

SÖZCÜKSEL GÖRÜNÜŞÜN ARADIL OLARAK KONUŞULAN
İNGİLİZCE'DE ZAMAN KULLANIMINA ETKİLERİ

THE EFFECTS OF LEXICAL ASPECT
IN THE INTERLANGUAGE TENSE USE OF
EFL LEARNERS

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Yüksek Lisans Tezi
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İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

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Bu çalışma fiillerin anlamsal özelliklerinin *zaman* hatalarında etkili olup olmadığını incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Çalışma Uludağ Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'ndan 50 birinci sınıf öğrencisi üzerinde uygulanmıştır. Öğrenciler dönem başında verilen seviye tesbit sınavı sonuçlarına göre seçilmiş olup hepsi orta düzeydedir.

Deneklere 20 dakikalık kısa bir film izleyecekleri ve daha sonra kendilerinden filmi yazılı olarak bir ders saati içinde – 45 dakika- anlatmalarının isteneceği söylenmiştir.

Sonuçlar sürekli geçmiş zaman ve geniş zaman kullanımlarının İngilizce öğrenen orta düzey Türk öğrencileri için sorunlu olduğunu göstermiştir. Sürekli geçmiş zamanda anadilden etkilenmenin yanı sıra *oluş* eylemlerinin sorunlu olduğu gözlenmiştir. İstatistiksel veriler, İngilizce öğrenen orta düzey Türk öğrencilerinin geçmişe ait olayları hikaye ederken *oluş* eylemlerini anlamsal özellikleri itibarı ile geniş zamanda kullanma eğiliminde olduğunu göstermiştir.

ABSTRACT

This study mainly investigates the relation between the verbal morphology and the aspectual classes of verbs, specifically, whether lexical aspectual classes of verbs are factors that affect tense errors of intermediate-level Turkish EFL learners.

The study was applied at Uludağ University, Faculty of Education English Language Teaching Department. Totally, 50 students from the first year classes participated in the study. The subjects were chosen according to the results of the placement test given at the beginning of the academic year.

All the subjects watched a 20-minute film played twice. Before the film, subjects were all told that they would be asked to tell the story after they had seen the film. After they saw the movie, the subjects were given the class period, of approximately 45-50 minutes, to produce their written narratives.

At the end of the analysis of the data it was found that two tenses, past progressive tense and presents tense are problematic for intermediate level Turkish EFL learners. The causes of the errors related to the past progressive tense are considered to be the result of L1 interference and also *statives* are considered as a problematic aspectual class. The statistical results also indicate the use of *statives* in the present tense in past tense narratives as a great problem caused by the lexical properties of the *state verbs*.

JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CA	Contrastive Analysis
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
IL	Interlanguage
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TL	Target Language

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

Tense use has long been the subject of many English as a Foreign Language (EFL) research studies. Many EFL teachers and researchers recognise that English tenses are difficult to acquire. What is agreed is that even very advanced EFL learners often use tenses inconsistently (see Walker, 1967; Ravem, 1968, 1984; Bauer, 1970; Dillon, 1973; Moy, 1977, 1982; Fitikides, 1977; Richards, 1978, 1981, 1984; Chappel & Rodby, 1983; Guiora, 1983; Wolfram, 1985; McKay, 1985; Hatch, Gough & Peck, 1985; Riddle, 1986; DeCarrico, 1986; Bland, 1988; Sharwood Smith, 1988; McCarthy, 1991; Aitken, 1992; Makoni, 1996; Hinkel, 1992, 1997).

Despite the best efforts, students consistently misuse, misunderstand, and misapply tenses. Aitken (1992) gives the reasons for mislearning of tenses as follows:

- the fact that students of a foreign language have great many things to remember at once
- mother tongue interference
- a teacher's failure to understand fully the nature of the tense he/she is teaching and how it differs from the mother tongue, and why it is preferred in a particular situation
- inefficient teaching style of a teacher- such as, his/her failure to choose examples and illustrations which help, rather than hinder, understanding.

Fitikides (1977:18ff.) and Richards (1978:99ff.) located tense errors that we might expect from anyone learning English as a second language. They observed that the same problems are seen in all EFL learners independent of their native languages. For instance, past tense errors are seen not only among the speakers of languages without past tenses, such as Chinese or Indonesian, but also among the Korean and Japanese speakers, whose language do have past tenses. These errors may also occur with children acquiring English as a mother tongue and with deaf children learning written English. Some significant errors concerning the tense use may be listed as follows:

- 1) *be + verb stem (+ed) for verb + stem (+ed)*
 - * We *are live* in this hut.
 - * The teacher *was told* us.
 - * This money *is belonged* to me.

- 2) *be omitted before verb+ing*
 - * They *running* very fast.
 - * The industry *growing* fast.

- 3) *be + verb +-ing for verb stem (or do + not + verb or verb + -ed in narrative)*
 - * I *am having* my hair cut on Thursdays.
 - * I *am not liking* it.
 - * ... in the afternoon we *were going* back. On Saturday we *were going* down town, and we *were seeing* a film and after we *were meeting* my brother.

- 4) *have + verb + ed for verb + -ed or vice versa*
 - * He *has arrived* at noon.
 - * We *correspond* with them up to now.

5) errors in the tense sequence

* When the evening *came* we *go* to the pictures.

* When I *came back* I *am* tired.

The examples below are taken from students' papers on various topics. They also show that tenses are problematic for intermediate-level Turkish EFL students. The sentences below exemplify tense errors, shown in italics:

6) * If people care about young people, there will not be so many young people who *are living* on the streets.

(instead of ..., there will not be so many young people who live on the streets.)

(be + verb + ing for verb stem- a permanent situation is expressed as if it was a temporary one)

7) * People *are working* for living in good conditions so they want to earn more money.

(instead of People work for living)

(be + verb + ing for verb stem- a permanent situation is expressed as if it was a temporary one)

8) * Many people *are not concerning* with the other things like having a picnic, going to the movies etc.

(instead of Many people do not concern other things like having a picnic,)

(be + verb + ing for do+ not + verb- a permanent situation is expressed as if it was a temporary one)

9) * They *are using* right side of their brain so they have some different abilities.

(instead of They use the right side of their brains so)

(be + verb + ing for verb stem- a permanent situation is expressed as if it was a temporary one)

10) * We played with the dog a little, and *go on* walking.

(instead of ..., and went on walking.)

(error in the tense sequence)

When we have a brief look at the development of language teaching, it is understood that investigating students' errors has had an important place in EFL studies and research. The collection, classification, and analyses of errors in the written and spoken performance of second or foreign language teaching have been carried out since at least the 1950s (Richards. 1985:62). Not only theories, methods, and approaches but also research on how and to what degree a particular item is learned help researchers and language teachers find their ways in the teaching/learning process. Thus, before going into detail about tense, a brief discussion of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) framework is in order, because this study is embedded in such a framework.

Until the late sixties as a result of the influence of behaviouristic theory, learning was considered as a question of acquiring a set of new habits. Therefore, errors were predicted to be the result of existing mother tongue habits in the new language. Thus, in order to predict or explain errors made by learners of any particular language background, a major part of applied linguistic research was devoted to comparing the mother tongue and the target language. That was came to be known as "Contrastive Analysis" (CA) (see Lado. 1957; Banathy, Trager, Waddle. 1966; Whitman, 1970; Corder. 1986; Sato. 1990).

The pioneers of CA claimed that a description of every feature of one language should be paired off systematically with descriptions of every similar or comparable feature of another to find out precisely what similarities and differences exist between the two. It is assumed that the features of the target language (TL) that are similar to features of the first language (L1) would be learned easily; however, learners will have difficulties when the features of the target language are different from the features of the L1. The problem was that the idea was quite impracticable to

apply to the whole of any two languages (see Lado. 1957; Banathy, Trager, Waddle. 1966; Whitman, 1970; Bowen, Madsen, Hilferty, 1985; Corder. 1986; Sato. 1990; Brown, 1994.)

However, as a result of the studies conducted by different researchers it was found out that CA did not predict what errors learners made in acquiring a second language (McLaughlin. 1991:66) Predictions concerning learning difficulty made by Stockwell, Bowen, Martin (1965), Whitman & Jackson (1972); Sato (1990), and McLaughlin (1991) often proved false: CA hypothesis either overpredicted or underpredicted the difficulties of second language learners. It overpredicted because it identified difficulties that in fact did not arise, and it underpredicted because learners made errors that could not be explained on the basis of transfer between languages. Still other areas of difficulties were not identified by CA such as;

11) * Jack *cans sing* well.

12) * Yesterday, I *goed* to school. (Sato. 1990:2)

The shortcomings of the CA- such as its being unable to account for the emergence or persistence of non-target features, and how the learner perceived, organised, and used the second language (L2) input- dissatisfied Wardhaugh (1970) and others- Stockwell, Bowen, Martin (1965), Corder (1986), Nemser (1971), Selinker (1972), Whitman & Jackson (1972), Sato (1990), McLaughlin. 1991). Thus, partly in reaction to CA, but also in opposition to neo-behaviorist learning theory and its associated language teaching methods (e.g., the Audio-Lingual Method), the late 1960's and early 1970's gave rise to a theoretical reorientation in SLA research pioneered by Corder, Nemser, and Selinker. In 1972 Selinker coined the term *interlanguage* (IL) in the belief that when learning a second language learners develop a language that is different from both their L1 and TL.

1. 2. The Definition of Interlanguage

Interlanguage is the study of the language systems of language learners, the study of language learners' language. Nemser uses the term (1971) *approximative systems*, the goal-directed development of the learner's language towards the target language system; Corder (1967) *transitional competence*, that is, the learner possesses a certain body of knowledge which we hope is constantly developing.

The central premises of interlanguage theory are explained as follows:

Interlanguages are natural languages. Thus, like other natural languages, interlanguages have a system of rules and are subject to the same general constraints for all languages, and that interlanguages are different by virtue of their specific characteristics. Interlanguages have a dynamic nature. The learner's grammar is incomplete and unstable, it is in a state of flux- that is, when a piece of new evidence is added, the grammar is reconstructed. It is amenable to penetration by new linguistic forms and rules. Interlanguages may be called "reduced" or "simplified" systems if compared with standard institutionalised languages. Interlanguage systems may also fossilise. *Fossilisation* is a process in which incorrect linguistic features become a permanent part of the way a person speaks or writes a language. Aspects of pronunciation, vocabulary usage, and grammar may become fixed or fossilised in second or foreign language learning (see Richards, Platt, and Weber. 1992). Selinker (1972) used the term *fossilisation* to refer to the tendency of many learners to stop developing their interlanguage grammar in the direction of the target language. Instead they reach a plateau beyond which they do not progress. This may be because there is no communicative need for further development or it may be because full competence in a L2 is neurolinguistically impossible for most learners.

The proportion of transfer errors in interlanguages was found generally to be quite small and independent of the nature of mother tongue, and these errors seemed to be found in all learners. That is, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of

exploration and instruction he receives in the target language, speakers of a particular native language will tend to keep the linguistic items, rules, and subsystems in their interlanguage relative to a particular target language. As a result of the way in which the target data has been selected and presented to them, or as a result of the way in which they have been required to practice, learners may make false inferences about the target language. Depending on the amount of target language data that they are exposed to, interlanguage grammars of language learners resemble each other (see Nemser, 1971; Selinker, 1972; Adjemian, 1976; Tarone et al. 1976; Croft, 1980; Tarone, 1983; Bowen, Madsen, Hilferty, 1985; Cook, 1985, 1991; Klein, 1986; Corder, 1986; Liceras, 1986; Yule, 1988; James, 1990; Ellis, 1990; McLaughlin, 1991; Brown, 1994.).

The examples below explain the interlanguage errors:

13) * What *did* he *intended* to say? (Past tense morpheme -ed is extended)

14) * I *am feeling* thirsty.

15) * Don't worry. I'm *hearing* him.

(Indian speakers of English who adapted the strategy that all verbs are either transitive or intransitive and realisation of the category aspect in its progressive form on the surface is always with *-ing* marking.)

16) * I *was* in Frankfort when I *fill* application. (Russian speakers avoid past tense forms.)

(Selinker. 1988:180-2)

1.3. Problem

In the recent years a number of studies investigated tense and aspect errors encountered in interlanguages of learners from different age groups, proficiency

levels, educational backgrounds, and nationalities. Among other factors, the role of lexical aspect is found to be an important determinant that conditions errors vs. correct forms in the interlanguage tense use of foreign language learners from various nationalities (see Flashner, 1982; Kumpf, 1982; Rothstein, 1985; Anderson, 1986,1991; Bland, 1988; Ramsay, 1989, 1990; Robison, 1990; Bardovi-Harlig, 1992; Koo & Koh, 1994; Robison, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig & Reynolds, 1995; Turan, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig & Bergstorm, 1996).

Taking the classification of tense errors suggested by Fitikides (1977) and Richards (1978) and data taken from our students' papers on various topics as a base, we can say that tenses are problematic for Turkish EFL learners. The examples of students' errors numbered 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 above also show that progressive aspect is also problematic for our learners.

1.4. Aim and Scope

The aim of this study is to investigate whether lexical aspectual class of verbs is a factor that affects tense errors of intermediate-level Turkish EFL learners.

The study will have some pedagogical implications such as to help language teachers to be aware of the lexical aspect tense relationship, to predict errors caused by lexical aspect beforehand, and to take precautions to reduce the number of incorrect tense usage before the interlanguage is fossilised.

1.5. Definitions

Before giving more details about the studies related to tense and aspect errors and their relations to lexical aspect, brief definitions of *tense* and *aspect* are presented below:

1.5.1. Tense

1.5.1.1. Definition of tense

Tense is a deictic category that locates in time the state of affairs described by a sentence. This location is not precise, but relative to some other time, a temporal reference point, the most important of which is the time of utterance, the interval (usually assumed to be a moment) in which an event happens: before now ('happenED'), right now ('IS happenING'), after now ('WILL happen') or even all the time ('happenS'). Thus, a declarative sentence in the present tense can be used to assert that the event described by the sentence occurs at the time the sentence is uttered, i.e. the time of the event is located at the time of utterance. A declarative sentence in the past tense, on the other hand, can be used to assert that the event occurred prior to the time of utterance and one in the future tense, that the event will occur after the time of utterance (see Palmer. 1965; Comrie. 1985; Enç. 1986; Fleischman. 1990; Binnick. 1991; Hoffman. 1993; Cann. 1994).

Laertius tells us that in the fifth century BC. philosopher Protagoras first recognised *tenses*. Since *tenses* were seen as reflecting times, it was not possible to distinguish *tense* from *time*. Although tense has been studied with the framework of grammar, logic, and philosophy for twenty-five hundred years, it is still very poorly understood. Binnick (1991:3) reports that philosophers from before Aristotle and Augustine through Rusell, McTaggart, and Reichenbach in the twentieth century have debated the nature of time; however, they could not reach any definitive conclusion. According to a scholar, "*tense* is a mind boggling business"; others state that "we are very far from a general theory of time-related phenomena in natural language". Yet other scholars write of "getting lost in the subtleties of *tense* and *aspect*".

