponding forms of prepositions in Turkish, postpositions and case suffixes, however, have different features. Postpositions have different forms such as the addition of possessive marker to nouns, case markers, and noun complements. Göksel and Kerslake (2005:214) maintain that Turkish postpositions fall into two main categories: (i) bare postpositions and (ii) possessive-marked postpositions.

Bare postpositions are the ones that carry no suffixes. Possessive-marked postpositions, on the other hand, are analyzed according to what case marking they

require on their complements when overtly expressed (i.e., locative, ablative, dative, accusative). The syntactic representation of Turkish postpositional phrase consists of a noun phrase followed by a postposition. The postposition is the head and the noun phrase is the complement of the phrase. As can be seen from brief descriptions above, Turkish and English have distinct systems in conveying time and space (For a detailed review see Chapter 2).

1.3. The Problem

As cross-linguistic variety is observed in the use of prepositions, the present study tries to provide insights into counterparts of English prepositions in Turkish and what kind of differences and similarities are observed between the representation of English prepositions and Turkish postpositions and case markers. The problem lies in the fact that there is influence of this cross-linguistic variety on the learning/acquisition process of English prepositions. A few studies (Açak, 2003; Evin, 1993) conducted have sought the use of prepositions by Turkish learners, they concentrated on the different systems of English and Turkish and the possible challenges on the part of the Turkish learners of English. However, no study has focused on time and space prepositions specifically and how they are used by native speakers of Turkish learning English. Therefore, there is immediate need to explore distinct systems of time and space in English and Turkish and to uncover the underlying reasons of challenges experienced by the native speakers of Turkish learning English. Additionally, the use of prepositions and their basic senses should be sought in spoken interaction in natural classroom interaction which is expected to cast light on the properties of natural language data.

Another inadequacy in the area of English preposition is their development in the second language acquisition (SLA henceforth) process. In the first language acquisition process English prepositions are researched and it has been found out

that prepositions appear in the child's speech later than all major types of content words. In Leikman's (2002) words between 1; 10-2; 4 (years; months) the prepositions are omitted in obligatory contexts such as '*on the table*'. At age 2; 2-3; 5, prepositions tend to appear in an invariant order in different languages. The use of prepositions by second language learners and how they are learned in the second language acquisition/learning process has not been explored much particularly in Turkish. The present work, hence aims to reveal the use of English prepositions at intermediate level of proficiency by native speakers of Turkish in (natural) spoken interaction.

1.4. Purpose and Scope of the Study

Prepositions are one of the first topics introduced in foreign language classes (Murphy, 1990), however, learners have persistent difficulties in the use of prepositions until the late stages of the language learning process and many of them do not ever reach native-like levels of performance (Zdorenko & Paradis, 2008).

Turkish has different functional equivalents to English prepositions. In Turkish, postpositions are used; consequently native speakers of Turkish learning English face difficulties in the use of prepositions because of the influence of their first language (L1). However, little research comparing Turkish postpositions and case markers, and English prepositions, and the errors resulting from those differences of the native speakers of Turkish learning English that have intermediate level of proficiency has been conducted so far (e.g., Açak, 2001; Evin, 1993; Gedikoğlu, 1987). The present study, therefore, aims to be one of the first steps in filling this gap by following the purposes below:

- (a) to examine the features and the usages of the most frequently used prepositions in English (i.e., **in**, **on** and **at**, Dirven, 1993; Saint-Dizier, 2006) and their counterpart postpositions and case markers in Turkish to determine possible challenges that native speakers of Turkish learning English may face;

- (b) to analyze the correct usage of the prepositions **in**, **on** and **at** in English by native speakers of Turkish with intermediate level of proficiency;
- (c) to identify the incorrect uses (i.e., misuses, overuses and omissions) of the prepositions **in**, **on** and **at** by native speakers of Turkish learning English in their spoken interactions.

1.5. Significance of the Study

The present work addresses the distinct systems of English prepositions and Turkish postpositions and case markers, and tries to illustrate the difficulties encountered by Turkish learners of English due to language-specific features of prepositions. By illuminating cross-linguistic variety, i.e., Turkish and English, the current research will hopefully be able to draw a comprehensive and detailed sketch of how native speakers of a syntactically and semantically distinct language from English use the prepositions **in**, **on** and **at** for time and space. It is also expected that the study will be useful in aiding the findings suggested by Aak (2001), Evin (1993) and Gedikođlu (1987) in the use of prepositions and in taking their studies one step further by focusing on the properties of the prepositions **in**, **on** and **at**, and the errors made by Turkish learners of English in the use of time and space prepositions in spoken interaction at an intermediate level of proficiency.

It is hoped that by drawing a detailed picture of the use of the three of the most frequently used prepositions in English by intermediate level learners in Turkey, the study will raise the awareness of the ESL instructors about their learners' incorrect usages of those prepositions. The findings of the study may also alert them about the differences and similarities between the prepositions and case markers in Turkish, and postpositions in English, and will help them to uncover the underlying reasons for their students' misuses, overuses and omissions of the prepositions **in**, **on** and **at** while interacting in English. It is also hoped that the result of the study will help to generate ideas about how to boost their learners' language learning/acquisition process. Finally, it is hoped that second/foreign language material writers will

benefit from the findings of this study as well and that they results of this thesis will help and inspire them to prepare materials that will help native speakers of Turkish (and why not other languages) learning English tackle this ‘inherently difficult problem’ (Gedikoğlu, 1987) much more easily and much more successfully.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

Throughout the research process some limitations concerning method and subjects of the study have arisen. The subjects from whom data for this study were collected were chosen among the students of the preparatory class at TOBB Economy and Technology University (TOBB ETU for future reference) and this might lead to restrictions in generalizing conclusions to other universities whose medium of instruction is not English or to universities who have a student profile different from that at TOBB ETU. Because the medium of instruction is English at TOBB ETU and pupils are required to take TOEFL Institutionalized Testing Program (TOEFL ITP), the motivation for learning English among the preparatory students is high. Hence, they attach great importance to learning English.

Another limitation of the study concerning its methodology is related to the data collection process. Only spoken data were collected and analyzed in this study but it is known that sometimes there are contrasting differences between the spoken and written performance of the second/foreign language learners. However, this research tries to delve into new horizons by focusing on spoken data which will in turn contribute to the analysis of more natural language data.

A possible limitation may arise from the conduct of the research. The data for the present study are collected in three hours of (natural) classroom interactions. Further, the discussed topics are limited. The topics discussed in class were *family relationships*, *smoking habits*, *living in rural versus urban areas*, and *holiday types*. The nature of the discussed topics might have restricted the use of the examined prepositions. Therefore, each of the three prepositions does not appear in contexts

that include all of their senses (i.e., spatial, temporal, path, prototypical, non-prototypical, etc.).

Another problem was related to the analysis and classification of the data into a) correct usage, b) misuse, c) overuse, d) omission). Native speakers appeared to accept the usage of some of the prepositions in some of the contexts that were specified as ungrammatical in the reference grammar books. In other words, native speakers were not very strict in considering an utterance incorrect.

The data collection may also be conducted as a controlled task instead of natural classroom environment to eliminate both teacher and peer influence on the production of prepositions. So the participants of the study will not imitate the utterances of their peers or instructor. The researcher tries to eliminate teacher prompted data from current corpus, however, in a controlled study, both teacher and peer influence can be eliminated.

1.7. Key Terms Used in the Study

For an insightful understanding of the present work some key terms need to be defined. These are the following.

Error: Error is the use of linguistic item in a way that a native speaker of the language regards it as showing faulty or incomplete learning. The learners cannot correct themselves due to lack of knowledge. Another approach in defining the error is the frequency of incorrect occurrence. If learners persistently use the linguistic item incorrectly, this is named as error.

(Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005; James, 1998, Richards, 1974)

Mistake: Mistake is done unconsciously or due to lack of attention, and the learners can self-correct themselves. If there is inconsistency in the learner's incorrect usages, and he sometimes uses linguistic items correctly and sometimes incorrectly, it is a mistake (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005; James, 1998, Richards, 1974).

Preposition: A preposition is defined as connecting word showing the relation of a noun or verb and adjective to some other words in the sentence. They also show the relationship between two entities, that is, subject and landmark. In the sentence ‘The book is on the table’, ‘the book’ is the subject and ‘the table’ is the landmark (Hoffman, 2005; Saint-Dizier, 2006; Bloomfield, 2005).

Prepositional Phrase: Prepositional Phrase (PP) is basically the combination of preposition and its complement or object. The complement may be a noun, a verb, or an adjective. In the sentence, ‘*Children are in the garden*’, ‘*in*’ acts as a complement of the noun while in the sentence ‘*The development of the company is dependent on the success of employers*’, ‘*dependent on*’ is an adjective complement. Similarly, in ‘*She is nice but I do not confide in her*’, ‘*confide in*’ is a verb combined with a preposition (Bloomfield, 2005; Saint-Dizier, 2006).

Sense: In this study, sense is defined in terms of semantics of prepositions. Senses refer to abstract notions to be distinguished from linguistic realizations (Saint-Dizier, 2006). In the field of prepositions, senses may express quantity, localization, etc.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0. Introduction

This chapter consists of four main sections and their subcategories. Error analysis and its contribution to second language acquisition research are discussed in the first section of this chapter. The second part of the chapter focuses on the prepositions **in**, **on** and **at** in English and their counterpart structures in Turkish (i.e., postpositions and cases). Next, the temporal and spatial prepositions and their main syntactic features are presented. Following this, the relevant studies concerning the studies on English prepositions done in contexts of various languages are provided.

2.1. Error Analysis (EA)

In a language learning process, deviant forms like errors and mistakes are natural components (James, 1998; Richards, 1974) and they provide valuable insight into the language learning process. Ellis (1994) suggests that the study of learner language at different stages of language learning process helps the researchers to understand the process of language acquisition. The author maintains that different approaches can be identified to study learner language and language acquisition process. These approaches to the study of learner language are: a) the study of learners' errors, b) the study of developmental patterns, c) the study of variability, d) the study of pragmatic features (Ellis, 1994:43). The analysis of errors, the main concern of current study, helps to build up the picture of the features of the target language that causes difficulty for the specific group of learners (James, 1998). Since the aim of this study is to draw a detailed picture related to the difficulties that native speakers of Turkish with intermediate level of proficiency in English face in

relation to the use of the propositions **in**, **on** and **at** in that language, Error Analysis (henceforth EA) framework will be utilized in the analysis of the collected data.

In James' (1998) words, EA is the study of learners' errors, their causes, frequencies, and consequences. Two prominent terms that need to be clarified before exploring EA are "error" and "mistake". The distinction between these two terms is provided by James (1998). An error is done unconsciously and it is not possible for learners to correct themselves while learners can self-correct themselves in mistakes (Corder, 1974). In other words, a mistake is unsystematic, or unintended and a natural element of communication. Ellis (1992) suggests two ways to determine the difference between an error and mistake. Checking the consistency of learners' performance is one of the ways to distinguish them. If the learners sometimes use the correct form of a structure in target language and sometimes use an incorrect or deviant form, this is a mistake. If the learners consistently use it incorrectly, this is considered as an error. Another way to distinguish is to ask the learners to self-correct themselves. If they are not able provide the correct form, this is an error, and vice versa. Richards (1974) provides detailed appendices for typical errors in the end of his article titled "*A Non-Contrastive Approach to Error Analysis*". Some of the examples are taken from Richards (1974:182-188).

1. Errors in the production of verb groups

be+verb stem for ***verb stem***

We are live in this hut

He is speaks French

2. Errors in the use of prepositions

with instead of ***at***

He laughed with my words

in instead of ***at***

in this time

3. Errors in the use of articles

Omission of ***a***

He was brave man

4. *Errors in the use of questions*

When she will be 15?

When Jane coming?

5. *Miscellaneous Errors*

Wrong verb form in the adverb clause of time

I shall meet him before the train will go

In the following sections, initially, the origin of error analysis, how it evolved, and its purpose are discussed. Then, the criticism EA received in the 1980s and early 1990s is summarized. Next, the classification of errors and their explanations are highlighted. While discussing the cornerstone studies related to EA, its recent role in language learning process is also explained.

2.1.1. Roots and Development of Error Analysis

In the 1960s Contrastive Analysis (CA) framework was introduced and with it researchers started examining two or more languages to identify their similarities and differences. In CA framework it was believed that similarities between L1 and L2 facilitate the language learning process whereas differences inhibit learning (Selinker, 1972). Thus, the second language learners' knowledge in the target language is subject to interference from knowledge of the first. Selinker (1972) maintains that CA analysis explores the errors that the learners make by identifying the linguistic differences between learners' mother tongue and the target language. In CA, errors are assumed to occur as a result of interference or transfer that is resulted from the carryover of L1 habits into L2. Corder (1974) advocated the term EA and expressed the importance of errors in language learning process. Corder (1974) introduces paradigm shift in linguistics from a behaviorist view of language to a more rationalist view that maintains that the emphasis should be more heavily placed on the process of learning than teaching.

When the learning process had started to be emphasized, the errors became more important. Corder (1971) approached errors as systematic indicators of the language learning progress rather than being deviant forms. He argued that errors were valuable 'commodities' in the sense that they : i) serve a pedagogic purpose by showing teachers what their learners have mastered and what they have not, ii) show how languages are learned, iii) serve as devices that are used throughout the process of language learning. Two decades later Selinker (1992:151) pointed out that Corder have made two highly significant contributions to the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and that because of him researchers now know that "the errors of a learner, whether adult or child, are (a) not random, but are in fact systematic' and that they are (b) not 'negative' or 'interfering' in any way with learning a TL but are, on the contrary, a necessary positive factor, indicative of testing hypotheses". With the framework provided by Corder (1971) (i.e., Error Analysis) the researchers began study adult learner language. His approach to errors is different than the one suggested in CA. The assumption of CA is that the learners produce errors because of the interference from the target language (Corder, 1971). In this framework, errors are and thus interference is assumed to occur due to the carryover of habits of native tongue into target language context. In other words, CA puts the blame of the errors on the native language of the learners. The author expresses that EA, however, places emphasis on the learner language instead of investigating the native tongue of the language learner. Corder (1971) also notes that errors help the researchers to understand the process of second language acquisition.

EA aims to demonstrate that the learners' errors are not only because of the native language, but they reflect some universal learning strategies. EA attaches importance to the cognitive processes the learners' go through by investigating errors made by them (i.e., EA investigates what is in the mind of the learner). It also tries to decode the strategies of learners such as overgeneralization, or simplification.

2.1.2. Description of Errors in Error Analysis

The description of errors is based on the comparison of the original utterances with the restructured form(s) of these utterances (Corder, 1974). The process of the identification of errors, thus, reveals how the utterances produced by the learners differ from the forms used by native speakers (NSs) of the target language. This process, however, is not an easy task to accomplish.

Two taxonomies in description of errors are generally agreed on: a) linguistic taxonomy, b) surface structure taxonomy (James, 1998). “A linguistic taxonomy is usually based on categories drawn from a descriptive grammar of the target language” (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005: 60). Linguistic taxonomy focuses on the descriptive grammatical categories of the target language and, thus, it is more preferable. On the other hand, surface structure taxonomy allows no modification of the target language norms (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005) While linguistic taxonomy allows description of well-established categories and thereby resulting in practical applications, surface structure taxonomy focuses on the ways surface are changed in incorrect utterances (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005). This comparison indicates that surface structure is strictly dependent on the target norms and undermines the creativity of language learning. In the same way, Ellis (1994) criticizes this method for comparative fallacy which fails to recognize the uniqueness of interlanguage processes. The surface structure taxonomy assumes that learners operate on the norms of the target language instead of creating their unique forms (Ellis, 1994). Operating with the target norms may not pose a challenge on the part of second language learners since they have already set rules and structures to follow; however, their unique structures are also at work in the language learning process.

2.1.3. Categorization of Errors

Ellis (1994:47) categorizes errors into three main types: i) errors produced by children, ii) L2 learners, and iii) native speakers. While errors of L2 learners are labeled as ‘unwanted’, children’s errors are viewed as ‘transitional errors’ and that

of native speakers as 'slips of tongue'. Children learning their mother tongue are likely to produce errors such as "I goes see Auntie May" which is intended to mean "I went to see Auntie May" (Ellis, 1994:47). In the same way, a native speaker may utter a sentence like "She want to be alone" and thus leaves out the the simple present tense marker '-s'. The treatment of errors is also different in CA and EA. Ellis (1994) points out that whereas CA focuses merely on the forms of L1 and L2, EA centers on learner language rather than focusing on the norms of L1 and L2. Errors appear to be one of the sources of information that learners have a continuously restructuring and dynamic system of their own. Thus, the primary focus of the present study will be on the errors of L2 learners.

The analysis of errors has been a part of language teaching for decades, the process of analysis, however, requires close attention. Corder (1974: 24) suggests the following steps in Error Analysis.

Collection of a sample of learner language

- i. Identification of errors
- ii. Description of errors
- iii. Explanation of errors
- iv. Evaluation of errors

The present study will include the procedures involved in each of these steps except for the last one that is generally handled separately with its own method of inquiry as suggested by (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). The last step, evaluation of errors, can be briefly defined as the assessment of different types of errors and then deciding which errors to be treated or receive instruction (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005).

Corder (1971:153) categorizes second language learners' errors as **presystematic**, **systematic**, and **postsystematic errors** (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: The Classification of Errors by Corder (1971)	
Error Type	Definition
Presystematic Errors	Not random, learners being unaware of the existence of the structure in TL
Systematic Errors	Learners' being informed about the wrong rule of TL norm
Postsystematic Errors	Learners' being aware of target language norm but using it incorrectly at times

The identification of these errors, however, depends on the reports collected from learners in that they are asked to reflect on their incorrect forms. This may be an issue damaging the reliability and validity of the research since the information is totally collected from the learners and their explanations of errors may not be well-established or complete.

As aforementioned, two widely accepted taxonomies in the description of errors are: *a) linguistic taxonomy*, *b) surface structure taxonomy* (James, 1998). Whereas linguistic taxonomy centers on descriptive grammatical categories of the target language such as general categories related to sentence structure (i.e., verb phrase, verb complementation, etc.), surface structure taxonomy allows no modification of the target language norms (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005). The target language norms cannot be altered by the learners in surface structure taxonomy. Some researchers support the change or modification of target structure in second language learning continuum. A taxonomy reported to alter in the language learning continuum was devised by Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982:151). They proposed the following categorization of ways learners modify target structures.

- a) Omission: The absence of an item that should be used in a well-formed sentence
- b) Addition: The presence of an item that should not be used in a well-formed sentence

- i. Regularization: e.g., eated for ate
 - ii. Double-marking: e.g., he didn't came
 - iii. Simple Additions: explained with neither regularization nor double marking
- c) Misinformation: The incorrect use of a target form
- i. Regularization: e.g., Do they be happy?
 - ii. Archi-forms: e.g., using me both as a subject and object pronoun
 - iii. Alternating forms: e.g., don't + V alternating with no +V
- d) Misordering: The incorrect placement of forms in the string of a sentence.

Ellis (1997) maintains that classifying errors can help us to diagnose the learners' learning problems at any stage of their development and to plot how changes in error patterns occur over time. Richards (1974:172-188) proposes three types of errors involved in language learning: *interlingual errors*, *intralingual errors* and *developmental errors*. Each of these categories is going to be discussed in the following sections:

2.1.3.1. Interlingual Errors

Interlingual errors are defined as errors caused by the interference of learner's mother tongue (Richards, 1974). Interlingual errors have a significant place in Contrastive Analysis (CA). The cause of interlingual errors is interference from the native language. The target language is under the influence of L1. However, error analysis does not regard them as the persistence of old habits, but rather as signs that the learner is internalizing and investigating the system of the new language. As aforementioned, these types of errors can be identified by comparing L1 and L2.

Interlingual transfer is reported to be a significant source for language learners. In the language learning process, interlingual errors may appear in a form that is dependent on the first language. Interlingual errors may occur at different levels (i.e.,

phonological, morphological, grammatical and lexic-semantic). That is, transfers at all levels of elements of the native language into the target language are possible (Richards, 1974).

2.1.3.2. Intralingual Errors

Interferences from the students' own language is not the only reason for committing errors. As Ellis (1997) states, some errors appear to be universal, reflecting learners' attempts to learn the target language. The use of the past tense suffix '-ed' for all verbs is an example of simplification and overgeneralization. These errors are common in the speech of second language learners. These types of errors are produced due to generalizations made in the process of learning the target language. In contrast to interlingual errors, intralingual errors are not based on the structure of L1 (Richards, 1974).

They may also be caused by the influence of one target language item upon another. For example, learners attempt to use the past form of verbs and regularize irregular verbs since they have not mastered the language yet. When they say: "He goed to school", it is because the verb is regularized by relying on the knowledge of previously formed rule. In short, intralingual errors occur as a result of learners' attempt to build up concepts and hypotheses about the target language from their limited experience with it.

2.1.3.3. Developmental Errors

Developmental errors reflect the learner's competence at one of the stages of language learning continuum (Richards, 1974). They are natural outcomes of language acquisition process and show common features of this process. Richards (1974) states that these are typical errors that are found in the utterances of anyone learning English as a second language. The author maintains that these types of erroneous utterances may last for one week or a month. They are reported to be the indications of transitional competence. Most learners experience the appearance of

developmental errors in different stages of language acquisition continuum with various periods of time such as one month or one year.

2.1.4. Explanation of Errors in Error Analysis

Explanation of errors denotes determining the sources of errors or why they are made (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005). Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) point out that one well-known reason for the errors is that the learners experience difficulty in accessing L2 knowledge. As the learners have not completed the mastery of the forms in the TL, they produce the erroneous forms. In this section we will focus on the methodologies devised within the EA framework for the explanation of the learners' errors.

Various reasons are provided by different researchers but the mostly cited explanations for the errors are psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic. Sociolinguistic sources concern the adaptation of the learners' utterances to the social context of the target language used for interaction (Ellis, 1997). Psycholinguistic sources explain errors from the point of interference, transfer, interlanguage process. The source of errors should be conducted in detail in that it is not easy to reach a concluding remark about the underlying motivations of errors. Richards (1974:174-178), for instance, proposes the following explanations:

a) ***Overgeneralization errors***: These types of errors are observed when the learners create a deviant structure by relying on two structures in the target language. For instance, 'we are hope' is used by the learners where English allows either 'we are' or 'we hope'.

b) ***The ignorance of rule restrictions***: If the learners fail to abide by the restrictions of a rule in the target language, they apply this rule to other unacceptable contexts. The learners commit errors by making generalizations into the newly encountered contexts or similar contexts. Richards (1974:176) asserts that analogy

seems to have significant role in the misuse of prepositions. For example, ‘at the evening’ is misused by the learners instead of ‘in the evening’ or ‘at night’.

c) ***Incomplete Application of the rule***: The learners may not fully develop a target rule in the language learning process and thus may not be successful in applying the rule. Question formation is a typical example of failure in developing the target language rule. “What you want to buy?” is formed by the learners without recognizing the interrogative word order.

d) ***False concepts hypothesized***: These types of errors are traced to classroom presentation. For example, teaching past tense with a sentence including ‘was’ results in using it in all contexts of past tense as in ‘We was happy’. Richards (1974) categorizes these errors as developmental errors.

Though these subcategories are provided, it is not easy to identify the sources of errors (Ellis, 1997). Burt (1975), however, criticizes the identification of errors proposed by Richards in that it is not possible to identify the causes of errors. He proposes a ‘broader’ classification that is quite similar to the ones suggested by Richards (1974).

a) ***Developmental Errors*** which are similar to the errors encountered in first language acquisition;

b) ***Interference Errors*** that are the equivalent of interference errors described by Richards and that reflect carryover of L1 structures into L2 context;

c) ***Unique Errors*** that include all errors counted neither in the category of developmental nor in the category of interference errors.

The classification provided by Burt (1975), however, is not different than the one provided by Richards. Furthermore, the identification of errors in this scheme is not easy, either. James (cited in Ellis and Barkhuizen, 1998: 65) proposes a summary of strategies employed by second language learners. These strategies are reported to be universal among learners.

- i) **False analogy** (e.g., boy → boys; child → child's)
- ii) **Misanalysis** (learner's assumption of considering "its" –singular possessive pronoun- plural because of plural marker –s)
- iii) **Incomplete rule application** (the failure of applying a rule: e.g., She know the answer)
- iv) **Exploiting the redundancy** (omitting grammatical features that do not contribute to the meaning of utterance)
- v) **Overlooking co-occurrence restrictions** (e.g., knowing that "quick" and "fast" are synonyms but not recognizing that "quick food" is not possible as a collocation)
- vi) **System simplification** (using "that" instead of all of adjective clause markers such as "who, which")

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) assert that no single source can be counted as the possible explanation of errors. This study similarly tries to identify and explain the cause of errors from various perspectives and try to bear in mind the developmental process of language acquisition. In as much as it is challenging to distinguish between "mistake" and "error", it is in the same way not easy to come up with a fully-fledged explanation of errors. The purpose of this study is accordingly to come up with more than one explanation of erroneous utterances produced by the participants of the study and makes use of the formerly devised explanations by trying to take them one step further if it is possible.

2.1.5. Criticism of Error Analysis

Introduced as an alternative to CA, EA is not flawless. Ellis (1994) asserts that a complete picture of learner language or language learning process is a failure in EA. Relying only on the deviant forms of target language structure does not shed light on a fuller portrayal of the second languages learning process. Another problem observed in EA is that the researchers using EA consider all errors from the same

perspective and level (Ellis, 1997). The researchers should analyze errors in their developmental stages such as errors at elementary, intermediate or advanced levels. Schachter (1974) criticizes EA with her findings of the cross-linguistic research carried out with native speakers of Chinese, Japanese, Arabic and Persian learning English. In her research the author emphasizes the role of avoidance in the language learning process. The author claims that EA or previously predicted difficulties fail to account for the avoidance behavior during the language learning process in that the learners avoid the structures they have not mastered even though they have similar structures in their mother tongues. In other words, though both L1 and L2 have similar structures such as ‘relative clause’ they may opt out using the target structure.

2.2. Prepositions

The status of prepositions which are defined as functional words (Saint-Dizier, 2006), structural words (Hoffmann, 2005), cementing words (Ingvel, 1977) and even empty words (Sweet, 1936) differ across languages. While some languages make use of prepositions extensively (e.g., English, German), some other languages do not possess any of them (e.g., Indian languages). In these languages the role of prepositions are substituted by cases, morphemes, affixes, postpositions, or some other mechanisms (Saint-Dizier, 2006). As the representation of prepositions is different across languages, using prepositions in spoken interactions is challenging for SLL. Learning English prepositions is not easy for native speakers of Turkish (Açak, 2001) since while English prepositions are characterized by lexical independence in which they are particles following/followed by nouns, adjectives, and verbs; in Turkish, similarly to Hungarian the functions of prepositions are substituted by case-suffixes or postpositions which follow their complements.

2.2.1. English Prepositions

Together with postpositions and circumpositions, prepositions belong to the group of *adpositions* which are defined as grammatically distinct closed class of words

(Huddleston, 1988) which express spatial relationships (e.g., *in*, *on*, *at*). English prepositions are free morphemes and even though there are a number of exceptions (e.g., complex prepositions such as *in front of*, *on top of*), generally they are single words (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999). Prepositions in English precede their noun complements (i.e., **preposition + complement combinations** such as “*in a bag*, *on the board*, *at the bus station*” are acceptable while **complement + preposition combinations** such as “*a bag in*” are deemed ungrammatical) and they have head phrases which they are dependent on such as verbs, nouns, and adjectives. In addition to the categories provided above, complex prepositions are investigated under the category of prepositions. Complex prepositions refer to two or three word sequences like ‘*in view of*’, ‘*with regard to*’, ‘*in spite of*’, ‘*according to*’, ‘*instead of*’. Hoffmann (2005:3) states that the first item of complex preposition is typically an adverb (e.g., *upwards of*), an adjective (e.g., *exclusive of*), or a conjunction (e.g., *as for*). The author maintains that though complex prepositions appear as separate words, they are generally considered a single syntactic unit. Complex prepositions in addition to verb and adjective combinations with prepositions (e.g., *rely on*, *be good at*) are excluded from this study. This study is concerned with simple prepositions like ‘*in*’, ‘*on*’ and ‘*at*’.

The treatment of prepositions is approached differently by the researchers who are interested in prepositions. Three possible approaches are suggested by philologists (Abdulkarim, 2008):

- a) Prepositions do not have independent lexical meaning since they perform as grammatical units and thus should be included in the category of cases which can be analyzed syntactically
- b) English prepositions occur with case forms of a certain name, person, or object and the context prepositions occur in determines their meanings
- c) Prepositions possess their own lexical meaning in that different prepositions may be used with the same noun, adjective, or verb and have a different meaning.

In this study the third view is adopted because the assumption of the present study is that prepositions have their independent meaning and that they may be used with the same complements.

2.2.1.1. The Main Features of Prepositions

Prepositions explain the relationship between two entities, that is, a *Subject* and a *Landmark* (Lindstromberg, 1997). In the sentence ‘The vase is on the table’, ‘vase’ is the subject and ‘table’ is the landmark. Instead of giving precise definition, the researchers provide various categories to distinguish them from other classes of words. According to Lindstromberg (1997) prepositions can be analyzed as: i) prepositions of place, ii) preposition of direction (motion or movement), iii) preposition of time. In (1) “on the bench” expresses place and in (2) “to the north” displays direction. In (3) “at three o’clock” has to do with time.

- 1) They sit on the bench
- 2) The house is to the north
- 3) Sally arrives at three o’clock.

Saint-Dizier (2006) notes that English has about 50 prepositions and 9 prepositions are among 30 most frequently used words in English. In Table 2.2 below these prepositions and their ranks are provided.