In the next section, a related notion, *aspect*, will be defined.

1.5.2. Aspect

1.5.2.1. Definition of aspect

In many languages, there is *aspect* as well as *tense*. The term "*aspect*" is commonly used for time relations that are not "*tense*". *Aspect* refers to completion, duration, and similar concepts. *Aspects* are different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation; "different ways of conceiving the flow of the process itself" (see Comrie, 1976; Lyons, 1977; Mourelatos, 1981; Palmer, 1985; Richards, 1987; Fleischman, 1990; Binnick, 1991; Hoffman, 1993; Robison, 1995).

1.5.2.2. Tense versus aspect

According to Fleischman (1990:19) unlike *tense*, *aspect* is not a relational category, nor is it deictic; it is not concerned with relating the time of a situation to any other time point, but rather with how the speaker chooses to profile the situation.

Mourelatos (1981:199) states that the verb's aspectual marking does not by itself specify the relevant category. In all cases a total of six factors are involved:

- a) the verb's inherent meaning;
- b) the nature of the verb's arguments, that is, of the subject and of the object(s), if any;
- c) adverbials, if any;
- d) aspect;

¹ Binnick (1991:135) reports that as in the case of *tense*, *aspect* was first discussed by the Greeks. Mourelatos (1981) states, however, that *verb aspect* was first studied by the grammarians of Slavic languages and then by the Greeks. Varro is usually understood to have arrived at something like the modern conception of *aspect*. According to the Oxford English Dictionary, however ancient the concept, the term "*aspect*" is recent. It appeared in English for the first time in 1853. Imported early in the nineteenth century into the Western grammatical tradition from the study of Slavic grammar, it fully became part of that tradition only at the end of that century.

- e) tense as phase (e.g., the perfect);
- f) tense as time reference to past, present, or future.

Two kinds of *aspects* are distinguished: *grammatical aspect* and *lexical aspect*.

1.5.3. Grammatical Aspect

Grammatical aspect can be expressed through affixes and auxiliaries in languages like Turkish and English. (Nakhimovsky. 1988:33). *Grammatical Aspect* is defined as follows:

Grammatical aspect shows whether an action is continuing (it IS snowING now), completed (it HAS growN cold), iterative (he fell down OVER AND OVER again), intermittent (it snows OFF AND ON these days), durative (it USED TO snow in November), inceptive (it is STARTing TO snow now), terminative (it STOPped snowING at 2:00) or continuative (it may KEEP ON snowing for a week).

(Hoffman. 1993:121)

Languages differ considerably with regard to the oppositions that are grammaticalized under *aspect*. The most prominent aspectual opposition cross-linguistically is the *Perfective/Imperfective (PFV/IPFV)* contrast. The most common subdivisions of imperfectivity are “*habitual*” and “*continuous*” or “*durative*” action; “*progressive*” and “*nonprogressive*” action for perfectivity (see Comrie, 1981; Mourelatos, 1981; Fleischman, 1990; Binnick, 1991; Hoffman, 1993; Cann, 1994).

As languages can be significantly different in how they handle *aspect*”, successful language learning requires a sensitivity to them (Hoffman. 1993:154).

1.5.4. Lexical Aspect (Situation Types)²

Aristotle (cited in Yavaş. 1980:112) is considered as the first scholar to observe the existence of three types of verbs in natural languages³. Based on the attempts of Aristotelian classification (*statives*, *activity verbs*, *performance verbs*), the Vendlerian system is the most familiar. Vendler (1967) presents a more comprehensive study of the aspectual properties of verbs. Vendler (1967) has a four way distinction among verbs: *statives*, *activities*, *achievement verbs*, and *accomplishment verbs*. That is, Aristotle's performance group is subdivided into achievement verbs and accomplishment verbs. The Vendlerian system can be given as follows:

<i>Activities</i>	<i>Accomplishments</i>	<i>Achievements</i>	<i>States</i>
run	run a mile	recognise	desire
walk	walk to school	find	want
swim	paint a picture	win the race	love
push a cart	grow up	stop/start/resume	hate
drive a car	deliver a sermon	be born/die	know/believe
	recover from illness		

(see Yavaş. 1980; Mourelatos. 1981; Vlach, 1981; Saurer, 1984; Bland. 1988; Caenepeel and Moens, 1990; Fleischman. 1990; Toshiyuki, 1990; Binnick, 1991; Hoffman, 1993)

² The study of the different aspectual classes of predicates has a long history, going back at least to Aristotle in the fourth century BC. Aristotle's original classification has been the source of revision and debate by philosophers ever since and now the subject has been taken up, with somewhat different emphasis, by linguists. (Cann. 1994:256)

³ Aristotle's classification includes "*statives*", "*activity verbs*", and "*performance verbs*". According to him "*statives*" are verbs that do not take the progressive aspect, e.g. know, believe, understand; "*activity verbs*" include verbs like walk, run, work etc.; "*performance verbs*" are goal-oriented, that is, they involve both an activity leading to a goal and the result that is achieved after the completion of the goal. Both *activities* and *performance verbs* take the progressive; however, the difference is that the progressive form of an *activity verb* entails the present perfect; the progressive form of a *performance verb* does not.

In the following part, each category will be described.

1.5.4.1. Statives

A *state* is a condition or a changeless event without any inherent end, like *to be tall* or *to resemble* (someone). Although a *state* has not always been, nor need to continue for ever, it is continuing when we consider it, with no apparent change. A *state* does not have a natural point of termination, that is, it does not progress towards a time of being finished, (F)- it is atelic. This is why the progressive (be -ing) cannot be used easily with *states* as in the examples:

- 17) * he *is being* tall.
- 18) * she *was being* very intelligent.
- 19) * I *am being* very hungry, aren't you.

In some special circumstances; however, such as when there is a definite end, the progressive becomes normal and even preferred for *statives*.

- 20) I am believing this theory more and more (gradually, step by step)
(the speaker will completely believe sometime)

The other instance is that in temporary states the progressive fits with a *stative verb*:

- 21) I am seeing halos around everything.
(the speaker thinks it is a temporary state, as in telling his doctor that his eyes are doing strange things, hoping that he will be able to cure them)

(Hoffman.1993: 142)

When we want to convey a somewhat negative "emotional comment", we may also use the progressive form:

22) Herbert is always hearing noises.

(Bland. 1988:62)

States are involuntary, as are processes we cannot control, including many body functions and most of the processes of nature. Therefore, *statives* cannot co-occur with the adverbs like *deliberately, carefully*:

23) * John deliberately knew the answer

Statives are durative and they can co-occur with durative adverbs like *for five years, for an hour, etc.* When *statives* occur with durative adverbs, it is understood that the situation holds at every moment of that duration, as in (24):

24) John hated Mary for many years.

(see Vendler, 1967; Yavaş, 1980; Mourelatos, 1981; Bland, 1988; Fleischman, 1990; Binnick, 1991; Hoffman 1993)

1.5.4.2. Activities

The actions referred to by *activities* are verbs like *sing, run, walk, smoke, swim, push a cart, drive a car*. The time stretch of *activities* is indefinite and they involve no culmination or anticipated result. *Activities* refer to ongoing (atelic) situations like *statives* but they are more volitional, higher in transitivity, and can be described as "*events*". All verbs referring to events can be put into the progressive (see Vendler, 1967; Yavaş, 1980; Mourelatos, 1981; Bland, 1988; Fleischman. 1990; Binnick, 1991; Taylan, 1992; Hoffman, 1993).

The following examples are taken from Bland (1988:58):

25) Tom is painting a picture.

26) The ship is arriving.

27) I am wearing a jacket.

28) I am living in New York.

The main entailment of *activity predicates* involves a relation between their imperfective and perfective uses. Thus, if the imperfective use of an *activity predicate* is true, then its perfective is also true. For example, if "the dog was howling" is true now, then "the dog howled" is also true; if John is (or was or will be or has been or had been) running for half an hour, it must be true that, John is (or was, etc.) running every time stretch within that period. Thus, it is correct to say both John is running and John has run.

(see Mourelatos.1981:192; Cann. 1994:257-8)

Like *statives*, *activity verbs* are durative and they can co-occur with durative adverbs like *for five years*, *for an hour*, etc.

29) a. John worked at the hospital for years.

b. She swam for two hours.

(Yavaş. 1980.113)

The basic distinction between *states* and *actions* is that: Syntactically these two classes can be distinguished by the facts that *stative predicates* do not easily go into the progressive unlike actions (30), imperatives usually have an action reading, even where *stative verbs* are used (31), and the pseudo-cleft construction is more natural with action verbs than stative ones (32).

- 30) a. ? Ethel is knowing the answer
 b. Ethel is playing golf
 c. John is loving Mary
 d. John is working
31. a. ? Know the answer!
 b. Play golf!
 c. * Love Mary!
 d. Work!
- 32) a. ? What Ethel did was know the answer
 b. What Ethel did was play golf
 c. What John did was love Mary
 d. What John did was work

(Yavaş. 1980:115; Cann, 1994:257).

1.5.4.3. Achievements

The actions referred to by *achievements* are verbs like *recognise someone*, *spot something*, *find or lose something*, *be born*, *die*. They are called *achievement verbs* as they focus almost entirely on the completion of some activity. Because these verbs depict something that happens at a moment in time, they are the extreme of punctive verbs and seem like they really ought not go with the progressive at all. They are in fact nothing more than an end-point (F), lacking a beginning (B) for the event. Being non-durative, *achievements* do not allow adverbials like *for five years*, and *for an hour*.

- 33) * John reached the top of the mountain for two years.

(see Vendler, 1967; Yavaş, 1980; Mourelatos, 1981; Bland, 1988; Fleischman, 1990; Binnick, 1991; Taylan, 1992; Hoffman, 1993).

1.5.4.4. Accomplishments

Accomplishment verbs are verbs like *sing a song, run a race, smoke a cigarette, build a house, draw a circle, recover from illness*. They are telic, that is, their meanings include natural end-points. Also, these endpoints are resultant states: for example, recovering from illness ultimately produces the state of wellness. Moreover, *accomplishments* are not homogeneous. *Accomplishment verbs* depict an action that includes the end-point or finish F of the action. So they cannot be used with the preterite tense unless the activity they depict was successfully accomplished:

34) * I bribed the mayor, but she refused to accept the bribe.

35) * he started the motor, but it was too cold to start.

(Hoffman. 1993:149)

Below are the common *accomplishment* verbs.

to give	to learn	to teach
to wake up	to persuade	to lift

Accomplishments have duration. It is probable to say "X V-ed" with reference to the whole of that time segment, not just with reference to a single moment- for example:

36) Jones wrote the letter over the lunch break.

(Mourelatos. 1981:192)

Accomplishments do not accept durative adverbs very easily; yet they allow those adverbs that denote a period of time like *in two days*.

37) a. ? I wrote a letter for two days.

b. I wrote a letter in two days.

(Yavaş. 1980: 114)

Often "*up*" can be added in English to reinforce the completive aspect that *accomplishment verbs* have, whether or not it is completed:

38) He drank up my beer.

(Hoffman. 1993: 149)

As *accomplishments* involve the completion of a goal, an accomplishment verb cannot be used with *stop*. (However, activities do not involve such a goal.)

39) a. John stopped working

b. * John stopped building a house

c. * John stopped reaching the top of the mountain

Due to the fact that they are completed, only *accomplishments* can occur as the complement of *finish*.

40) a. ?? John finished working

b. John finished building a house

c. ?? John finished reaching the top of the mountain

(Yavaş. 1980: 114)

(see Vendler, 1967; Yavaş, 1980; Bennett, 1981; Mourelatos, 1981, Bland, 1988; Fleischman, 1990; Binnick, 1991; Taylan, 1992; Hoffman, 1993).

1.6. Summary

In order to successfully categorise verbs in *Vendlerian system*, we have to think about the whole time frame, the definiteness and quantification. That is- "*run*", for example, could be an *activity* or, if we "*run a mile*", an *accomplishment*. That is, "*to compose a song*", with a singular object, is an *accomplishment*; with a plural object, "*to compose many beautiful songs*", this predicate becomes an *activity*. The causative predicate "*to stop some cars*" is similarly an *activity* by virtue of its indefinite plural object; the singular version "*to stop a car*" would be an *achievement*. "*To smoke*" is an *activity*, "*to smoke a cigarette*" is an *accomplishment*, "*to smoke cigarettes*" is an *activity*, and "*to start to smoke*" is an *achievement* (see Fleischman. 1990, Hatch and Brown.1995).

In the following four items, we compare and contrast the characteristics of lexical aspectual classes:

1.6.1. Telic versus atelic

The actions referred to by *achievements* ("recognise someone," "spot something," "find or lose something," "be born," "die,") and *accomplishments* ("sing a song," "run a race," "smoke a cigarette," "build a house," "draw a circle," "recover from illness") are telic, that is, their meanings include natural endpoints. In the case of *accomplishments* these endpoints are resultant states: for example, "recovering from illness" ultimately produces the state of "wellness." The actions referred to by *states* ("know," "believe," "own something," "desire or love someone") and *activities* ("sing," "run," "walk," "smoke," "swim," "push a cart," "drive a car"); however, are atelic-they have no intrinsic endpoints. "*The gods are singing*" could express a

proposition that is true at all times, past, present and future (see Dahl, 1981; Fleischman. 1990:20ff, Cann. 1994:257).

1.6.2. Durativity

Statives and activities share the property of durativity, that is, they are used with adverbs like *for five years, for an hour, etc.*; however, *achievements* do not allow such adverbials as they are non-durative:

- 41) a. (*Stative*) John hated Mary for many years
 b. (*Activity*) John worked at the hospital for years
 c. (*Achievement*) * John reached the top of the mountain for two years
 (Yavaş. 1980: 113)

Accomplishments do not accept durative adverbs very easily; yet they allow those adverbs that denote a period of time like *in two days*.

- 42) a. ? I wrote a letter for two days.
 b. I wrote a letter in two days. (Yavaş. 1980: 114)

1.6.3. Temporal phrases

To distinguish *activities, accomplishments, and achievements* from one another, temporal phrases like *spend X time, take X time* are used:

- 43) a. John spent two years working (activity)
 b. John spent two years building a house (accomplishment)
 c. * John spent two years reaching the top of the mountain (achievement)

1.6.4. Progressive form

Vendler also argues that *accomplishments* and *activities* can be considered as one group and *achievements* and *states* another- because he thought that *achievements* are like *statives* in that they resist progressive.