Table 2.2: Rank of prepositions in most frequently used English words (Saint-Dizier, 2006:3)	
Preposition	Rank
of	2
in	5
to	8
for	11
with	13
on	16
by	18

The class of prepositions includes relatively few elements compared to the major syntactic categories such as Noun (N), Verb (V) and Adjective (A) (Tseng, 2000). In

other words, the number of prepositions in English is small which estimated to be between 60 or over 130 in English (McMichael, 2006). Prepositions can be analyzed from different perspectives in that they have various functions in syntax and semantics. Saint-Dizier (2006) expresses that prepositions have different semantic and syntactic roles. First, they can be viewed as a *functional category* in syntax, i. e., prepositional phrase. They act as the head of prepositional phrases (PP) from a syntactic point of view. Another role of prepositions is their semantic role in which they act as a bond between the noun they precede and the verb they follow. The last category proposed by the author is a lexical category that combines structural level with semantic level. This last category refers to the combination of syntactic and semantic role of prepositions in discourse.

Prepositions also have a wide variety of uses with different grammatical features. Most importantly, they connect noun phrases (NP) with other structures (Leech et al., 1999). The authors suggest that they can broadly be analyzed in two categories: a) free prepositions, b) bound prepositions. Whereas free prepositions are not dependent on the words they follow (e.g., *in the room, at school*), bound prepositions rely on the words in the context, often the preceding verb or adjective (e.g., *cope with, rely on*). Cuyskens and Rodden (2002) claim that English prepositions can be viewed within two perspectives. In syntactic-semantic perspective, prepositions are defined in terms of their functions. In cognitive semantic perspective, prepositions are polysemous, namely, they have a set of different meanings, and this has a central role in the explanation of prepositions.

Another classification is provided by Lindstromberg (1996). The author divides prepositions into three main categories: i) basic prepositions, ii) systematic prepositions, iii) idiomatic prepositions. According to this categorization, the use of basic prepositions is based on predictability and they can be explained spatially. On the other hand, systematic prepositions are less predictable and their usage is governed by rules. The least predictable category of prepositions is idiomatic prepositions whose usage is dependent on the verb or adjective combinations it is used with.

- 4) sitting on the chair
- 5) arrive on Monday
- 6) comment on

As seen in the examples provided above (4) is a basic preposition which describes the physical environment and is easy to guess, (5) is a systematic preposition that is governed by rules and systematicity, and lastly (6) is in the category of idiomatic phrases whose meaning should be learnt as a lexical unit.

Tseng (2000) and Hörberg (2006) divide prepositions in two distinct categories: i) *lexical*, ii) *functional* prepositions. The author notes that while *lexical* prepositions are primarily employed to contribute to meaning, *functional* prepositions appear in structures with grammatical constraints.

- 7) They arrived to the airport sharp at 7 and missed the plane.
- 8) My office is at the end of the hall.
- 9) We found the ball under the sofa.
- 10) The small child takes after his father.
- 11) I am good at typing letters.
- 12) He turned on the lights once he entered the room.

As seen above, in (7), (8), and (9) prepositions have a role in identifying the meaning of the sentence. In (10), (11), and (12) prepositions function as complementary features of the construction. Functional prepositions also appear to be non-predictive since they are dependent on the word, either a verb or an adjective that they are used with. Their meanings become clear in contexts they are used. On the other hand, if lexical prepositions are replaced by another preposition, either the meaning changes or the structure turns out to be ungrammatical. In Tseng's (2000) words they have form fixedness. Lexical prepositions are based on predictability (Hörberg, 2006).

In addition to the classifications given above, two key terms need to be covered in this study: i) literal meaning, ii) prototypical meaning. Prototypical meaning or central meaning denotes the most basic meaning that appears in our minds. According to Lindstromberg (1997:19) prototypical meaning of a preposition is the ‘contact with an upper surface’. He further notes that the literal meaning refers to the meaning that has to do with the physical world, the location of an object in the surrounding environment, or paths they may follow with respect to each other. For instance, in the sentences below literal meanings of prepositions are pictured.

13) The tree is in the garden. (Location of tree with respect to garden)

14) The plane flies over the city. (Path of plane with respect to city)

Another category provided is idiomatic usage or metaphorical usage of prepositions whose meaning cannot be guessed from individual words combined. For example, in the sentence (15) given below the meaning of ‘*make up with*’ cannot be derived from neither ‘make’ nor ‘up’. However, as a complete expression it means ‘establish good relationship with someone’.

15) make up with my friend.

2.2.1.2. Syntactic Characteristics of Prepositions

Prepositions appear in constructions such as prepositional phrase and the relation of a preposition with another part of the sentence such as Noun, Verb, and Adjective determines the role of preposition in an utterance. The prepositional complement is generally a noun phrase, a nominalised wh-clause, a nominalised –ing clause, and an adverb (Jansson, 2006). Prepositional phrases can be the complements of adjectives and verbs and can act as adverbials. Some examples are as follows:

Verb + Preposition

To agree with

16) I don’t *agree with* killing animals for their furs.

To depend on

17) You can’t always *depend on* trains arriving on time.

To be composed of

18) This article is *composed of* three sections.

Adjective + Preposition

To apologize for

19) They *apologized for* arriving at late hour.

To be glad for

20) I am glad for having the chance of meeting you again.

To be satisfied with

21) The boss is not *satisfied with* the increase observed in export rate.

All these contexts provided above are different usages of prepositions with various functions. It is, however, not easy to give all contexts of prepositions. It is also difficult to differentiate prepositions from other functional categories such as noun, adjective, adverb, etc. Quirk et al. (1985) proposed three ways to distinguish preposition from other classes of words. The authors suggested three contexts which prepositions do not appear: *i) a that clause, ii) an infinitive clause, iii) a subjective case form of a personal pronoun.*

2.2.1.3. Semantic Features of Prepositions

Another dimension of English prepositions is their semantics. Prepositions are reported to be polysemous (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999). In Tyler and Evans' (2003:7) words, "a linguistic form is paired at the conceptual level, not with a single meaning, but associated with a network of distinct but related meanings." Much research done in the area of explaining prepositions is thus centered on the meaning of prepositions in that the semantic properties of prepositions are highly cross-linguistic. A plethora of research has been conducted and various theories have been proposed by the researchers in the field of semantic features of prepositions (Dirven, 1993; Tyler and Evans, 2003; Kemmerer, 2005; Feigenbaum and Kurzon, 2002; Lakoff, 1987; Rosch, 1975; Jackendoff, 1983, 1990). The findings of research in the area suggest that it is highly intricate or difficult to propose a well-established

theory for explaining or clarifying the semantic features of prepositions. Researchers generally (Zelinsky-Wibbelt, 1993; Dirven, 1993; Lakoff, 1987) follow the tracks of Gestalt psychology in which pragmatic contexts of the structure is considered important. Zelinsky-Wibbelt (1993) claims that pragmatic context changes over time; however, this subjective nature of linguistic meaning does not lead to inconsistency between speakers of a language in that “*overall context*”- the prototypical context on which linguistic conventions are based- constrains subjective interpretation. To put it another way, though there is a subjective interpretation in the semantics of prepositions, a more general understanding of this semantic interpretation is available to the speakers of a language.

Two terms are provided by the researchers in exploring the semantics of prepositions: *a) canonical orientation, b) actual orientation*. Canonical orientation refers to the intrinsic use of a preposition that is independent of speaker’s or observer’s point of view (Zelinsky-Wibbelt, 1993). Actual orientation, on the other hand, occurs in accordance with speaker’s or observer’s perspective. For instance, in the sentence “*The table is standing in front of the cupboard*”, depending on the sight of speaker, the speaker may assign *the cupboard* in front of *the table* or vice versa. Tyler and Evans similarly (2003) assert that the perception of human being is the result of already shaped entities.

“Our assumption is, then, as humans, we segment our perceptions of the world and the way in which we experience it into spatial scenes We believe that spatial scenes result from entities in the world- which exist independently of human beings- being perceived, then analysed and understood in ways in which are wholly dependent upon the kind of neural architecture of the human brain, the particularities of human body and the way these bodies interact with the world.” (Tyler and Evans, 2003:27)

The underlying reason of the assumption made above by Tyler and Evans (2003) can be explained and supported by relying on the facts pertaining to prepositions (Zelinsky-Wibbelt, 1993:11):

a) language specific explanations which lack of expressing some universal semantic structure

- b) mappings between different contents of source and target language equivalent (e.g., German “*seit*” which is translated into English as “*for*” and “*since*”
- c) different mappings of the content on different syntactic structures such as prepositions, cases, postpositions, clitic constructions, etc.

Another two prominent terms in the semantics of prepositions is “*landmark*” and “*trajector*”. In a scene, something new to the foreground is called trajector (TR) and how the trajector is localized with respect to presupposed background is termed as landmark (LM) (Feigenbaum, Kurzon, 2002). Landmark is an already given part of the information in the scene. Zelinsky-Wibbelt (1993) clarifies the role of landmark and trajector in the explanation of senses and emphasizes the abstract and subjective perception of prepositions.

“Prepositions are a lexical category the elements of which are highly polysemous. Not only do different conceptualizations of trajector and landmark -for instance with respect to bounding, dimensionality and shape- determine the respective differences between the senses of the same relational expression, but these different polysemes are also exploited by metaphorical and metonymic extensions into abstract target domains so that an increasingly higher number of polysemes and increasingly abstract ones are created for the same relational expression.” (Zelinsky-Wibbelt, 1993:10)

The meanings of prepositions are many but not all meanings are equally important. In the edited book by Zelinsky –Wibbelt (1993), Heitzman (cited in Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1993), Dirven (1993), and Chuyckens (1993) investigated “at” and “in” and their different contexts of use. The findings of their studies suggest that one of the meanings of prepositions is more common or prototypical than the other uses of them. The authors further suggest that this prototypical or central meaning of prepositions is acquired earlier than the other meanings in both first and second language acquisition process.

To put in a nutshell, prepositions, small lexical units carrying a huge semantic load, typically have numerous meanings and these meanings are dependent on many factors such as perception of the speaker or observer, world knowledge, the context

of its appearance, etc. (For a comprehensive view of semantics of prepositions see Zelinsky-Wibbelt (Ed.),1993). Since the aim of this research is to investigate differences between postpositions in Turkish versus prepositions in English and the usages of three prepositions, not much space and time is devoted to the semantic analysis of prepositions. The detailed scrutiny of semantics of prepositions is beyond the scope of this study. Dirven (1993) considers ‘*in*’, ‘*on*’, and ‘*at*’ as the most common prepositions. This study accordingly will be examining the usages of these three common prepositions by students.

2.2.1.4. Classification of Prepositions

Classification of the different senses of prepositions is approached from different perspectives by researchers; however, no consensus has been reached yet. Senses refer to abstract notions to be distinguished from linguistic realizations (Saint-Dizier, 2006) (see Table 2.3). Though categorization varies in senses, the origin is similar. A detailed analysis of prepositions is carried out with a project named PrepNet in an online internet addresses which focus on the senses of prepositions (www.irit.fr/recherches/ILPL/prepnet.html). Classification based on PrepNet that is the result of an online project related to prepositions is provided below:

Table 2.3: Categorization of prepositions and their sub-senses (Saint-Dizier,2006)	
Category	Senses
Localization	source, destination, via/passage, fixed position
Quantity	numerical or referential quantity, frequency and iterativity, proportion/ratio
Manner	manners and attitudes, means (instrumental or abstract), imitation or analogy
Accompaniment	adjunction, simultaneity of events (co-events), inclusion, exclusion
Choice	choice or alternative, substitution
Causality	cause, goal or consequence, intention
Opposition	priority, subordination, hierarchy, ranking, degree of importance
Ordering	ranking, degree in a group

As the primary aim of this study is to focus on spatial and temporal function of ‘*in*’, ‘*on*’, ‘*at*’, we try to come up with a classification which covers the spatial and temporal categorization of ‘*in*’, ‘*on*’, ‘*at*’ and their sub-senses. On the detailed analysis of some grammar books such as Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999), Nunan (1990), Eastwood (1994) and Murphy (2004), the classification of these prepositions is pictured. The classification adapted from different researchers particularly regarding spatial and temporal function of ‘*in*’, ‘*on*’, ‘*at*’ is the following:

Table 2.4: Classification of prepositions ‘ <i>in</i> ’, ‘ <i>on</i> ’, ‘ <i>at</i> ’ and their sub-senses Celce-Murcia-Larsen-Freeman (1999: 408), Eastwood (1994:288), Murphy (1990& 2004:106)		
IN		
	Domains	Examples
SPATIAL	1) Enclosure 2) Street and road (British) 3) Defined space or context	1) The man is in the room / I left my bag in the post office 2) in Shirley Road 3) I read about Tom Cruise in an article
TEMPORAL	1) ‘In’ for longer periods 2) Sometime during a longer period of time/part of day 3) Future appointment 4) Early enough 5) A week or more holiday	1) World War II ended in 1945, in October, in the winter, in the 1990s, in the Middle Ages, in future 2) in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening 3) Come in ten minutes 4) I hope he arrives in time for diner 5) in the Easter holiday, in the summer time
ON		

SPATIAL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Contact: 2) Along/for a line 3) Supported by something 4) Attached to the something 5) Covering or in contact with something 6) Travelling 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) on the wall, number on the door 2) on the Po, I live on this street, on the River Avon, a town on the border, a village on this road 3) The cat was sleeping on the chair 4) Your coat is hanging on the hook. 5) Jake's shoes were on the wrong foot 6) on the train/ on the boat/ plane/bus
TEMPORAL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Day/date 2) On Special Days/ a single day 3) On+ day+ part of day 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) on Sunday, on that day, on Nov. 9th. 2) On my birthday, on Christmas Day, on Easter Monday 3) on Friday morning, On Tuesday morning
AT		
SPATIAL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) point/intersect 2) a point in space 3) target 4) events 5) address/house 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Meet at the corner/ general area: Meet me at the corner 2) someone at the door, sitting at my desk, at the crossroads 3) Look at John/ Throw the stone at wall 4) See you at the match, at the meeting, at a church service 5) at 64 Shirley Road, at Mike's house, Does this train stop at York?

TEMPORAL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) point of time/period 2) time of the day 3) Holidays/two or three days 4) right at a point of time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) We meet at 1, It rains at night here 2) at five o'clock, at 11.45, at night, at midnight, at lunchtime, at sunset, 3) at Christmas, at Easter, at weekend (US on weekend) 4) at the moment, at present, at the moment
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2.3. Locative/Spatial Prepositions

Locative prepositions are used to express space and movement (Zwarts and White, 2000; Tseng, 2000). A commonly agreed definition of locative prepositions by different researchers (Boers and Demecheleer, 1998; Zwarts and White, 2000; Cooper, 1968) is that locative prepositions are employed to locate an object or entity relative to another object or landmark. Another definition is provided by Tyler and Evans (2003:22) who have done prominent contributions to the research on the semantic features of prepositions. "Locative prepositions can be seen as defining a spatial region within which a located object is positioned with respect to a reference object." For instance, in example (22) below, the aquarium is the landmark and the fish is the located object.

22) The fish is in the aquarium

In Celce Murcia and Larsen-Freeman's (1999:408) words, not all the meanings of prepositions are equally important in that certain meanings are more frequent than the others. The locative function of prepositions is reported to be more noticeable than other functions (Heitzman, 1993). Relying on the findings of Heitzman (1993), a supporting figure (see Figure 2.1) is provided by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, (1999: 409) in which they place spatial function at the center of the circle.

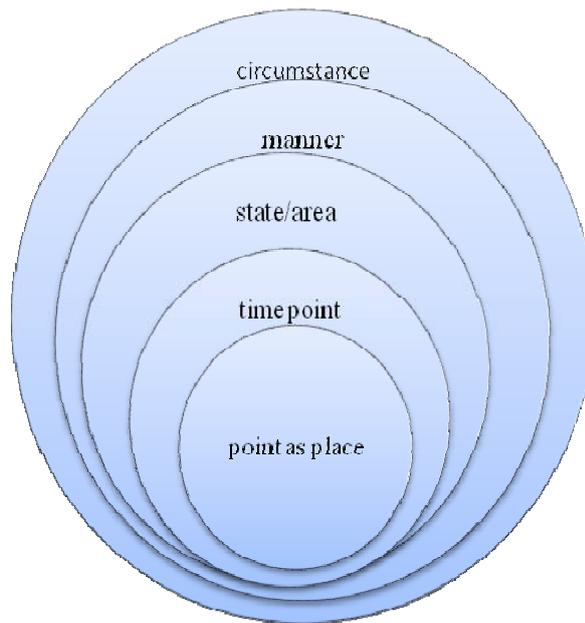


Figure 2.1: Central Schema of meaning of prepositions according to prototypicality (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999: 409)

According to Cooper (1968) prepositions may be viewed as linguistic representations of spatial objects which are unique to a language community. The author further states that while the speakers of the same language agree about the visual components of the object world, it may be difficult for the speakers of different languages to agree on sets of visual percepts. Boers and Demecheleer (1998) note that cross-cultural variety in spatial organization is observed even in closely related languages. For example, English has four prepositions to locate an entity or object lower than another (under, underneath, below, and beneath), French has two corresponding prepositions (sous, en dessous de), though (Boers (1996) cited in Boers and Demecheleer, 1998) Zwarts and White (2000) assert that foreign speakers are required to learn a somewhat different set of visual features as well as somewhat different combinations of such sets, some of which are very close to the sets encoded in their native language, while some of which are distinct from that of their native language. In sum, not all languages share a common set of visual perceptions. This, in turn, leads to problems encountered by the learners and interference of native language in some contexts due to cross-cultural variety in spatial organization.

Most research on prepositions focuses on the semantic features of spatial or locative prepositions (Boers and Demecheleer, 1998; Cooper, 1998; Herskovits, 1981; Hörberg, 2006; Lindstromberg, 1999; Tseng, 2000, Zwarts and Winter, 2000). The researchers analyze spatial or locative prepositions from a cognitive-semantic point of view and they propose different typologies of spatial prepositions. A typology of locative prepositions to be used in the current study was adapted from Zwarts and Winter (2000).

Table 2.5: Typology of Spatial/Locative Prepositions (Zwarts & Winter, 2000:172)		
Locative Prepositions		Directional Prepositions
Projective Prepositions	Non-projective Prepositions	
Above/over, below/under, In front of Behind Beside	In/inside/outside On At Near Between	From To Into Onto Across Through Around

Traditionally, locative prepositions are analyzed under two subcategories: i) projective locative prepositions, ii) non-projective locative prepositions. While ‘above, over, below, under, in front, behind, beside’ belong to the group of projective prepositions, ‘in’, ‘on’, ‘at’, ‘inside’, ‘outside’, ‘near’, ‘between’ are in the group of non-projective prepositions (Zwarts and White, 2000). Non-projective prepositions require only spatial knowledge on the location of two objects as the followings exemplify:

23) The book is on the bed

24) The book is under the bed

In the example (23) above, ‘on’ requires only spatial knowledge on the location of the two objects. In the example (24), however, some further information is needed about the direction from the reference object.

Some relations between spatial prepositions are illustrated below with figure taken from Bree and Pratt-Hartman (2002).

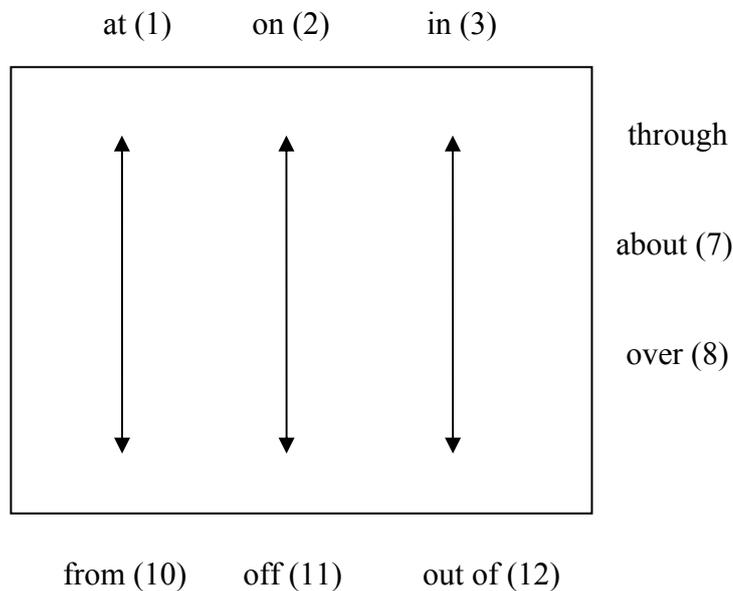


Figure 2.2: Some relations between prepositions (Bree and Pratt-Hartman, 2002: 81).

'In', 'on', 'at' are the basic and the most general place prepositions (Bree and Pratt-Hartman, 2002). The authors claim that *'at'* is considered as the most neutral place preposition. The preposition *'at'* considers or regards place as a point of orientation (e.g., at the station). In the example *'at the station'*, station is the orientation of point of a trajector, however, where the trajector is –near, inside, or on the top of the station area is not specified. *'At'* extends from an orientation-point in space to one in time, and further into state, area, manner, circumstance, and cause as illustrated below:

- a) point as place : at the station
- b) time-point: at six o'clock
- c) state: at work
- d) area: good at guessing

'*On*' denotes physical contact between trajector and landmark. '*On*' requires to view landmark either as one-dimensional (line) or two-dimensional (surface or volume). When compared with '*in*' it is seen that '*on*' is constructed as a surface and '*in*' takes a ground construed as a container. '*On*' has a number of senses illustrated below:

- a) contact with line/surface: on the floor
- b) period of time: on Sunday
- c) topic or area: lecture on history
- d) manner/ means: dine on snails
- e) circumstance: on arrival

"*In*" refers to the enclosure of the trajector in the landmark and thus view the landmark as two or three dimensional space (Bree and Pratt-Hartman, 2002). Senses of '*in*' are illustrated below:

- a) Enclosure: in the room
- b) Defined space: Her pictures appeared in a magazine
- c) Period of time: in 1897, in January

2.3.1. Syntactic Features of Locative Prepositions

Locative prepositions have various functions. They function as **(1)** head of a noun phrase, **(2)** a predicative complement in a sentence, **(3)** the complement of a quantified expression, **(4)** an adverbial adjunct, and **(5)** an adverbial complement. The syntactic structure of locative expressions is provided by Hörberg (2006).

1. [NP [NP the bag] [PP on the table]]
2. [S [NP The bag] is [PP on the table]]]
3. [S There are [NP some bags] [PP on the table]]
4. [S [NP The bag] is at home [PP on the table]]
5. [S [NP She put [NP the bag] [PP on the table]]

2.3.2. Semantic Analysis of Locative Prepositions

Though a considerable part of the physical space is reported to be universal by researchers, cross-linguistic variety is indispensable (Boers and Demerceleer, 1998). Hence, difficulties are experienced as what one perceives is culture dependent. The difficulties encountered by foreign speakers can be accounted in two ways (Cooper, 1968). First, the locative marker may be different from one language community to another language community. Secondly, in Cooper's (1968) words the minimal combination of markers, which differentiates one preposition from another, have different markers in another language. One example provided by the author is the difference between 'in' and 'at' in English and Spanish. While English has a clear difference between 'in' and 'at', Spanish combines both concepts. Another significant example is related to difference between 'on' and 'above'. English represent this in two distinct events whereas Spanish makes use of a single concept to express these two events.

25) The lamp is on the table

26) The table is above the table

La lampara sobre la mesa

Cooper (1968) suggests that much of the difficulty pertaining to prepositions is semantic rather than being syntactic. However, for native speakers of Turkish, both syntactic and semantic analyses should be done to reach a concluding remark.

The indications of the relationship in space between two structures are provided by X and Y (e.g., X surface Y). A basic semantic analysis of locative prepositions is provided in Coopers work entitled "*A semantic analysis of English locative prepositions*". Semantic explanations are provided with examples below (Cooper, 1968: 23-26).

X in Y

[X is smaller than Y] \implies X is located internal to Y

a) SR: [smaller (X, Y)]

b) [(X,1 (Y)]

The elephant in the zoo

Oranges in the wall

The crack in the wall

A bee in my bonnet

The scissors in the drawer

X on Y

SR: [Y supports X] \implies a surface of X is contiguous with a surface of Y

a) SR [supports (X, Y)]

b) C [Sur (x), Sur (Y)]

The car on the street

The paint on the wall

The duster on the board

The blood on his hands

The fly on the window

X at Y

a) [X is portable relative to Y]

b) [X is located according to Y is a geopolitical area]

b) [X (static) is in a definite point of Y (limited space)]

at= near or in

The cab at the corner

The train stops at Manchester

The shampoos at the supermarket

At 74 Saint Mark Road

2.4. Temporal Prepositions

In addition to space prepositions discussed above, temporal prepositions have a prominent role in communicating the meaning to the listener. However, researchers investigating the order of acquisition in language learning claim that space

prepositions are acquired earlier than time prepositions (Leikin, 2002). Support for this claim comes from language development in children. The spatial meanings of prepositions are typically acquired before the temporal meanings, which is consistent with the notion that these two kinds of semantic structures are asymmetrically related, with the former possibly providing a conceptual foundation for the latter (Kemmerer, 2005). That is, temporal prepositions are built on the semantic structures of spatial prepositions.

We are biologically determined to detect motions and objects for locations and time is expected to be built on space (Radden, 2003). In the same way, Radden (2003) maintains that in English, some of the dimensional prepositions used to characterize the shape of the landmark are also used to express notions of time. In other words, English employs the place prepositions ‘*in, on, at*’ to express the notion of time.

As is well known, English spatial and temporal prepositions make a three-way distinction: zero-dimensional ‘*at*’ is used for moments of time as in “*at this moment*”, two-dimensional ‘*on*’ is used to describe periods of time, in particular days as in “*on my birthday*”, and three-dimensional ‘*in*’ and ‘*within*’ are used to refer to periods of time other than days, both shorter than days as in “*in a second*” and longer than days as “*in a week*” (Radden, 2003). Table 2.6 below illustrates dimensional prepositions of time in English.

Table 2.6: Temporal Preposition in English (Radden, 2003)		
Time notions	Dimension preposition	
point	0	<i>at</i> (this moment)
duration	-	<i>for</i> (a week)
period: days	2	<i>on</i> (this day)
other units	3	<i>in</i> (a week)

Radden (2003:3) maintains that “Dimensions of space cannot straightforwardly be transferred onto the domain of time and that cross-linguistic variability seems to be the rule rather than the exception.”

A distinction made among prepositions of time is classification in terms of the length of time proposed by Lindstromberg (1998). This classification is in accordance with the traditional method employed in language teaching classes. If the unit of the time is very small, it is considered as a point of time and thus ‘*at*’ is used in that context (e.g., at this moment, at 1 o’clock). ‘*On*’ is adopted to indicate time when there is a middle-sized unit of time such as ‘on Monday, on weekend’. For longer periods of time ‘*in*’ is employed as in “in August, in 2009, in summer, in 21st century”.

2.5. Postpositions and Cases in Turkish

In addition to postpositions acting as counterparts of English prepositions, cases are employed to indicate time and space in Turkish. In the following section, initially postpositions and their functions will be explained. Additionally, the cases which refer to inflections on nouns to show location and time are presented.

2.5.1. Turkish Postpositions

The corresponding structures of English prepositions in Turkish are case suffixes in the form of postpositions. The features of Turkish postpositions have been approached differently by various researchers (Goksel and Kerslake, 2005; Lewis, 2000; Kornfilt, 2000; Swift, 1997). Postpositions differ from prepositions in the way that prepositions are head complement and they follow verb, adjective, or nouns while postpositions have different forms such as the addition of possessive marker to nouns, case markers, and noun complements. According to Lewis (2000), there are two main types of postpositions: (i) primary postpositions, (ii) secondary postpositions. Primary postpositions are formed with absolute, genitive, dative, and ablative cases. Secondary postpositions are constructed with nouns in dative, locative or ablative case as reported by Lewis (2000). While “gibi, için, ile, karşı, doğru, önce, sonra, içeri, beri, orta, ön, arka, alt, etc.” are categorized as primary postpositions, “boyunca, yerine, uğruna, sayesinde” are listed as secondary postpositions.

Goksel and Kerslake (2005:214) maintain that Turkish postpositions fall into two main categories: (i) bare postpositions and (ii) possessive-marked postpositions. Bare postpositions, are the ones that carry no suffixes. Possessive-marked postpositions, on the other hand, are analyzed according to what case marking they require on their complements when overly expressed. Possessive-marked prepositions, which are marked by a possessive suffix agreeing with the complement and an oblique (i.e., dative, locative or ablative) case marker, are shown in the following form **noun + POSS + OBL**. The focus of the present study will be on possessive-marked postpositions that include spatial postpositions.

The structure of Turkish postpositional phrase consists of a noun phrase followed by a postposition. The postposition is the head and the noun phrase is the complement of the phrase. Some examples showing postpositions/ postpositional phrases fulfilling the role of English prepositions *in*, *on*, and *at* are given below:

- 27) çanta-mın iç-in-de
 bag-GEN inside- POSS- LOC
 “in the bag”
- 28) masa-n-ın üst-ü(n)-de
 table-GEN above/surface- POSS- LOC
 “on the table”
- 29) Durak-ta bekle-di-m
 stop- LOC wait- PAST- 1SG
 “at the stop”

The examples above, as stated by the authors, show bare postpositions as in (27) and (28) and possessive marked postpositions as in (29). It can be inferred that Turkish postpositions can be categorized according to their syntactic relation to their complements.

2.5.2. Turkish Case Suffixes

Case marker in Turkish is a form of affix attached to a word in order to illustrate its relationship with other words in a sentence. There are six cases in Turkish and they reflect various functions such as location, time, etc: a) Nominative (i.e., the bare form of a noun), b) Accusative, c) Dative, d) Locative, e) Genitive, and f) Ablative. A summary of Turkish cases and suffixes and examples are provided in the Table 2.7.

Case	Suffix	Examples
nominative	bare	okul (school)
accusative	-(y)I	okulu (the school)
dative	-(y)E	okula (to the school)
locative	-DE	okulda (at the school)
genitive	(n)IN	okulun (of the school)
ablative	-DEn	okuldan (from the school)

Turkish employs the above mentioned case suffixes where English either does not have their equivalents or employs different structures to fill their roles. To gain deeper insights into Turkish case markers and their counterpart English prepositions, a comparative table is given below (see Table 2.8).

Case	Suffix	English Prepositions
nominative	-	-
accusative	-(y)I, i, u, ü	-
dative	-(y)e, -(y)a	to, into, onto, at, on
locative	-de, -da	at, on, in
genitive	(n)in, (n)in, (n)un, (n)ün	of, to
ablative	-den, -dan	from, off, of, out of

As can be seen above nominative and accusative case markers have no corresponding prepositions in English, however, the accusative case is reflected in English with the definite article “*the*”. Example (30) illustrates the use of accusative case in Turkish and its counterpart English definite article.

- 30) Kapı-(y)ı boya-dı
door-ACC paint-PAST-3PS
He painted **the** door

As for other cases in Turkish, English uses more than one preposition as seen in the Table 2.8 above. For instance, for the locative case markers ‘-de’ and ‘-da’ in Turkish, three prepositions ‘*in, on, at*’ are used in English. Using sources such as Atabay et al. (1983), Gedikoğlu (1987), and Göksel and Kerslake (2005) each of the cases in Turkish is presented and discussed below.

2.5.2.1. Nominative Case

When a noun takes no case-ending and it is used directly, it functions as the nominative case.

Göksel and Kerslake (2005:154) provide the contexts of nominative case as follows:

- i) *The subject of one of the following types of clause: a) a main clause, b) a finite subordinate clause, c) an adverbial clause, d) a conditional clause,*

- 31) Bunu belki **siz** bilebilirsiniz.

‘Perhaps *you* may know this.’

- 32) [**Herkes** görsün diye] kartı masanın üstünde bırakıyorum.

‘I’m leaving the card on the table [so that *everyone* will see it].’

- 33) [**Ahmet** gelince] ona sorabiliriz.

‘[When *Ahmet* comes] we can ask him.’

- 34) [**Ahmet** gelirse] ona sorabiliriz.

‘[If *Ahmet* comes] we can ask him.’

ii) *A subject complement:*

(a) in nominal sentences:

35) Hakan'ın karısı **mimarmış**.

'Apparently Hakan's wife is *an architect*.'

iii) *A non-definite (i.e. indefinite or categorical) direct object:*

36) Bu konuda **kitap(lar)** okumuş.

'It seems he has read *books* on this subject.'

iv) *The complement of certain postpositions:*

(a) The bare postpositions *gibi* 'like', *için* 'for', *ile/-(y)la* 'with', *kadar* 'as ... as'

37) O adam **para için** her şeyi yapar.

'That man would do anything *for money*.'

v) *Possessive-marked postpositions denoting spatial relations, such as iç-in-de* 'in(side)',
alt-in-da 'under', *arka-sın-da* 'behind'.

38) My hands were *covered in mud*.'

vi) *Other possessive-marked postpositions, such as boyunca* 'all along',

'throughout', *yüzünden* 'on account of':

39) **Yol boyunca** konuştu.

'He talked *all the way*.'

vii) *An adverbial, especially of time or distance:*

40) **O gün** siz yoktunuz.

'You were not there *that day*.'

2.5.2.2. Accusative Case

When a noun or a direct object is definite, then the accusative case is employed. English marks definite noun with article ‘*the*’ while Turkish uses an accusative case marker. The function of accusative case marker is to indicate the direct object of a transitive verb (Göksel and Kerslake, 2005:156). The rules of accusative case marker are given by Göksel and Kerslake (2005:157):

i) The use of the accusative suffix is obligatory where the direct object is ***definite***:

41) **Bütün arkadaşlarımızı** çağırırım.

“Let’s invite our friends.”

ii) Non-definite noun is not marked with an accusative suffix:

42) **Bir çok** şeyi şu raflara koyabiliriz.

iii) Accusative case is also employed when an indefinite direct object appears in one of the following circumstances:

iii_a) If the direct object is marked with a possessive suffix:

43) **Bir arkadaş-ım-ı** getireceğim.

a friend-1SG.POSS-ACC

‘I’m going to bring *a friend of mine*.’

iii_b) If the direct object is an indefinite or plural **generic**

iii_c) If the direct object refers to a member or members of a previously mentioned or implied group:

44) Salon kalabalıktı. **Kapıya yakın duran bir adamı** tanıdım.

‘The room was crowded. I recognized *a man standing near the door.*’

2.5.2.3. Dative Case

Turkish dative case suffix $-(y)E$ is the equivalent of the English “to” and “for”. The functions of a noun/NP carrying the dative suffix are various:

i) An adverbial indicating the following features (Göksel and Kerslake, 2005):

i_a) The recipient of an action

45) **Aysel’e** anahtarını verdim.

I gave Aysel the key.

i_b) The target of an action

46) Beni **Paris’e** gönderdiler

They sent me to Paris.

i_c) The price at which something is sold

47) Bu bisikleti **iki yüz milyon-a** aldım.

I bought this bicycle for 200 million.

i_d) Purpose

48) Seni **görmey-e** geldim.

I have come to see you.

ii) the oblique object of many verbs of emotion such as sevin- (be pleased about), üzül- (be sorry for).

49) **Ayşe’nin geleceğ-in-e** sevindik.

We are glad Ayşe’s coming.

iii) The complement of

iii_a) Certain bare postpositions

50) **Saat ikiye** kadar çalıştık.

We worked *until two o'clock*.

iii_b) Certain adjectives

51) Okula yakın bir ev arıyorlar.

They are looking for a house *near school*.

5.2.4. Locative Case

The locative case is used to indicate physical or abstract location. It is shown with – DE locative case suffix. Its counterparts in English are the prepositions ‘in’, ‘on’, ‘at’. Functions of locative case are the following:

i) *A time*

52) **Saat 9'da** geldi.

He came **at 9** o'clock.

ii) *Place adverbial*

53) **Türkiye'de** insanlar misafir perverdir.

In Turkey people are hospitable.

iii) *The location constituent of an existential sentence*

54) **Köyde** elektrik var mıydı?

Was there electricity **in the village**?

2.5.2.5. Genitive Case

The suffix –(n)IN is employed in Turkish to denote the possessor. The functions of the genitive case in Turkish are as follows:

i) *A modifier in a genitive construction*

55) **Ayşe'nin saçı** çok güzel görünüyor.

Ayşe's hair looks very beautiful.

ii) A subject complement in a nominal phrase

56) Bu kitap **benim** değil, **kardeşimin**.

This book is not **mine**, my **sister's**.

iii) In relative clauses whose verb is suffixed with –DIK or -(Y)AcAK

57) **Ablamın söylediği** şeyler önemli.

What my sister said is important.

2.5.2.6. Ablative Case

The ablative case marker in Turkish is –DEN. Its counterpart in English is often ‘from’. The functions of the ablative case are the following:

i) An adverbial associated with concepts like departure, source or cause

58) **Eviden** sessizce ayrıldı.

S/he left the house quietly.

ii) The oblique object of certain verbs of emotion

59) O **adamdan** nefret ediyorum.

I hate **that man**.

iii) The complement of certain bare postpositions such as ‘before’, ‘after’

60) **Okuldan sonra** seni bekliyeceğim.

I am going to wait for you **after school**.

iv) A modifier expressing the material something is made of

61) **Som altından** bir arabası var.

S/he has car **of solid gold**.

v) A subject complement with partitive meaning

62) Gulsin Onay bu **ülkenin en iyi müzisyenlerinden** biridir.

Gulsin Onay is **one of the best musicians in this country**.

vi) *In expressing comparison between two things*

63) Ahmet'in gömleği **benim gömleğimden** daha güzel.

Ahmet's shirt is **more beautiful than my shirt**.

2.5.3. Space and Time in Turkish

The focus of the current study will be on **time** and **place** postpositions, thus; further explanations related to those will be provided. Temporal location refers to the time at which an event occurs (Göksel and Kerslake, 2005). Turkish language generally expresses temporal location with the locative case marking. Göksel and Kerslake (2005: 196-199) provide postpositions pertaining to “clock time, days of the week, dates, and seasons of the year”.

Table 2.9: Postpositions of Time (Göksel and Kerslake, 2005: 196-199)

Clock Time	saat on buçuk ta saat ikiyi beş ge çe saat yirmi otuz da saat on buçuk ta	'at half past ten' 'at five past two' 'at twenty thirty' 'at half past ten'
Days of the Week	Çarsamba gün- ü geliyorum. Pazar gün- ü görüşeceğiz.	'I am coming on Wednesday.' 'We will see each other on Sunday.'

Dates	<p>1995'te</p> <p>Şubat-ta/ Şubat ay-ın-da</p> <p>1984'ün Kasım-ın-da</p> <p>1984'ün 8 Kasım-ın-da</p> <p>Eylül'ün başında</p> <p>Nisan'ın ortasında</p> <p>Ekim'in sonunda</p> <p>Ay başında/sonunda</p> <p>Ayın ortasında</p> <p>Ayın birinde</p> <p>Bin sekiz yüz otuzlarda</p> <p>Bin sekiz yüz otuzlu yıllarda</p>	<p>'in 1995'</p> <p>'in February'</p> <p>'in November 1984'</p> <p>'on the 8th of November'</p> <p>'at the beginning of September'</p> <p>'in the middle of April'</p> <p>'at the end of October'</p> <p>'at the beginning/end of the month'</p> <p>'in the middle of the month'</p> <p>'on the first (day) of the month'</p> <p>'in the 1830s'</p> <p>'in the 1830s'</p>
Seasons of the Year	<p>kış-ın</p> <p>sonbahar-da</p>	<p>'in winter'</p> <p>'in autumn'</p>

As for location, which is indicated by *in*, *on*, *at*, locative case marking (*-da*) follows noun phrase. Examples below show the use of '*in*' with the locative case marker (*-da*) in Turkish.

64) Selim'in **Berlin-de** kızkardeşi varmış.

Berlin-LOC

'Apparently Selim has a sister *in* Berlin.'

65) **Okulda** buluşalım

School-LOC

Let's meet at school.

2.6. Studies Related to Prepositions in Various Languages

Because of the unique features of the English prepositions discussed above a relatively high number of studies examining their syntactic and semantic features and the problems related to their use have been conducted so far (e.g., Bree & Pratt-Hartmann, 2002; Cooper, 1968; Hoffmann, 2005; Kemmerer, 2005; Lebas, 2002; Luraghi, 2003; Pratt-Hartmann & Frances, 2001; Visetti & Cadiot 2002). Not that many studies unfortunately focused on the similarities and differences between English prepositions and their counterparts in various other languages and on how differences between/among the languages influence the acquisition process of the English prepositions. Since this study aims to contribute to this slightly neglected area in the field, in this section only studies dealing with the latter topic will be reviewed.

2.6.1. Native Speakers of Turkish Learning English Prepositions

As far as the author is aware there are only two studies that have examined the acquisition of English prepositions by native speakers of Turkish. The first of these studies was conducted by Evin (1993) who examined the use of local or spatial prepositions by 120 freshman students at the University of Gaziantep. In her study the author focused on the avoidance behavior in using local prepositions by Turkish learners and whether or not many-to-one correspondence causes avoidance behavior. The data collection method employed in the study was different types of exercises such as fill-in-the-blank, translation, open-ended description of a picture. An important conclusion reached in the study was that freshman students avoid using local prepositions. From the comparison of picture description by native speakers of English and Turkish learners of English, it is illustrated that 6 prepositions are used by Turkish learners while 16 prepositions are employed by native speakers of English. It is reported in the study that ‘on, in, near’ are the most common prepositions used by all subjects of the study. While native speakers of English make use of different prepositions, Turkish learners of English employ the same prepositions repetitively. The underlying assumption of this avoidance behavior is

not to take risks. The author also claims that different systems of Turkish postpositions and case suffixes and English prepositions result in negative effect in language acquisition process. The author further asserts that the findings support the claim made in CA: similarities between native and target language facilitate learning process while differences between two inhibit learning process.

Another more recent study analyzing the acquisition of English prepositions by Turkish learners was conducted by Aak (2001). In a paper pertaining to her thesis (Aak and Elyıldırım, 2001), the author presents the findings of her thesis which is carried at İnönü University and Atatürk University. The study seeks to answer if there are any difficulties as regards sense relations which Turkish learners face in the acquisition process of prepositions. The influence of L1 is also investigated. The study has been carried out with 79 Turkish learners of English. 42 of the informants are first year students of Malatya High School and 37 of them major at English Teacher Training. Three types of tests are given to the subjects of the study: a) cloze test, b) grammaticality judgment task, c) translation test. The findings of the study suggest that prepositions cause difficulty for Turkish learners of English. The participants of the study tend to overgeneralize the incorrect meanings due to incomplete knowledge of prepositions. Another crucial finding is that language transfer has an impact on the acquisition of prepositions in English. The study also indicates that basic sense of prepositions is acquired earlier than derived sense of prepositions.

A quite early study was carried out by Gedikođlu (1987).in which he analysed the use of English prepositions by speakers of Turkish. To determine whether Turkish case suffixes and postpositions interfere with English prepositions, the author conducted an experiment with Turkish and Spanish speakers in the USA. Both Turkish and Spanish subjects of the study were asked to fill in the blanks with appropriate English prepositions, and translate the Turkish of Spanish sentences into English. An hour was allocated for the informants of the study. Turkish students were also asked to describe pictures. The results of the study revealed that speakers of both languages experience the same difficulty in using local and grammatical

prepositions due to the complicated nature of English prepositions. Further, the findings of the study suggested that the system of Turkish case suffixes and postpositions interferes with the acquisition of English prepositions by Turkish EFL students. That is why the speakers of Turkish had produced some errors in using English prepositions and they in turn avoided using them. Gedikoğlu (1987) also proposed that instructors should put much effort in teaching English prepositions and teach them with suitable techniques and procedures. The author additionally suggested that both semantic and syntactic features of prepositions should be paid attention and be explained in the classroom.

2.6.2. Native Speakers of Other World Languages Learning English Prepositions

One prominent study in identifying problems in using prepositions and their underlying reasons was conducted with native speakers of Swedish learning English by Blom (2006). The primary assumption of the study was that prepositions are problematic for learners of English and these problems are attributed to native language interference. The study sought to answer if students perform better when they are given options to choose from or when they have to produce prepositions themselves. Another objective of the study was to uncover whether there are differences between the perceptive and productive types of knowledge of native speakers of Swedish learning English prepositions. In the study, the participants were given two questionnaires. In the first questionnaire the participants were asked to fill in the missing preposition while in the second one they were given multiple choice items and asked to identify the correct option. The analysis indicated that nine of the English prepositions (i.e., *to*, *in*, *at*, *for*, *about*, *on*, *by*, and *with*) were more problematic for the native speakers of Swedish than other prepositions. The author asserts that prepositions cause problems on the part of the learners in that the participants think that there is one-to-one relationship between English and Swedish even though there is not such a correspondence between the two languages. Blom (2006) distinguishes between *transfer* and *interference* from L1. If the learners have not been informed about the target language rule, they use their corresponding L1

forms. This incompetence of target forms is named transfer (Blom, 2006). When the learners are aware of the target language forms but fail to use them appropriately and rely on their knowledge of L1, then this is referred to as interference. The findings of Blom's (2006) study suggest that prepositions should be taught by using corpora which will enable the learners with a number of well-established examples of prepositions.

A similar study with native speakers of Swedish was carried out by Jansson (2006). This study also investigated the use of English prepositions by Swedish learners of English. The purpose of the study was to find out the problems of Swedish speakers in the area of prepositions. The data collection method of this study was different from that of Blom (2006) as it concentrated on 19 compositions written by the subjects of the study who were senior high school students. On the identification of 678 prepositions in these compositions, errors were classified as substitution, addition and omission. The analysis of the errors was conducted under three categories: i) basic prepositions (standing *on* the table), ii) systematic prepositions (come *on* Friday), and iii) idiomatic prepositions (comment *on* a speech). The lengths of the compositions varied from 200 to 2000 words and they were gathered from instructors teaching at different schools. It was made sure that the participants of the study produced language naturally instead of relying on secondary sources like books, worksheets, dictionaries, etc. The learners were asked to write stories about what they do at school. However, some of the compositions were found to be irrelevant and not natural in that the learners produce their compositions by relying on a secondary source. The errors were counted and analyzed by focusing on each category. The findings were primarily qualitative rather than quantitative because Jansson (2006) aimed to reveal error types instead of focusing on the frequency of errors. The findings suggested that basic prepositions cause little or no problems for the native speakers of Swedish while systematic prepositions, that is, those which are rule-governed and or whose usages are generalizable to other contexts proved to be quite problematic. Idiomatic prepositions were reported to be learned in chunks and they were either used incorrectly or avoided by the subjects of the study. The primary reason for the mistakes done by the students, according to Jansson (2006),

was interference from Swedish. Intralingual errors were also considered as another cause of errors observed in their compositions. In other words, some of their errors are assumed to be the result of the developmental process of second language acquisition process. Participants of the study are reported to go through the language acquisition continuum and to reformulate hypotheses till they reach the mastery of target language.

A study concerning the use of prepositions in English by native speakers of Arabic was conducted by Abdulkarim (2008). The aim of the study was to uncover the problems that teachers face while teaching English space prepositions to native speakers of Arabic, whose language is totally distinct from the target language. The author reports that while English has 30 space prepositions, Arabic has only 7 prepositions to show space. The author initially analyzes textbooks for Arab students for the purpose of investigating linguistic, psychological, and psycholinguistic explanations pertaining to the causes of learners' errors. Next, the author provides a detailed semantic analysis of English and Arabic prepositions and the conclusion is that English and Arabic prepositions are quite different from each other. Having a Semitic origin accompanied with Hebrew and Aramic, Arabic utilizes accusative case in addition to the rare usage of dative case when prepositions are used with verbs. The inflection of the verb determines the presence of preposition in the sentence. Abdulkarim (2008:82) defines prepositions in Arabic as "words (i.e., nouns, verbs, letters) indicating meaning in another word". Prepositions in Arabic are divided into four main categories by the author: a) mono-syllabic prepositions (e.g., *batkaftham*), b) bilateral prepositions (e.g., *mintalatantfi*), c) trilateral prepositions (e.g., *elatalatminzu*), and d) quadrilateral (*Hata+ Hasha*). A challenging feature of Arabic prepositions is that they can substitute each other in many cases. The author maintains that the learners face challenges due to the differences between the native and target languages. The last section of the thesis concerns teaching English prepositions using Communicative Approach in order to go beyond the system of Arabic prepositions which are different from English prepositions. The author claims that textbooks in Syria are written by local Syrian teachers and they do not conform to the standards of authentic teaching materials since they reflect the

society's social and cultural codes. Abdulkarim (2008) reports that nowadays the textbooks printed in England have started to be employed in various schools and universities in Syria and therefore, a shift in the method of teaching is observed. The author argues that the communicative language teaching should be employed to teach English prepositions to native speakers of Syrian Arabic and that English prepositions should be taught on the situational basis because a wrong use of a preposition may lead to a breakdown in communication.

In the thesis conducted at University of Oulu, Reynolds (2005) aimed to identify the most common errors related to English prepositions in the speech of first generation Finnish immigrants. The author tried to answer two main questions in her study. First, are there any common fossilized errors in the speech of the examined Finnish group?, Second, are there any common problems that might be attributed to the learners of English whose mother tongue is Finnish or are the errors related to the use of prepositions specific to each speaker?. The data used in the study consisted of 21 interviews with the participant. Reynolds (2005) transcribed each of the interviews and identified the errors/mistakes made by the participants. Following this, errors were counted and grouped according to the prepositions used instead of the correct one and/or omitted by each individual. This method provided the quantitative analysis of the data and how many times different prepositions were used in erroneous constructions. The results of the study suggested that there were little regularities among the group members. What is more, there were discrepancies within the preposition usages of the individual participants. Based on these findings the author argued that prepositions were unfamiliar features of the target language for the Finnish speakers of English, therefore, they caused problems for the learners. As a result the participants were reported to avoid these unfamiliar structures or simplify them. The author also asserted that error analysis could provide valuable information related to the interlanguage of the immigrants, however, for the all-inclusive picture of the interlanguage both correct and erroneous forms of prepositions should be examined.

In a study exploring factors influencing the use of dimensional prepositions in German and American English, Grabowski and Miller (2005) focused on two locative prepositions ‘in front of’ and ‘behind’ in English and ‘vor’ and ‘hinter’ in German respectively. Researchers conducted a series of 16 experiments to find out whether or not factors such as i) object orientation, ii) social context, and iii) prepositional pattern affect the use of the studied prepositions. Subjects of the study were 369 students at the Universities of Mannheim and Kaiserslautern and 207 students at Princeton University. The subjects are not told about the aim of the study but they are informed about participating in traffic-related experiment. In the experimental setting, participants are given two different tasks. In the recognition task, participants are asked to locate objects immediately after they hear oral instruction. The informants of the study are provided with oral instructions to locate an object such as a car behind/in front of another object. The production task serves to determine which preposition speakers use to describe spatial relations. The experiments indicate that the basic mental concept of space and its relations, and also the concept of time show systematic differences. Grabowski and Miller (2005) claim that the interpretation of spatial prepositions is not only based on the fact that German and English are two different languages but also shows that there exist systematic differences in the prepositional patterns for spatial and temporal dimensions. The findings also suggest that differences may be observed in the use of prepositions in natural interaction settings in that communication is flexible in applying grammatical rules.

2.6.3. Other Studies on the Acquisition of Prepositions

A recent study was conducted by Hawthorne (2008) with L1 English learners learning German as a second language. This study is prominent since it illustrates how English learners acquire prepositions in another language (i.e., German) in contrast to how other learners of languages acquire/learn English prepositions. Hawthorne (2008) claims that native speakers of English learning German as a second language face difficulties in acquiring locational and directional prepositional constructions such as “Das Buch liegt auf dem Tisch” for which

English equivalent is “The book is on the table”. Similarly, the directional structure is different from that of English such as “Er legte das Buch auf den Tisch” for which the English equivalent is “He put the book on the table”. The author asserts that the underlying motivation for the challenge encountered is lexical difference in the way spatial preposition and directions are represented. While English reflects space and direction with prepositions, German employs case marking. The study accordingly tests the knowledge prepositions and case-markers by 30 subjects of native speakers of English learning German as a second language. The subjects are chosen from three different proficiency levels: a) lower intermediate, b) intermediate, c) advanced. Data have been collected in two tasks: a) elicitation task, b) quasi-production task. The first task named as The Petra Test is a multiple choice elicitation task in the form of short story. In the second task, the informants of the study are asked to form sentences from 8 word class randomly presented to them. The results of the study suggest that lexical properties emerge before functional properties and thus location prepositions are acquired earlier than directional prepositions. The findings of the study also support the claim that the relationship between the properties of lexical and functional categories is relevant and crucial for the acquisition of PP in German by English learners. The results also suggest that L2 learners have access to UG in the acquisition process and hence L1 is influential in the acquisition process of L2. This study sheds light on both varieties across languages and how it influences learning process of L2 acquisition.

In the study conducted by Aroui and Rahmouni (2008), French topological prepositions “(dans) in”, “(sur) on”, “(a) at” and their equivalents in German “in”, “auf”, “on” with a view to their use in second language acquisition systems have been inquired. Both languages have a concept of lexical use but with a different lexical use. The authors state that mistakes are frequent in the language of learners because one preposition in French does not correspond necessarily to the same meaning of a preposition in German. The authors further argue that expressions involving spatial prepositions in French and German convey to a hearer where one object is located in relation to another object. For example, in sentence “The water is in the glass’, the water is understood to be located with reference to the glass. Two

languages, however, may not make use of the same prepositions to locate an object with reference to another object as is the case with German and French. The following examples show differences between these languages in the study carried out by Aroui and Rahmanoui (2008).

66) La voiture est *dans* la rue = Das Auto ist **in/auf* der Stasse

The car is *on* the street

67) Les nuages sont *dans* le ciel = Die Wolken sind **im/am* Himmel

The clouds are *in* the sky

68) L'image est *sur* le mur = Das Bild ist **auf/an* der Wand

The picture is *on* the wall

69) L'homme est *a* l'ombre = Der Mann ist **am/im* Schatten

The man is *in* the shade

The examples above demonstrate that in the same spatial situations not always equivalent prepositions are used and the description of the same spatial situation can be lexicalized differently in French and German. Thus, the word by word direct translation of the French expressions in the examples above (66, 67, 68, 69) results in incorrect use of German prepositions. In (66) 'in' is used instead of 'auf', in (67) 'in' instead of 'an', in (68) 'auf' instead of 'an', and in (69) 'an' instead of 'in'. The authors conclude that two kinds of knowledge are required for the interpretation of topological prepositions: i) the spatial knowledge and ii) the object knowledge. Differences are attributed to the fact that German and French do not structure the space in the same way.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD OF RESEARCH

3.0. Presentation

This chapter, first, presents the research questions to be answered in this study and then, portrays the setting where the study has taken place. Next, the informants and the instruments employed in the collection and analysis of the data are introduced. Lastly, the pilot study and the data collection procedures are presented in detail.

3.1. Research Questions

The research questions that this study aims to answer are the following:

- 1) What are the properties of the English prepositions **in**, **on**, **at** and their corresponding Turkish postpositions?
- 2) Which differences between the prepositions **in**, **on** **at** and **their corresponding** postpositions constitute problems for the native speakers of Turkish who are learning English and have intermediate level of proficiency?
- 3) What are the errors/ mistakes related to the use of the prepositions **in**, **on**, **at** by intermediate level Turkish learners of English?
- 4) What are the possible reasons of the errors/ mistakes pertaining to **in**, **on**, **at** by native speakers of Turkish with intermediate level of proficiency in English?

3.2. The setting

The study was conducted with students from the English Language Preparatory program at TOBB Economy and Technology University (henceforth TOBB ETU).

TOBB ETU is an English medium university, therefore, all students accepted to the institution have to take an English language proficiency test (henceforth ELPT) and only if they are successful on this exam (i.e., get 60/100) they are allowed to start their academic studies. The writers of the ELPT claim that the test assesses all skills and types of knowledge equally. The exam has two stages: i) writing and speaking, ii) listening, grammar, and reading. In the writing section of the first stage the students are writing an essay on a given topic (e.g., *Compare and contrast education systems of two universities in Turkey*) and in the speaking session, the students are, first, asked to introduce themselves briefly and, then, to reflect on a topic provided by the jury (e.g., *You have moved to university accommodation houses in which you share a room with a roommate. After some time you realize that your roommate arrives home very late at night and wakes you up with noise. How would you solve this problem?*). The second stage of the ELPT aims to test learners' listening and reading comprehension in addition to the grammatical rules of the target language, i.e., English. In the listening section of this exam learners listen to short dialogues and longer texts to answer questions that aim to test comprehension of the target language. The reading section similarly assesses learners' comprehension of the target language. The reading section includes multiple choice questions that test vocabulary knowledge in the target language and comprehension of the target language. The grammar section, on the other hand, involves multiple choice questions aiming to assess the grammatical rules of the target language. If the students are not successful on the initial English proficiency test, they spend one year at the university's prep school. This full year of English instruction consists of 30 hours of teaching per week. The instruction process includes 10 hours of reading and writing classes, 5 hours of listening and speaking classes and 15 hours of main course classes in which an integrated approach to foreign language teaching is adopted. During the prep year the students are exposed to the target language with a great variety of authentic sources such as movies, story books, videos, music, and conversation classes with native interns coming from the US in addition to 30 hours of instruction.

At the end of the prep year, students have to take a proficiency exam named TOEFL Institutional Testing Program (henceforth TOEFL ITP) so as to proceed with their fields of study. The TOEFL ITP exam is composed of two sessions. In the first session of the TOEFL ITP exam, there are two sections: writing and speaking. In the writing section students are required to write a fully-fledged essay to show that they can express their ideas in English. In the speaking section, which consists of three sub-sections, students are asked to first, introduce themselves, then to describe a picture, and finally to discuss a topic (e.g., *educational system in the United States*). The second session of the TOEFL ITP test consists of listening, grammar and reading sections. The listening section includes short dialogues, and long lectures. The grammar section tests primarily error recognition while the reading section focuses on comprehension and vocabulary knowledge. As can be seen from the description of the exam, the exam aims at assessing both receptive and productive skills (For a sample of the TOEFL ITP test and its sections see Appendix C).

3.3. Participants

Participants in this study were 20 (11 male and 9 female) native speakers of Turkish. All of them were prep-school students at TOBB ETU in Ankara and they were learning English as a foreign language. The data related to the participants in the study were collected in two stages:

3.3.1. Background questionnaire

In the very beginning of the study, all subjects were asked to fill in a background questionnaire including questions related to participants' age, gender, hometown, parents' level of education, the high schools they graduated from and their experience in learning English and other languages (See appendix A).

The background questionnaire administered to students showed that their age range was 18-21 and all of them started learning English in primary or secondary school. However, 15 of the 20 students stated that the English training they received was poor and they listed the following reasons:

- a) We received training from teachers who graduated not from ELT but from departments such as biology, chemistry and physics
- b) The medium of instruction in our English classes was Turkish in the majority of the lectures
- c) The focus of the English classes was primarily on grammar and the list of vocabulary items to be memorized
- d) There was too much emphasis on the exams (i.e., various high school exams, ÖSS) to be taken at the end of the year and little importance was attached to the English classes.

3.3.2. Results of the English Language Proficiency Tests

Their level of proficiency of the participants at the beginning of the Spring 2009 term was identified as **intermediate** by the initial screening English test used at TOBB Economy and Technology University. That meant that the students will be attending the prep school for a full academic year and they will be allowed to begin their academic studies in their departments only if they pass the TOEFL ITP exam (i.e., the standardized institutional test used by TOBB University described in the previous section). There are two main reasons why intermediate level students were chosen to participate in the current study. First, the interlanguage development of the students with intermediate level can be best analyzed systematically (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005; Richards, 1974). Second, errors/ mistakes can also be observed clearly at this level of proficiency (Corder, 1974). The learners tend to make mistakes in the process of hypothesizing the rules of the target language.

Participants of the study are classified according to their departments they will attend at the end of one year English instruction because this classification helps us to understand the motivation of students in learning English and how much importance they attach to the target language. While some students are very motivated to learn English due to their fields of study, others are not as motivated as

the first group because of their needs. Another classification is based on the years spent for learning English. Whereas most participants of the study start to learn English in primary school, others have not learned English until high school or university.