The following table summarises the properties of Vendler's verb class

	<u>Statives</u>	<u>activities</u>	<u>accomplishments</u>	<u>achievements</u>
<u>for X time</u>				
occurs with <u>spend X time</u>	yes	yes	yes	no
occurs with <u>take X time</u>				
<u>in X time</u>	no	no	yes	yes
complement of <u>stop</u>	yes	yes	yes	no
complement of <u>finish</u>	no	no	yes	no
X is V-ing- X has V-ed	N.A.	yes	yes	N.A.
Agentive	no	yes	yes	no(probably)

(Yavaş. 1980:115)

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Overview of the Chapter

Tense use has long been the subject of many EFL research studies. Also, many EFL teachers and researchers agree that tenses are difficult to teach and learn. (see Walker, 1967; Ravem, 1968, 1984; Bauer, 1970; Dillon, 1973; Moy, 1977, 1982; Fitikides, 1977; Richards, 1978; 1981, 1984; Chappel & Rodby, 1983 Guiora, 1983; Wolfram, 1985; McKay, 1985; Hatch, Gough & Peck, 1985; Riddle, 1986; DeCarrico, 1986; Bland, 1988; Sharwood Smith, 1988; McCarthy, 1991; Aitken, 1992; Hinkel, 1992, 1997; Makoni, 1996).

Among other factors, the role of lexical aspect is found to be an important determinant that conditions errors versus correct forms in tense use of foreign language learners from various nationalities, age and proficiency levels and educational background (see Flashner, 1982, 1989; Kumpf, 1982; Rothstein, 1985; Anderson, 1986, 1991; Bland, 1988; Ramsay, 1989, 1990; Robison, 1990; Bardovi-Harlig, 1992; Koo & Koh, 1994; Robison, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig & Reynolds, 1995; Turan, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig & Bergstorm, 1996).

This chapter will mainly review the studies related to lexical aspect and tense use.

2.2. Research on Lexical Aspect

At the end of 80's and the beginning of 90's the effects of lexical aspectual classes of verbs in the interlanguage of a language learner have come to be questioned (see Flashner, 1982, 1989; Kumpf, 1982, 1984; Rothstein, 1985; Anderson, 1986, 1991; Bland, 1988; Ramsay, 1989, 1990; Robison 1990, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig, 1992; Koo & Koh. 1994, Robison, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig & Reynolds, 1995; Turan 1995; Bardovi-Harlig&Bergstorm,1996).

In his study Robison (1990) tested the hypothesis that in (L2) acquisition verbal aspect is in some way primary relative to tense, and that, as a result, aspect morphology tends to develop before tense morphology. The article supports a specification of this notion: That acquisition of aspect is primary in the sense that when verbal morphemes first appear in the course of acquisition, they initially mark aspect regardless of their function in the target language. To reduce the subjectivity that has weakened previous studies, operational tests- which entailed inserting a base-form verb phrase into a frame and than judging whether the result is acceptable- were used to determine lexical aspect for each of over 550 verb tokens in the corpus, based on an interlanguage sample from a native speaker of Spanish. It was found that when L2 verb morphemes enter the interlanguage of an adult language learner, they are not uniformly distributed across all verbs, but, may be distributed according to the lexical aspectual classes of the verbs. It is seen that although the learner may mark certain aspectual distinctions- *stative/dynamic* in particular- he or she will not necessarily mark them in a target-like manner. The prediction supported by this study is that while the exact pattern will vary depending on L1, L2, and individual differences between learners, verbal morphology correlates with lexical aspect at least during some stage in the development of an interlanguage.

In her analysis of the interlanguage of three Russian immigrants, Flashner (1982,1989) found that the -ed suffix and irregular past forms tended to indicate perfective aspect, while the base form marked imperfective. Besides, perfective verbs

that expressed *accomplishments* or *achievements* took the past form more often than those that were *stative*. Kumpf (1982,) argued that -ing was used by one Spanish speaker to mark continuous and habitual actions as distinct from completed actions and states. Further, habituais received the -ing marker only when they expressed duration as apposed to iteration. Rothstein (1985), as did Kumpf (1982), maintained that her Hebrew-speaking subject used -ing only with verbs that are inherently durative. She observed that the irregular past inflection occurred primarily with verbs that are inherently dynamic, and only in perfective contexts; imperfective, past contexts had only base forms, even of verbs that took the past irregular form in other contexts.

After investigating classroom acquisition of Spanish by university students, Ramsay (1989,1990) and Anderson (1986, 1991) found that beginning learners applied the preterit inflection just to punctual verbs. Intermediate-level students employed the past imperfective as well, but only with non-puntual verbs while still restricting the preterit to punctual verbs. The highest-level students applied both inflections to verbs in each aspectual class, but most punctual verbs were still coded perfective and most non-punctual verbs imperfective.

Additional evidence for the lexical aspectual studies has come from recent cross-sectional studies.

Bardovi-Harlig (1992) investigated associations of form and meaning in the developing tense and aspect systems of adult learners of English as a second language. In the research, learners at six levels of proficiency were studied using a cloze passage and compositions on the same topic. Interlanguage tense and aspect systems showed high formal accuracy but lower appropriate use. It was found that learners differentiated two punctual from three durative verbs by a non-native-like application of the progressive/non-progressive inflectional distinction, punctual verbs having appeared in the simple past at a higher rate than durative verbs.

Koo and Koh (1994) analyzed for patterns of use of simple present, simple past, and present perfect tenses by using four tasks: a language test, an essay, an interview, and a peer-group discussion. The results indicated that accuracy rates reflect variability in use of the tenses. It was found out that the accuracy rate was highest for the discussion tasks, and lower for essay, interview, and language test, in descending order of accuracy. The figures suggest that use of *tense/aspect* varies across tasks. Further, contextual analysis of task performance looked at verb usage within four categories of context (verbal aspect, adverbials, serialisation, implicit reference) for each task type. The verbal aspect category was found most problematic, followed by adverbials, serialisation, and implicit reference.

Robison (1995) examined the aspect hypothesis, which asserts that verb inflection in early interlanguage systems function primarily as markers of lexical aspect independent of the target language. The study analysed English interviews of twenty-six Puerto Rican college students grouped into four proficiency levels. Nine operational tests were applied to 3649 predicates to assess three dimensions of lexical aspect, which interact to form six aspectual categories. Chi-square tests indicated significant interdependence of morphology and aspect at each proficiency level. An important finding of this study was that: the English verb inflections –s and past shift from markers of lexical aspect among lower level learners to markers of tense at the highest level. Students link –s with states, -ing with *achievements*, and past with punctual events, the latter spread to all punctual or telic predicates among the highest level learners.

Bardovi-Harlig and Reynolds (1995) studied adult learners' use of the simple past tense. They also reported that past tense acquisition occurs in stages determined by the lexical aspects of verbs. It was found that at all placement levels there was a higher rate of correct past tense usage with *achievements* and *accomplishments* than with *states* or *activities*, but also observed that the gap between telic and atelic predicates narrowed with increasing proficiency level.

Bardovi-Harlig and Bergstorm (1996) investigated the acquisition of tense and aspect by learners of English as a second language and learners of French as a foreign language. Examinations of written narratives were collected from both groups using a film retell task. Results revealed similar patterns of distribution of *tense/aspect* morphology across target languages. Among the lowest-level learners, they demonstrated a concentration of past on *achievements*, English progressive on *activities*, and French perfect on *states*. With increasing level, past spread to *accomplishments* and then *activities*; progressive and imperfective inflections failed to spread.

Turan (1995) investigated tense, aspect, and modality errors encountered in interlanguage. The data were collected from an advanced-level subject through a 55-minute conversation. The conversation was recorded and transcribed later on. The data was analysed by numbering each finite verb in clauses. The results indicated lexical aspect to be a very important linguistic environment conditioning errors versus correct forms. It was also suggested that if the teachers are aware of the problem and take precautions before interlanguage is fossilised, the number of tense errors may be reduced.

The researcher also suggested the following items for further study:

- collecting data from different subjects and proficiency levels
- investigating each tense, aspect, and modality group individually and studying the relation with lexical aspect
- searching how these findings should be handled in different language teaching approaches.

The present study is designed to address some of the limitations of previous work by testing a reasonably large number of learners. The aim of the study is to see the lexical aspect tense relationship.

We thus test the following hypothesis: Lexical aspect has an effect on tense errors.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3. 1. Subjects

The study was conducted on 50 subjects who were chosen among the 150 first year students of the ELT Department at Faculty of Education, Uludağ University. They were all Turkish speaking students studying English as a foreign language and they were at the intermediate level. Their level was determined by the results of the Michigan Placement Test, which was given at the beginning of the 1997-1998 Academic Year. The scores of the subjects varied from 75 to 80 out of one hundred in the test.

3. 2. Materials

The material to be used in this study was a film. The film, *The Doll*, selected for this study was a 20-minute amazing story. The particular excerpt was chosen because there were a series of discrete, easily identifiable action sequences, which are ideal for examining the encoding of tense/aspect morphology.

The film was about a fortyish man, John Walters. One day, John Walters wanted to buy a birthday present for his niece's birthday; thus, he went to Mr. Liebmacher's doll shop. There he found a doll which was quite like the girl, Mary Dickinson- a teacher he had met long before. His niece, however, did not like the doll and John took it back to the shop. Since he was emotionally attached to the doll, he could not give it back, and therefore kept it. Then, having learnt that Mr. Liebmacher

had used a model when making this doll, Mr. Walters got the address of the model and visited her. This became the beginning of a new love affair.

3. 3. Procedure

To avoid the complications of listening comprehension (as suggested by Bardovi-Harlig, 1995), the subjects watched the 20-minute film silently twice. Subjects were told they would be asked to tell the story after they had seen the film. After viewing was completed, learners were given the class period, approximately 45-50 minutes, to produce their written narratives.

3. 4. Data

Ellis (1991) and Bardovi-Harlig (1995) state that when conducting studies to investigate the order of acquisition of a range of grammatical functions of L2 learners, a more or less fixed procedure is followed. Oral or written data are elicited from a sample of L2 learners, using some kind of elicitation device, such as learners may describe a series of pictures (Bamberg, 1987; Bamberg & Marchman, 1990), or performed stories (Bardovi-Harlig, 1992) or they may retell silent films (Chafe, 1980; Tomlin, 1984; Klein & Perdue 1992). Then, researchers identify the grammatical items which are the target of the investigation. Next, each item is scored according to whether it is correctly used in each context, and an accuracy score of its total use by all the learners in the study is calculated. Thus, all the items are ranked in order of their accuracy scores.

Depending on the procedure above, the data in this study was elicited by means of a film retell task. The subjects were asked to watch a silent movie of about 20 minutes and then narrate the story that was going on throughout. Thus, each student wrote a narrative paragraph, which varied in length and in degree of detail. In

the examples from the written narratives the spelling is that of the learners (cf. Appendix A).

3. 4. 1. Narratives

Bardovi-Harlig (1995:268) points out that the universal properties of narrative structure has an important place in explaining patterns of tense/aspect use.

A narrative is considered to be a text in which "the speaker relates a series of real or fictive events in the order in which they took place. What constitutes a narrative is summarised as follows: The first observation to make is that a narrative must have a plot, i.e., present a sequence of events that forms an instance of a recognisable pattern. Narratives' plot must present a recognisable temporal causal figure shown against some ground that minimally consists of spatial/visual settings (descriptions of characters are also frequent). Secondly, a narrative must have characters with which we empathise (White, 1977; Dahl, 1984; Nakhimovsky, 1988).

The tense of narrative discourse is past, in its many varieties; the past tense in narratives is not interpreted with respect to the situation of discourse; *tense*, *aspect*, and mood systems of the verb are frequently more finely nuanced in the past than in the present or future, and never the other way around (Nakhimovsky .1988:37).

3. 5. Data Analysis

Each of the collected narrative paragraphs were typed and each sentence of clause with a finite verb is numbered. Naturally, non-finite clauses such as "*in order to come*", "*going there*" were excluded as they did not convey *tense* and *aspect*. Each

finite verb-independent of its tense- is coded in "Goldvarb Statistics Program"⁴ according to the following linguistic variables:

- Verbal morphology
 - a. past (Misspelled verbs such as *cot/caut* for *caught* or regularised past verbs such as *telled* were counted as past as long as the innovation did not result in an extant verb).
 - b. past progressive
 - c. pluperfect
 - d. base (ex. she *tell*)
 - e. present (simple present such as *tells*)
 - f. present progressive
 - h. present perfect
 - z. future
 - x. uninterpretable (forms such as *tooks* or *is stole* were coded as uninterpretable)

- Usage
 - r. correct
 - w. incorrect

- Aspectual class
 - k. activities
 - l. accomplishments
 - m. achievements
 - n. states

⁴ GoldVarb is a Macintosh application for carrying out variable rule analysis and associated data manipulations and displays. It is based on programs previously circulated by David Sankoff, Pascale Rousseau, Don Hindle and Susan Pintzuk, but as well as containing many new features, it has been completely restructured and reprogrammed in PASCAL by David Rand. Successive versions have been extensively tested by researchers in the linguistics departments of the University of Pennsylvania and the University of Ottawa and in the Département d'anthropologie of the Université de Montréal. GoldVarb 1.6 was distributed in October of 1988 at the XVII NWAVE colloquium held

Basing on the studies performed before (Bardovi-Harlig & Reynolds, 1995; Turan, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig & Bergstorm, 1996), for each learner, the numbers of past, nonpast, progressive responses to verbs in each lexical aspectual class was tabulated. Our main reason in using “Goldvarb Statistics Program” included its being specially designed for language variation research. Linguistic constraints are the most suitable for treatment by a VARBRUL analysis since VARBRUL is designed specifically to deal with the distributional variance of linguistic features (see Laberge, 1978; Poplack, 1980; Schiffrin, 1982; Weiner and Labov, 1983). In our case, there is a variation of correct versus incorrect forms

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

The database for the research came from narratives that the students wrote after watching the 20-minute film silently twice.

The data was analysed by coding each finite verb in "Varbrul Statistics Program" according to the following three variables: verbal morphology, usage, and aspectual class.

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| - Verbal
morphology | a. past |
| | b. past progressive |
| | c. pluperfect |
| | d. base |
| | e. present |
| | f. present progressive |
| | h. present perfect |
| | z. future |
| | x. uninterpretable |
| | |
| - Usage | r. correct |
| | w. incorrect |
| | |
| - Aspectual
class | k. activities |
| | l. accomplishments |
| | m. achievements |
| | n. states |

4.1. The Results

Basing on the three variables- verbal morphology, usage, and aspectual class used in the coding procedure, the numbers and percentages of the analysis are presented below:

4.1.1. Verbal morphology

Totally 2389 verbs were coded for the study. In the data, it was seen that the past tense verbs were the highest in number. 2056 out of 2389 verbs were in the past tense. This corresponded to 86 % of all coded verbs; Secondly came the past progressive with 6 % of all coded verbs-133 in number. There were 66 verbs in the pluperfect- 3 % of all coded verbs. Present tense verbs were 4 % of all coded verbs- 93 in number. The others: present perfect, present progressive, future tenses and base, uninterpretable forms referred only to 1 % of all coded verbs. There were 25 verbs in the base form; 6, in the present perfect; 3, in the present progressive; 1, in the future tense. There were also 6 verbs like *is stole*, *tooks* etc. that we were unable to interpret. (cf. Appendix B).