3.4. The Pilot Study

A pilot study for the current research was conducted at the beginning of March, 2009. The subjects were recorded over a week in order to identify the incorrect uses of prepositions in their utterances and to try to determine any problems related to the set up of the study. During the pilot video recordings, the subjects of the study were involved in group-work and whole-class interactions. The oral data were analyzed to determine errors pertaining to prepositions by the subjects. The data derived from the recordings revealed that the informants of the study did not use prepositions (*in, on, at*) correctly.

Through this pilot study, the researcher faced a number of methodological issues that needed to be taken into consideration during the 'real' recording of the data. First of all, it was realized that the students were disturbed by the existence of the camera in their classroom at the initial stages of the classes. Therefore, in the 'real' recordings the camera was mounted in a place where participants' attention would not be diverted. Second, the researcher realised that the usual sitting design utilised in the classes was not appropriate for the video recording process. That is why, she re-arranged the sitting plan of the class so that it fit the recording requirements. Finally, after watching the pilot recordings, the researcher realised that some of the activities and topics used in class do not encourage all of the students to participate in the discussions. For this reason, the researcher tried to find more appealing topics and more suitable exercise types for the later recording sessions.

Another issue raised in the pilot study is that for gathering natural classroom data teacher prompted interaction should be kept to a minimum in that it influences the

language produced by the informants. Thus, the researcher ascertained that the teacher prompted interactions were excluded from the analysis of data.

3.5. Data Collection

The data in this study were collected in three stages. First, a questionnaire aiming to gather background information related to the participants was administered at the beginning of the Spring 2009 term, in March. Immediately after that (i.e., at the beginning of the term) the pilot study was conducted to forecast possible challenges that may be encountered in the study and identify the problematic contexts of the prepositions **in, on, at**. In the pilot study, the students were video-recorded for three hours in their speaking classes. During this period, in order to get as natural data as possible, the class continued to follow their predetermined schedule. The topics discussed in class were family relationships, smoking habits, living in rural versus urban areas, and holiday types. During the recordings, both student-student (i.e., pair work, group work) and teacher-student interactions took place.

There were four main reasons for adopting video recording as the data collection method in this study. First, video-recordings provide researchers with the opportunity to gather natural data. This fact, in turn, enhances the reliability of the study and allows researchers to examine the data in depth from both audio and visual perspective (Clemente, 2008). Thirdly, the video-recordings enable researchers to observe the nonverbal interactions among interlocutors, which is not possible in audio recordings. Finally, video recordings ease the job of the researchers during the transcription phase of the study. When studies, as the present one, are conducted in natural classroom environments and there are 20 or more students in the recorded classes, it might be difficult for the researcher to differentiate among students' voices when only audio recordings are available.

3.6. Data Analyses

Since the aim of this study is to reveal as much information as possible about the incorrect usages of prepositions at the intermediate level of proficiency, the data were coded both quantitatively and qualitatively.

First, the video-recorded material was transcribed using conventions proposed by Dubois (1999). Dubois's (1999) transcription conventions were adopted as they are 'time-wise' and involve basic transcription norms that comply with the scope of the present study. Then, the informants' usages of the English prepositions **at**, **on** and **in** were examined. The usages of the prepositions were gathered in four categories: (i) correct usage, (ii) misuse (i.e., instead of **on**, for instance, students use **in** or **at**; e.g., *in television*), (iii) overuse (i.e., no preposition is required in the context but the students use one, e.g., *I am going at home now*), (iv) omission (i.e., a preposition is needed but the students do not use one, e.g., *We go holiday*).

The transcribed material was analyzed independently by three ELT experts: (i) the researcher herself who is an ELT department graduate and who has been working as an English language teacher for 2 years, (ii) a native speakers of American English who graduated from an English Language and Literature Department and who has been teaching English Literature classes in the U.S for the last seven years, (iii) a native speaker (NS) of American English who graduated from the Math department of Boston University but who has been teaching English to native speakers of Turkish for a year. The reason why these three experts were chosen for the analyses is that the researcher and two native speakers have different backgrounds and their approaches to errors/ mistakes are different. This difference is expected to contribute to the study in that while the first native speaker has never experienced teaching English to non-native speakers of English and thus provide a genuine 'native look' for the data, the other native speaker has been teaching English to non-native speakers (NNS) of English for one year. The native speaker who has been teaching English to non-natives of English approaches errors from a different perspective since she may be able to predict that SLLs' language learning process includes errors and thus may not be too strict in identification of errors/ mistakes. Hence, the

errors/ mistakes were examined with three different views: a non-native speaker of English teaching English as a second language, a native speaker who does not have the experience of teaching non-native speakers of English, and lastly, a native speaker of English who has the opportunity to observe non-native speakers of English.

The results of the analyses of these three experts were cross-validated. When there were differences in their evaluations they were discussed and common rules were identified for the future scrutiny. At the end of these analyses, the problematic contexts related to the use of the prepositions *in*, *on*, *at* for TIME and PLACE were identified.

Two tools - the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and the Computerized Language Analysis Child Language Data Exchange System (CLAN CHILDES) - were used to analyze the data in the study further. SPSS has been run to uncover the frequency of correct and incorrect usages of **in**, **on**, **at** in the speech of the participants. The **in**, **on**, **at** data were gathered under the subcategories of **CORRECT USAGE**, **MISUSE**, **OVERUSE**, and **OMISSION**. In the study statistical tests such as t-tests, ANOVA and chi square were used to uncover whether or not the observed differences between the examined groups were significant. By doing this it was aimed to increase the validity of the investigation since according to Griffith (2007), when the collected data are analyzed quantitatively and statistical conclusions are drawn, this contributes to the validity of an investigation (Griffith, 2007).

Following this the data were also examined via CLAN CHILDES to investigate incorrect usages in depth. Misuse of each preposition was grouped under further sub-categories. For instance, sub-categories of misuse pertaining to '**in**' were: a) '**on**' instead of '**in**', b) '**at**' instead of '**in**', c) other prepositions instead of '**in**'. Qualitative analyses of prepositions **in**, **on**, **at** provide a clear picture of errors/ mistakes made by the subjects of the study.

The most frequently used CLAN programs in the current study were COMBO and KWAL. **COMBO** provides the user with ways of composing word strings to search them in group letters, words, and group of words (MacWhinney, 2009). It helps researchers to define words or combination of words to be searched in the transcribed data. The author further asserts that COMBO is useful for the researchers who are interested in syntactic analysis. Likewise, this study investigates the group of words in which prepositions are used in order to identify problematic contexts. An example of COMBO search for word “*want*” which is followed by “*to*” is:

combo +s want^to .cha

Below are the examples from COMBO analysis:

Example 2.1:

*** File "c:\CHILDES\CLAN\lib\Prepositions.": line 766.

**F3: I generally wake early in the morning on Monday, Tuesday. On Wednesday, Thursday and Friday but I do not wake up late on Saturday and Sunday.*

Example 2.2:

*** File "c:\CHILDES\CLAN\lib\Prepositions.": line 492.

**M4: I can go out every time especially in the summers erm they are not very tyrant but my mum is a bit erm because I think my mum is true because my father is very flexible and my mum is balancing.*

The second CLAN program employed in this study KWAL allows the user to view the context in which any given keyword is uttered. Clusters including the key word are identified with file name and absolute line number (MacWhinney, 2009). To specify searched word(s), the +s option is used to search for either a single word a group of words in the transcribed data. A simple example of the use of KWAL is as the following:

kwat +s on.cha

Below is an example from KWAL analysis that displays the key word “at” in contexts it is uttered.

Example 2.3:

*** File "c:\CHILDES\CLAN\lib\Prepositions.": line 692. Keywords: at, at, at

**M2: erm prepare*

**M4: They prepare breakfast and we eat, my father, sister and other people. I like Istanbul because it erm you can have activity there . I drive car, meet friends. We drive erm at (on the highway) road fast and quickly.*

**M2: I love big cities too. I want to travel at (on the) bus to different cities . erm or I want to travel in (at the) airport by plane to big cities . I want to go to big cities erm NewYork, Paris, in Russia. I go these places with plane. Big cities have many things. Erm they are enjoyable. They have cafes, bars, university erm I like seeing many people. Uh I like erm towers, Atakule erm It is long erm it have Ankara seeing. You look (at) sky closely, erm clouds on (in the) sky . Uh imm Last week my friends and me go to Atakule it was big. It erm it have good (showing view out of window)*

**M4: look*

**M2: no erm view at (on) the top of it. In the bottom it has café, it is perfect meals. erm it is great*

The output of the command above displays the exact line(s) and group of word(s) preposition **on** is used with. Thus, complying with the object of our study the contexts in which prepositions **in**, **on**, **at** are used have been determined and qualitative analysis of both correct and incorrect usages of them were conducted. All the examples provided as qualitative data (See Chapter 4) are taken from KWAL and COMBO analyses conducted with current corpus.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0. Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the analysis pertaining to the use of the English prepositions **in**, **on**, **at** by native speakers of Turkish with intermediate level of proficiency in classroom interactions. The findings are analyzed under two main categories: a) statistical/quantitative analysis and b) qualitative analysis.

First, the quantitative analyses, which were conducted using SPSS, are presented. These analyses of the transcribed data were conducted to portray the frequency with which each of the investigated prepositions was used **i) correctly, ii) misused, iii) overused** and **iv) omitted**. The categories of analysis adopted in the present study were borrowed from Corder (1971) and the evaluation of the use of the prepositions was done by two native speakers of English and the researcher herself (for more detailed information related to judges see Chapter 3). The aim of these calculations was to reveal the percentage of each preposition under the determined subcategories and to compare the use of each preposition with the other two.

Then, a detailed analyses of the contexts in which the prepositions **in**, **on** and **at** were used correctly, misused, overused and omitted are given. The descriptive analysis of the contexts of the prepositions was done employing the **combo** and **kwal** programs in CLAN CHILDES.

Even though Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis will be used to explain some of the findings of the study, the presentation of the results will be descriptive for the majority of the contexts. A descriptive methodology was adopted since as far as the author is aware this is the first study which tries to uncover whether or not speakers

of Turkish with intermediate level of proficiency in English have problems in using the prepositions **in**, **on** and **at** for time and place. Stated differently, the aim of this chapter will be to ‘describe systematically the facts and characteristics of a given population... factually and accurately’ (Isaac & Michael, 1977:18).

4.1. General Results

Table 4.1 gives the general picture of the use of the prepositions **in**, **on** and **at** in the collected corpus. It can be seen that a total of 313 of these prepositions were used by the participants in the study and that 46% (N=146) of those were prepositions of TIME while 54% (N=167) were prepositions of PLACE.

Table 4.1: Overall view of the use of the prepositions ‘ <i>in</i> ’, ‘ <i>on</i> ’ and ‘ <i>at</i> ’ for TIME and PLACE				
PREPOSITIONS	TIME		PLACE	
	N	%	N	%
IN	59	40	97	59
ON	38	26	42	25
AT	49	34	28	16
TOTAL	146	100	167	100

When the uses of **in**, **on** and **at** are compared among each other, it becomes clear that the overwhelming favourite of the students is ‘**in**’. ‘*in*’ constitutes 40% of the TIME and 59% of the PLACE prepositions in the corpus (average use 49%). The picture becomes, however, a little bit more complicated when the usages of **on** and **at** are analyzed. Even though the overall rates of usage of **on** and **at** are very close to each other ($ON_{\text{overall use}} = 25,6\%$, $AT_{\text{overall use}} = 24,6\%$), the frequencies with which they are used for TIME and PLACE are statistically significantly different from each other. ‘*At*’ is used statistically significantly more often for TIME than ‘*on*’ ($AT_{\text{time}} = 34\% > ON_{\text{time}} = 26\%$, $df=1$, $p < .05$) while just the opposite is valid for the usages of these prepositions for PLACE ($AT_{\text{place}} = 16\% < ON_{\text{place}} = 25\%$, $df=1$, $p < .05$).

These are interesting findings since the uses of the prepositions **in**, **on** and **at** by the participants in this study are, kind of, parallel to the frequency with which they occur in the speech of native speakers. In a study conducted by Mindt and Weber (1989), who examined the use of prepositions by native speakers of American English in the BROWN Corpus, it was also found that '*in*' was used much more frequently than the prepositions '*on*' and '*at*'. The researchers reported that in the BROWN Corpus '*in*' was used 3,4 times more often than '*on*' and almost 4 times more often than '*at*' (i.e., IN = 20870, ON = 6183, AT = 5375, Mindt & Weber, 1989:231).

Evin (1993), however, who examined the use of the various local prepositions (e.g., at, by, in, near, on, over, under) in English by the freshman year students at Gaziantep University reported that the most commonly used prepositions in her corpus were **on**, **in** and **near**. That is, '*on*' was used as frequently as (and in some contexts even more than) '*in*' by the participants in her study.

One of the reasons for the disparities among the findings of the compared studies might be the different data collection procedures used by the researchers. In the present study pair, group and class discussions of students were video-recorded while Evin (1993) used translation, fill in the blanks and picture description activities to collect her data. In order to answer this question and to get a more detailed picture of the use of the prepositions **in**, **on** and **at** by intermediate level learners of English whose mother tongue is Turkish the usage of each of the prepositions in various contexts will be examined in detail in the following sections.

4.2. The Contexts of the Preposition '*in*'

Being one of the most frequently used prepositions in English (Mindt & Weber, 1989) and in our corpus, '*in*' is examined in detail both for its temporal and spatial functions. The analysis is done in the following order: a) correct usage, b) misuse, c) overuse, d) omission. First, the results of '*in*' in the contexts where it is used to reflect time are provided and then '*in*' for place is discussed.

4.2.1. Use of 'in' for Time

The analysis of the collected data showed that the preposition 'in' was used 59 times for time by the participants in the study. Figure 4.1 below displays the distribution of this preposition in the different categories of analysis.

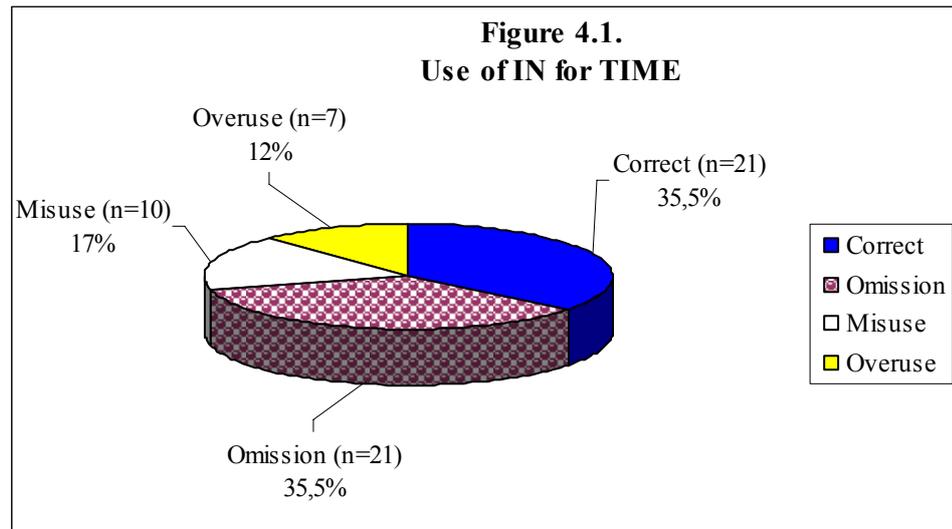


Figure 4.1 shows that in 35.5% of the contexts 'in for time' was used correctly but it also shows that it was omitted/avoided with the same frequency (i.e., in 35,5% of the contexts). 'in' was misused (i.e., used instead of another preposition) in 17% of the situations (e.g., *I stayed there in three months* where 'in' is used instead of 'for') and overused (i.e., a preposition is used when one is not required) in 12% of the contexts (e.g., Elif: *I like sea and I love in summer*).

4.2.1.1. Correct Use of 'in' for Time

When these contexts where 'in' was used correctly for time were scrutinised it was seen that the number of the expressions/combinations in which it was employed was quite small. To be more specific 'in for time' was utilised correctly only in four contexts/combinations: **with the parts of the day** (e.g., *in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening*), in the **'in the weekend'** expression, in **'in +season'**

combinations (e.g., *in summer*), and in the ‘**in + year**’ combinations (see Examples 4.1-4.5).

Example: 4.1.

M3: *Well, I prefer village. Uh I am from Kalecik, Ankara. I love my hometown a lot. But I am going to in university in Ankara and I see both of them. Erm, I think Kalecik is a beautiful place li. It is quiet, erm it doesn't have traffic jam. We produce our own food. We wake up early **in the morning** and work until evening.*

Example: 4.2.

F9: *I wake up very early. I wake up at six o'clock. I wash my face and then I go to hairdress. He do my hair and I catch the shuttle. I arrive to school and I eat something. We listen to our teacher and learn English. I love English. We have four hours then we have meal **in the afternoon**. We go to Sultan cafe.*

Example: 4.3.

F3: *I eat meal **in the evening**. We go and visit our neighbors. I sometimes study my lesson.*

Example: 4.4.

M5: *Yes aunt erm she lives Adalar. My mother visit her **in weekend**. She have breakfast Sunday morning. They erm hazirlamak...*

Example: 4.5.

M7: *I go home for holiday to see my family. I visit my parents. **In summer** my brothers and I go to home. My mother was happy. We meet at our house.*

Example: 4.6.

M6: *I don't like big city erm I like my hometown. I want to live with my grandmother and father. Ihmm I plan living in my village by evening and come my job in the city. I will be in my village **in 2014**. Uh if I finish school.*

A more detailed scrutiny of the usage of 'in' for time among the different contexts where it was used shows that it was used in some of the contexts much more frequently than in the others (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Distribution of 'in for time' according to contexts		
Contexts	N	%
(i) part of the day	16	77
(i _a) in the morning	9	43
(i _b) in the afternoon	2	10
(i _c) in the evening	5	24
(ii) in (the) weekend	3	14
(iii) in + season (e.g., in the summer)	1	5
(iv) in + year (e.g., in 1989)	1	5
TOTAL	21	100

Even though 'in' for time was used 21 times in 77% (16 times out of 21) of the situations, the students used it with the parts of the day. 'in' was used in the expression 'in the weekend' only 3 times and only once with seasons and years.

Keeping in mind that these findings may be stemming from the data collection procedure used in the study (i.e., video recording students for three hours and asking them to discuss various topics) it may be argued that the participants are only able to use the preposition 'in' for time in only a very limited set of contexts/expressions.

4.2.1.2. Misuse of 'in' for Time

When used for time 'in' was misused 10 times (17%) in the corpus. The analysis of the data showed that the students used 'in' instead of other three prepositions: **at**, **on** and **for**. 'in' replaced 'at' when the informants constructed sentences including words such as *noon*, *night* and *midnight* as in Examples 4.7 and 4.8.

Example: 4.7.

M5: *I go out with friends and we have a dance club with friends and I dance in that club. **In night** we go out easily. We walk on evenings with friends. Erm we play guitar and dance.*

Example: 4.8.

M1: *Books oh I love books and read books and sometimes watch football matches. I am really into football. I love playing it too. Then I go to bed at a late hour, may be **in the midnight** or at 1 o'clock.*

'in' was used instead of 'on' in combinations such as 'in holiday' (see Example 4.9). Finally, 'in' was used instead of 'for' in statements where the informants were talking about the time spent at a particular place as in Example 4.10.

Example: 4.9.

M7: ***In my holiday** we go Bodrum. I go camping with friends. I camp on mountains and on forest. We are free. We are enjoy camping.*

Example: 4.10.

M6: *I wake up at eleven or twelve o'clock. I go bed 1 or 2. We stay there **in three months** and my bothers go their homes and I come here.*

4.2.1.3. Overuse of 'in' for Time

As Figure 4.1 shows 'in' was overused (i.e., 'in' was used when no preposition is required) 7 times (12%) in the corpus. The examination of the data showed that the overuse mistakes/errors can be gathered in three categories:

(i) Ages

The participants in the study used 'in' when they were discussing/ giving the age of a person as in Examples 4.11-4.12.

Example: 4.11.

T: *How old is she?*

M5: *She is **in twenty two** erm (...) she is good person but she is a little bit jealous.*

Example: 4.12.

F3: *I started smoking **in six years old** with my brother*

A plausible explanation for this mistake is native language interference. In Turkish ‘She is 22’ is translated as ‘O yirmi iki yaşınDA’ or ‘O yirmi ikisinDE’. That is, Turkish requires a locative marker at the end of such expressions. Gass (1979) and Selinker (1992) argue that when the learners have not yet mastered the rules in the second language or have not been introduced to the rules in the second language then the patterns of the native language are superimposed on the patterns learned in a second language.

(ii) Seasons

Example: 4.13.

F2: *I like sea and I love **in summer**. Erm I go Kas . my mother want to me go next her. She loves travel. She goes everywhere. Erm I like it iste.*

(iii) This + morning/evening

Example: 4.14.

M4: *Good morning teacher. I am sorry. I came late to school **in this morning**. Erm The bus is late.*

The rate of overused ‘in’ for conveying temporal meaning is 12%. The aforementioned category of overuse denotes that ‘in’ is used where no preposition is required such as “I am going in home”. The possible reason for the percentage of the category of overuse is that the subjects tend to rely on preposition ‘in’ too much rather than other prepositions, that is, they overgeneralize what they have learned into newly encountered contexts. This is a natural feature of the language acquisition process (Richards, 1974). One similar and significant example from first language

acquisition process is the generalization plural marker –s into the contexts of nouns that have irregular pluralisation such as “wifes” rather than “wives”.

4.2.1.4. Omission of ‘in’ for Time

‘Students sometimes leave out the prepositions altogether, even at an otherwise good intermediate level’ is the one of the two statements that Thomson (2001:225) uses to describe the problems of native speakers of Turkish learning English prepositions.

Table 4.3: Distribution of ‘in for time’ according to contexts		
Contexts	N	%
(i) part of the day	15	72
(i _a) in the morning	6	29
(i _b) in the afternoon	3	14
(i _c) in the evening	6	29
(iv) in (the) weekend	0	0
(v) in + season (e.g., in the summer)	4	18
(vi) in + year (e.g., in 1989)	2	10
TOTAL	21	100

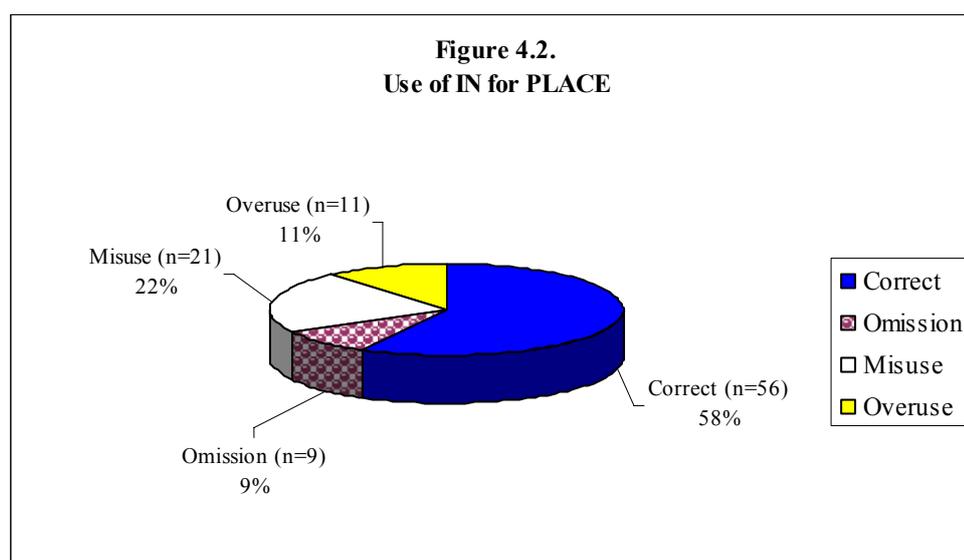
The data in the current study supports Thomson’s (2001) claim since the students used ‘in’ for time correctly 21 times but they also omitted it 21 times in contexts in which it is required by English grammar rules. When the distributions of the correct usages and the omissions were compared, interesting similarities were observed (see Tables 4.2 and 4.3). Students used ‘in’ for time correctly in the majority of the situations with the parts of the day (i.e., in expressions such as *in the morning*, *in the evening*) (77% of the correct usage). They omitted ‘in’ in exactly the same expressions in 72% of the omission data.

In the corpus there was only one example where ‘in’ was used correctly with seasons and one example where it was used with a year. As it can be seen from Table 4.3,

however, it was omitted in the ‘in + season’ combinations 4 times and in the ‘in + year’ combinations twice.

4.2.2. Use of ‘in’ for Place

‘In for place’ was used 98 times by the subjects of the study and Figure 4.2 below shows the distribution of this preposition in the categories of analysis employed in the study.



When the usages of ‘in’ for time and place are compared, it becomes clear that the subjects of the study used the latter both more frequently (1,6 times more) and more successfully. As seen in Figure 4.2, 58% of the ‘in’s for place were used correctly (while only 35,5% of the ‘in’s for time were used correctly). Even though the rates of overuse of ‘in’ for time and space are similar to each other ($TIME_{overuse} = 12\%$, $PLACE_{overuse} = 11\%$) the misuse ($TIME_{misuse} = 17\%$, $PLACE_{misuse} = 22\%$) and omission rates are noticeably different. The informants of the study misused spatial ‘in’ more than the temporal ‘in’ but omitted (i.e., did not use when necessary) temporal ‘in’ four times more than spatial ‘in’ ($TIME_{omission} = 35,5\%$, $PLACE_{omission} = 9\%$).

Based on these findings it may be argued that that the students are more aware of the uses of 'in' with its locative function than of its time functions. This result could be explained with the fact that 'in' in the spatial sense is (reported to be) the prototypical meaning (i.e., is the most basic meaning of a preposition) of 'in'. That is, the special meaning of 'in' is the first meaning, the first example or context of use that appears in the mind of a native speaker when asked to provide the meaning of a preposition (Lindstromberg, 1998). This, according to Lindstromberg (1996), facilitates the learning/acquisition process of a particular structure. Therefore, children too, initially tend to acquire the prototypical meaning(s) and function(s) of various structures in a language (Lindstromberg, 1996).

These results contradict, however, with the findings reported by Gedikoğlu (1987). The researcher collected data from ten Turkish and Spanish-speaking graduate and undergraduate students attending the University of Pittsburgh, USA. All of the informants in the study were advanced learners of English, and the data in the study were collected using fill-in-the blanks, translation and picture description exercises. When Gedikoğlu's (1987) examined the use of prepositions by Turkish and Spanish speaking informants, he found that 50% of the place prepositions were used incorrectly and the students had problems with only 27% of the time prepositions. He also discovered that both groups of students (i.e., native speakers of Turkish and Spanish) had more problems with local than any other types of prepositions which led him to argue that 'English local prepositions are inherently difficult for speakers of other languages' (Gedikoğlu, 1987:80) because, according to him, two distinct languages such as Turkish and Spanish cannot interfere in the same way the acquisition/learning process of English.

4.2.2.1. Correct Use of 'in' for Place

Eastwood (1994:291) argues that when compared to the one-dimensional 'at' and the two-dimensional 'on', 'in' should be described as a three dimensional preposition. Even though it has a number of different meanings, its most basic meaning is 'something that surrounds' (e.g., in the woods) (Foley & Hall 2003:281).

'in' is usually used to talk about a position within a larger area or something within a larger space (Hewings, 1999). The rules related to the usage of 'in' in English repeated in the grammar books state that it should be used with

- (i) 'something that surrounds';
- (ii) countries, cities, towns, village when we see them as enclosed areas where we lived and/or stayed for some time;
- (iii) with the building's names (e.g., supermarket, dormitory) to emphasise that we mean inside the building;
- (iv) vehicles such as taxis and cars.

Since these were the basic categories of use mentioned in almost all of the examined grammar books (e.g., Eastwood, 1994; Foley & Hall 2003; Hewings, 1999), the data in the corpus were classified using them.

Table 4.4: Correct use of 'in' for Place:		
Categories of analysis	N	%
(i) Something that surrounds	6	11
(ii) Countries, cities, towns	35	63
(iii) Buildings' names	15	27
(iv) Vehicles	0	0
TOTAL	56	100

Table 4.4 shows that the majority of the data gathered in the second category of analysis (i.e., 'in' used with cities, towns and villages, 63%). The students used 'in' to talk about the cities, towns and villages where they/their families were living and where they had been born (see Examples 4.15 and 4.16)

Example: 4.15.

F6: *I live in Ankara, erm I like it because Ankara is big city erm but sometimes like summers I don't want to live here.*

Example: 4.16.

F6: *No because I born in Ankara but sometimes I go my grandmother's house at village of Nallihan.*

The data also showed that the students know that 'in' is used with words such as village, (home)town, country (see Examples).

Example: 4.17.

T: *Yes, please.*

M8: *Himm, I love my village. We live in village in Konya.*

Example: 4.18.

T: *Yes, what about you? Do like villages or cities?*

B: *Well, I prefer village to city. We wake up early in the morning and work until evening. Erm, sey my mother cook our meals with real vegetables. Erm we do not have pollution in my hometown. Erm ...*

Example: 4.19.

M1: *At 7 o'clock in the evening I watch news. Erm I am curious about events in my country.*

The second most frequent usage of 'in' as a preposition of place was in combinations with buildings' names when the speakers wanted to emphasise that they were inside the building. There were 15 examples in the corpus and in was used in a relatively wide variety of combinations (e.g., *in his office, in a club, in a cafe, in my dormitory, in the university, in high school, in class*) (also see Examples 4.20-4.21).

Example: 4.20.

M9: *Which activities do you in Istanbul?*

M5: *I go out with friends and we have a dance club with friends and **I dance in that club.***

Example: 4.21.

T: *What about you Can, where do you live?*

M10: *I live **in dormitory** and I wake up early hours. I don't have breakfast. When I am in bus I sleep and I come school.*

The third group of 'in' as a place preposition carried the meaning 'something' that surrounds. There were 6 usages of 'in' with this meaning and they included combinations such as 'in my neighbourhood, in his/her farm, in the park, in the sky, in my bed, in poverty' (see Examples 4.22-4.24).

Example: 4.22.

T: *Ok!*

M11: *Şey (laughs) I do same thing but on weekend I go to Istanbul. I meet my friends erm see my friends. I talk to them. I go to Adali and visit my grandmother. I talk to her. She cooks delicious meal for me. I love her very much. I ride on horse. My grandmother has a farm and **she has everything in her farm.** Chicken, donkey, horse, sheep, cow all of them... we have rabbits.*

Example: 4.23.

F1: *We **walk in park.** Sometimes we go Oran. Oran is beautiful and has nice weather. We walk in there.*

Example: 4.24.

T: *Hm, I like the story. Is this a real story?*

M9 *There is a man he **lived in poverty** he has a son he won university but hasn't got enough money to go university and uh rich man helped to him to go to university (.) he gave money and read him in university.*

One surprising finding of this study was there were no examples of *'in'* as a place preposition used with vehicles such as cars and taxis. But there are were examples of *'in'* used with bigger vehicles such as buses which in American English are used with the prepositions *'on'* and these findings are discussed in more detail in the following section.

4.2.2.2. Misuse of *'in'* for Place

The analysis of the data showed that *'in'* was misused 21 times instead of five other prepositions: **to**, **on**, **at**, **from** and **for** (see Table 4.4).

(i) *'in'* used instead of *'on'*

Table 4.5 shows that *'in'* was misused most frequently instead of *'on'*. *'in'* was used instead of the correct *'on'* in expressions such as *'in TV'* (4 times), *'chat in MSN'* (3 times), *'get in the bus'* (1 time), *'in + name of the street'* (1 time).

Table 4.5: Misuse of in for Place: Contexts		
MISUSE TYPES	N	%
IN instead of ON	9	43
IN instead of TO	7	33
IN instead of AT	2	10
IN instead of FROM	2	10
IN instead of FOR	1	5
TOTAL	21	100

One possible explanation for the students' problem with these two prepositions (i.e., *'in'* and *'on'*) is the one-to-many correspondence between English and Turkish. When used for place the English *'in'* and *'on'* are represented with the same case suffix (i.e., the locative case suffix –DE) in Turkish. That is, the expressions *'in the park'* and *'on TV'* are translated as *'parkTA'* and *'televizyonDA'* into Turkish. Gedikoğlu (1987:83) argues that 'when a number of English prepositions have only one equivalent in Turkish' then speakers of Turkish tend to use these corresponding

English prepositions interchangeably due to their native language interference and this results in error in many contexts.

(ii) 'in' used instead of 'to'

The students replaced 'to' with 'in' seven times in contexts where they were talking about going 'inside a building/city/town' as shown in Examples 4.25-4.27.

Example: 4.25.

T: *If I said to my mo ah dad*

M6: *If I say to my father or my mother I went to yok I am going with boys **in cinema** (laughs).*

Example: 4.26.

M6: *Do you like small places?*

F3: *No because I born in Ankara but sometimes I go my grandmother's house at village of Nallihan. I stay with them. I'm bored because village is near mountain. It is cold, erm sey it has a cold weather. **It is not close in Nallihan or uh in Bolu.***

Example: 4.27.

T: *Ok I want every member to talk about daily life. I mean what do you do every day and every weekend?*

M9: *Ok I'll start. I wake up in the morning 7 o'clock. I wash my face and wear my clothes. My mother prepare breakfast I eat. I go in bus stop. I go to bus. **I come in school.***

Evin (1993) argues that 'to' is one of the prepositions in English whose acquisition for the native speakers of Turkish is easy because 'to' has a direct counterpart - the dative case suffix '-(y)E' in Turkish. The findings in this study show, however, that the task related to the acquisition of prepositions is not that easy and the students who participated in this study still have problems with the use of 'in' and 'to'. There are a number of possible explanations for the observed mistakes (i.e., the misuse of 'in' instead of 'to'). It might be that the students overgeneralise the rule 'Use 'in'

with cities/towns and buildings' names'. It might also be possible that the students had not been told by their teachers or had not themselves discovered that there is one-to-one correspondence between 'to' and '-(y)E'. A third reason for the misuse is the fact that both 'in' and 'to' may mean 'end point/a destination' (Lindstromberg, 1998:27-29). The only difference between 'in' and 'to' when used with this specific meaning is that 'to' is neutral about whether a path stops at the surface or edge of a Landmark or whether it crosses this boundary' as shown in the examples given below:

(i) *She walked to the tree and touched it.*

(ii) *She went to the library* (Lindstromberg, 1998:28).

In, on the other hand, means 'specifically that the path does cross the surface or boundaries of the Landmark' (Lindstromberg, 1998:28). So, it may be argued that in contexts in which the meaning of the sentences led them to the 'path crossing the surface/boundaries of the landmark' they used 'in' instead of the correct 'to'.

(iii) 'in' used instead of 'at'

The students replaced 'at' with 'in' twice in the corpus in the contexts given in Examples 4.28 and 4.29.

Example: 4.28.

T: *Ohh are you a continuous smoker, I mean you smoke all the time how come did you start smoking.*

F4: *Yes I was at 6 and I have friend in neighbor. They smoke and **in home** my mother smoke.*

Example: 4.29.

M9: *No erm view at the top of it. **In the bottom** it has café. It is perfect meals. Erm it is great.*

(iv) 'in' used instead of 'from'

'From' was also replaced twice with 'in' by the participants in the study. Again 'in' was used in contexts where the preposition is followed by an 'enclosed' place as shown in Examples 4.30 and 4.31.

Example: 4.30.

M9: *I wanted my mothers' cigarette I take it in bag. She does not know. I take one and one and uh then I start smoke.*

Example: 4.31.

M9: *I love big cities too. I want to travel at bus to different cities. Erm or I want to travel in airport by plane to big cities. I want to go to big cities erm NewYork, Paris, in Russia. I go these places with plane. Big cities have many things.*

One possible reason for the mistake of the student might be again the one-to-many correspondences/relationships between the case suffixes and the prepositions in the native (i.e., Turkish) and the target (i.e., English) languages of the students. The expressions in which 'in' replaced 'from' in our corpus can be translated into Turkish as '*annemin çansasınDAN*' and '*hava alanınDAN*'. That is, these expressions require the use of the Ablative Case marker in Turkish (i.e., -DEn). This marker has, however, three corresponding/counterpart prepositions in English: **in**, **at** and **from**. Since 'in' is the more widespread prepositions and since the students have already learned that it is used in enclosed places students might have chosen to use 'in' instead of 'from' in the problematic contexts.

(v) 'in' used instead of 'for'

Finally, there was a single example in which a student replaced 'for' with 'in' as shown in Example 4.32.

Example: 4.32.

M10: *I live in dormitory and I wake up early hours. I don't have breakfast. When I am in bus I sleep and I come school. I buy poğaça in breakfast.*

4.2.2.3. Overuse of ‘in’ for Place

‘In’ was used 11 times in contexts where it or no preposition was required. What is interesting about the mistakes of the students in this group is that they can be divided into two groups. In the first group, students simply inserted ‘in’ where no preposition was required at all in English as shown in Examples 4.33-4.35.

Example: 4.33.

M1: *Yes Elif where do you **live in**? Do you like it?*

F3: *I live in Ankara, erm I like it because Ankara is big city.*

Example: 4.34.

M7: *Do you life inbig city? Ihm Do you like Ankara?*

F3: *I like Ankara it is a big city. It has shops, cinema erm I love being **in here**.*

Example: 4.35.

T: *Where do you want to spend your holiday and when do you want to go?*

F6: *I love **in summer**. I like summer holiday. Generally I go Izmir.*

In order to describe the problem better we named the second group ‘**to + in mistakes**’ because in all of those five examples ‘in’ followed the preposition ‘to’ even though it was not needed.

Example: 4.36.

M5: *Everyday after school I went my uncle before I went homeusually my grandfather I meet him and my grandfather catches me and **we go to in supermarket** together “ne istiyorsun” he bought them on supermarket.*

Example: 4.37.

M4: *Do you like small places?*

F3: *No because I born in Ankara but sometimes I go my grandmother's house at village of Nallihan. I stay with them. I'm bored because village is near mountain. It is cold, erm sey it has a cold weather. **It is not close to in Nallihan and uh in Bolu.***

Example: 4.38.

B: *Well, I prefer village to city. Uh I am from Kalecik, Ankara. I love my hometown a lot. But **I am going to in university in Ankara** and I see both of them. Erm, I think Kalecik is a beautiful place to live. It is quiet, erm it doesn't have traffic jam.*

4.2.2.4. Omission of 'in' for Place

The two native speakers and the researcher agreed that the students omitted 'in' for place in nine of the contexts where it is required by English grammar. If the categories for the classification of 'in' presented in Section 4.2.2.1 are used again the following picture is revealed:

Table 4.6: Omission of 'in' for Place:		
Categories of analysis	N	%
(i) Something that surrounds	2	22
(ii) Countries, cities, towns	5	56
(iii) Buildings' names	2	22
(iv) Vehicles	0	0
TOTAL	9	100

The interesting fact about the omission data is that students omitted 'in' for place in the same contexts in which they used them very successfully (see Table 4.6). The students used 'in' for place most frequently with countries, cities, towns and villages but the largest number of omissions is related to this category as well. As seen in Example 4.48, Sila used *Altınoluk*, the name of the town, twice but she did not use 'in' in any of the sentences.

Example: 4.39.

F2: *I love holiday. My mother, I and my brother and my father we go Altinoluk we stay Altinoluk a month. I watch in TV Serdar Ortac ihm I love Serdar very much. He is my pop star. I go his concert one time Altinoluk. We enjoy his in (at the) concert.*

Similarly, the students were very successful in using ‘in’ with the names of the various buildings to show that they were ‘inside’ the building but two of the omission errors are related to this context as shown in Example 4.40 where Serkan did not use ‘in’ before ‘dormitory’.

Example: 4.40.

M10: *We live dormitory. Difficult, it is difficult.*

There are a number of examples in the data, nevertheless, that may lead us to claim that some of the omissions of ‘in’ in the corpus are just a slip of the tongue or medium induced mistakes (i.e., spoken language). That is, because the data in this study are video-recorded conversations between students, the data also carries a number of the characteristics of the ‘natural’ spoken language such as ‘somewhat ungrammatical, redundant, and rich in self-correction’ (Ur, 1996:8). In Example 4.40, for instance, Soner first omits ‘in’ before İstanbul but then he hesitates and uses the combination ‘preposition + city name’ correctly.

Example: 4.41.

M5: *I live in Ankara and I sometimes like it sometimes don’t like it. I want to go Istanbul because it is free there. Istanbul erm in İstabul you have a lot of choice. You go out sea erm you have bars. You have freedom.*

4.3. The Contexts of the Preposition ‘on’

‘On’ functions as either the preposition of path or place. ‘On’ is reported to be unusual among English prepositions in that it has two distinct literal meanings (Lindstromberg, 1998). One of the literal meanings of ‘on’ is the opposite of “off” in

which “Subject or Trajector touches the Landmark” or subject has contact with a surface (Lindstromberg, 1998:52). The second meaning has to do with movement which is reported to be the opposite of “*back*”. Prototypical use of ‘*on*’ denotes the contact with a surface as in “*glass on the table*”, “*cat on the bed*”. Non-prototypical use of *on* denotes physical orientation of Trajector and Landmark (Lindstromberg, 1998). Some non-prototypical uses of ‘*on*’ are “*on the wall, on the ceiling, on the outside of wall*”. ‘*On*’ also has the function of expressing middle-sized unit of time which includes days and certain time expressions such as ‘*on Sunday, on Christmas Day*’.

The examination of ‘*on*’ in the present study is carried out in the same way with ‘*in*’. a) correct usage, b) misuse, c) overuse, d) omission. First of all, the results of ‘*on*’ in which it is used to show time are provided. After the discussion of temporal function, the results pertaining to place are discussed. It found that ‘*on*’ is used less correctly by the learners than ‘*in*’ or ‘*at*’. A clearer picture will be drawn in each category below.

4.3.1. Use of 'on' for Time

The analysis of the collected data showed that in total 80 contexts of ‘*on*’ for time and place, a small number of ‘*on*’ (11) is used correctly by the participants in the study. The contexts where ‘*on*’ is used for indicating time is 38. Figure 4.3 below displays the distribution of the use of ‘*on*’ for time in the different categories of analysis.

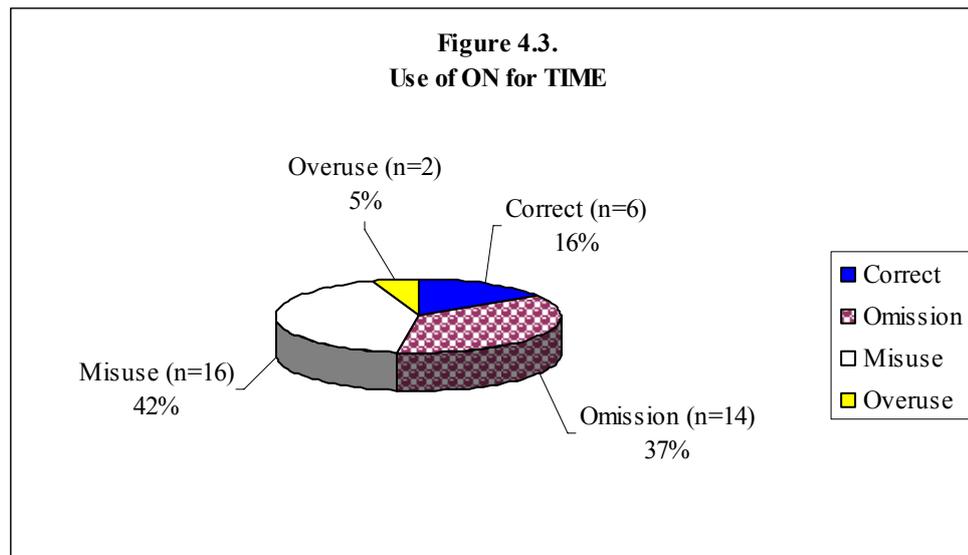


Figure 4.3 above shows that 15.8 % of the contexts of ‘on for time’ is used correctly, however, the percentage of correct ‘on for time’ is very small compared to the omission rate of ‘on’ for expressing time. The learners skip the use of ‘on’ with a time expression at the percentage of 36.8% which equals to twice as much as the percentage of correct use. The frequency of misused (i.e., used instead of another preposition) ‘on for time’ is 42.1% that equals to almost half of the contexts where ‘on’ is employed to indicate time (e.g., *On evening we go to eat out* where ‘on’ is used instead of ‘in’). The overused contexts of ‘on’ is only 5.3% which supports the finding that ‘on’ is not preferred over other two prepositions. The possible underlying reason might be that the subject of this study use prepositions which are more frequent (Hewings, 1999) and prototypical and therefore easier to use.

4.3.1.1. Correct Use of ‘on’ for Time

When these contexts where ‘on’ was used correctly for time were examined, it was seen that the number of the combinations in which it was employed was quite limited. To be more specific, ‘on for time’ was utilised correctly only in two combinations: *on + weekdays* (e.g., *on Sunday*) and *on weekend* (see Example 4.42).

Example: 4.42.

F7: *I generally wake early in the morning **on Monday, Tuesday. On Wednesday, Thursday and Friday** but I do not wake up late **on Saturday and Sunday**. I have breakfast and I come to school by shuttle. uhh I study at school with my friends and I go home. I open my laptop and use msn. Talk my friends and find photos. erm after we have dinner I watch TV, I read book. I study my lesson. **On weekend erm on Saturday, on Sunday** we my mother and I do sport. We walk in park. Sometimes we go Oran. Oran is beautiful and has nice weather. We walk in there.*

Considering the number of contexts where ‘on’ is employed correctly, it may be argued that the participants of the study use ‘on’ in only two limited contexts and they may not be aware of non-typical uses of ‘on’. However, limited contexts of ‘on’ indicating time may be due to the data collection procedures in which the participants discuss certain types of topics (i.e., holiday types, daily routines, holiday types, and living in rural or urban areas). It is also observed that learners are not using the function of ‘on’ for expressing date (e.g., *on January, 26; on May 22, 2000*) possibly because the recorded topics do not require such a usage. Temporal ‘on’ is also used with special days (e.g., *on Christmas Day*) which is not employed in our corpus.

4.3.1.2. Misuse of ‘on’ for Time

‘On’ was misused 16 times (42.1%) among 38 occurrences of ‘on for time’ in the corpus. The scrutiny of the data indicated that the students used ‘on’ instead of other two prepositions: ‘in’ and ‘at’. In the misused contexts 5 replaced by ‘at’ while 11 contexts are replaced by ‘in’ which shows that ‘in’ is more preferable than other prepositions (See Examples 4.43 - 4.45).

Example 4.43.

M6: *In city everyone go home **on night** very late. My mother come home at 8 o'clock. Very late. Sey I don't want but...*

T: You mean your mother comes home late at 8. Is it because of living in the city?

M6: Yes. We live in village, my mother at home. ya da hiç gitmez.

T: You mean she never leaves home (laughs). In city most mothers work. This is true

Example 4. 44.

M11: My sister wake me **on morning**. She shout, she cry.

T: you mean she shouts and cries

M11: hihi, she is crazy.

Example 4.45.

M8:She is very angry. She don't like my smoking. She watchs TV **on night, Tuesday, Wednesday evening**. Teacher dizileri var.

T: You mean she watches TV series. What kind of TV series does she watch?

M8: Aşkı Memnu. Elveda Rumeli, Avrupa Yakası, Şehrazat. She watch everything. I want basketball match in Friday night but I don't watch. I go to laptop at Friday erm evening to watch basketball match, you know NTV.

Furthermore, the context of misused 'on for time' are scrutinized in detail in table 4. 7 and it is seen that the misused contexts stem from the same type of errors (i.e., *on morning, on night*). The participants of the study seem to use deviant forms of 'on for time' more than one time and within similar contexts.

Table 4.7: Distribution of misused 'on for time' (replaced 'in' or 'at') according to contexts		
Contexts	N	%
(i) On morning, on afternoon, on evening	6	37, 5
(ii) On night	8	50
(ii) On five	2	12,5
TOTAL	16	100

In table 4.7 it is seen that 'on' is misused in 6 contexts in combinations like '*in the morning/ afternoon/ evening*', 8 contexts of '*on night*', and 2 contexts of '*on+ hour*'.

These findings suggest that the subjects of study make use of ‘on’ in contexts where ‘in’ and ‘at’ are required. This suggests that the informants did not achieve using these prepositions in accordance with rules provided in classroom instruction or in textbooks. Accordingly, this proves the claim that second language learners do not have a good command of the use of prepositions at even advanced level of proficiency (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

4.3.1.3. Overuse of ‘on’ for Time

As Figure 4.3 shows above ‘on’ was overused (i.e., ‘on’ was used when no preposition is required) only 2 times (5.3%) in the corpus. The analysis shows that ‘on’ is not overused much because ‘in’ is overgeneralized to the contexts of ‘on’ and ‘at’ by second language learners. The example 4.44 below indicates that F2 relies on the rule of ‘on’ after days of the week but does not realize that ‘Saturday’ and ‘Sunday’ are the subject of the sentence instead of having the role of a Prepositional Phrase in the sentence string.

Example 4.46.

F2: *Which days you don’t smoke?*

Weekend I don’t smoke. On Sunday and Saturday are days. I afraid my father. But in school I can smoke it. Uh my friends are here. They smoke erm so I smoke.

Example 4.47.

M1: *I don’t like smoke. I smoke never. My friends smoke I don’t smoke on some time. sey I don’t like smoke .*

The example 4.47 also is the result of generalization. M1 generalizes the usage of ‘on’ preceding days but in this sentence ‘some time’ does not necessarily need to be followed by ‘on’. As put forward by Richards (1974) and Ellis (1994) second language learners make generalization about the use of target language structures and this leads to deviant forms in language learning process. This is, however, a natural phenomenon of language acquisition process in both first and second language.

4.3.1.4. Omission of ‘on’ for Time

The number of occurrences of omitted ‘on for time’ (i.e., contexts where ‘on’ is required but not used) is 14 (36.8%) in the corpus. The expressions where ‘on’ is omitted in the following combinations; *weekend, third day, trip day, on+ weekdays* (e.g., *Sunday I stay home*). For a detailed analysis of the omitted contexts see examples 4. 48 -4. 51 below.

Example 4.48.

M6: *Weekends I wake up late. I wake up at 2 and erm 3 o'clock. I sleep late last night so I wake up late. Ihmm then my friends and I have breakfast at our table. We have a specific table in our room. It is big. We eat at the table, we play game ihm we watch movies. Then we go to Kizilay. We go Tunalı cafes. We talk friends, we sometimes go cinema theatre, concert. Uhh I don't know more.*

Example 4.49.

T: *Thank you for sharing Can and yes Mustafa what about your family (.) I know you have a close family.*

M4: *Our family is together always for example I didn't see my grandfather two days erm **third day** I visit my grandfather (.) erm uncle always called me and asking me how is it going (.)*

Example 4.50.

M9: *I sat dormitory. I have good friend. **Saturday** we go to Kızılai. Then **Sunday** we go to Bahçeli. We love it because all friends in Bahçeli.*

Example 4. 51.

T: *When do you go holiday Elif and how do you spend your time there?*

F5: *Teacher I go holiday every time. **Trip day** my mother put everything in baggage. We go green places. we do camp. We have picnic. Erm sey I and my father play yakan top uhh we play volleyball.*

Examples above indicate that the subjects of the study fail to recognize the use of ‘on’ possibly because they carry over their first language habits into second language acquisition process. In the examples above, Turkish language makes use of nominative case with “Saturday, Sunday, trip day, weekend” and if noun is used in this case suffix, it does not any case ending. In other words, it is used directly. This may suggest that the learners carry their native language habits into target language learning process.

For a more comprehensive picture of omitted contexts of ‘on’ see table 4. 8. This table shows in which contexts ‘on’ is omitted more frequently.

Table 4.8: Distribution of omitted ‘on for time’ according to contexts		
Contexts	N	%
(i) (on) + weekdays	8	57
(ii) (on) + (the) weekend	4	29
(iii) (on) third day	1	7
(iv) (on) trip day	1	7
TOTAL	14	100

Table 4.8 indicates that the most frequently omitted contexts of ‘on’ is weekdays with a number of 8 (57%). What is more, the expression ‘on (the) weekend’ is used in American English while ‘at (the) weekend’ is used in British English. The learners of the present study are taught ‘on the weekend’ in that they are going to take TOEFL ITP exam (for detail see Chapter 3) and classroom instruction and in class materials present ‘on the weekend’. Other omitted context and ‘on the third day’ and ‘on trip day’ each of which is used only once by a learner.

4.3.2. Use of 'on' for Place

'On for place' was used 42 times to express place in the analysed corpus. Figure 4.4 below displays the frequencies of aforementioned categories (i.e., i) correct usage, ii) misuse, iii) overuse, iv) omission).

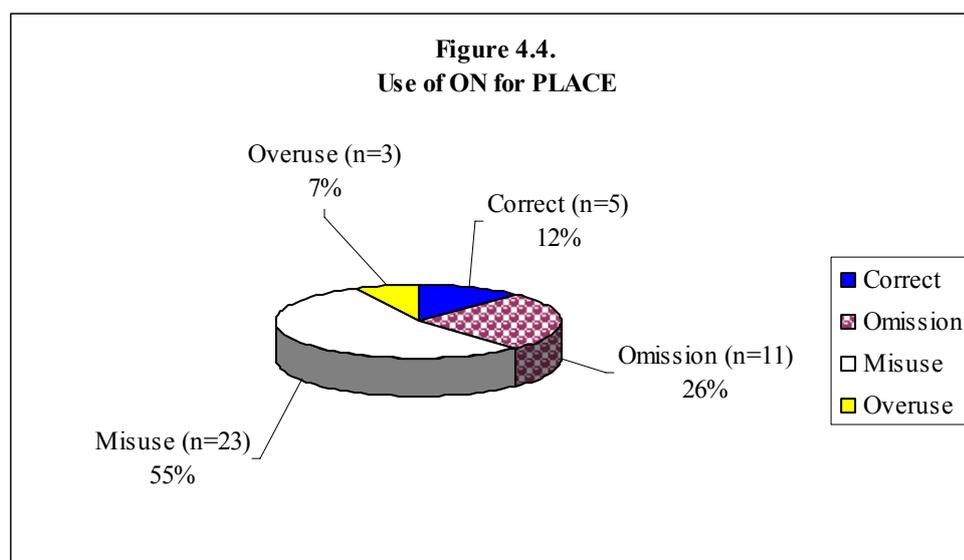


Figure 4.4 shows that 11.9% of the contexts 'on for place' is used correctly which is a quite small percentage when compared with misuse or omission. The correct usage rate of 'on for place' is also lower than the rate of correct usage of 'on for time' (the frequency of correct usage of 'on for time' is 15.8%). Though prototypical meaning of 'on' has to do with "the contact with a surface", the contexts of 'on for place' are not used correctly by the participants of the study. The contexts of misuse is 54.8%) equals to almost half of the contexts. Even though the rates of correct use of 'on' for time and space are similar to each other ($TIME_{\text{correct use}} = 15.8\%$), $PLACE_{\text{correct use}} = 11.9\%$) the rates of misuse ($TIME_{\text{misuse}} = 42.1\%$), $PLACE_{\text{misuse}} = 54.8\%$) are noticeably different. Moreover, the informants of the study overused more 'on' for expressing place than 'on' for expressing time. The contexts of overuse (i.e., where 'on' is not necessary but used) ($TIME_{\text{omission}} = 36.8\%$, $PLACE_{\text{omission}} = 54.8\%$) are remarkably different. The rate of omitted 'on' for both place and time are quite similar ($TIME_{\text{overuse}} = 5.3\%$, $PLACE_{\text{overuse}} = 7.1\%$)

The findings above may suggest that in contrast to the preposition *'in'*, *'on'* is used in similar pattern both for time and place. In other words, the distribution of the rates of categories (i.e., correct use, misuse, overuse, omission) of *'on'* for expressing time and space are quite similar. These findings may suggest that the prototypical use of *'on'* (i.e., contact with a surface) is used more or less in the same way with other meanings or contexts of *'on'* in contrast to *'in'* whose prototypical use is preferred over other meanings of it. Further, it may be proposed that learners are using *'on'* less than *'in'* in contexts they encounter in that the overuse rate of *'on'* is noticeably low (5.3% for time, 7.1% for place) when compared with *'in'* (11.9% for time, % 17.5 for place).

The findings above are parallel to the findings suggested by Raymond, Canale and Carroll (1977). In the study conducted with monolingual and bilingual students, the authors found that temporal *'on'* is used only 10 times in total corpus and total percentage of incorrect *'on'* is 10% which is high when compared to the use of *'in'*. Similar to the findings suggested by Raymond, Canale and Carroll (1977), *'on'* is used employed less when compared with *'in'* and it used more incorrectly as well. However, interestingly, *'on'* is used with a high rate to indicate space in their study in contrast to current study. The participants of their study used *'on'* in 139 contexts and out of these contexts only 9 contexts are used incorrectly. Their method of data collection is a possible reason of high rate of correct number of *'on for space'*. They interviewed participants and transcribed interviews. A likely reason of small number of the preposition *'on'* in our corpus is the topics discussed in video-recordings.

The difference between the use of *'on for time'* and *'on for space'* can explained by the theory proposed by Kemmerer (2005). Kemmerer (2005) maintains that temporal and spatial prepositions are linked with the metaphor of TIME IS SPACE. He claims that an intriguing feature of English prepositions is that many prepositions are used to indicate both time and space in English. A speaker can utter an expression like *'Her book is on the table'* and at the same time utter a sentence like *'Her birthday is on Monday/October 6th'*. Expressions used for indicating space such as *'at the corner'*, *'on the table'*, *'in the closet'* are simultaneously used to indicate time as

with a particular clock time (at 2:30), day-part (in the morning), day (on Sunday), month (in January), season (in spring), or year (in 2020). As seen in the examples provided a preposition may have both temporal and spatial functions and this accordingly may pose challenge on the part of the second language learners. Another point to underline is that TIME IS SPACE metaphor may not be applicable in all languages. Though it has been investigated by the author and found that this is common cross-linguistically, there may be mismatches between native and target language. In Turkish, native tongue of the participants, both space and time and can be expressed by the same mechanism, case suffix, but this may not be valid for target language in which different prepositions are used. Dissociation between native and target language therefore result in deviant uses of target language forms as is the case with 'on'.

4.3.2.1. Correct Use of 'on' for Place

'On' is a two dimensional preposition and it has a number of meanings; however, central sense of 'on' denotes contact with a line or a surface from the top (e.g., *the book on the shelf*) (Lindstromberg, 1996, 1998). Other non-prototypical or secondary meanings proposed by the author and found in English grammar books (Eastwood, 1994; Hewings, 1999; Foley and Hall, 2003) are the following:

i) 'on' denoting contact at an edge

a) Malibu is on the ocean

b) a hut on the park

c) Bookshop is on Rain Street)

ii) 'on' denoting in the direction of being faced or in the same direction as before (i.e, preposition of path)

a) Come on closer

iii) Metaphorical contact

iii_a)concerning

a)Article on black holes and their magnitude

iii_b)the burden metaphor

a) You paid the meals. Desserts are on me.

iv) Travelling by vehicles (e.g., on bus, on plane)

Table 4.9 below shows that out of total number of 38 contexts of 'on' in the corpus, 6 contexts of temporal 'on' are used correctly. This equals to 15.8% of total number which is quite small. The total number of spatial 'on' is 42 and the number of correct usage is only 5 with a frequency of 11.9%.

Table 4.9: Frequency of correct usage of 'on' for time and place compared to total number			
Correct usage of 'on' for time	Total number	Correct usage of 'on' for place	Total number
6	38	5	42

The participants of the study employ 'on' in 5 contexts correctly and these utterances are shown below in examples 4.52 -4. 54.

Example 4.52.

*M5: I remember seeing our village **on a map** and my father shows me our village **on the map**. He tells me that we are lucky because we have a small nice house in our village in Konya.*

F3: Do you like your village or Ankara?

M5: Of course I love my village it is very natural and it has a natural life. We have everything in our village. It is clean and beautiful. Erm Ankara has traffic, pollution, noise and crowded.