The distribution of tenses is shown in Table 1 and Figure 1 below:

TABLE 1
THE NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF VERBAL MORPHOLOGY

TENSES	TOTAL	%
Past tense	2056	86
Past Progressive	133	6
Pluperfect	66	3
Base	25	1
Present	93	4
Present Progressive	3	0
Present Perfect	6	0
Future	1	0
Uninterpretable	6	0
	2389	100

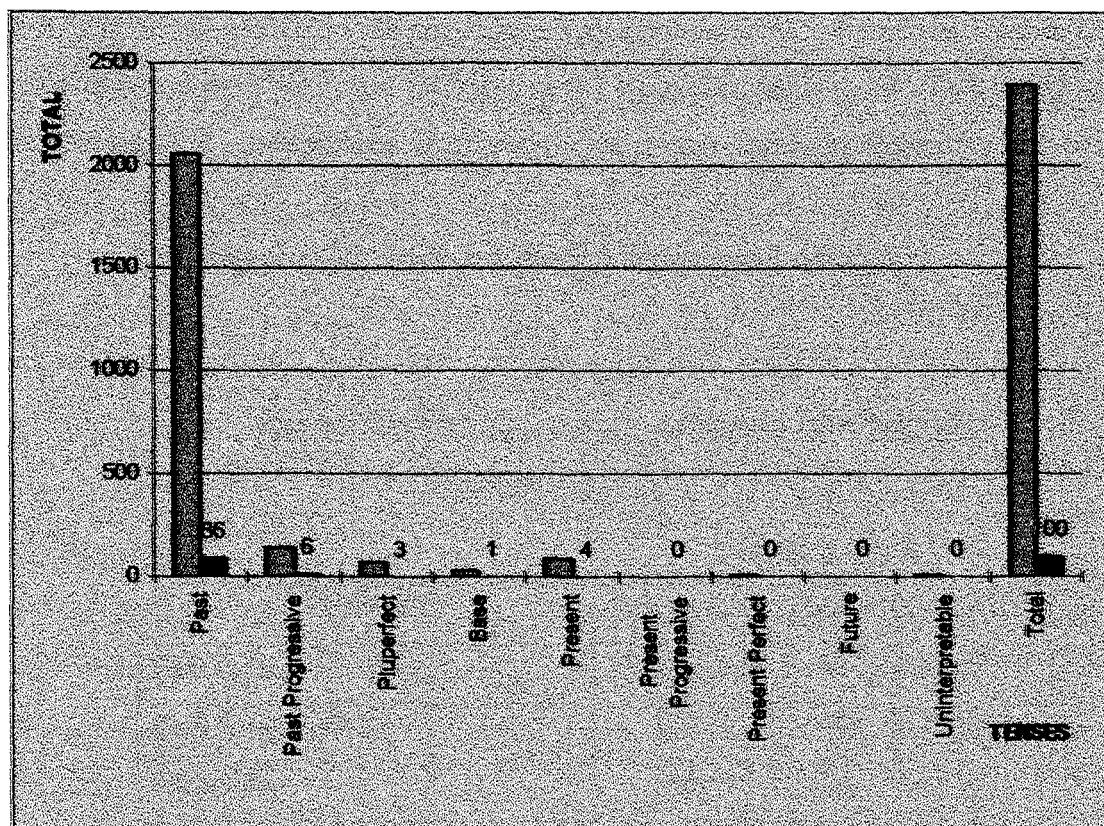


FIGURE 1
THE DISTRIBUTION OF VERBAL MORPHOLOGY

As it was seen from the numbers and percentages, present progressive, present perfect, future tenses, and base, uninterpretable forms were not frequent enough for a statistical analysis and they were taken out of the study.

Thus, our study focused on four tenses: past, past progressive, pluperfect, and present.

When we omitted those that were not appropriate for a statistical analysis, the remaining data is as follows:

In the following parts of the chapter, we aim at focusing on the 2348 verbs which were used in the past, past progressive, pluperfect, or present tenses. Below, some information about the correct and incorrect uses are presented:

4.1.2. Correct versus incorrect usage:

It was seen that the 92 % of all verbs were used correctly, the rest 8 % incorrectly. When we examined the correct verbs, we saw that 95 % of them- 2043 in number, were in the past tense. The other 3 %, 54 verbs, were in the past progressive. And the rest 2 %, 47 verbs, were in the pluperfect.

The results for incorrect forms change as follows:

86 present tense verbs constituted 44 % of all incorrect verbs. A surprising percentage was seen in the use of the past progressive tense. 79 out of 133 past progressive verbs were incorrect. Also, incorrect past progressive tense verbs constituted 40 % of all coded incorrect verbs. There were not many problems related to past tense. There were 13 incorrect past tense verbs and this corresponded to 7 % of all coded incorrect verbs.

The distribution of correct/incorrect verbal morphology was shown in Table 3 and Figure 3 below:

TABLE 3
THE NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF
CORRECT/INCORRECT VERBAL MORPHOLOGY

VERB		Past		Past Progressive		Pluperfect		Present	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
	Correct	2043	95	54	3	47	2	7	0
	Incorrect	13	7	79	40	19	10	86	44
TOTAL		2056	88	133	6	66	3	93	4

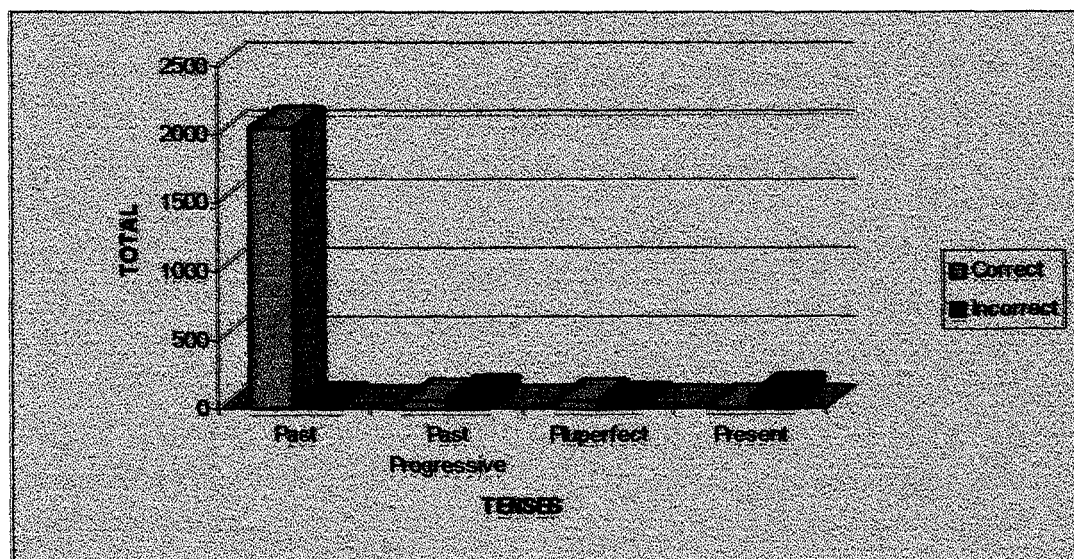


FIGURE 3
THE DISTRIBUTION OF CORRECT/INCORRECT VERBAL
MORPHOLOGY

4.1.3. Distribution of Aspectual Classes

When we considered the numbers and percentages of aspectual classes, we saw that activity verbs were the highest in number. Among the 2348 verbs, there were 919 activity verbs, which constituted 39 % of all coded verbs. Secondly came stative verbs. 861 stative verbs, constituted 37 % of all coded verbs. 309 achievement verbs corresponded to 13 % of all coded verbs, and finally there were 259 accomplishment verbs, which constituted 11 % of all coded verbs (cf. Appendix D).

The numbers and percentages of correct and incorrect aspectual classes were also seen as follows: Among the 936 activity verbs, 834 of them- 39 % of all correct verbs, were used correctly; 102 of them- 43 % of all incorrect verbs, incorrectly. Of all the 865 stative verbs, 773 of them- 36 % of all correct verbs, were used correctly, 92 of them- 39% of all incorrect verbs, incorrectly. Totally 324 achievement verbs were coded for the study. Among these, 299 of them- 14 % of all correct verbs, were used correctly, 25 of them- 11 % of all incorrect verbs, incorrectly. Finally, 246 out of 264 accomplishment verbs were used correctly and 18 of them, incorrectly. Those numbers referred to 11 % of all correct verbs and 8 % of all incorrect verbs.

As far as their aspectual classes were considered, totally 90 % of all coded verbs were used correctly; 10 %, incorrectly,

Table 4 and Figure 4 below show the numbers and percentages of aspectual classes:

TABLE 4
THE NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF ASPECTUAL CLASSES

	NUMBER	%
Activity	936	39
State	865	36
Achievement	324	14
Accomplishment	264	11
TOTAL	2389	100

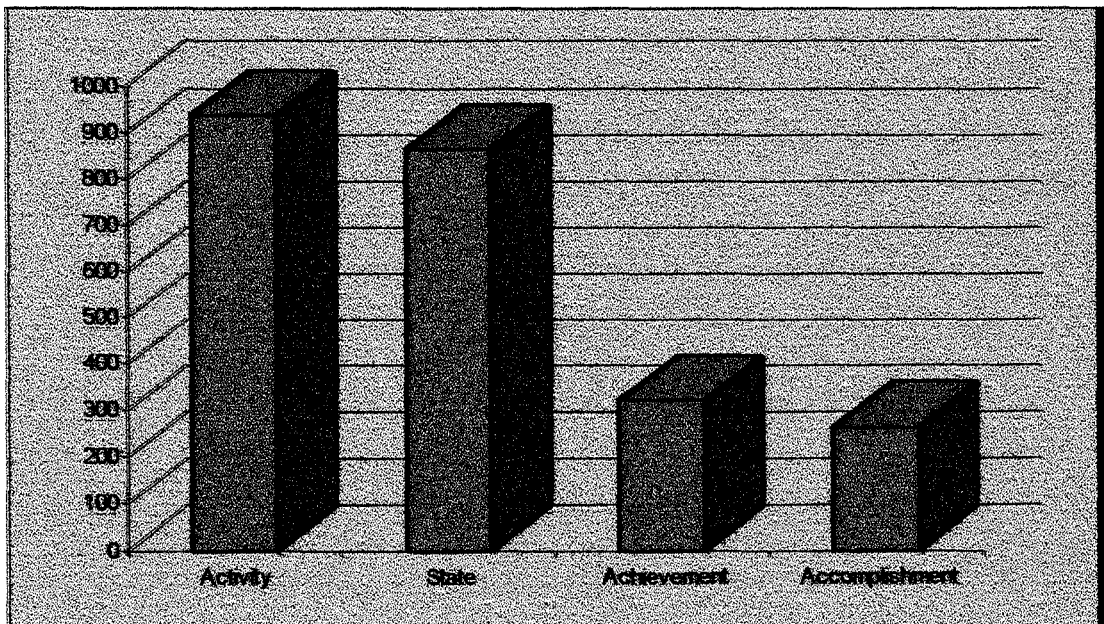


FIGURE 4
THE DISTRIBUTION OF ASPECTUAL CLASSES

The numbers and percentages of correct/incorrect aspectual classes may be summarised as follows:

TABLE 5
THE NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF CORRECT/INCORRECT
ASPECTUAL CLASSES

	Correct	%	Incorrect	%
Activity	834	39	102	43
State	773	36	92	39
Achievement	299	14	25	11
Accomplishment	246	11	18	8
TOTAL	2152	100	237	100



FIGURE 5
THE DISRIBUTION OF CORRECT/INCORRECT ASPECTUAL CLASSES

Before presenting each tense in detail, we can give some brief information about the numbers of aspectual classes over verbal morphology: (cf. Appendix B).

In the past tense data there were 757 statives, 764 activities, 240 accomplishments, 295 achievements. For the past progressive tense, 20 statives, 100 activities, 9 accomplishments, 4 achievements were taken into the analysis. Pluperfect tense included 15 statives, 40 activity verbs, 5 accomplishments, 6 achievements. Finally, 69 statives, 15 activities, 5 accomplishments, 4 achievements constituted the present tense data.

In the following section, all the four tenses will be discussed in detail. Starting with the past tense, we would like to explain the others- past progressive, pluperfect and present- by mentioning more information about the numbers and percentages and statistical results of aspectual classes and their relations to each tense. Examples from the real data will also be given when necessary.

The distribution of verbal morphology is shown in Table 6 and Figure 6 below:

TABLE 6
THE NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF ASPECTUAL CLASSES OVER
VERBAL MORPHOLOGY

	Simple Past		Past Prog.		Plu- perfect		Present tense	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Activity	764	82	100	11	40	4	15	2
Accomplishment	240	91	9	3	5	2	5	2
Achievement	295	91	4	1	6	2	4	1
State	757	88	20	2	15	2	69	8
TOTAL	2056		133		66		93	

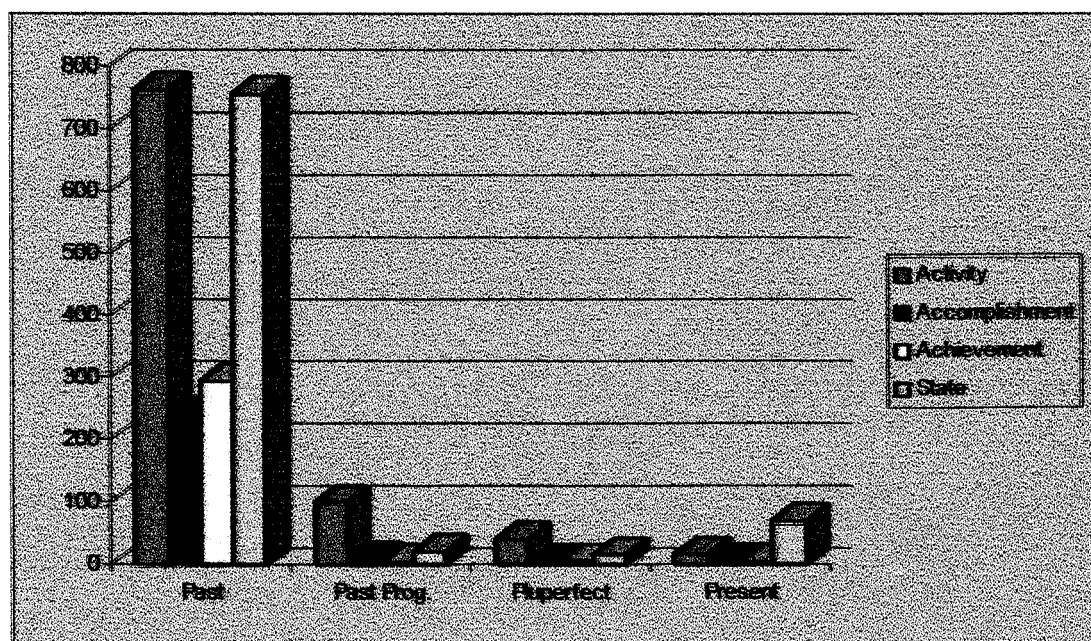


FIGURE 6
THE DISTRIBUTION OF ASPECTUAL CLASSES OVER VERBAL
MORPHOLOGY

4.2. The Past Tense

4.2.1. Facts and statistics about the past tense use:

The past simple tense is the one most often used to talk about the past. It indicates that an activity or situation began and ended at a particular time in the past. Past tense can refer to short, quickly finished actions and events, to longer actions and situations, and to repeated happenings.