M5 is successful in identifying the correct usage of typical 'on' showing the location of the subject according to the landmark. He identifies the correct usage with 'on a map' and 'on the map'.

Example 4.53.

T: *Where do you read your books?*

M12: *I generally read them at home. I lie **on my bed**, listen to music and read my books.*

T: *What kind of books do you prefer to read?*

M12: *I love history books, science books, and poetry books.*

T: *Great! Then what is your favorite book?*

M12: *Erm, Gölgedekiler and Tutunamayanlar.*

T: *Oğuz Atay ha. Good, I think he is a brilliant author.*

Example 4.54.

F4: *I go to Bolu. I do skiing. I **sleep on snow**. I play snowball with my brother. Erm, he play guitar for us. My mother come, too. She loves snow.*

T: *Do you have an unforgettable memory from your holiday?*

F4: *Himm, I remember my brother and I erm düşmek?*

T: *fall*

F5: *Yes, I fall on lake. My brother fall **on lake**, too. My mother was afraid.*

4.3.2.2. Misuse of ‘on’ for Place

Category of misuse has a large number of 39 within the total number of 80 contexts of spatial and temporal ‘on’. This equals approximately 50% of the total number of usages. If this is compared to the percentage of the correct usage (13%) in both spatial and temporal contexts, it is revealed that the learners were not able to use ‘on’ correctly in most contexts.

In the same way, the frequencies of misuse of ‘on’ are compared for time and space. Table 4.10 displays their frequencies compared with total number of usages.

Table 4.10: Frequency of misuse of ‘on’ for time and place compared to total number

Misuse of 'on' for time	Total number	Misuse of 'on' for place	Total number
16	38	23	42

Table 4.10 above shows that the frequency of 'on' for time is 16 within the total number of 38 occurrences and this equals to 42.1 % of all the contexts of 'on' for time. In the very same way, the number of incorrect usages of 'on' for spatial function is 23. This is nearly half of the total number of contexts of 'on' (54.8%). These findings may suggest that 'on' is not used correctly for both space and time with almost similar rates. A possible reason of high rate of misuse in prototypical 'on' is that the learners are not successful in choosing 'on' in the non-prototypical contexts such as '*on the ocean, on the river*' and contexts of travelling such as '*on the plane, on the bus*'.

The analysis of the data showed that 'on' was misused 16 times instead of three of other prepositions: 'in', 'at', and 'from' and as Table 4.11 shows 'on' was misused most frequently instead of 'in'. 'On' was used instead of the correct 'in' in the expressions such as '*on my mind, on village (2 times), on our garden, on kitchen, on my bag (2 times), on the fridge and on the supermarket*'.

Table 4.11 Misuse of 'on' for Place: Contexts		
MISUSE TYPES	N	%
ON instead of IN	9	56
ON instead of AT	4	25
ON instead of FROM	3	19
TOTAL	16	100

The students replaced 'on' with 'at' in prototypical contexts of '*on+ university*' (2 times), '*on+the entrance hall*' (i.e., a subject having a contact with a surface). Another interesting misuse of 'on' is '*on the table*' in which the participants wanted to utter the following sentence: "*my brother and my mother and my father we sit **on the table**. We eat meals*". In this utterance, the informant tried to state that

the family members sit at the table to have a meal together. Both native experts state that instead of ‘*on the table*’ the learner should use ‘*at the table*’. Similarly, they replaced ‘*on*’ with ‘*from*’ contexts in three contexts such as ‘*on+ school*’ (2 times) and ‘*on +home*’ (1 time) (e.g., *I come on home to school in morning*), as shown in Examples 4.55- 4.62.

Example 4.55.

F4: *I try to find answer for my smoking **on my mind** but I can't. I try to give up smoking. Ahh! I can't.*

Example 4.56.

M4: *They go to village. They love live **on village**. Erm it is beautiful.*

Example 4.57.

M9: *I don't get up early on Sundays. I sleep late and I get up late. Then we have breakfast. I stay **on home** and I don't go to Kızılay.*

T: *you do not like going out on Sundays.*

M9: *Hi-hi. I don't like. I watch TV **on kitchen** after breakfast. I talk my mother and father.*

Example 4.58.

M8: *Every day after school I went to my uncle before I went home usually my grandfather and I meet him and my grandfather catches me and we go to in supermarket together. When we are **on supermarket**, he asks “*ne istiyorsun*”. He bought them from there.*

T: *yes*

M8: *then I go home my mother opens the door and in morning she asks me what to cook*

Example 4.59.

F3: *They like us me erm my brother and my mother and my father we sit **on the table**. We eat meals. My father is serious.*

Example 4.60.

M2: *On our garden my grandmother have flowers and she love them. They are beautiful.*

Example: 4.61.

F5: *I smoke erm my father angry erm my mother angry aaa she help me my father. I smoke in my balcony. (laughs) I sit at chair erm I take ice-cream **on the fridge** I eat ice-cream and smoke*

T: *When did you first start smoking?*

F5: *I was age 17 . Erm, My friends smoke they want I smoke. Erm they say smoke one time and I smoke. My mother see me one time I was my bedroom. I afraid. I say I don't smoke but she don't believe me. I erm soz verdim . But I smoke I don't give up.*

T: *You mean you promised but you didn't give up smoking.*

Example 4. 62.

F3: *I can't find my smoke **on my bag** one day. Erm I sey*

T: *Yes, you couldn't find your cigarette and what happened?*

F3: *I am angry and I erm vurmak kafamı ha my head to door for smoke.*

4.3.2.3. Overuse of 'on' for Place

The number of overused contexts is low when they are compared to total number of occurrences of 'on' Only 2 (5.3%) utterances contain overused 'on' in total number of temporal 'on' (N=38). Accordingly, the frequency of overused contexts of 'on' is 3 (7.1%) compared to the total number of 42 contexts of 'on' for place. The rate of overused spatial 'on' is 7% among all contexts. One possible underlying assumption is that the subjects of the study are not competent in using 'on' and that is why they do not overuse this structure in contrast to 'in'.

Table 4.12: Frequency of overuse of 'on' for time and place compared to total number			
Overuse of 'on' for time	Total number	Overuse of 'on' for place	Total number
2	38	3	42

'On' was used 5 times in contexts where it or no preposition was required. What is interesting about the mistakes of the students in this group is that they used 'on' with combinations like 'on everywhere' and 'on anywhere' where no preposition was required at all in English as shown in Examples 4.63 and 4.64.

Example 4.63.

T: What about your relationship with your family?

M8: My mother is angry. She say I don't tidy. I have clothes **on everywhere**. Erm she see my room and she become angry.

Example 4.64.

T: Is your mother helpful in tidying your room?

F3: No she is never help me. She tell me tidy your room. Ihm If I don't she cezalandirmak?

T: Punish

F3: Yes she punish me and I stay in my room. I don't **on anywhere** uh I don't do. Then she shout me.

A likely explanation for few number of overused 'on' might be that the subjects of the study have not achieved the mastery of the acquisition or learning of 'on'. Evin (1993) similarly claimed that Turkish learners of English do not achieve mastery of local prepositions until a late stage of language acquisition process.

In a similar study carried out by Raymond, Canale and Carroll (1977), no contexts of overuse were identified in their corpus. They also found that among a number of

English prepositions *in, on, at* are the first prepositions acquired completely by bilinguals (French/English) while ‘into, from’ were acquired relatively late due to properties of them such dimensions, and directions. Similar to the findings with bilinguals, *in, on, at* are acquired relatively early by monolingual (native English) learners. The authors state that the order of acquisition of locative prepositions is similar both in first and second language acquisitions.

4.3.2.4. Omission of ‘on’ for Place

The distribution of the category of misuse is 25 (31.2%) within the total number of 80 contexts of ‘on’. Omission of ‘on’ for time seems to be higher than that of space. This indicates approximately 1 out of 3 contexts in which ‘on’ is required is omitted.

Table 4.13: Frequency of omission of ‘on’ for time and place compared to total number			
Omission of ‘on’ for time	Total number	Omission of ‘on’ for place	Total number
14	38	11	42

Table 4.13 displays that 14 (36.8%) out of 38 categories of ‘on for time’ are omitted and 11 (26.2%) out of total number of 42 contexts of ‘on for time’. Though prototypical use of ‘on’ is learned earlier than other functions of ‘on’, the participants of the study do not use ‘on’ in the contexts where it is necessary. Some word combinations that ‘on’ is required to show space and that the learners fail to employ ‘on’ are ‘on board, on the wall, on sea’ and vehicles such as ‘on bus, on plane, on train’. For some representative examples see Examples 4.65 – 4.70.

Example 4.65.

F4: *Teacher! I don’t see writing.*

T: *Which writing do you mean Sila?*

F4: *It is **board**. I don’t see it. I can’t write.*

A similar example but a more non-prototypical use of 'on' comes from the function of 'on' for contact as in 'the picture on the wall'. M7 tried to display his project on the board and stated that 'This wall you see our project' instead of uttering 'on this wall you see our project'

Example 4.66.

M7: Listen to me my friends. **This wall** you see our project. We will talk about village and city. Village is nice, clean and no traffic. But city has traffic, pollution, and many people. In village it is peace. In city it is noise. I choose village.

Example 4. 67.

M3: I go holiday and I go to Marmaris.

T: How do you travel to Marmaris?

M3: Şey, I go there with car. But my mother **get plane**. She like fly.

Example 4.68.

F1: I get up early at 7 o'clock. I wash my face and brush my teeth. I go to erm durak

T: Bus stop

F1: Yes I go to bus and I get the bus. I sleep in bus (laughs). I come school and study English.

Example 4.69.

M5: I love village. Village is calm. Ihm you can walk yani you don't go to bus. You walk everywhere. In city you go to place you must **get the bus** and go to that place.

T: Very good point. Any other points about city or village?

M5: Teacher I think ihm I can eat good food in my village. I şey I have natural food.

T: This is another good point. You mean you can find fresh fruits and vegetables in your village.

Example 4.70.

T: How do you come to school?

F9: *I come to school with bus. I and my friend **get bus**. We come to school together.*

A detailed analysis of the findings pertaining to the category of omission of ‘on for place’ is provided in Table 4. 14.

Table 4.14: Omission of ‘on’ for Place		
OMITTED CONTEXTS	N	%
ON bus, train, plane (vehicles)	8	73
ON the wall	1	9
ON the board	2	18
TOTAL	11	100

Table 4.14 shows that displays that ‘on’ was omitted most frequently in contexts of vehicles (e.g., *on the bus, on train, on the plane*) with a rate of %73 (N=8). Additionally, the expression ‘*on the board*’ was omitted by the learners 2 times (18%). Finally, non-prototypical use ‘*on the wall*’ is omitted 1 time (9%).

4.4. The Contexts of the Preposition ‘at’

Many prepositions are employed in a number of different contexts. Being one of the most frequently used prepositions in English (Zwarts and Winter, 2000) ‘at’ has several meanings. Some of these meanings are as follows:

- i)* indicate point or intersect (e.g., *meet at the corner*),
- ii)* a point in space (e.g., *at the door*),
- iii)* events (e.g., *at the meeting*),
- iv)* target (e.g., *throw stone at wall*),
- v)* point of time (e.g., *let’s meet at 5*),
- vi)* holidays (e.g., *at Christmas*), etc.

These meanings may be related to time or space and they may be confused with other prepositions like ‘in’ and ‘on’ as in our corpus. However, this confusion can be prevented by analyzing their specificity or semantic properties. ‘At’ can be

differentiated from ‘on’ and ‘in’ in the way that it is used to show one-dimensional relationships while ‘on’ indicates two-dimensional and ‘in’ shows three-dimensional relationships. Furthermore, they can be distinguished with regard to specificity (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999). For instance, for conveying address and dates, ‘at’ is most specific, ‘on’ is less specific and ‘in’ is most general.

In the same way, ‘at’ is examined in detail both for its temporal and spatial functions in the present corpus. The analysis is done in the aforementioned order: a) correct usage, b) misuse, c) overuse, d) omission. First, the results of ‘at’ in the contexts where it is used to show time are provided and then ‘at’ for indicating place is discussed.

4.4.1. Use of ‘at’ for Time

The analysis of the collected data showed that the preposition ‘at’ was used 49 times for time by the participants in the study. Figure 4.5 below displays the distribution of this preposition in the different categories of analysis.

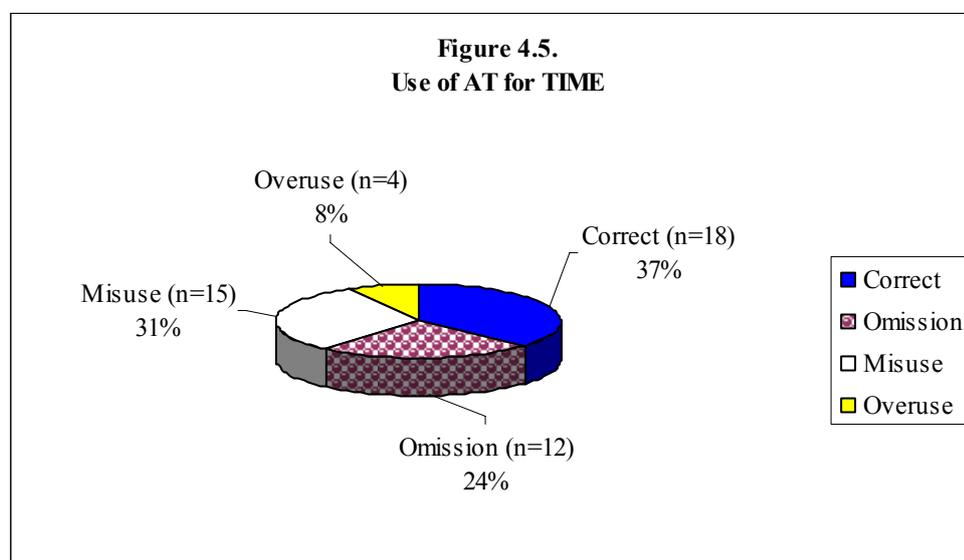


Figure 4.5 suggests that ‘at’ is used correctly at the rate of 36.7% (N=18) by the informants of the study; however, it is misused (e.g., *I smoke at evening*) with almost

a similar percentage of 30.6% (N=15). The percentage of omission (i.e., contexts where 'at' is required but not used) is 24.5% (N=12). The participants of the present study omitted 'at' in required contexts like 'at *midnight*', 'at *night*' or 'at *noon*'. The situations in which 'at' was overused (e.g., *At 7 or 8 is my movie time*) were small in number (N=8) with a percentage of 8.2%.

In contrast to the findings in our corpus in second language acquisition context, locative or spatial 'at' is acquired earlier and used more correctly in the first language acquisition process (Leikin, 1998). Children subjects of the study carried out by Leikin (1998) appeared to use locative prepositions far better than temporal prepositions. In our corpus, however, the informants of the study used 'at' more correctly for expressing time instead of expressing space. The rate of misuse of 'at for time' and 'at for place' is also remarkably different in our corpus. They misused 'at' with space more than with time. This in turn may suggest that 'at' is not acquired in second language acquisition process in the way it is acquired in first language acquisition process. A possible conclusion that can be reached is that first language acquisition may be different than second language acquisition process.

'*At, in, of, to, about*' are reported to be employed often by the Swedish speakers instead of other prepositions (Jansson, 2006). In author's words 'at' can be perceived as a very English preposition so the learners overgeneralize its use into other contexts. The possible reason for the overgeneralization of 'at' in contrast to 'in' in our corpus can be the influence of native tongue, Swedish, or the correspondence of native tongue and mother tongue. When a language element is changed into another language, there may be different representations in the other language. The errors pertaining to prepositions in this study are explained as transfer, overgeneralization and the influence of native language, Swedish. A few errors are explained as intralingual errors. In our corpus, however, it is not easy to propose that the greatest cause of errors is the influence of native language in contrast to the findings asserted by Jansson (2006).

4.4.1.1. Correct Use of 'at' for Time

The frequency and percentage of correct temporal 'at' are much higher than that of the spatial 'at'. The learners were more successful in using 'at' compared to the preposition 'on'. When these contexts where 'at' was used correctly for showing time were examined it was seen that the number of the combinations in which it was employed was quite limited. To be more specific 'at for time' was utilised correctly only in typical combinations: *at+ hour, at night, at midnight, at noon* (see Examples 4.71- 4.75).

Example 4.71.

*M1: Sey I do the same. I get up **at seven** o'clock. I have a shower. We have breakfast together. My father brings me to school on his car. I see my friends and my teacher (laughs) I go home. I sleep. I wake up and do my homework. Uhh we eat dinner together **at 8**. My mother and I watch dizi Asi, Avrupa Yakası, Elveda Rumeli.*

Example 4. 72.

*M1: I do the same thing. I wake up **at 7**. I don't have breakfast at home. I come to school and eat at the canteen. Classes begin and we learn English. I go back at home. I listen to music, surf the net, watch films. My friends come to see me every day. We eat together in dormitory. **At 7** o'clock in the evening I watch news. Erm I am curious about events in my country. Then I study if we have homework. Books oh I love books and read books and sometimes watch football matches. I am really into football. I love playing it too. Then I go to bed **at a late hour**, may be in the midnight or **at 1** o'clock.*

Example 4. 73.

*M4: I go home for holiday to see my family. I visit my parents. In summer my brothers and I go to home. My mother was happy. We meet at our house. We talk each other. I wake up **at eleven or twelve o'clock**. I go bed 1 or 2. We stay there in three months and my bothers go their homes and I come here.*

Example 4. 74.

F9: *I stay late sometimes. I don't go to bed early. At midnight I start to watch Prison Break. I watch two series.*

T: *You mean two episodes (teacher writes on the board)*

F9: *Yes, two episodes. I love it.*

T: *Great. It is a really good one and it will improve your English.*

Example 4. 75.

F9: *I wake late on Sunday. Ihm at 10, 11. My mother cook good breakfast. We have good breakfast. I finish at 12. and I watch my favorite program. It is in MTV. It starts at noon. It gives information about music.*

T: *What is the name of the program?*

F9: *It is music box.*

Further, as can be seen in Table 4.15, 'at' was used in some of the contexts much more frequently than in the others.

Table 4.15: Distribution of 'at for time' according to contexts		
Contexts	N	%
(i) At five, one (hour)	15	83,5
(ii) At midnight	2	11
(iii) At noon	1	5,5
TOTAL	18	100

Table 4. 15 shows that 15 contexts of 'at' are used correctly in the total number of 18 contexts of 'at' (83, 5%). Other 3 contexts belong to the category of 'at midnight' and 'at noon'. Only one occurrence of correct use of 'at noon' is found in the corpus. In the very same way, 'at midnight' is used correctly only 2 times by the participants of the study (11%).

Temporal function of 'at' is used much well in contexts of hours. The reason for that is the frequency rate of 'hours' is quite high in classroom language. A reasonable amount of time is allocated in classroom instruction to teach *at +hour* combination. Similarly, most textbooks provide space to teach time to students at an early stage of

second language acquisition process. That might be an explanation for the high rate of correct use of 'at' with hours.

4.4.1.2. Misuse of 'at' for Time

When used in temporal sense 'at' was misused 15 times (30.6%) in the corpus. The analysis of the data showed that the students used 'at' instead of other two prepositions which were also the focus of this study: 'in' and 'on'. 'At' replaced 'in' when the informants uttered sentences including words such as *evening* and *afternoon* (see Examples 4.76 and 4.77). Similarly, 'at' is misused instead of 'on' in the following expression: 'August 28, 2003' and 'Sunday morning' (see example 4.76). Their frequencies are provided in the following table.

Table 4.16: Misuse of 'at' for Place: Contexts		
MISUSE TYPES	N	%
AT instead of IN	11	73
AT instead of ON	4	27
TOTAL	15	100

Table 4. 16 shows that 'at' is misused instead of 'in' for indicating time 11 times. It is also misused instead of 'on' (4 times). For detailed scrutiny of the contexts in which it is used incorrectly see examples 4.76- 4. 80.

Example 4. 76.

F6: *I wake up at 8 o'clock. I come to school. Our class is second floor. I go to class. I meet friends. My lessons erm six hours. **At the evening** I go home. I eat meal. I play my computer. I do homework. I sleep at 11 o'clock.*

T: *Himm you do your homework. I am happy to hear that you spare some time for English.*

Example 4. 77.

M3: *In my village we wake up early at 6 o'clock. We have breakfast with my family. My uncle, my grandmother, grandfather, sister, brother. I like this. We go to tarla?*

T: Field.

*M3: We go to field. We study hard. Erm my I help my father in field. We work very much. My sister help me and she help my mother. At I **at the afternoon** we eat meal together. My grandmother uhh getirmek uhh hocam?*

T: Bring

M3: him My grandmother bring food and we eat together. We study again. Erm we go to home in night.

Example 4. 78.

*M7: I don't wake **up at Sunday morning**. I wake up at 2, 3.*

T: That late ha!

M7: Yes. I sleep late and I awake up late.

Example 4. 79.

*M10: I go to holiday **at August 28 2003** in Bodrum. It is great.*

T: Why did you choose that date specifically? Was it your best holiday ever?

M10: Yes, it was perfect. My girlfriend birthday. I go with my girlfriend. We love Bodrum and sea.

T: Nice.

Example 4. 80.

*F3: **At evening** I smoke in my room. My father watch TV. I uhh hocam Kilitlerim odamı ve içerim işte.*

T: Ah ah I don't know what to say. I don't want you to smoke- all of you.

'At' appear to be used instead of 'in' and 'on' in that the participants of the study have not reached the command of their use.

4.4.1.3. Overuse of 'at' for Time

Distribution of overuse in the total use of 'at' is quite small (8.1%). In only 4 contexts of 'at', overuse of the preposition 'at' is identified in the transcribed data (see Examples 4. 81 - 4.84)

Example 4.81.

F6: *At 7 or 8 is my movie time. I watch a lot of movies. I like watching them. Then I go bed and sleep. In morning I wake up, I go to school.*

Example 4.82.

F9: *At weekend is a good time. I love it. At weekends we have breakfast with my family. We go to shopping with my mother and my sister.*

T: *I strongly agree with you. I love weekends, too.*

Example 4.83.

M2: *I don't go to school at weekend. At weekend is holiday. him it is great. I go to my friends, we watch film, we play game.*

Example 4.84.

M5: *At night is ... uhh I sleep early at night. Teacher I sleep early.*

T: *What time do you go to bed?*

M5: *10.*

As mentioned before *'in'* is used much more frequently than other prepositions inquired. Accordingly overuse rate of *'in'* is higher than that of *'at'* and *'on'*. This finding is in line with Herkovits (1981). In her study, the author claimed that *'in'* is used more frequently than other spatial and temporal prepositions. This has to do with semantic features of *'in'* and its order of acquisition in language acquisition process. In first language acquisition *'in'* is reported to be acquired earlier than other prepositions (Leikin, 2002).

4.4.1.4. Omission of 'at' for Time

Though the participants of the study constructed well-formed utterances for expressing time, they failed to recognize some contexts in which the preposition *'at'* is required. The number of omitted *'at'* is 12 which is 24.5% in all contexts of *'at'* in its temporal sense. In most cases, *'at'* is omitted before hours in conversations

between peers (e.g., *I go bed 1*). What is more, it is omitted before ‘*night*’ and ‘*midnight*’ (See Examples 4.85-4.88).

Example 4.85.

M10: *I go home for holiday to see my family. I visit my parents. In summer my brothers and I go to home. My mother was happy. We meet in our house. We talk each other. I wake up **at eleven or twelve o'clock**. I go bed **1 or 2**. We stay there in three months and my bothers go their homes and I come here.*

In the example above M10 firstly used ‘at’ with clock time correctly and then immediately make a mistake (*I go bed 1 or 2*). It is evident that the learner is well aware of the use of ‘at’ with hours but somehow fails to apply the rule in the following utterance. These types of mistakes by the learners may also be due to the mismatch between native and target language. While native language adopts a case suffix (i.e., -DE, -DA) and target language makes use of ‘at’. In the same way, the case suffix -DE, -DA also can be the corresponding form of ‘in’ and ‘on’ and this naturally brings us confusion on the part of learner.

Example 4.86.

T: *What about Mustafa? How would you react?*

M8: *Also I will tell him bad effects. I show myself. I wake up in morning. **7 ihm 8**. I go sport with him. Sunday morning we go picnic. I show him forest, air and tell him be healthy. I tell my story erm In 1989 I born in Ankara I smoke and ill. You don't smoke.*

Example 4.87.

M5: *I live in dormitory and I wake up **early hours**. I don't have breakfast. When I am in bus I sleep and I come school. I buy pogaca in breakfast. I meet my friends and have lessons and then I go to dormitory erm sleep and surf net.*

Example 4.88.

F1: *I go home, I cook ihm yemek*

M2: *meal*

F1: *Hihi night I watch TV. I watch Acun. He is nice.*

4.4.2. Use of 'at' for Place

'At for time' was used 28 times by the subjects of the study and Figure 4.6 below shows the distribution of this preposition in the categories of analysis employed in the study.

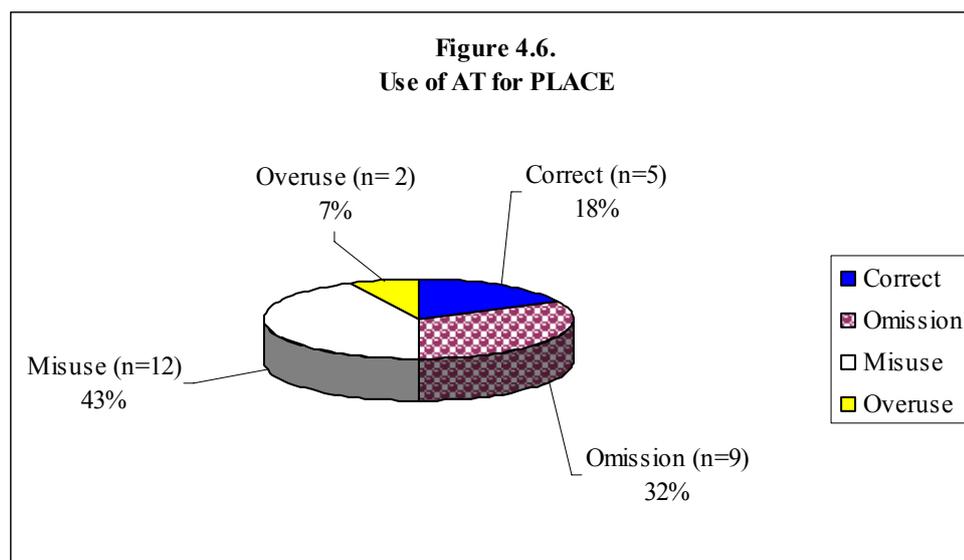


Figure 4.6 shows that the percentage of correct use is 17.9 % (N=5). This in turn suggests that the participants of the present study are competent in the use of 'at' for expressing place. The highest rate belongs to the category of misuse with a percentage of 42.9% and the number of misused 'at's is 12 in the total number of 28 occurrences. This rate indicates that approximately half of the contexts of locative 'at' are used incorrectly by the subjects of the study. The misuse percentages for 'at for time' and 'at for place' are highest among other categories ($TIME_{misuse} = 30.6\%$, $PLACE_{misuse} = 42.9\%$). The overuse rate is very close to the rate of overuse of 'at for time' ($TIME_{overuse} = 7.1\%$, $PLACE_{overuse} = 8.2\%$). Another high rate belongs to the category of omission in both expressing time and space ($TIME_{omission} = 24.5\%$, $PLACE_{omission} = 32.1\%$). A detailed scrutiny of each category is provided below with examples and tables.

In a study conducted by Hawthorne (2008), the acquisitions of prepositions and their associated case-markings were investigated with English subjects learning German. It was revealed that the native speakers of English face a complex learning problem due to contrasting pairs ‘on/onto’, ‘in/into’ and ‘at/to’ in languages inquired, that is, English and German. The mismatch between two languages inquired posed difficulty for the subjects of the study. The existence of cases in German and ambiguities arisen due to the nature of prepositions in both languages resulted in the persistence of errors until late stages of language acquisition. This is similar to the context of present study. Two languages, English and Turkish, differ lexically in the way they represent spatial orientation (i.e., English through prepositions and Turkish through case suffixes and postpositions) and this in turn results in deviant forms of prepositions or persistence of errors pertaining the use of prepositions till late stages of acquisition. Similarly, ‘at’ is incorrectly used to a large extent in present corpus and the likely reason for this is dissociation between native and target languages.

4.4.2.1. Correct Use of ‘at’ for Place

Though ‘at’ is used correctly in temporal sense to a certain extent, this is not the same for place in our corpus. The comparison of correct use of ‘at’ for time and space is provided in Table 4.17.

Table 4. 17: Frequency of correct usage of ‘at’ for time and place compared to total number			
Correct usage of ‘at’ for time	Total number	Correct usage of ‘at’ for space	Total number
18	49	5	28

It is depicted in Table 4. 17 that the frequency of correct usage of ‘at’ for both time and space is not high or promising. The number of correct usage among 49 contexts of ‘at’ is 18 which equals to 35.7%. Additionally, the number of correct usage in the total number of 28 occurrences is only 5 which equals to 17% of all contexts. These

results primarily indicate that Turkish learners of English in our study are better at using 'at' in the temporal sense. The less percentage for correct usages of 'at' in spatial sense suggests that the subjects of the study are not successful in using 'at' in contexts of places such as addresses, intersections, etc.

The learners used 'in' instead of 'at' in spatial contexts because of the prototypical function of 'in'. The correctly used combinations of 'at' for time are the following: *at a small house, at university (2 times), at hotel, and at restaurant* (See Examples 4.89- 4. 92).

Example 4.89.

F4: Have you ever been to a village?

*M1: Yes, When I was child, I lived in Adiyaman, Erm I live **at a small house** in Adiyaman and it was like village in Adiyaman. Then we went to Istanbul erm I was six years old.*

Example 4.90.

F3: Do you think living in Ankara or your hometown is good?

*F6: Ihm when I study **at university** I am in Ankara and I go to home summers. But I like my hometown most. My family live in my hometown. My relatives erm my friends best friends. Everything is great in my hometown. I don't love Ankara.*

Example 4.91.

*M11: I go to holiday. With my family we go to Antalya. We stay **at hotel**. erm I love swimming. I love sun, I love this holiday. Sun and beach him I love them .*

T: What do you do in your summer holiday in Antalya?

M11: I swim a lot. I go to beach. I go to bars at night. I love summer. uhh that is all.

T: All right, thank you for sharing.

Example 4.92.

F8: *I come to school at 8. We have class. We learn English. Uhh I erm I go to eat meal **at our school restaurant**. Then I come to class again. We go to listening and speaking classes. Then I go to home with service.*

T: *You mean by school shuttle.*

F8: *Yes.*

4.4.2.2. Misuse of ‘at’ for Place

The subjects of the study misused ‘at’ to a large extent as is the case with temporal ‘at’. The frequency of misuse with the category of time and place is displayed in Table 4. 18 below:

Table 4.18: Frequency of misuse of ‘at’ for time and place compared to total number			
Misuse of ‘at’ for time	Total number	Misuse of ‘at’ for place	Total number
15	49	12	28

As shown in Table 4.18 above, the number of misuse in time is 15 within 49 occurrences. This number equals to the rate of 30.6 % of in total number of all other usages. Similarly, the frequency of misuse in the category of place is 12 among 28 contexts of spatial ‘at’. These findings show that 42% contexts of ‘at’ were misused in the total number of occurrences of 77. The class of misuse is higher than the category of correct usage, overuse, and omission.

In misused occurrences, ‘at’ replaced three prepositions two of which are the focus of the present study: ‘in’ ‘on’ and ‘to’.

Table 4.19: Misuse of 'at' for Place: Contexts		
MISUSE TYPES	N	%
(i) AT instead of IN	5	42
(ii) AT instead of ON	5	42
(iii) AT instead of TO	2	16
TOTAL	12	100

The combinations that the subjects misused 'at' are the following: 'at the hills' (1 time). 'at my bed' (3 times), 'at table' (1 time), 'go at school' (1 time), 'go at Fethiye' (1 time), 'at my class'(2 times), 'at my room'(1 time), 'at my school'(2 times). For detailed analysis of contexts where 'at' is misused (see Examples 4. 93 - 4. 96).

Example 4.93.

M3: *Big cities have many things. Erm they are enjoyable. They have cafes, bars, university erm I like seeing many people. Uh I like erm towers, Atakule erm It is long erm it have Ankara seeing. You look sky closely, erm clouds in sky. Uh imm Last week my friends and me go to Atakule it was big. It erm it have good (showing view out of window) perspective. It is **at the hills** in Ankara.*

Example 4.94.

F1: *I love Ankara too, I come here to go university. I only love living at campus and I don't like living in dormitory. It is noisy. Erm I would like to become an engineer. imm Ankara is beautiful and you find everything but I am a shy person and I do not go out much. I listen to music and read books in my room **at my bed**. I study for my lessons. erm in Ankara is a crowded city. It has pollution and there is traffic.*

Example 4.95.

F2: *After lesson I stay **at my class** and do my homework.*

T: *Great.*

Example 4.96.

M10: I like holiday. I go at Fethiye summer. My mother, my father, my brother we all go Fethiye.

4.4.2.3. Overuse of ‘at’ for Place

‘At’ was used 2 times in contexts where it or no preposition was required. The category of overuse shows that the subjects of the study rely on the preposition ‘in’ more than the other two prepositions in that it is overused more than they are employed. The number of overused occurrences for time and space is provided in Table 4.20 below.

Table 4.20: Frequency of overuse of ‘at’ for time and place compared to total number			
Overuse of ‘at’ for time	Total number	Overuse of ‘at’ for place	Total number
4	49	2	28

The number of overuse for time is 4 in the total number of 49 contexts. This makes 8.2% of total occurrences of ‘at’ in the temporal sense. As for the frequency of ‘at’ in the spatial sense, the number of overused ‘at’ is only 2 in the total number of 28 occurrences. Accordingly, the percentage of overuse in total rate is 7.1%. Compared to total findings of overused ‘in’ and ‘on’, it can be concluded that ‘on’ and ‘at’ are less overused than ‘in’.

Example 4.97.

F1: Yes in weekdays I wake up early in the morning. I have a shower. I brush my teeth. I don’t have breakfast because it is early. Erm, I wear my dresses and I go out. I get to bus. Then I arrive at school. I go to at Nar Café and have breakfast with my friends. I love coffee so I drink a cup of coffee and a toast. Then it is lesson time.

Example 4.98.

*M11: Yes dry. ermm then we go at home. my grandmother was sorry. I tell I miss her. She does not come city , she loves **at** village.*

4.4.2.4. Omission of ‘at’ for Place

The subjects of the study omitted ‘at’ for time and place more than they overused it. But the number of misused contexts of ‘at’ is less than that of misuse and correct usage. Table 4.21 below shows the number of omission for temporal and spatial ‘at’.

Table 4.21: Frequency of omission of ‘at’ for time and place compared to total number			
Omission of ‘at’ for time	Total number	Omission of ‘at’ for place	Total number
12	49	9	28

As seen in Table 4.21, the number of omission for required contexts of temporal ‘at’ is 12 among 49 occurrences. The percentage of omission in the total number of contexts is 24.5%. Likewise, the frequency of ‘at’ for place is 9 in the total number of 28 contexts. This makes 32.1% of all spatial contexts of ‘at’. It can be stated that the learners are likely to omit the use of prepositions when they are not sure to choose which preposition is appropriate for the given contexts. Another possible explanation is that they are not aware of the contexts where spatial functions of prepositions are expected to be used.

The combinations in which the preposition ‘at’ is omitted for expressing place are the following: ‘at home’, at school’, ‘at hotel’

Table 4.22.: Omission of 'at' for Place: Contexts		
Contexts	N	%
AT home	4	45
AT school	2	22
AT hotel	3	33
TOTAL	9	100

Table 4. 22 shows that 'at' is omitted 4 times before 'home', 2 times before school, and 3 times before 'hotel' (see examples 4. 99-4.101).

Example 4.99.

M7: I smoke home, home is comfortable and my mother is working and my father is in office.

T: When did you first start smoking?

M7: I smoke when I was in high school.

Example 4.100.

M5: I smoke school but not home.

T: Then your parents do know that you are smoking.

M5: Yes, my father kill me. I don't say him.

Example 4.101.

F6: We go holiday Çınarcık. My mother love it very much. She want to go there summers. We stay hotel. Hotel is beautiful. I like hotel.

The subjects of the study used three prepositions instead of each other and some other prepositions like 'to', 'from' and 'for'. They misused them in a number of contexts and this in turn suggests that they have not distinguished these prepositions inquired at intermediate level of proficiency. This may be due to classroom instruction or instruction materials (i.e., books, worksheets, recordings, etc.). What is more, the learners may not be aware of the differences between these prepositions. In other words, in-class instruction may lack of raising students awareness of

distinctions between these prepositions and their counterpart Turkish postpositions. Though language learners are reported to rely on structures of their native tongues (Richards, 1974; Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005), some of them are not well aware of the rules of their native language. They cannot overtly verbalize the rule in their native tongue when they are asked. However, subconsciously they rely on their mother tongue in learning a new language.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.0. Introduction

In this chapter, first summary of the research including the purpose, the procedures of data collection, and the findings of the study are summarized. Then, some conclusions are drawn and the implications regarding the use of prepositions **in**, **on** and **at** by Turkish learners of English will be discussed. Finally, suggestions for further research regarding prepositions and their usages by second language learners are presented.

5.1. Summary

This thesis investigated the use of the prepositions **in**, **on** and **at** by Turkish learners of English and analyzes the differences between English prepositions and their counterpart postpositions and case suffixes in Turkish. By analysis the different systems that exist in the inquired languages, i.e. English and Turkish, this thesis tries to reveal some of the possible reasons for the errors/mistakes produced by the informants of the present study.

This study was carried out in with intermediate level students in preparatory classes of TOBB Economy and Technology University. TOBB ETU is an English medium university, thus all students have to attend one year prep class and to take TOEFL Institutional test to pass prep class. The level of learners was determined by the English language proficiency test (ELTP). ELPT is a test claiming to test all skills of English equally. The test is composed of two sections: i) writing and speaking, ii) listening, grammar, and reading. At the end of the one year of English instruction, students are supposed to take TOEFL ITP test to continue their education in their

respective departments. These 30 hours of instruction per week in the prep classes includes 15 hours of main course class in which a course book is followed and grammar points are taught, 5 hours of listening and speaking and 10 hours of reading and writing classes.

At the very beginning of the research process, questionnaire was administered to gather information about the background of participants of the present study. In the questionnaire the participants of the study were asked two sets of questions. The aim of the first set of questions was to find out the age range of the participants, their gender, hometowns, and departments. The second set of questions aimed to collect information about their English learning experience of the participants such as how long they had been learning English and what kind of material they had used so far (For a detailed list of questions see Appendix A).

After the process of collecting biographical data, the students' performance in class was recorded to investigate the use of prepositions **in**, **on** and **at**. The discussed topics in the video-recorded classes were family relationships, living in rural or urban places, holidays, smoking habits, and daily routines. Then, the video-recorded data were transcribed following the conventions devised by Dubois (1999) since this type of transcription convention was found to comply with the scope of the current study. When the transcriptions were completed, they were examined by three experts who work in the field of English language teaching. Two of the experts were native speakers of English and the other was the researcher herself. The results were cross-validated to reach a compromise for each category of prepositions and to ensure correct labeling. The data were analyzed using four major categories: a) *correct usage*, b) *misuse*, c) *overuse*, d) *omission*.

Following the categorization of prepositions, the contexts of their usages were analyzed under two main categories: TIME and PLACE. For the analysis of these contexts two tools were employed: i) SPSS, ii) CLAN CHILDES. Two tools of SPSS, i.e. ANOVA and chi square, were used to find out the frequency of each item and to examine whether there were any significant differences in the inquired data.

CLAN CHILDES was employed to analyze incorrect usages of prepositions **in**, **on** and **at** in depth. For a more qualitative and clear analysis of each prepositions some subcategories have been defined. For example, subcategories of incorrect usages of '*in*' are as follows: a) '**on**' instead of '*in*', b) '**at**' instead of '*in*', c) other prepositions instead of '*in*'. With this analysis, a better portray of the deviant or incorrect forms was reached.

With the help of the process described above, the use of prepositions **in**, **on** and **at** was examined in detail. Both contexts of their correct usages and incorrect usages were investigated to draw a fuller and a more comprehensive picture of the usage of these prepositions by intermediate level learners of English. In addition to quantitative analysis of the context via SPSS, the data is examined with CLAN CHILDES for qualitative analysis which in a way strengthens the quantitative findings of the present study.

The results of the study suggest that a total of 313 of these prepositions were used by the participants in the study and that 46% (N=146) of those were prepositions of TIME while 54% (N=167) were prepositions of PLACE (See Table 4.1. for a detailed view).

When the uses of **in**, **on** and **at** were compared among each other, it became clear that '*in*' was employed by the subjects of the study more frequently than the other two prepositions '*on*' and '*at*'. '*In*' constituted 40% of the TIME and 59% of the PLACE prepositions in the corpus. The preposition '*in*' was used instead of '*at*' and '*on*' in a number of contexts. However, when the usages of '*on*' and '*at*' were examined, interesting conclusions were reached. Although the overall rates of usage of '*on*' and '*at*' were quite close to each other, the frequencies with which they were used for TIME and PLACE were statistically significantly differ from each other. '*At*' was used statistically significantly more often for TIME than '*on*' while just the opposite is valid for the usages of these prepositions for PLACE.

What is more, the participants of the study used the three prepositions interchangeably (i.e., they used them instead of each other). Even though '*in*' was

used instead of the other prepositions with a greater rate, 'on' and 'at' also replaced 'in' in some of the contexts. The informants of the study also used other three prepositions (i.e., 'to', 'from', and 'for') instead of 'in', 'on', and 'at'. 'In' was the most frequently replaced preposition by 'to', 'from', and 'for'. Some contexts of 'on' was replaced by 'in' (e.g., in my holiday, in TV, chat in MSN, get in the bus) and 'at' (e.g., at Sunday morning, at August 28 2003) and similarly 'at' was replaced by 'in' (e.g., in night, in the midnight, in noon) 'on' (e.g., on night, on five o'clock). The informants tend to omit or leave out these prepositions in some contexts, too. In sum, three prepositions are used differently from each other in our corpus. It, however, appears that 'in' is learned/acquired a little bit earlier than the other two prepositions and prototypical uses of prepositions are used earlier and better than the non-prototypical uses of prepositions.

5.2. Conclusions and Implications for ELT

In the area of prepositions many researcher agree that prepositions are difficult and pose a lot of challenges on the part of second language learners of English (Celce-Murci and Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Günter, 2003; Hoffmann, 2005; Jansson, 2006; Lindstromberg, 1998; Saint-Dizier, 2006; Tyler and Evans, 2003; Zelinsky-Wibbelt, 1993; Zwarts and Winter 2000). ESL/EFL learners have problems with English prepositions even though they achieve a high level of proficiency in English. Celce-Murci and Larsen-Freeman (1999:401) state that "variation in the input data can cause much confusion on the part of ESL/EFL students, especially when the use of prepositions by native speakers departs from what the prescriptive rules dictate." This study tries to portray the use of the most frequently used prepositions in English (i.e., 'in' 'on', 'at') (Dirven, 1993; Eastwood, 1994) by Turkish learners of English with intermediate level of proficiency.

As it is difficult to distinguish between errors and mistakes, the present research includes each and every incorrect occurrence of the inquired prepositions (i.e., 'in' 'on', 'at'). The findings of our study show that the learners tend to rely on 'in' in most contexts possibly because of its prototypical features and in that it is acquired

earlier than the other examined prepositions (i.e., 'on', 'at'). The preposition 'in' replaced other two prepositions inquired in the present study (i.e., 'on', 'at') in the majority of the time and space contexts. The participants of the study overused 'in' in newly encountered contexts or in contexts in which they could not find an appropriate preposition/did not know which preposition to use. In the same way, 'on' and 'at' sometimes replaced 'in' in a number of the contexts. This, in turn, may lead us to argue that for the participants in this study in some of the contexts (with the influence of their mother tongue as well, -DE for in, on and at) there was not a clearly defined difference among those three prepositions and therefore, the students used them interchangeably.

The prepositions **in**, **on** and **at** were also misused instead of 'to', 'from', and 'for' very frequently. When the features of these six prepositions are compared and their representations/translations in Turkish are considered, it may be stated that the underlying reason for misuses is the influence of the native language. There is one-to-many correspondence between each of the English prepositions and the Turkish postpositions and case markers. One preposition in English may refer to more than one case suffix or postposition in Turkish and vice versa. One-to-many correspondence can be explained in the following way: When a single object-language element is changed into another language, several metalanguage elements may be the correspondent of the element in that language (Bloomfield, 2005). In order to help second language learners to overcome interference problems, distinction should be made between English prepositions and their counterpart case suffixes and postpositions in Turkish. Their distinctive properties should be pointed out and explained clearly to the Turkish learners of English. Exceptional cases or occurrences should be exemplified in class.

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) suggest that it is not easy to identify the source of a particular error and researchers should be cautious in determining the cause of an error. Many errors can be explained "in terms of multiple rather than single sources" (Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005:66). Similarly, it is hard to propose one single and 'Omni valid reason' of for the errors/mistakes produced by the learners. One

possible reason of incorrect use of prepositions is the influence of the native tongue. The subjects of the present study tend to rely on their native language and omit some prepositions as in ‘*Sunday I wake up early*’ and the equivalent of this sentence does not include any case or postposition (Pazar günü erken kalkarım).

What is more, most errors/mistakes found in our corpus may be tagged or labeled as intralingual errors which show the development of language. The second language learners are likely to produce such errors/ mistakes in that they are in language learning continuum (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005; Gass, 1979; Richards, 1974). There are some developmental stages of the language learning process. Until second language learners reach the command of target language they are likely to produce deviant forms in the target language in that errors/mistakes are inevitable parts of the learning process. However, this process may be eased and precipitated with the help of appropriate instruction techniques. With the awareness of the problematic features of target language, EFL or ESL teachers may accelerate their students’ second language learning acquisition process. Thus, relying on the findings of this study, it may be suggested that the instructors of EFL classes should be aware of likely problematic contexts of these three prepositions and help their students by focusing on the problematic features of prepositions. They also may show their students the different functions of each of the preposition and help them to be aware of a wide range of uses of prepositions. In the same way, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999:416) state that “While learning the various meanings and meaning extensions of prepositions is perhaps the greatest challenge, a pedagogical strategy that enables to pay attention to their co-occurrence, collocational, and discourse behavior in addition will no doubt facilitate learners’ acquisition of these difficult lexicogrammatical forms”.

In addition to the points that should be paid attention by ESL/EFL instructor, some forms and features of prepositions may be integrated into classroom instruction. As proposed by Lindstromberg (1998), semantic properties of prepositions are not as complex as it is represented. Rather, semantics of prepositions are systematic and both teachers and textbooks should highlight this systematicity. They should also

devote space and time to the explanation of a wide range of contexts in which prepositions occur. Not only literal meaning of prepositions but also the metaphorical meanings and contexts of prepositions should be emphasized in classroom instructions. In the same way, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999:415) maintain that “Some applied linguists would submit that some of the most frequently occurring prepositions are delexicalized. And that therefore makes sense to think not only about teaching their meanings but also about teaching their recurring combinations”. For example, ‘*at least*’ appears as a stuck expression but it can be taught by exploiting metaphorical explanations of prepositions.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

Although evidence from a variety of studies has revealed a good amount of information about prepositions and their semantic and syntactic features, some areas still need further research, particularly cross-linguistic studies. Research that focuses on the different representation systems of prepositions in various languages such as postpositions, clitic constructions, cases, particles, morpheme, etc. can be carried out. As prepositions have language-specific characteristics with regard to time and spatial representation, second language learners of English experience difficulties. Hence, research should delve into language specific views of prepositions and try to find out universal or common features of prepositions. Additionally, the influence of native language on the acquisition of prepositions both in Turkish and other languages should be investigated. Whether there is influence of L1 on target language in the use of prepositions or not may be further analyzed in second language acquisition process by researchers in the field.

Another possible area of study that needs further investigation is why the acquisition of prepositions occurs at a late stage of second language acquisition in contrast to first language acquisition process. A likely answer to this can be found by searching the way they are presented to the second language learners of English. To this end, the way coursebooks handle prepositions and their presentation to second language learners should be investigated. Accordingly, how and when prepositions are taught

in second language classes should also be inquired to reach a fuller and clearer picture of the acquisition of prepositions by second language learners. Language learning process can support the learning or acquisition of prepositions in a number of ways; thus, relying on the findings of this study at hand, classroom learning materials and teacher instruction should be improved or accommodated to the learners' needs for easing the acquisition process of prepositions.

Further, semantics of prepositions and their counterpart postpositions is worth pursuing in order to find similarities or a common set of properties which will contribute to the understanding of prepositions and fasten their acquisition process in SLA. Lindstromberg (1996) suggests that much more space should be devoted to the semantic features of prepositions in coursebooks which will, in turn, contribute to the perception of the systematicity of prepositions. The semantics of prepositions, in the most general sense, is considered too complex or intricate to figure out, however, it is shown by researchers that it has systematicity. Lindstromberg (1996) criticizes that remarkably little space is devoted to the semantics of this lexical unit because most textbooks in England and the USA fail to recognize how systematic the semantics of prepositions is and how this systematicity can be used to reach a better instruction of prepositions. Another lacking point in textbooks is how they portray prepositions. Most textbooks spare little time or space to the teaching of prepositions. A similar point is the way prepositions are presented to the second language learners. They usually are presented in chunks to be memorized which leads to rote learning instead of meaningful acquisition. More broadly, textbooks should teach prepositions in a more systematic way and with a wide range uses of prepositions instead of providing only prototypical uses of them.

As for the studies in the field of prepositions, a lot of emphasis is put on the linguistic features of prepositions, that is, their syntactic or semantic features. However, little research focuses on how prepositions can be handled in classroom instructions. What is missing in almost all studies is the pedagogical implication about what to be done to explore the approaches and activities through which different uses of prepositions can best be developed.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is a part of a study on the interlanguage development of the native speakers of Turkish learning English. All information provided by the participant will be kept confidential. Therefore, I would be grateful if you could give sincere and detailed responses to all of the questions.

Thanks in advance for your time and patience.

Sakine Çabuk
METU, Department of English Language Teaching
M.A. student

SECTION A	
Name:	
Last name:	
Age:	
Gender:	<input type="checkbox"/> Female <input type="checkbox"/> Male
Hometown:	
Department:	
Parents' level of education:	Mother: Father:

SECTION B

INSTRUCTION: Please tick the answer that applies to you in the first two questions and provide the answer for the following 6 questions.

1. When did you first start to learn English?
 primary school
 secondary school
 high school
 university
2. How long have you been learning English?

- 6 months
- 1-5 years
- 5-10 years
- 10 years or more

3. Which high school did you graduate from?

4. List the books and materials that were used in the English classes in the high school you graduated from.

5. If you know which dialect (e.g., British English, American English, Canadian English, New Zealand English) they focused on please specify:

6. What extra activities, other than the classroom instructions and assignments, do you do to improve your English?

7. Have you ever been to a foreign country? If yes, please write down where, for how long and for what purpose(s) have you been there?

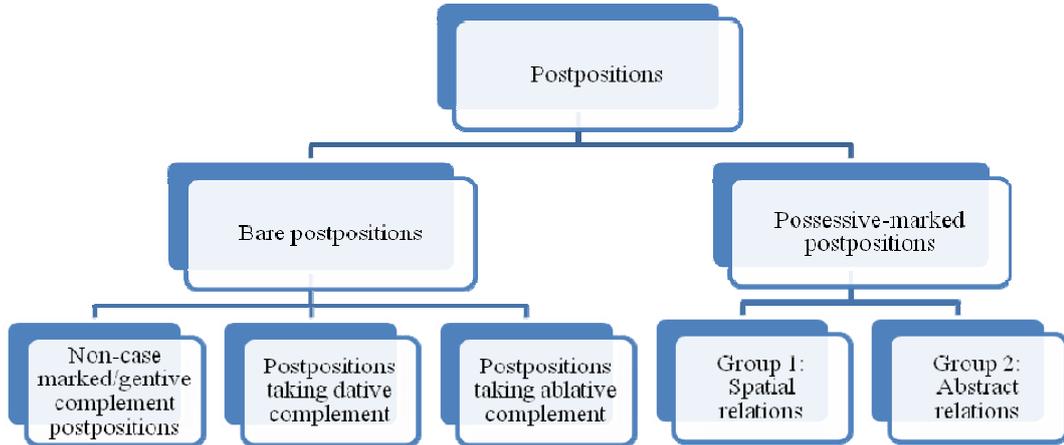
Country	How long	Why
7.1.		
7.2.		
7.3.		
7.4.		

8. Do you know any language(s) other than Turkish and English? If 'YES', please identify your proficiency level (e.g., beginner, low-intermediate, intermediate, upper intermediate, advanced) in this/these language(s)?

	Language	Level of Proficiency
8.1.		
8.2.		
8.3.		

APPENDIX B

Turkish Postpositions and Their Categorization



A Complete List of Postpositions (Göksel and Kerslake, 2005)

Postpositions taking dative complements	a) doğru b) göre c) kadar d) karşı e) rağmen/ karşın	a) towards b) according to c) until/as far as d) against e) in spite of	a. Kızlar denize doğru koşuyordu. ‘The girls were running <i>towards</i> the sea.’ b. Hava raporuna göre öğleden sonra... ‘ <i>According to</i> weather forecast...’ c. Saat 1’e kadar beklerim. ‘I’ll wait <i>until</i> one o’clock.’ d. Sana karşı değiller. ‘They’re not <i>against</i> you.’ e. Şebnem hastalığına rağmen çalışmaya devam eder ‘Şebnem is carrying on working in spite of her illness.’
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<p style="text-align: center;">Postpositions taking ablative complement</p>	<p>a) başka/ gayrı b) beri c) önce/ evvel d) sonra e) yana</p>	<p>a) apart from/other than b) since c) before d) after e) as regards/ in favour of</p>	<p>a. Bundan başka bir şey var mı? ‘Is there anything <i>other than</i> that?’ b. Pazartesi den beri hastayım. ‘I’ve been ill <i>since</i> Monday.’ c. Onlar benden önce gelmişler. ‘They arrived <i>before</i> me.’ d. Yemekten sonra bir fincan kahve içti. ‘He drank a cup of coffee after meal.’ e. Berna akrabadan yana şanslı sayılır. ‘Berna can be considered fortunate as regards relatives.’</p>
Possessive Marked Postpositions			
<p style="text-align: center;">Spatial Relations [Dative, Locative, Ablative case marking]</p>	<p>1. ön 2. arka 3. iç 4. dış 5. üst 6. alt 7. yan 8. karşı 9. ara 10. etraf/çevre 11. öte</p>	<p>1. in front of 2. behind 3. in/ inside 4. outside 5. on/on top of/ above 6. under/below 7. beside/ next to 8. opposite 9. between/ among 10. around 11. beyond</p>	<p>1. kapının önünde ‘in front of door’ 2. masanın arkasında ‘behind table’ 3. kutunun içinde ‘in the box’ 4. evin dışında ‘outside house’ 5. rafın üstünde ‘on top of the shelf’ 6. yatağın altında ‘under the bed’ 7. postanenin yanında ‘next to post office’ 8. tiyatronun karşısında ‘opposite the theatre’ 9. benim odamla onun odası arasında ‘between my room and his’ 10. evin etrafında ‘around house’ 11. gökyüzünün ötesinde ‘beyond sky’</p>

Abstract Relations	<p>1) acı-sın-dan 2) ad-ın-a 3) aracılığ-ı-yla 4) bakım-ın-dan 5) boy-un-ca 6) gereğ-in-ce 7) hakk-ın-da 8) itibar-i-yle 9) konu-sun-da 10) neden-i-yle 11) saye-sin-de 12) sıra-sın-da 13) süre-sin-ce 14) taraf-ın-dan 15) uğr-un-a 16) vasıta-sı-yle 17) yerin-e 18) yol-u-yla 19) yüz-ün-den</p>	<p>1) from the point of view/ in terms of 2) in the name of/ on behalf of 3) through (the mediation of) 4) from the point of view/ in terms 5) all along/throughout 6) in accordance with 7) about 8) in respect of/ in terms of 9) on the subject of/about 10) because of 11) thanks to 12) at the time of 13) during the period of 14) by (an agent) 15) for the sake of 16) through 17) instead of 18) by/by means of 19) because of</p>	
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APPENDIX C

Sample TOEFL ITP Test

1.

- (A) They don't enjoy swimming.
- (B) They won't go swimming in the lake today
- (C) They don't know how to swim
- (D) They'll swim in the lake tomorrow.

2.

- (A) The style of sweater she's wearing is very common.
- (B) The man saw Jill wearing the sweater.
- (C) She wore sweater for the first time yesterday.
- (D) She usually doesn't borrow cloths from Jill.

3.

- (A) He went to see the dentist a week ago.
- (B) The woman should cancel her appointment with the dentist.
- (C) The woman's toothache will go away by itself.
- (D) The woman should have seen the dentist by now.

4.

- (A) She's planning a trip to Antarctica.
- (B) She thinks attending the lecture will be helpful to her.
- (C) Her geography class is required to attend the lecture.
- (D) She has already finished writing her report.

5

- (A) The woman should join the chess club
- (B) He's not a very good chess player
- (C) The woman needs a lot of time to play chess
- (D) He's willing to teach the woman how to play chess

6

- (A) Ask Alice if the man can borrow the novel.

- (B) Return the novel to Alice immediately.
- (C) Help the man find his own copy of the novel
- (D) Find out how much the novel costs.

7

- (A) He has already tasted the chocolate pudding.
- (B) Chocolate is his favorite flavor.
- (C) He doesn't want any chocolate pudding.
- (D) There is no more chocolate pudding left.

8.

- (A) See the movie at a theater close by.
- (B) Wait until later to see the movie.
- (C) Consider seeing an English version of the movie.
- (D) Call the Pine Street Cinema to see what time the movie starts.

9.

- (A) He doesn't know how to find the student's grade.
- (B) He doesn't know if Dr. Wilson has finished grading the midterm exams.
- (C) He isn't allowed to tell the student her grade.
- (D) Dr. Wilson doesn't want to be contracted while she's away.

10

- (A) She had to wait even longer than the man did to have her car inspected.
- (B) The man should have had his car inspected sooner.
- (C) The auto inspection center will be closed at the end of the month.
- (D) The man doesn't need to have his car inspected until next month.

11.

- (A) He can act as a subject in the experiment.
- (B) He thinks the woman's experiment is difficult to understand.
- (C) He's busy working on this own experiment.
- (D) He's willing to help the woman run(?) the experiment.

12

- (A) Look for the misplaced check.
- (B) Ask the bookstore for a refund
- (C) Borrow some cash from the woman

(D) Repair this desk

13

(A) He hadn't heard that Karen had a new roommate.

(B) Karen wouldn't give specific reasons for her feelings.

(C) He thinks that Karen shouldn't be angry.

(D) Karen won't be getting a new roommate after all.

14

(A) The woman didn't submit the thesis proposal to him on time.

(B) He returned the thesis proposal to the woman a week ago.

(C) He hasn't read the thesis proposal yet.

(D) The thesis proposal isn't acceptable.

15

(A) It only cost \$400.

(B) He bought it a year ago.

(C) It has broken down.

(D) It's not as bad as his last car.

16

(A) Purchase some ingredients.

(B) Give the man a recipe.

(C) Write down the directions to the supermarket.

(D) Check to see if the stew is ready.

17

(A) He arrived at the theater later.

(B) He left his watch in the theater.

(C) The production seemed much shorter than it actually was

(D) He did not enjoy the production

18

(A) He can't understand the instructions.

(B) He doesn't have a computer

(C) He has a degree in computer science.

(D) He needs to take his computer to be repaired.

19

- (A) Arrange by phone to have a bucket delivered.
- (B) Deliver the papers herself.
- (C) Take her recycling to the town office
- (D) Return the bucket to the recycling department.