(see Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973; Swan, 1982; Drummond, 1987; Azar, 1989; Alexander, 1991; Graver, 1991; Murphy, 1995)

The past tense was the most common tense with 88 % of all coded verbs. Totally there were 2056 verbs in the simple past tense- that was 88 % of all coded verbs. Among these verbs there were 757 stative verbs- 88 % of all stative verbs, 764 activity verbs- 82 % of all activity verbs, 295 achievement verbs- 91 % of all achievement verbs, 240 accomplishment verbs- 91 % of all accomplishment verbs.

95 % of the 2056 verbs, 2043 in number, were used correctly; however, 7 % of all verbs coded as incorrect were used in the past tense- that corresponded to 13 incorrect verb forms. The past tense verbs coded as correct or incorrect according to their aspectual classes could be shown as in Table 8 and Figure 8 below.

The distribution of aspectual classes in the past tense is shown in Table 7 and Figure 7 below:

TABLE 7
THE NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF ASPECTUAL CLASSES IN
THE PAST TENSE

	NUMBER	%
Activity	764	82
State	757	88
Achievement	295	91
Accomplishment	240	91
TOTAL	2056	

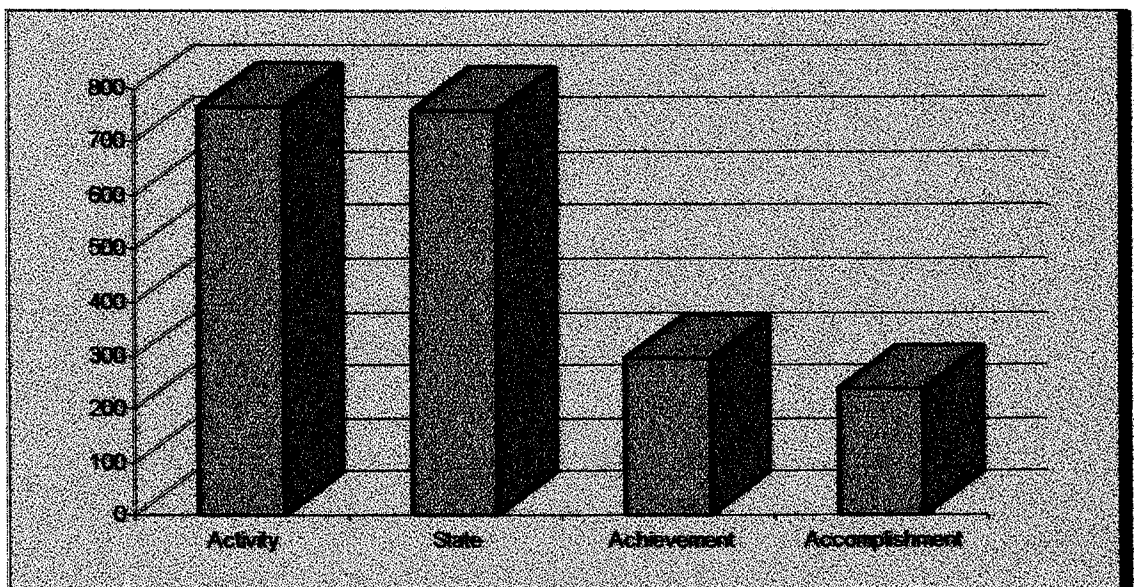


FIGURE 7
THE DISTRIBUTION OF ASPECTUAL CLASSES IN THE PAST TENSE

TABLE 8
THE NUMBERS OF CORRECT/INCORRECT ASPECTUAL CLASSES IN THE
PAST TENSE

	Correct	Incorrect	TOTAL
Activity	754	10	764
Accomplishment	756	1	757
Achievement	293	2	295
State	240	–	240

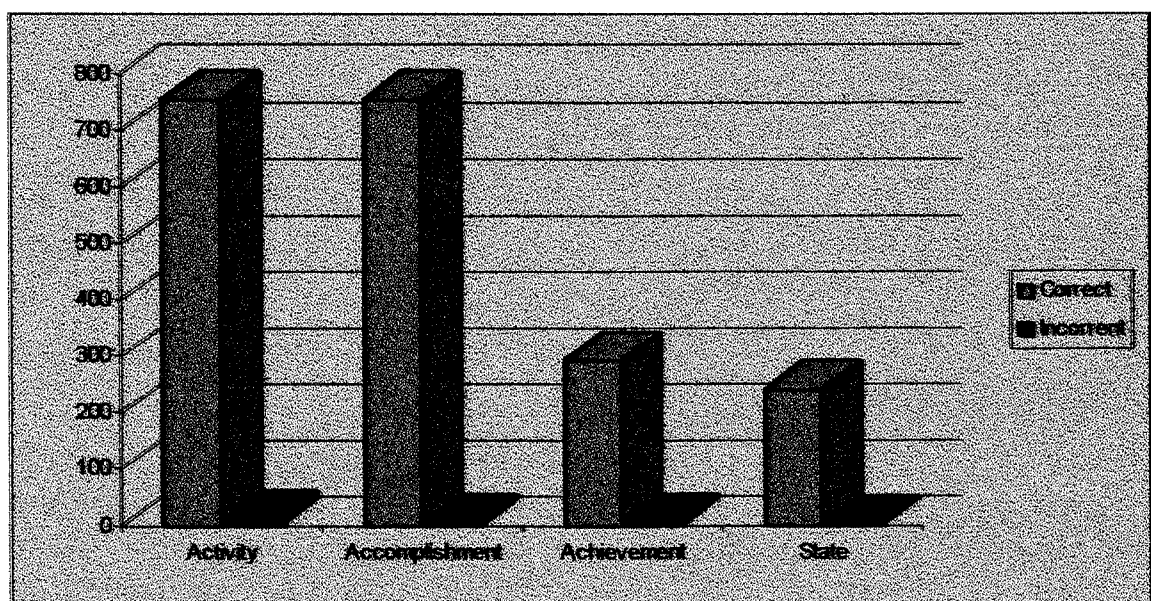


FIGURE 8
THE DISTRIBUTION OF CORRECT/INCORRECT ASPECTUAL
CLASSES IN THE PAST TENSE

As we collected our data by asking subjects write narrative paragraphs, the past tense was the expected tense. As expected, 95 % of the past tense verbs were used correctly. The mistakes encountered in this tense; however, was only the 5 % of all verbs coded for the past tense. Except very few cases in which subjects were required to use the pluperfect tense instead of the past, learners had no problems related to the past tense use.

The three groups below explain the errors in the past tense use:

4.2.2. Errors related to the past tense use

4.2.2.1. The use of the past tense instead of pluperfect

It was seen that our subjects avoided using the pluperfect tense and overused past tense instead. It is because that foreign language learners ignore the fact that when we talk about things that happened in the past, we take it as the starting point of the story; then, if we want to talk about things that happened before this time, we use the past perfect.

(see Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973; Swan, 1982; Drummond, 1987; Azar, 1989; Alexander, 1991; Graver, 1991; Murphy, 1995)

The examples below are taken from the students' narratives. The first numbers written in parenthesis after verbs in italics represent the subjects' number and the second ones verbs' numbers given to code them in the narrative.

The examples may be shown as follows:

1. With the verb “*use*”

1.1. * He went to shop again and asked the owner of the shop if he *used* (22.18) a model for baby or not.

1.2. * When he went back to the shop, he asked Mr. Liebmacher if he *used* (23.52) a model or not.

1.3. * The next day he went to doll-maker and asked if he *used* (31.24) a model for the dolls.

1.4. * He knew its name and its job and decided to ask the shop keeper whether he *used* (37.12) a model for the doll or not.

1.5. * Johnny went to the shop again and he asked if he *used* (48.18) a model.
(instead of ... if he had used)

Here are some typical examples with different verbs (*make, come, occur*) related to the same error:

1.6. * He didn't want to give it back to the old man and decided to ask if she *was made* (24.17) by using a model.
(instead of ... if she had been made)

1.7. * He made the doll sat near him after they *came* (25.33) home.
(instead of ... after they had come)

1.8. * There was something strange which *already occurred* (46.19) in the man's heart to the doll.

(instead of ... which had already occurred)

4.2.2.2. The use of the past tense form after a modal verb

The errors in this group are probably caused because of students' absent-mindedness to remember the fact that modal verbs are followed by the infinitive without to of other verbs (except for ought).

(see Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973; Swan, 1982; Drummond, 1987; Azar, 1989; Alexander, 1991; Graver, 1991; Murphy, 1995)

2. 1. * He would go and *asked* (21.56) to Mr. Liebemacher

(instead of ... and ask)

4.2.2.3. The use of the past tense form instead of a bare infinitive

It was seen that focusing on past tense, subjects tended to use it instead of a bare infinitive as shown in the examples below:

3. 1. * After a day he decided to go and *met* (46.27) her.

(instead of ...and meet)

3. 2. * God wanted all these events *happened* (50.20) long before.

(instead of ... events happen)

In order to provide sufficiently large cell values, the x^2 tests were done on data from each subject treated as a whole.

Because $x^2 = 33.2645 > 9.48773$, we reject the hypothesis that past tense is problematic for intermediate level Turkish EFL learners within the limits of the data. (see Appendix E).

It can be said that intermediate level Turkish EFL learners know the basic principles about how to use the past tense – its structure, past tense verb forms. Thus, we can mention no effect of lexical meaning for the past tense use of intermediate level Turkish EFL learners in these circumstances.

4.3. The Past Progressive Tense

4.3.1. Facts and statistics about the past progressive tense

The most common use of the past progressive is when talking about what was already happening at a particular past moment. Such as,

4. What *were* you *doing* yesterday at 7 p.m.?

5. When I got up this morning the sun *was shining*, the birds *were singing*.

(Swan.1982: 468).

In narratives (stories etc), past progressive is often used for descriptions, and the past simple for events and actions. Such as:

6. The bride *was wearing* a white dress and *carrying* a bouquet of lilies. The bridegroom *was trembling* and *looking* pale. Suddenly a man stood up at the back of the church. "Listen" he said

(Swan. 1982: 469)

(see Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973; Swan, 1982; Drummond, 1987; Azar, 1989; Alexander, 1991; Graver, 1991; Murphy, 1995)

There were 133 verbs used in the past progressive tense- that constituted 6 % of all coded verbs.

Of all coded verbs used in past progressive, the number of stative verbs was 20- 2 % of all coded stative verbs, the number of activity verbs was 100- 11 % of all coded activity verbs, the number of accomplishment verbs was 9- 3 % of all coded accomplishment verbs, the number of achievement verbs was 4- 1 % of all coded achievement verbs.

While the percentage of verbs used in the past progressive tense was only 6 %, the percentage of incorrect forms used in the past progressive tense constituted 40 % of all verbs coded as incorrect. 55 out of 100 activity verbs were used incorrectly; 15 out of 20 state verbs were used incorrectly; 6 out of 9 accomplishment verbs were used incorrectly; 3 out of 4 achievement verbs were used incorrectly. These percentages show that intermediate level Turkish EFL learners face with great problems when using the past progressive tense.

The distribution of aspectual classes in the past progressive tense is also shown in Table 9 and Figure 9 below:

TABLE 9
THE NUMBERS OF ASPECTUAL CLASSES IN THE PAST
PROGRESSIVE

	NUMBER	%
Activity	100	11
State	20	2
Achievement	4	1
Accomplishment	9	3
TOTAL	133	16

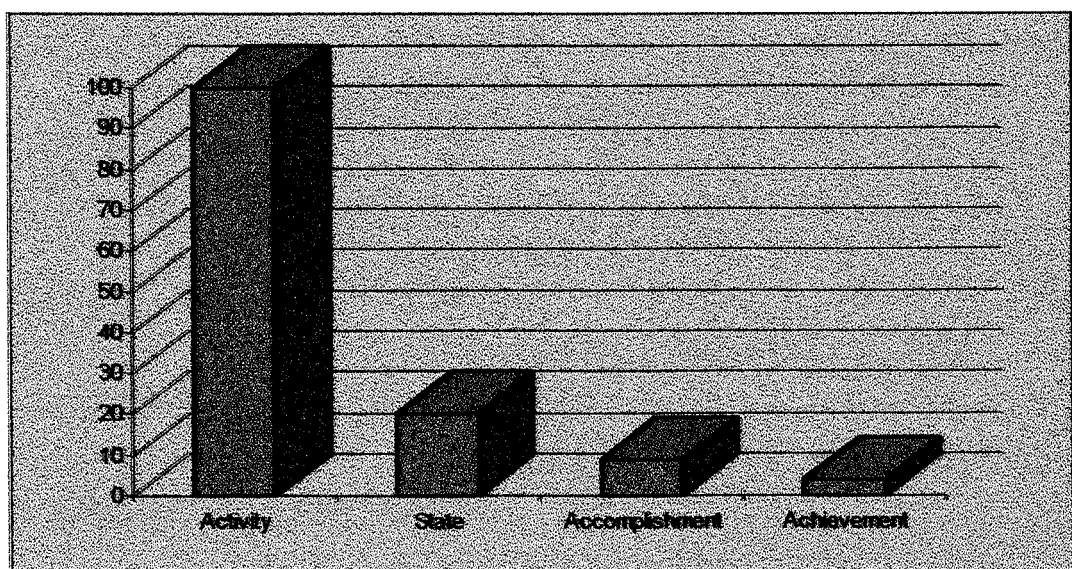


FIGURE 9
THE DISTRIBUTION OF ASPECTUAL CLASSES IN THE PAST
PROGRESSIVE

TABLE 10
THE NUMBERS OF CORRECT/INCORRECT ASPECTUAL CLASSES IN
THE PAST PROGRESSIVE

	Correct	Incorrect	TOTAL
Activity	45	55	100
State	5	15	20
Accomplishment	3	6	9
Achievement	1	3	4

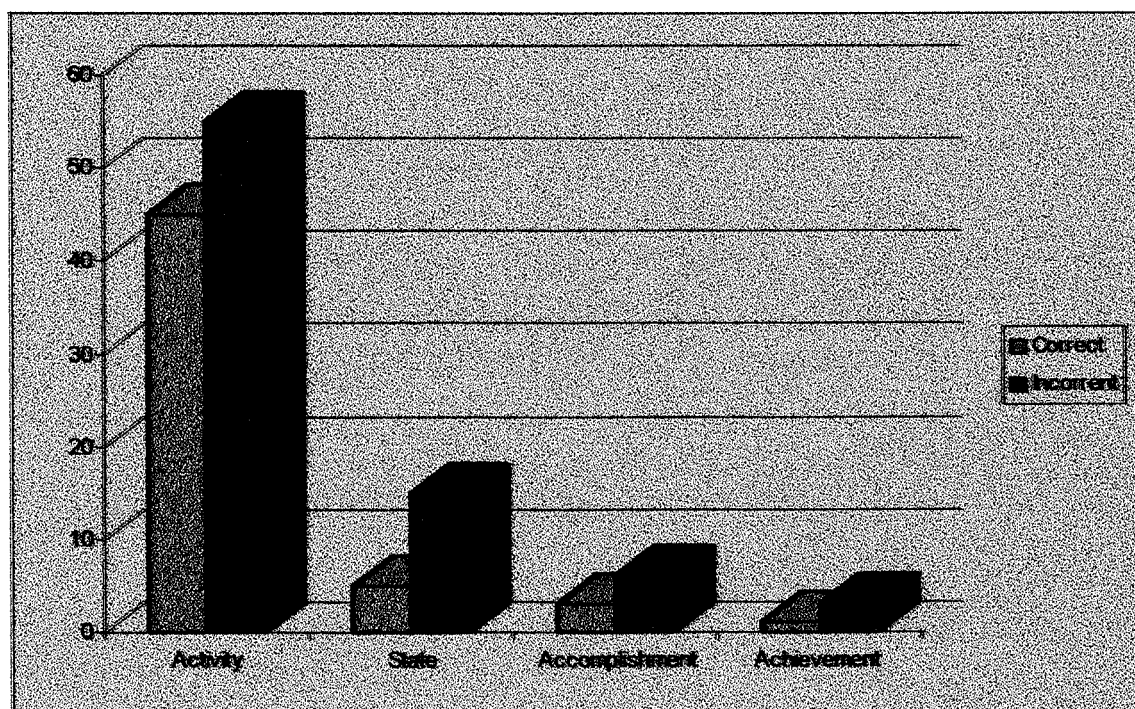


FIGURE 10
THE DISTRIBUTION OF CORRECT/INCORRECT ASPECTUAL
CLASSES IN THE PAST PROGRESSIVE TENSE

The two groups below explain errors related to past progressive tense:

4.3.2. Errors related to the past progressive tense use

4.3.2.1. The Use of *Statives* in the Progressive

As we have already mentioned, a *state* is a condition or a changeless event without any inherent end. A *state* involves no dynamics. It is involuntary and atelic. The progressive cannot be used easily with *states* (cf. pages 13-14). However, it was seen that the subjects used some stative verbs like *feel*, *expect*, and *think* in the progressive as seen below:

7. *feel*

7.1. * ... he *was feeling* (6.30) so lonely.

7.2. * John *was always feeling* (10.1) lonely so

7.3. * John *was feeling* (15.17) so lonely.

7.4. * She *was feeling* (15.52) lonely like him.

7.5. * He *was feeling* (16.32) lonely.

7.6. * He *was feeling* (18.43) good and the doll .
(instead of ... *felt*)

8. *expect*

8. 1. * She *wasn't expecting* (12.17) a doll.

(instead of she didn't expect)

8. 2. * She *was expecting* (30.25) a watch, not a doll.

(instead of she expected)

9. *think*

9. 1. * Because he *was thinking* (11.32) that the baby was very beautiful.

(instead of Because he thought that)

The same problem is also observed by Aitken (1992). Aitken (1992) stated that Intermediate-level EFL students have problems when distinguishing the stative and dynamic uses of *to have* for possession, and verbs of sensation when using present continuous and present simple as in:

10. I am having a shower.

11. * I *am having* a headache.

Also in many cases students attempt to use verbs of sensation with present continuous:

12. * We *are enjoying* the party.

13. * I *am wanting* coke.

(Aitken.1992:17)

4.3.2.2. The Use of the Past Progressive Instead of Simple Past

The past progressive is used for temporary actions and situations; when we talk about longer, more permanent situations we usually use the past simple.

(See Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973; Swan, 1982; Drummond, 1987; Azar, 1989; Alexander, 1991; Graver, 1991; Murphy, 1995)

Compare:

14. It happened while I *was living* in Eastbourne last year.
15. I lived in London for ten years when I was a child.

Also Bland (1988) pointed out as a result of inadequate knowledge of meaning and functional range of both progressive and simple present, learners, especially advanced ones, overuse progressive as in the examples:

16. A: Do you know Sapsucker Woods?

B: Yes, my wife *is often going* there with the children.

17. He is a character who *is scaring* everyone.

(from a German speaker.)

18. He is a man who is known for being innovative and imaginative in the terrorism they *are doing*. (from a Hebrew speaker)

(Bland. 1988: 65-66)

Finally, students find it more appropriate to say

19. I listen to the radio when I wash the dishes versus

* I listen to the radio when I *am washing* the dishes.

(Aitken. 1992:17).

In fact, this was the greatest trouble for intermediate level Turkish EFL learners. It was seen that students had a tendency to express habitual/permanent series of repeated actions in the past progressive not in the simple past

It was also seen that except "earn", all these verbs were *activity verbs*.

The examples below are related to the subjects' overuse of the past progressive tense.

20. *live*

20. 1. * He ate his meal with it and talked it. Because he *was living* (6.29) alone and he was feeling so lonely.

20. 2. * Our story was about a man who *was living* (7.2) alone in his home.

20. 3. * Mr. John *was living* (13.2) alone.

20. 4. * She *was living* (14.52) on her own in her house.

20. 5. * She *was living* (15.51) alone in her house.

20. 6. * She *was living* (17.40) alone.

20. 7. * He *was living* (19.7) alone.

20. 8. * She *was living* (23.65) alone.

20. 9. * On the way to his house he started to talk to baby-doll and imagined her his darling as he *was living* (29.16) alone.

20. 10. * She *was living* (33.50) alone.

20. 11. * Mr. Walters *was living* (35.5) alone.
(instead of ... *lived*)

21. *make*

21. 1. * He had a friend who *was making* (9.5) dolls.

21. 2. * The old man *was making* (17.3) dolls by using models.

21. 3. * He *was making* (19.4) dolls.

21. 4. * The old man *was making* (27.1) dolls.
(instead of ... *made* ...)

22. *sell*

22. 1. * One day he went to a shopkeeper who was at the same time a friend of him and *was selling* (7.5) dolls.

22. 2. * This man had a shop in which he *was selling* (15.3) dolls.

22. 3. * He went to a shop which *was selling* (22.3) hand-made toys.

22. 4. * Not only he *was selling* (27.4) toys to people but also he *was speaking* with them friendly.
(instead of ... *sold*...)

25.3. * He *was calling* (11.37) her "Mary".
 (instead of ... called)

26. *earn*

26.1. * He asked how he *was earning* (6.4) money.

26.2. * There was a old man who *was earning* (24.2) his living by making dolls.
 (instead of ... earned)

27. *talk*

27.1. * The doll *wasn't talking* (4.14).

27.2. * John was always feeling lonely so he *was going* to a toy story and *talking* (10.3) with the owner of it.

27.3. * He *was talking* (14.15) to the doll in his car.

27. 4. * In the evening, at the dinner table, the man *was talking* (14.23) to the doll.

27. 5. * He *was only talking* (15.5) with him whenever he came.

27. 6. * He *was talking* (32.13), he was eating meal etc. with the doll.
 (instead of ... *talked*)

The chi-square test is also applied to the past progressive tense.

As $x^2 = 1.2307 < 9.48773$, we accept that the use of the past progressive tense is problematic for intermediate-level Turkish EFL learners.

The p values for each aspectual class in the past progressive tense may be pointed out as follows:

<i>activities:</i>	$p = 0.762$
<i>accomplishments:</i>	$p = 0.493$
<i>statives:</i>	$p = 0.313$
<i>achievements:</i>	$p = 0.223$

(see from Appendix F)

The p values indicate that *activities* take the greatest part when errors in the past progressive tense are considered. If we examine the error groups 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, and 27 above, we see that the use of activity verbs in the past progressive tense constitute great problems for intermediate-level Turkish EFL learners.

The cause of this misuse may be related to L1 interference. In Turkish, progressive may be used like past tense (Lewis. 1967: 117; Yavaş.1980:135) as in the examples below:

28. O yalnız *yaş-ıyor-du*. or O yalnız *yaşa-r-di*.

29. Yaşlı adam model kullanarak oyuncak bebek *yap-ıyor-du*.

or Yaşlı adam *yap-(a)r-di*.

30. Muhabbet etmek için sık sık oyuncakçı dükkanına *gid-iyor-du*.

or Muhabbet etmek ... *gid-(e)r-di*.

31. Oyuncak bebeğe "Mary" diye *seslen-iyor-du*.

or Oyuncak bebeğe ... *seslen-(i)r-di*

Yazarım and *yazıyorum* may both be translated as "I write". More specifically; *yazarım* "I am a writer; in principle I write (though I may not yet have put pen to paper)". *Yazıyorum* "I am writing now; as a matter of fact I do write"; "I write for example, for four hours every morning" - her sabah dört saat *yazıyorum*.- where

the broad *yazarım* would be incongruous with the precise expression of time (Lewis, 1967:117).

As a result of L1 interference, intermediate level Turkish students may use the past progressive tense in English to refer to longer, more permanent situations instead of temporary actions and situations.

Thus, we may say that as a result of the L1 interference Turkish EFL learners overuse the progressive aspect in English and tend to express habitual or permanent situations as if they were temporary ones .

All the predicates except copular predicates can co-occur with the progressive in Turkish; however, *statives* resist the progressive in English. Thus; the commitment of errors as in groups 7, 8, and 9 above, may be explained as a result of the L1 interference as well. Besides, it can be said that different lexical aspectual properties of *statives* also cause problems when the progressive aspect is considered. Consequently, we can say that *statives* are problematic for intermediate-level Turkish EFL learners when using the past progressive tense.

Studying the use of the progressive aspect of the EFL learners, Bland (1988) also pointed out that even most advanced EFL learners have difficulty in using the progressive tenses although they acquire preliminary knowledge of it early. Bland paid attention to the discrepancy between grammar book and usage accounts and offered a number of implications for ESL pedagogy. She also pointed out that what ESL texts do is to tend to concentrate on the straightforward "action in progress" meaning of the progressive, contrasting it to the simple present. Also, the contrast between the notion of progressive events and non-progressive states is usually only briefly mentioned. Generally, a list of non-progressive verbs is presented and it is stated that these verbs and others like them resist the progressive. Thus, all these cause students to misuse it.

4.4. The Pluperfect Tense

4.4.1. Facts and statistics about the pluperfect tense

The pluperfect (past perfect) tense is constructed with *had* + *past participle*. If we are already talking about the past, we use the pluperfect to go back to an earlier past time, to talk about things that *had laready happened* at the time we are talking about.

32. He wasn't exactly a stranger- I *had met* him once before.

33. I explained that I *had forgotten* my keys.

34. I could see from his face that he *had received* bad news.

(Swan. 1982:467)

(see Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973; Swan, 1982; Drummond, 1987; Azar, 1989; Alexander. 1991; Graver, 1991; Murphy. 1995).

There were 66 verbs in the pluperfect- that constituted 3 % of all coded verbs. Of all coded verbs used in the pluperfect: the number of stative verbs was 15- 2 % of all coded verbs, the number of activity verbs was 40- 4 % of all coded verbs, the number of accomplishment verbs was 5- 2 % of all coded verbs, the number of achievement verbs was 6- 1 % of all coded verbs.

Among these verbs 47 of them- 2 %, were used correctly, 19, - 10 %, incorrectly. When aspectual classes were considered, the numbers of correct/incorrect usages in the use of pluperfect may be shown as in Table 12 and Figure 12 below:

The distribution is shown in Table 11 and Figure 11 below:

TABLE 11
THE NUMBERS OF ASPECTUAL CLASSES IN THE PLUPERFECT

	NUMBER	%
Activity	40	4
State	15	2
Achievement	6	1
Accomplishment	5	2
TOTAL	66	9

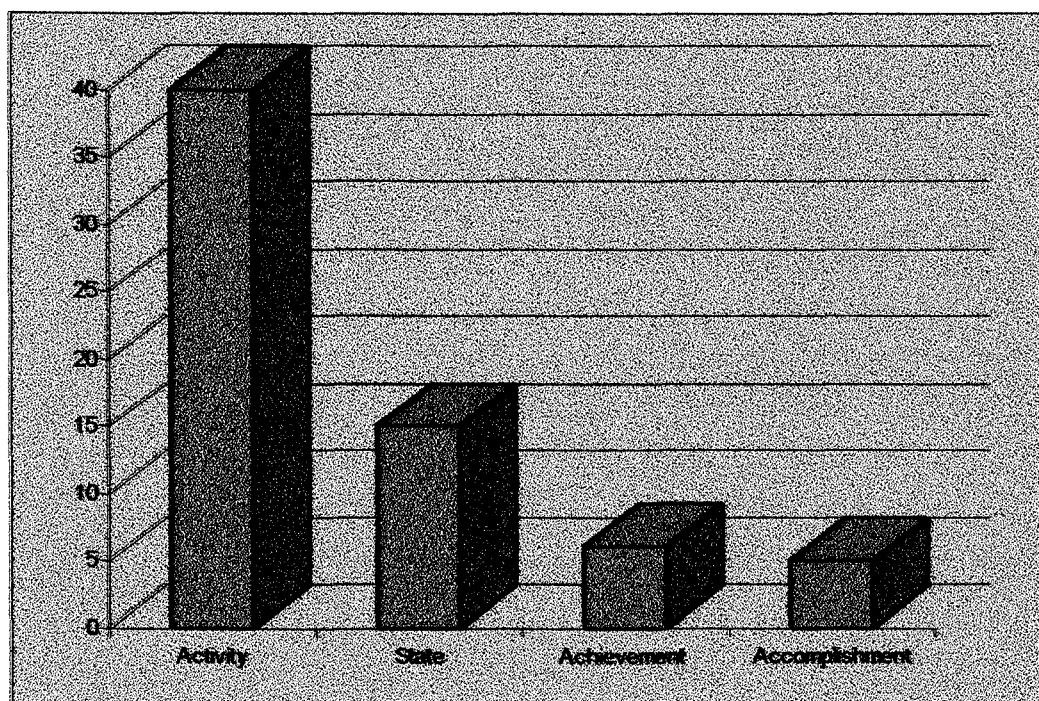


FIGURE 11
THE DISTRIBUTION OF ASPECTUAL CLASSES IN THE PLUPERFECT

TABLE 12

THE NUMBERS OF ASPECTUAL CLASSES IN THE PAST PROGRESSIVE

	Correct	Incorrent	TOTAL
Activity	35	5	40
State	5	10	15
Achievement	3	3	6
Accomplishment	4	1	5