20

- (A) She prefers her eggs fried.
- (B) She never eats breakfast
- (C) She gets an allergic reaction when eating eggs.
- (D) She doesn't eat a lot for breakfast.

21

- (A) He doesn't know anything about engineering.
- (B) He wants the woman to postpone the talk
- (C) He hasn't finished preparing for his presentation
- (D) He regularly gives talks to high school students.

22

- (A) He told the woman to take seven courses this semester.
- (B) He knew that the woman's schedule would be too difficult for her.
- (C) His current schedule is also very demanding.
- (D) Taking so many classes will enable the woman to graduate early

23.

- (A) He needs help repairing his truck
- (B) He doesn't want to use his truck for the field trip.
- (C) The woman can use his truck if she agrees to drive.
- (D) He doesn't think all the telescopes will fit in this truck

24.

- (A) Dr. Luby won't be taking students to New York this year.
- (B) She doesn't know where the man can buy theater tickets.
- (C) Dr. Luby is performing in play on Broadway.
- (D) She's going on a theater trip with Dr. Luby.

25

- (A) The woman's source of information is reliable.
- (B) He didn't enjoy taking history with Dr. Parker.
- (C) He thought Dr. Parker's tests were easy.
- (D) Dr. Parker is no longer teaching history.

26

- (A) The man doesn't have air conditioning.
- (B) The man's air conditioner is broken.
- (C) The man hasn't been using his air conditioner.
- (D) The summer has been unusually hot.

27

- (A) He has decided how he's going to spend the prize money.
- (B) He doesn't know how much his rent is going to increase.
- (C) He 's already planning to enter(?) next year's essay contest.
- (D) He has already paid his landlord for next year's rent.

28

- (A) He'll probably postpone the test until after he talks about chapter 16 in class
- (B) He usually tells the students ahead of time what will be on his tests
- (C) He'll probably talk about chapter 16 in class today.
- (D) He might test the students on material not discussed in class

29

- (A) He has been applying only for advertised jobs.
- (B) He's convinced that there's a shortage of jobs.
- (C) He doesn't have time to read all the job ads.
- (D) He'll help the woman find a job.

30

- (A) To make plans for the evening.
- (B) To ask her about the assignment.
- (C) To talk to her roommate.
- (D) To give her some information.

31

- (A) A class presentation they're preparing.

(B) A television program the man is watching.

(C) Visiting a close friend of theirs.

(D) Studying for a test.

32

(A) He's taking a break from studying.

(B) He has already finished studying.

(C) He was assigned to watch a program by his professor.

(D) He's finding out some information for a friend

33

(A) He didn't know that she was enrolled in a linear algebra course.

(B) He thought she preferred to study alone.

(C) He thought she had made arrangements to study with Elizabeth.

(D) He had told her that he had done poorly on a recent test.

34

(A) He and Elizabeth argued recently.

(B) He heard Elizabeth did poorly on the last test.

(C) He doesn't want to bother Elizabeth so late in the evening.

(D) He'd rather study in his own dormitory.

35

(A) A more economical diesel fuel.

(B) Characteristics of a new type of fuel.

(C) Where a new energy source is located.

(D) How to develop alternative energy sources.

36

(A) He's studying for a test

(B) He lost his notes.

(C) He missed the class.

(D) He's doing research on alternative fuels.

37

(A) It will reduce the amount of pollutants in the air.

(B) It will increase the amount of unpleasant odors from vehicles.

- (C) It will eventually destroy the ozone layer.
- (D) It will reduce the cost of running large vehicles.

38

- (A) It's expensive to manufacture
- (B) It hasn't been adequately tested.
- (C) It damages car engines.
- (D) It's dangerous to transport.

39

- (A) To help him explain the information to his roommate.
- (B) To help him write a paper
- (C) To prepare for a test.
- (D) To tell her if the notes are accurate.

40

- (A) The life and times of an important modern poet.
- (B) How a poem's images relate to its meaning.
- (C) The musical quality of modern poetry.
- (D) The poems of Gertrude Stein.

41

- (A) She's the most famous of the modern poets
- (B) She didn't publish any of her works in her lifetime.
- (C) She was better known as a prose writer than as a poet.
- (D) She began her career as a writer relatively late in her life.

42

- (A) It reflects poetic techniques that were rejected by modern poets.
- (B) It's from a poem that the students have read.
- (C) It's the title of a poem by John Ashbery.
- (D) It's an example of a statement that is "empty but pleasing to hear."

43

- (A) Read some poems out loudly
- (B) Research the life of Gertrude Stein.
- (C) Compare the poems of Gertrude Stein to the poems of John Ashbery.

(D) Write a few lines of poetry.

44.

(A) Employment in the fishing and whaling industries.

(B) Nineteenth century sea captains.

(C) The economic importance of sailing ships

(D) The development of the steamship

45

(A) They were protected by a strong United States Navy.

(B) They were supported by a well-developed railroad system.

(C) Most crew members had experience on foreign ships.

(D) As parts owners of the ships, captains got some of the profits.

46

(A) They carried passengers, but not cargo

(B) They were large, but surprisingly fast.

(C) They were the first successful steam-powered ships

(D) They were more reliable than other ships of the 1860's.

47

(A) It's now taught with the aid of computers

(B) It isn't considered as important today as it was in the past.

(C) Children today learn it earlier than children did in the past.

(D) A lot of time is spent teaching it.

48

(A) To indicate the emphasis teachers once placed on penmanship

(B) To criticize a technique used to motivate children.

(C) To illustrate the benefits of competition.

(D) To suggest that teachers be recognized for their efforts.

49

(A) How educators create a curriculum

(B) Why some parents object to the teaching of penmanship

(C) The standards for penmanship in state curricula

(D) The effects of rewarding good penmanship.

- (A) The number of hours per week that must be spent teaching penmanship
- (B) The level of penmanship a child is expected to have.
- (C) The recommended method for teaching penmanship.
- (D) The reason computers should be used to help in the teaching of penmanship.

□ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □

1. From 1949 onward, the artist Georgia O’Keeffe made New Mexico _____.

- (A) her permanent residence was
- (B) where her permanent residence
- (C) permanent residence for her
- (D) her permanent residence

2. Just as remote-controlled satellites can be employed to explore outer space, _____ employed to investigate the deep sea.

- (A) can be robots
- (B) robots can be
- (C) can robots
- (D) can robots that are

3. In _____ people, the areas of the brain that control speech are located in the left hemisphere.

- (A) mostly of
- (B) most
- (C) almost the
- (D) the most of

4. Stars shine because of _____ produced by the nuclear reactions taking place within them.

- (A) the amount of light and heat is
- (B) which the amount of light and heat
- (C) the amount of light and heat that it is

(D)the amount of light and heat

5. _____ is not clear to researchers.

(A)Why dinosaurs having become extinct

(B) Why dinosaurs became extinct

(C) Did dinosaurs become extinct

(D)Dinosaurs became extinct

6. Although many people use the word “milk” to refer cow’s milk, _____ to milk from any animal, including human milk and goat’s milk.

(A) applying it also

(B) applies also

(C) it also applies

(D) but it also applies

7. The first transatlantic telephone cable system was not established _____ 1956.

(A)while

(B) until

(C) on

(D)when

8. _____ no two people think exactly alike, there will always be disagreement, but disagreement should not always be avoided; it can be healthy if handled creatively.

(A)There are

(B)Why

(C) That

(D)Because

9. Drinking water _____ excessive amounts of fluorides may leave a stained or mottled effect on the enamel of teeth.

(A) containing

(B) in which containing

(C) contains

(D) that contain

10. In the 1820’s physical education became _____ of the curriculum of Harvard and Yale Universities.

(A) to be part

(B) which was part

(C) was part

(D) part

11. Pewter, _____ for eating and drinking utensils in colonial America, is about ninety percent tin, which copper or bismuth added for hardness.

(A) was widely used

(B) widely used it

(C) widely used

(D) which widely used

12. A moth possesses two pairs of wings _____ as a single pair and are covered with dustlike scales.

(A) function

(B) are functioning

(C) that function

(D) but functions

13. Soap operas, a type of television drama series, are so called because at first, they were _____.

(A) often which soap manufacturers sponsored

(B) sponsored often soap manufacturers

(C) often sponsored by soap manufacturers

(D) soap manufacturers often sponsored them

14. The Woolworth Building in New York was the highest in America when _____ in 1943 and was famous for its use of Gothic decorative detail.

(A) built

(B) it built

(C) was built

(D) built it

15. Humans, _____, interact through communicative behavior by means of signs or symbols used conventionally.

- (A) like other animals
- (B) how other animals
- (C) other animals that
- (D) do other animals

16. More and 90 percent of the calcium in the human body is in the skeleton.

- A
- B
- C
- D

17. Perhaps the most popular film in movie history, *Star Wars* was written and

- A
- B
- C

direction by George Lucas.

- D

18. Some animal activities, such as mating, migration, and hibernate have a yearly

- A
- B
- C
- D

cycle.

19. Geographers were once concerned largely with exploring areas unknown to them

- A
- B

and from describing distinctive features of individual places.

- C
- D

20. In his animated films, Walt Disney created animals that talk and act like people

- A
- B
- C

while retaining its animal traits.

- D

21. The first city in the United States that put into effect major plan for the

- A
- B

clustering, of government buildings was Washington, D.C.

- C
- D

22. In a microwave oven, radiation penetrates food and is then absorbed primarily by

water molecules, caused heat to spread through the food.
A B
C D

23. The cultures early of the genus *Homo* were generally distinguished by regular
A B
use of stone tools and by a hunting and gathering economy.
C D

24. Dolphins are sleek and powerful swimmers that found in all seas and unlike
A B
porpoises, have well defined, beaklike snouts and conical teeth.
C D

25. The velocity of a river is river is controlled by the slope, the depth, and the tough
A B C D
of the riverbed.

26. The phonograph record was the first successful medium for capturing,
A B
preservation and reproducing sound.
C D

27. Generally, the pattern of open space in urban areas has shaped by commercial
A B C
systems, governmental actions, and cultural traditions.
D

28. A liquid that might be a poor conductor when pure is often used to make
solutions
A B C
that readily transmits electricity.

D

29. The initial discovery by humans almost 10,000 years ago that they could exploit

A

metallic mineral deposits was an important milestone in the

B

C

development civilization.

D

30. In 1989 Tillie Fowler a Republican, because the first member of her party to

A

serve as president of the city council of Jacksonville, Florida.

B C

D

31. General anesthesia, which is usually used for major surgery, involves a complete

A

B

loss of consciousness and a relaxation of the muscles.

C

D

32. After first establishment subsistence farms along the Atlantic seaboard,
European

A

B

settlers in North America developed a maritime and shipbuilding industry.

C

D

33. The legs of a roadrunner are enough strong that it can run up to 24 kilometers per

A

B

C

hour to catch lizards and small rodents.

D

34. For the immune system of a newborn mammal to develop properly, the presence

A

B

C

of the thymus gland is essentially.

D

35. Physicians working in the field of public health are mainly concerned with the

A

B

environmental causes of ill and how to eliminate them.

C

D

36. By 1850, immigration from distance shores, as well as migration from the

A

B

countryside, had caused New York City's population to swell.

C

D

37. By identifying similar words or structures in different languages, we find

A

evidence that those languages are related and may be derived from same ancestor.

B

C

D

38. Astronomers use photography and sighting telescopes to study the motions of all

A

B

C

of the bright stars and many of the faint one.

D

39. In the nineteenth century a number of Native American tribe, such as the

A

B

Comanche, lived a nomadic existence hunting buffalo.

C

D

40. The average elevation of West Virginia is about 1,500 foot above sea level.

A

B

C

D

This is the end of section 2.

Questions 1-9

The canopy, the upper level of the trees in the rain forest, holds a plethora of climbing mammals of moderately large size, which may include monkeys, cats, civets, and porcupines. Smaller species, including such rodents as mice and small squirrels, are not as prevalent overall in high tropical canopies as they are in most habitats globally.

Small mammals, being warm blooded, suffer hardship in the exposed and turbulent environment of the uppermost trees. Because a small body has more surface area per unit of weight than a large one of similar shape, it gains or loses heat more swiftly. Thus, in the trees, where shelter from heat and cold may be scarce and conditions may fluctuate, a small mammal may have trouble maintaining its body temperature.

Small size makes it easy to scramble among twigs and branches in the canopy for insects, flowers, or fruit, but small mammals are surpassed, in the competition for food, by large ones that have their own tactics for browsing among food-rich twigs. The weight of a gibbon (a small ape) hanging below a branch arches the terminal leaves down so that fruit-bearing foliage drops toward the gibbon's face. Walking or leaping species of a similar or even larger size access the outer twigs either by snapping off and retrieving the whole branch or by clutching stiff branches with the feet or tail and plucking food with their hands.

Small climbing animals may reach twigs readily, but it is harder for them than for large climbing animals to cross the wide gaps from one tree crown to the next that typify the high canopy. A macaque or gibbon can hurl itself farther than a mouse can: it can achieve a running start, and it can more effectively use a branch as a springboard, even bouncing on a limb several times before jumping. The forward movement of a small animal is seriously reduced by the air friction against the relatively large surface area of its body.

Finally, for the many small mammals the supplement their insect diet with fruits or seeds, an inability to span open gaps between tree crowns may be problematic, since trees that yield these foods can be sparse.

1. The passage answers which of the following questions?
 - (A) How is the rain forest different from other habitats?
 - (B) How does an animal's body size influence an animal's need for food?
 - (C) Why does rain forest provide provide an unusual variety of food for animals?
 - (D) Why do large animals tend to dominate the upper canopy of the rain forest?

2. Which of the following animals is less common in the upper canopy than in other environments?
 - (A) Monkeys
 - (B) Cats
 - (C) Porcupines
 - (D) Mice

3. The word "they" in line 4 refers to
 - (A) trees
 - (B) climbing mammals of moderately large size
 - (C) smaller species
 - (D) high tropical canopies

4. According to paragraph 2, which of the following is true about the small mammals in the rain forest?
 - (A) They have body shapes that are adapted to life in the canopy.
 - (B) They prefer the temperature and climate of the canopy to that of other environments.
 - (C) They have difficulty with the changing conditions in the canopy.
 - (D) They use the trees of the canopy for shelter from heat and cold.

5. In discussing animal size in paragraph 3, the author indicates that
 - (A) small animals require proportionately more food than larger animals do.
 - (B) a large animal's size is an advantage in obtaining food in the canopy.
 - (C) Small animals are often attacked by larger animals in the rain forest.

(D) Small animals and large animals are equally adept at obtaining food in the canopy.

6. The word “typify” in line 19 is closest in meaning to

- (A) resemble
- (B) protect
- (C) characterize
- (D) divide

7. According to paragraph 4, what makes jumping from one tree crown to another difficult for small mammals?

- (A) Air friction against the body surface.
- (B) The thickness of the branches.
- (C) The dense leaves of the tree crown.
- (D) The inability to use the front feet as hands.

8. The word “supplement” in line 24 is closest in meaning to

- (A) control
- (B) replace
- (C) look for
- (D) add to

9. Which of the following terms is defined in the passage?

- (A) canopy (line 1)
- (B) warm blooded (line 5)
- (C) terminal leaves (line 13)
- (D) springboard (line 21)

Questions 10 – 19

During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, almost nothing was written about the contribution of women during the colonial period and the early history of the newly formed United States. Lacking the right to vote and absent from the seats of

power, women were not considered an important force in history. Anne Bradstreet wrote some significant poetry in the seventeenth century, Mercy Otis Warren produced the best contemporary history of the American Revolution, and Abigail Adams penned important letters showing she exercised great political influence over her husband, John, the second President of the United States. But little or no notice was taken of these contributions. During these centuries, women remained invisible in history books.

Throughout the nineteenth century, this lack of visibility continued, despite the efforts of female authors writing about women. These writers, like most of their male counterparts, were amateur historians. Their writings were celebratory in nature, and they were uncritical in their selection and use of sources.

During the nineteenth century, however, certain feminists showed a keen sense of history by keeping records of activities in which women were engaged. National, regional, and local women's organizations compiled accounts of their doings. Personal correspondence, newspaper clippings, and souvenirs were saved and stored. These sources form the core of the two greatest collections of women's history in the United States – one at the Elizabeth and Arthur Schlesinger Library at Radcliffe College, and the other the Sophia Smith Collection at Smith College. Such sources have provided valuable materials for later generations of historians.

Despite the gathering of more information about ordinary women during the nineteenth century, most of the writing about women conformed to the “great women” theory of history, just as much of mainstream American history concentrated on “great men”. To demonstrate that women were making significant contributions to American life, female authors singled out women leaders and wrote biographies, or else important women produced their autobiographies. Most of these leaders were involved in public life as reformers, activists working for women's right to vote, or authors, and were not representative at all of the great mass of ordinary women. The lives of ordinary people continued, generally, to be untold in the American histories being published.

10. What does the passage mainly discuss?

(A) The role of literature in early American histories.

- (B) The place of American women in written histories.
- (C) The keen sense of history shown By American women.
- (D) The “great women” approach to History used by American historians.

11. The word “contemporary” in line 5 means that the history was

- (A) informative
- (B) written at that time
- (C) thoughtful
- (D) faultfinding

12. In the first paragraph, Bradstreet, Warren, and Adams are mentioned to show that

- (A) a woman’s status was changed by marriage.
- (B) even the contributions of outstanding women were ignored.
- (C) only three women were able to get their writing published.
- (D) poetry produced by women was more readily accepted than other writing by women.

13. The word “celebratory” in line 12 means that the writings referred to were

- (A) related to parties
- (B) religious
- (C) serious
- (D) full of praise

14. The word “they” in line 12 refers to

- (A) efforts
- (B) authors
- (C) counterparts
- (D) sources

15. In the second paragraph, what weakness in nineteenth-century histories does the author point out?

- (A) They put too much emphasis on daily activities.

- (B) They left out discussion of the influence on money on politics
- (C) The sources of the information they were based on were not necessarily accurate.
- (D) They were printed on poor quality paper.

16. On the basis of information in the third paragraph, which of the following would most likely have been collected by nineteenth-century feminist organizations?

- (A) Newspaper accounts of presidential election results.
- (B) Biographies of John Adams.
- (C) Letters from a mother to a daughter advising her how to handle a family problem.
- (D) Books about famous graduates of the country's first college.

17. What use was made of the nineteenth-century women's history materials in the Schlesinger Library and the Sophia Smith Collection?

- (A) They were combined and published in a multivolume encyclopedia about women.
- (B) They formed the basis of college courses in the nineteenth-century.
- (C) They provided valuable information for twentieth century historical researchers.
- (D) They were shared among women's colleges throughout the United States.

18. In the last paragraph, the author mentions all of the following as possible roles of nineteenth-century "great women" EXCEPT

- (A) authors
- (B) reformers
- (C) activists for women's rights
- (D) politicians

19. The word "representative" in line 29 is closest in meaning to

- (A) typical
- (B) satisfied
- (C) supportive

(D) distinctive

Questions 20 – 29

The end of the nineteenth century and the early years of the twentieth century were marked by the development of an international Art Nouveau style, characterized by sinuous lines, floral and vegetable motifs, and soft evanescent coloration. The Art Nouveau style was an eclectic one, bringing together elements of Japanese art, motifs of ancient cultures, and natural forms. The glass objects of this style were elegant in outline, although often deliberately distorted, with pale or iridescent surfaces. A favored device of the style was to imitate the iridescent surface seen on ancient glass that had been buried.

Much of the Art Nouveau glass produced during the years of its greatest popularity had been generically termed “art glass”. Art glass was intended for decorative purposes and relied for its effect upon carefully chosen color combinations and innovative techniques.

France produced a number of outstanding exponents of the Art Nouveau style: among the most celebrated was Emile Gallé(1846-1901). In the United States, Louis Comfort Tiffany(1848-1933)was the most noted exponent of this style, producing a great variety of glass forms and surfaces, which were widely copied in their time and are highly prized today. Tiffany was a brilliant designer, successfully combining ancient Egyptian.

The Art Nouveau style was a major force in the decorative arts from 1895 until 1915, although its influence continued throughout the mid-1920. It was eventually to be overtaken by a new school of thought known as Functionalism that had present since the turn of the century. At first restricted to a small avant-garde group of architects and designers. Functionalism emerged as the dominant influence upon designers after the First World War. The basic tenet of the movement – that function should determine form – was not a new concept. Soon a distinct aesthetic code evolved: form should be simple, surfaces plain, and any ornament should be based on geometric relationships. This new design concept, coupled with the sharp postwar reactions to the style and conventions of the preceding decades, created an entirely new public taste which caused Art Nouveau types of glass to fall out of favor. The

new taste demanded dramatic effects of contrast stark outline, and complex textural surfaces.

20. What does paragraph 1 mainly discuss?

- (A) Design elements in the Art Nouveau style
- (B) The popularity of the Art Nouveau style
- (C) Production techniques for art glass
- (D) Color combinations typical of the Art Nouveau style

21. The word “one” in line 4 refers to

- (A) century
- (B) development
- (C) style
- (D) coloration

22. Paragraph 1 mentions that Art Nouveau glass was sometimes similar to which aspect of ancient burial glass?

- (A) The distortion of the glass
- (B) The appearance of the glass
- (C) The shapes of the glass objects
- (D) The size of the glass objects

23. What is the main purpose of paragraph 2 ?

- (A) To compare different Art Nouveau styles
- (B) To give examples of famous Art Nouveau artists
- (C) To explain why Art Nouveau glass was so popular in the United States
- (D) To show the impact Art Nouveau had on other cultures around the world

24. The word “prized” in line 14 is closest in meaning to

- (A) valued
- (B) universal
- (C) uncommon

(D) preserved

25. The word “overtaken” in line 19 is closest in meaning to

(A) surpassed

(B) inclined

(C) expressed

(D) applied

26. What does the author mean by stating that “function should determine form” (line 22) ?

(A) A useful object should not be attractive.

(B) The purpose of an object should influence its form

(C) The design of an object

(D) The form of an object should not include decorative elements.

27. It can be inferred from the passage that one reason Functionalism became popular was that it

(A) clearly distinguish

(B) appealed to people who liked complex painted designs

(C) reflected a common desire to break from the past

(D) was easily interpreted by the general public

28. Paragraph 3 supports which of the following statements about Functionalism?

(A) Its design concept avoided geometric shapes.

(B) It started on a small scale and then spread gradually.

(C) It was a major force in the decorative arts before the First World War

(D) It was not attractive to architects and designers

29. According to the passage, an object made in the Art Nouveau style would most likely include

(A) a flowered design

(B) bright colors

- (C) modern symbols
- (D) a textured surface

Questions 30 – 40

During most of their lives, surge glaciers behave like normal glaciers, traveling perhaps only a couple of inches per day. However, at intervals of 10 to 100 years, these glaciers move forward up to 100 times faster than usual. The surge often progresses along a glacier like a great wave, proceeding from one section to another. Subglacial streams of melt water might act as a lubricant, allowing the glacier to flow rapidly toward the sea. The increasing water pressure under the glacier might lift it off its bed, overcoming the friction between ice and rock, thus freeing the glacier, which rapidly slides downhill. Surge glaciers also might be influenced by the climate, volcanic heat, or earthquakes. However, many of these glaciers exist in the same areas as normal glaciers, often almost side by side.

Some 800 years ago, Alaska's Hubbard Glacier advanced toward the sea, retreated, and advanced again 500 years later. Since 1895, this seventy-mile-long river of ice has been flowing steadily toward the Gulf of Alaska at a rate of approximately 200 feet per year. In June 1986, however, the glacier surged ahead as much as 47 feet a day. Meanwhile, a western tributary, called Valerie Glacier, advanced up to 112 feet per day. Hubbard's surge closed off Russell Fiord with a formidable ice dam, some 2,500 feet wide and up to 800 feet high, whose caged waters threatened the town of Yakutat to the south.

About 20 similar glaciers around the Gulf of Alaska are heading toward the sea. If enough surge glaciers reach the ocean and raise sea levels, West Antarctic ice shelves could rise off the seafloor and become adrift. A flood of ice would then surge into the Southern Sea. With the continued rise in sea level, more ice would plunge into the ocean, causing sea levels to rise even higher, which in turn would release more ice and set in motion a vicious cycle. The additional sea ice floating toward the tropics would increase. Earth's albedo and lower global temperatures, perhaps enough to initiate a new ice age. This situation appears to have occurred at the end of the last warm interglacial (the time between glaciations), called the

Sangamon, when sea ice cooled the ocean dramatically, spawning the beginning of the Ice Age.

30. What is the main topic of the passage?

- (A) The classification of different types of surge glaciers.
- (B) The causes and consequences of surge glaciers.
- (C) The definition of a surge glacier.
- (D) The history of a particular surge Glacier.

31. The word “intervals” in line 2 is closest in meaning to

- (A) records
- (B) speeds
- (C) distances
- (D) periods

32. The author compares the surging motion of a surge glacier to the movement of a

- (A) fish
- (B) wave
- (C) machine
- (D) boat

33. Which of the following does another mention as possible cause of surging glaciers?

- (A) The decline in sea levels.
- (B) The occurrence of unusually large ocean waves.
- (C) The shifting Antarctic ice shelves.
- (D) The pressure of meltwater Underneath the glacier.

34. The word “freeing” in line 7 is closest in meaning to

- (A) pushing
- (B) releasing
- (C) strengthening

(D) draining

35. According to the passage, the Hubbard Glacier

(A) moves more often than the Valerie Glacier.

(B) began movement toward the sea in 1895

(C) is 800 feet wide.

(D) has moved as fast as 47 feet per day.

36. Yahutat is the name of

(A) an Alaskan town

(B) the last ice age

(C) a surge glacier

(D) an Antarctic ice shelf

37. The word “plunge” in line 20 is closest in meaning to

(A) drop

(B) extent

(C) melt

(D) drift

38. The term “vicious cycle” in line 22 refers to the

(A) movement pattern of surge glaciers

(B) effect surge glaciers could have on the temperature of tropical areas

(C) effect that repeated rising sea levels might have on glacial ice

(D) constant threat surge glaciers could pose to the Gulf of Alaska

39. The author provides a definition for which of the following terms?

(A) Tributary (line 14)

(B) Ice dam (line 15)

(C) Albedo (line 23)

(D) Interglacial (line 24)

40. Which of the following statements is supported by the passage?

- (A) The movement of surge glaciers can be prevented.
- (B) The next ice age could be caused by surge glaciers.
- (C) Surge glaciers help to support Antarctic ice shelves.
- (D) Normal glaciers have little effect on Earth's climate.

Questions 41 – 50

According to sociologists, there are several different ways in which a person may become recognized as the leader of a social group in the United States. In the family traditional cultural patterns confer leadership on one or both of the parents. In other cases, such as friendship groups, one or more persons may gradually emerge as leaders, although there is no formal process of selection. In larger groups, leaders are usually chosen formally through election or recruitment .

Although leaders are often thought to be people with unusual personal ability, decades of research have failed to produce consistent evidence that there is any category of “natural leaders.” It seems that there is no set of personal qualities that all leaders have in common; rather, virtually any person may be recognized as a leader if the person has qualities that meet the needs of that particular group.

Furthermore, although it is commonly supposed that social groups have a single leader, research suggests that there are typically two different leadership roles that are held by different individuals. Instrumental leadership is leadership that emphasizes the completion of tasks by a social group. Group members look to instrumental leaders to “get things done.” Expressive leadership, on the other hand, is leadership that emphasizes the collective well-beings of a social group's members. Expressive leaders are less concerned with the overall goals of the group than with providing emotional support to group members and attempting to minimize tension and conflict among them. Group members expect expressive leaders to maintain stable relationships within the group and provide support to individual members.

Instrumental leaders are likely to have a rather secondary relationship to other group members. They give orders and may discipline group members who inhibit attainment of the group's goals. Expressive leaders cultivate a more personal or primary relationship to others in the group. They offer sympathy when someone

experiences difficulties or is subjected to discipline, are quick to lighten a serious moment with humor, and try to resolve issues that threaten to divide the group. As the difference in these two roles suggest, expressive leaders generally receive more personal affection from group members; instrumental leaders, if they are successful in promoting group goals, may enjoy a more distant respect.

41. What does the passage mainly discuss?

- (A) The problems faced by leaders.
- (B) How leadership differs in Small and large groups.
- (C) How social groups determine who will lead them.
- (D) The role of leaders in social groups.

42. The passage mentions all of the following ways by which people can become leaders EXCEPT

- (A) recruitment
- (B) formal election process
- (C) specific leadership training
- (D) traditional cultural patterns

43. In mentioning “natural leaders” in line 9, the author is making the point that

- (A) few people qualify as “natural leaders”.
- (B) there is no proof that “natural leaders” exist.
- (C) “natural leaders” are easily accepted by the members of a group.
- (D) “natural leaders” share a similar set of characteristics

44. Which of the following statements about leadership can be inferred from paragraph 2?

- (A) A person who is an effective leader of a particular group may not be an effective leader in another group
- (B) Few people succeed in sharing a leadership role with another person
- (C) A person can best learn how to be an effective leader by studying research on leadership.

(D) Most people desire to be leaders but can produce little evidence of their qualifications.

45. The passage indicates that instrumental leaders generally focus on

- (A) ensuring harmonious relationships.
- (B) sharing responsibility with group members.
- (C) identifying new leaders.
- (D) achieving a goal.

46. The word “collective” in line 17 is closest in meaning to

- (A) necessary
- (B) typical
- (C) group
- (D) particular

47. The word “them” in line 19 refers to

- (A) expressive leaders
- (B) goals of the group
- (C) group members
- (D) tension and conflict

48. A “secondary relationship” mentioned in line 27 between a leader and the members of a group could best be characterized as

- (A) distant
- (B) enthusiastic
- (C) unreliable
- (D) personal

49. The word “resolve” in line 27 is closest in meaning to

- (A) avoid repeating
- (B) talk about
- (C) avoid thinking about

(D) find a solution for

50. Paragraphs 3 and 4 organize the discussion of leadership primarily in terms of

(A) examples that illustrate a problem

(B) cause and effect analysis

(C) narration of events

(D) comparison and contrast

This is the end of section 3

STOP