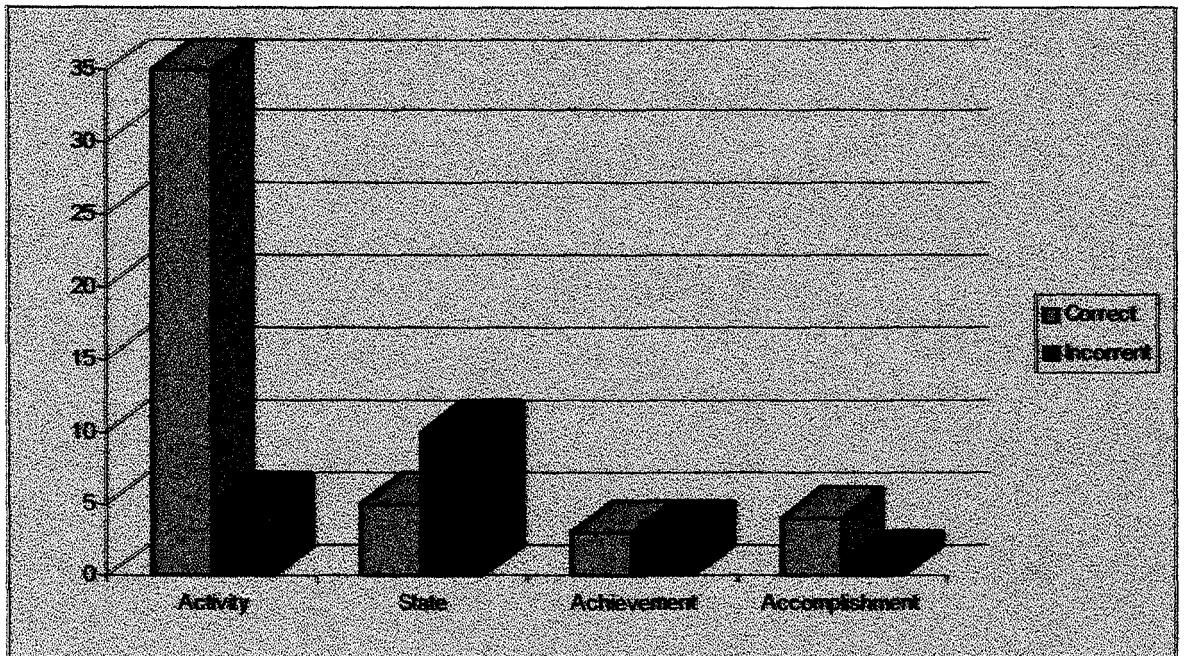


FIGURE 12

THE DISTRIBUTION OF CORRECT/INCORRECT ASPECTUAL
CLASSES IN THE PLUPERFECT

The groups given below represent the common errors in the use of the pluperfect.

4.4.2. Errors related to the Pluperfect tense use

4.4.2.1. The use of pluperfect instead of the past tense

In the examples below students used the pluperfect tense in place of the past tense as follows:

35.1. * In fact he *had loved* (2.13) her very much.
(instead of In fact he loved her very much.)

35.2. * He called the doll "Mary Dickinson" and *had guessed* (8.18) that she is a teacher.
(instead of ... and guessed that she was a teacher.)

35.3. * He was confused, he *had loved* (12.28) the doll but couldn't find
(instead of ..., he loved)

35.4. * When he *had mentioned* (12.49) the model's name John was very surprised because
(instead of ... he mentioned the model's name, John was surprised very much.)

35.5. * He explained for what he *had come* (12.63) for and mentioned that Mary had been the model for the doll.
(instead of ... he came for)

35.6. * Mary was surprised because she *had not known* (12.67) this and
(instead of she did not know)

35.7.* He very often visited a toy shop but *hadn't bought* (13.5) anything.
(instead of ... but did not buy anything.)

35.8.* In the morning the man changed his mind and decided not to bring the baby back because he *had liked* (14.22) the doll very much.
(instead of ... because he liked)

35.9.* He *had thought* (17.33) the same things.
(instead of He thought)

35.10.* He *had learned* (19.24) that her name was Mary Dickenson and
(instead of He learned that)

35.11.* When she *had gone out* (21.31), Walters sister started asking him questions about his private life.
(instead of When she went out,)

35.12.* Living alone *had bored* (25.2) him a lot and he felt himself mad.
(instead of Living alone bored)

35.13.* John decided to Mary's house to say that he *had loved* (32. 28) her and
(instead of John decided to go to Mary's house to say that he loved her and)

35.14.* The woman says " *I'd bought* (42.31) it from that doll maker".
(instead of ... "I have bought it)

35.15.* She *hadn't married* (43.25).
(instead of She did not marry.)

Like the past tense use, 90 % of all the pluperfect tense verbs were used correctly, 10 % incorrectly. As the percentage of correct answers are so high, it is not possible to search the role of lexical aspect in these circumstances.

Also, because $\chi^2 = 18.5182 > 9.48773$, the statistical results are not enough to declare that the pluperfect tense is problematic for intermediate level Turkish EFL learners within the limits of the data collected for the study (see from Appendix G).

4.5. The Simple Present Tense

4.5.1. Facts and statistics about the present tense

The most common use of the present simple tense is to refer to “general time”- that is, to talk about actions and situations which happen repeatedly, or all the time, or at any time.

36. I *go* running three times a week.

37. My parents *live* near Dover.

38. Water *freezes* at 32 Fahrenheit.

(Swan. 1982: 497)

(see Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973; Swan, 1982; Drummond, 1987; Azar, 1989; Alexander. 1991; Graver, 1991; Murphy. 1995).

There were 93 verbs in the present tense- 4 % of all coded verbs. Stative verbs constituted 8 % of all coded verbs- 69 in number, activity verbs, 2 %- 15 in number, accomplishment verbs, 2 %- 5 in number, achievement verbs, 1 %, 4 in number.

The distribution is shown in Table 13 and Figure 13 below:

TABLE 13
THE NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF ASPECTUAL CLASSES IN
THE SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE

	NUMBER	%
State	69	8
Activity	15	2
Accomplishment	5	2
Achievement	4	1
TOTAL	93	13

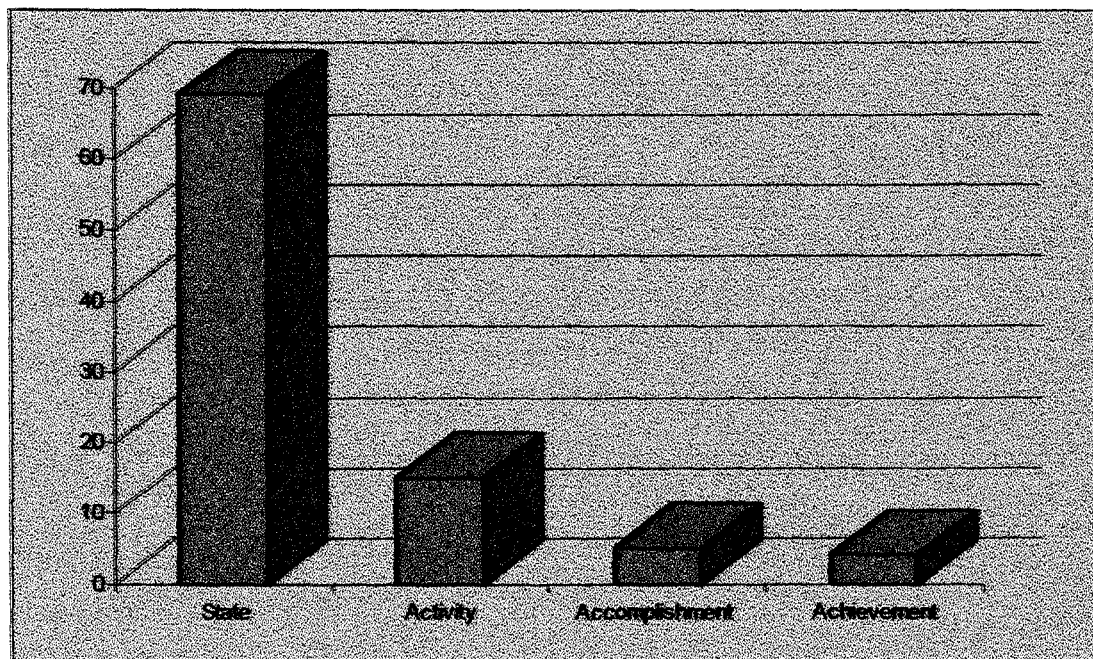


FIGURE 13
THE DISTRIBUTION OF ASPECTUAL CLASSES IN THE SIMPLE
PRESENT TENSE

Among these verbs 7 of them were correct, 86 of them- 44 %, incorrect. The numbers of correct/incorrect uses in the simple present tense are shown as follows:

TABLE 14
THE NUMBERS OF CORRECT/INCORRECT ASPECTUAL CLASSES IN
THE SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE

	Correct	Incorrect	TOTAL
Activity	–	15	15
Accomplishment	–	5	5
Achievement	1	3	4
State	6	63	69

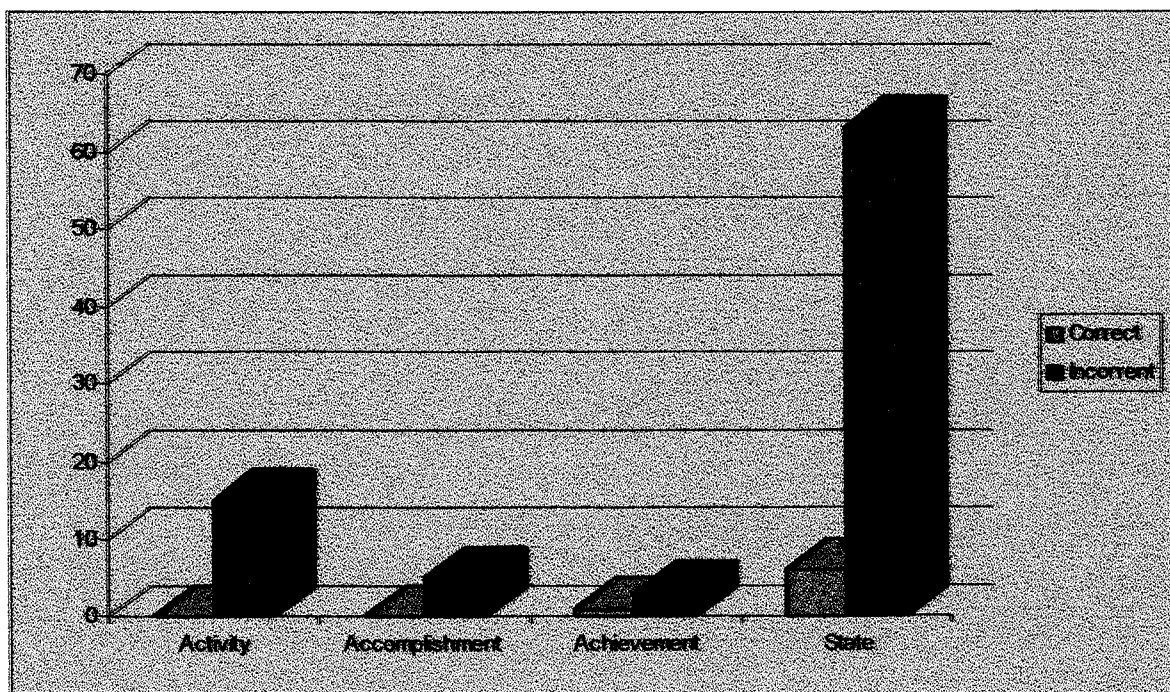


FIGURE 14
THE DISTRIBUTION OF CORRECT/INCORRECT ASPECTUAL CLASSES IN
THE PRESENT TENSE

Below a list of common mistakes in the use of the simple present tense is presented:

4.5.2. Errors Related to the Present Tense Use

4.5.2.1. The wrong sequence of tenses

In the examples below students applied present tense verbs though they express a past tense story:

39. With *Stative* Verbs

39.1.* He chose a doll that affected him a lot. It *is* (1.9) a beautiful and attractive girl. He decided to buy it.
(Instead of It was a beautiful)

39.2.* After the party, Sally, who *is* (1.13) his sister, trying to talk with him about his life. She wanted him to marry immediately.
(instead of ... Sally, who was his sister, tried to talk to him about)

39.3.* She was surprised because the doll *is* (1.43) himself.
(instead of ... because the doll was himself.)

39.4.* Liebmacher had arranged a plan for them, because they *are* (1.45) both single.
(instead of ... because they were both single.)

39.5.* The movie began when Johny Walters entered the doll shop to buy a doll for his cousin's birthday. The owner of the store *is* (4.3) an old man called Liebemacher.

(instead of The owner of the store was)

39.6.* At following day but when he came home he suddenly realised that he really *loves* (4.12) this doll.

(instead of In the following day when he came home he suddenly realised that he really loved this doll.)

39.7.* The doll wasn't talking but Mr. Walters *feels* (4.15) something while he is talking with the doll.

(instead of The doll didn't talk but Mr. Walters felt something while he was talking to the doll.)

39.8.* So Mr. Walters decided to go Mr. Liebemacher and learn if this doll *has* (4.21) a model or not.

(instead of So Mr. Walters decided to go to Mr. ... if this doll had)

39.9.* Mr. Liebemacher gave an address to Mr. Walters and said this *is* (4.24) the address of Mary Dickinson the model of this doll.

(instead of ... and said this was the address of Mary Dickenson, the model of this doll.)

39.10.* When they came home suddenly the doll fall down with the keys of the car so Mr. Walters realised that the doll *wants* (4.29) to go to the house of Miss Dickinson.

(instead of ... the doll fell down ...so Mr. Walters realised that the doll wanted)

39.11.* He *is* (5.3) very alone, wanted to marry but didn't find anybody because of shyness.

(instead of He was)

39.12.* He gave it a name, Mary and a job which *is* (5.24) teacher.

(instead of ... which was a teacher.)

39.13.* He decided to come back the doll shop and learned that it was modelled by a teacher whose name *is* (5.30) Mary.

(instead of ... whose name was Mary.)

39.14.* He called the doll "Mary Dickinson" and had guessed that she *is* (8.19) a teacher.

(instead of ... and guessed that she was)

39.15* As he *is* (8.20) old enough to get married he wanted to marry somebody but, he was

(instead of As he was)

39.16.* Then they understood that Mr. Liebmacher's name *means* (13.50) love maker in German and he met the lonely people.

(instead of ... that Mr. Liebmacher's name meant love maker in German and he introduced lonely people.)

39.17.* When they were speaking they noticed that Lunamar *means* (19.31) that love-maker in German.

(instead of ... that Liebmacher meant love-maker)

39.18.* Mr. Walter regarded him as a soft seller as he didn't force his customers to buy smt. One of his other quality *is* (21.9) his making the dolls by himself.

(instead of One of his other quality was)

39.19.* Then Walter told that in German "Liebemacher" *means* (21.90) "love maker" in English.

(instead of ... Liebemacher meant)

39.20.* One day a man called John came and bought a baby for his niece birthday but she *is* (24.6) too old to play with a baby.

(instead of ... and bought a doll for his niece's birthday but she was too old to play with a doll.)

39.21.* She said she *knows* (26. 37) the seller but she was not a model.

(instead of She said she knew)

39.22.* When the woman opened the door he said only, the doll *is* (28.43) you.

(instead of ... the doll was you.)

39.23.* The word she said was the most interesting thing in this event. Liebemacher *means* (28.55) love maker.

(instead of ... Liebemacher meant love maker.)

39.24.* One day John went to the shop where the dolls *are sold* (31.5) to buy a gift for his cousin's birthday.

(instead of ... to the shop, where the dolls were sold, to buy)

39.25.* Following day, Mr. Walker tried to compensate his fault, because he couldn't think that a doll *is not* (35.27) suitable for a eleven-year-old girl, therefore he wanted to change the doll.

(instead of ... a doll was not)

39.26.* During this period he loved the doll and *thinks* (37.9) of it.
(instead of ... and thought of it.)

39.27.* But this man *is* (42.8) very alone and started to become old.
(instead of But this man was)

39.28.* Doll-maker told him who's (42.21) that model.
(instead of ... who was that model.)

39.29.* And they were both happy to meet the partner they *imagine* (42.37).
(instead of ... they imagined.)

39.30.* It *is* (47.17) about 1.30 am but he didn't sleep started to talk with
that doll like a real woman.
(instead of It was ... started to talk to the doll as if she were a real woman.)

39.31.* But the girl *is* (50.8) too old to play this kind of doll, so he didn't like
the doll.
(instead of But the girl was)

39.32.* ... John thought that her name was Mary Dickenson and she's
(50.18) a teacher.
(instead of ... and she was a teacher.)

A failure to use the past tense in past-time contexts seems to be a pervasive problem among non-native speakers that can sometimes obscure a text's meaning when they employ the present tense to refer to past time events (Chappel & Rodby, 1983; Guiora, 1983) or use the past tense where the present tense is expected (Riddle, 1986).

The mistaken assumptions can be seen in the examples below:

40. (Leaving a movie theatre) That *was* a great movie.

(Riddle.1986:271)

(In fact, the movie continues to be great. Because it is believed that completed acts are described in the past tense, learners misuse it.)

41. Susan: Did you do anything interesting during the break?

Mei-Li: Yeah, I went to the Grand Canyon with some of my friends. We drove and camped out on the way.

Susan: It sounds like fun.

Mei-Li: It *is*.

(Riddle.1986: 278)

(In this dialogue, Mei-Li uses the past tense for completed actions but mistakenly switches to the present tense after the native speaker, Susan, uses the present. In fact, she should have continued to use the past tense to reflect the fact that her experience took place in the past.)

42. While I was in the gym, I saw someone *looks* very much like somebody I *know* from my home town. I was afraid to come and ask her if she *is* from my hometown or not. Anyway, I guessed she felt the same way, because not too long she came and asked about myself. Then I found that she *is* from my hometown. I could not be sure because she changed a little. However, we talked for a while, then she had to leave.

(Riddle.1986: 279)

(In the paragraph above, whenever a verb denotes an act, state, or situation completed in the past, the past tense, is correctly used. However, when states which can be considered to exist in the present as well as in the past are described, the verbs incorrectly appear in the present tense.)

The statistical figures related to the present tense are shown below:

The $x^2 = 4.4910 < 9.48773$. Thus, we can say that the present tense use is problematic in our circumstances.

The p values also change as follows:

<i>statives:</i>	$p = 0.824$
<i>accomplishments:</i>	$p = 0.433$
<i>achievements:</i>	$p = 0.280$
<i>activities:</i>	$p = 0.264$

(cf. Appendix H)

The results above emphasise the role of *stative verbs* in the commitment of tense errors in the use of the present tense in past tense narratives. Among other aspectual classes *stative verbs* ($p = 0.824$) are at the highest rank. We may say that as *states* (cf. page 13) are known as changeless events without any inherent ends, learners often use them to refer to past time verbs.

As stated by Chappel & Rodby (1983), Guiora (1983), Riddle (1986) earlier, the statistical analysis also prove that intermediate level Turkish EFL learners use *statives* incorrectly in the present tense in place of their past tense forms.

4.6. Discussion of the Results

As a conclusion, we have seen that the simple past tense is not a problem for Turkish intermediate level EFL learners. On the other hand, we have found that the past progressive and the present tense cause problems. The cause of these problems are discussed on pages 51-63 and 69-78 and in the conclusion part is some detail. As far as the pluperfect is concerned, we do not have enough data to draw any solid conclusions in this study.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

This study aimed at questioning the role of lexical aspect in the foreign language learning process of the intermediate level adult Turkish EFL learners. The study was conducted with the first year students attending the English Language Teaching Department of Uludağ University, Faculty of Education. The subjects were chosen according to the results of a Placement Test given at the beginning of the academic year. The 50 subjects were asked to write narrative paragraphs within a lesson hour- 45 minutes- after they watched the 20-minute movie, "The Doll", silently twice. The data was analysed by coding each finite verb in "Varbrul Statistics Program" according to the following three variables: tense, usage, and aspectual class.

- Verbal morphology
 - a. past
 - b. past progressive
 - c. pluperfect
 - d. base
 - e. present
 - f. present progressive
 - h. present perfect
 - z. future
 - x. uninterpretable

- Usage
 - r. correct
 - w. incorrect

- Aspectual	k. activities
class	l. accomplishments
	m. achievements
	n. states

After the analysis we found out that totally 2389 verbs were coded for the study. Later, it was seen from the numbers and percentages that present progressive, present perfect, future tenses, and base and uninterpretable forms were not frequent enough to analyse statistically. Thus, they were taken out of the study. As a result of this, we focused on four tenses: simple past, past progressive, pluperfect, and present. The remaining data was 2348 verbs. Among these verbs 86 %, 2056 in number, were used in the past tense; the other 6 %, 133 in number, in the past progressive. There were 66 verbs in the pluperfect tense, 3 % of all coded verbs. The rest 4 % corresponded to 93 verbs in the present tense. In these four tense groups, there were 936 *activity verbs*, 39 % of all coded verbs; 865 *statives*, 36 % of all coded verbs; 324 *achievement verbs*, 14 % of all coded verbs; and 264 *accomplishment verbs*, 11 % of all coded verbs.

As we collected our data from the subjects' narratives, the past tense was the expected tense. As expected, 95 % of the past tense verbs were used correctly. The incorrect usages in this tense was only the 5 % of all the verbs coded for the past tense. The chi-square test showed that the past tense use is not a problem for intermediate level Turkish EFL learners. We may say that intermediate level Turkish EFL learners know the basic principles about the use of the past tense- its structure, past tense verb forms. Thus, we can mention no effect lexical aspect for the past tense use of intermediate level Turkish EFL learners in these circumstances.

While the percentage of verbs used in the past progressive tense was only 6 %, the percentage of incorrect forms used in the past progressive tense constituted 40 % of all verbs coded as incorrect. That is, the use of progressive aspect is really problematic. Among the 133 past progressive tense verbs, there were 100 *activity verbs*, 20 *state verbs*, 9 *accomplishment verbs*, and 4 *achievements*. The numbers and

percentages of correct/incorrect aspectual classes in the past progressive tense also change as follows:

	<u>Correct</u>	<u>Incorrect</u>
activity:	45	55
state:	5	15
accomplishment:	3	6
achievement:	1	3

The incorrect usages related to the past progressive tense were categorised in two groups: the use of *statives* in the progressive and the use of the past progressive tense instead of simple past. It was seen that knowing *a state* as a condition or a changeless event without any inherent end, the subjects used some *stative verbs* like feel, expect, and think in the progressive (see Aitken, 1992). The reason for such a misuse may also be attributed to the differences in the L1 and L2. That is, in Turkish all the predicates except copular predicates can co-occur with the progressive aspect; however, in English *statives* resist the progressive. Another failure is related to the use of the past progressive tense for longer or permanent situations instead of temporary ones (see Bland, 1988, Aitken, 1992). The case of this misuse may be related to L1 interference since the past progressive tense is used in place of the past tense in Turkish (Lewis, 1967; Yavaş, 1980). The chi-square test and p values proved that the use of the past progressive tense is a problem for intermediate level Turkish EFL learners. When lexical aspect is considered, one of the main reasons for such misuse is because of the ignorance of contrast between the progressive events and non-progressive *states* and because due to the teaching materials, in which a list of non-progressive verbs are presented and stated that they resist the progressive.

When we have a look at the results in the pluperfect tense, we see that there is not sufficient data to comment on. Thus, like the past tense use, the results are not enough to conclude that the pluperfect tense use is problematic for intermediate level Turkish EFL learners.

It was seen that in our data 93 verbs, 13 % of all coded verbs, were used in the present tense as a result of wrong sequence of tenses. Likewise, Chappel &

Rodby, (1983); Guiora, (1983); Riddle, (1986) found errors in the use of the past tense in past contexts as a pervasive problem among non-native speakers. These errors can sometimes obscure a text's meaning when they employ the present tense to refer to past time events. The chi-square test also proved the use of present tense as a problem for intermediate level Turkish EFL learners. The p values also indicated *statives* as the most problematic aspectual class among all the aspectual categories.

5.1. Implications for Language Teaching

As we all know a teacher who knows why a particular mistake is made is in a better position to correct it, or even to forestall it altogether, than one who does not. Especially when teaching the past progressive and present tenses, teachers should be alert about the problems caused by the *stative verbs*. The use of the past progressive tense in English also needs to be explained in detail to the Turkish EFL learners since L1 interference is considered to have effects in the errors related to this tense. Also, curriculum developers and materials writers should consider this problem. Bland (1988) suggests the following:

Both discovery and practice purposes, past and present tenses must be discussed in context, using excerpts from novels, stories, newspaper articles, academic prose, transcribed natural conversation, television dialogue, magazine notices, etc.. Instead of ready made explanations to the students, the instructor can provide the examples first and ask them formulate their own hypotheses. This prepares the students for a more complete explanation by the teacher. Another idea is to ask students collect examples in context from speech or writing and to explain why the past or present was used in each case. This helps to build monitoring and analytical skills which later enable learners to learn beyond the classroom walls. It is also helpful to devise as many real situations in the classroom to illustrate and practice. Communicative and contextually based exercises help raising students' awareness and may later contribute to greater consistency in their tense use.

5. 2. Suggestions for Further Research

In this study only written data was analysed. Thus, collecting oral data may be the subject of another study. In addition to this, this study was conducted with the learners at Intermediate level. Results could be different with other students at different language levels. Another idea may be to collect data by the help of the subjects from various L1 backgrounds and we can compare and contrast them to see how different L1s affect the impact of lexical aspect on the use of tenses, we may also test whether this impact is universal.

APPENDICES

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APPENDIX A: SAMPLE DATA

Subject 1

John Walters was (1.1) 47 years old and he was (1.2) single.

He always went (1.3) to the doll shop to talk with Mr. Liebmacher, who was (1.4) doll seller.

One day, he went (1.5) to there again, because he wanted (1.6) to buy a doll for his cousin's birthday.

He chose (1.7) a doll that affected (1.8) him a lot. It is (1.9) a beautiful and attractive girl. He decided (1.10) to buy it.

At his cousin's birthday party, he gave (1.11) her this doll, but his cousin didn't like (1.12) it. After the party, Sally, who is (1.13) his sister, trying to talk with him about his life. She wanted (1.14) him to marry immediately. But he said (1.15) that he was (1.16) happy with his life.

Then he decide (1.17) to buy another gift for his cousin, so he took (1.18) the doll and he went (1.19) to his home together.

He talked (1.20) with her and he called (1.21) her Mary. He supposed (1.22) that she was (1.23) a teacher.

He wondered (1.24) her surname, so he went (1.25) to Liebmacher to learn her life. Liebmacher was using (1.26) a doll for his dolls. Johnny asked (1.27) him who she was (1.28). Liebmacher said (1.29) him she was (1.30) Mary Dickinson and she was (1.31) a teacher. He gave (1.32) him Mary Dickinson's address.

At first, he went (1.33) there but he was (1.34) afraid of being refused by her. So, he couldn't talk with her.

Then he went (1.35) to home, and he thought (1.36). After some time he decided (1.37) to go there again.

He rang (1.38) the door's bell and a middle-aged woman opened (1.39) the door.

He introduced (1.40) himself to her and showed (1.41) the doll. She was surprised (1.42) because the doll is (1.43) himself.

Liebmacher had arranged (1.44) a plan for them, because they are (1.45) both single.

At the end I think (1.46) that they will be married (1.47).

Subject 7

The Doll

Our story was (7.1) about a man who was living (7.2) alone in his home. One day he went (7.3) to a shopkeeper who was (7.4) at the same time a friend of him and was selling (7.5) dolls. He decided (7.6) to take a doll for his cousin's birthday. He looked for (7.7) one and found (7.8) a doll for her. He liked (7.9) it very much. On the birthday he gave (7.10) it to his cousin and at first she didn't like (7.11) it but then she thanked (7.12) him. But he was still thinking (7.13) of the doll and said (7.14) "if you don't like (7.15) it I can change it for another" and added (7.16) "I can buy you a watch instead" she said (7.17) "okey".

The day after the birthday, he went (7.18) to the shop where he bought (7.19) the doll and couldn't decide whether to give or not. At last he decided (7.20) to have it. When he returned (7.21) to home he began (7.22) to talk to her. He asked (7.23) and answer (7.24) questions. He said (7.25) that her name was (7.26) Mary and she was (7.27) a teacher. While he was eating (7.28) his meal, he gave (7.29) her the meal he was eating (7.30). And he thought (7.31) what if she spoke (7.32). He was so affected (7.33) that he wanted (7.34) to find the model of the doll. He asked (7.35) the shopkeeper who was (7.36) she and where she lived (7.37). At first he couldn't knock the door of that woman. But the second time he managed (7.38) to do it. The woman puzzled (7.39) at his saying that she worked (7.40) as a model and she were (7.41) a teacher. Indeed she didn't work (7.42) as a model. She offered (7.43) him a cup of coffee and while they were speaking (7.44) she showed (7.45) the doll of his face but in his youth. And asked (7.46) him that he was working (7.47) as a model too. And he said (7.48) "no". At the end of the story they both put (7.49) the dolls and went (7.50) together. It was (7.51) an interesting story.

Subject 16

The Doll

Everything started (16.1) in a toy shop...

A man called John came (16.2) to the shop to buy a present for his cousin. When he was looking (16.3) to the toys he saw (16.4) a doll which effected (16.5) him very much. So he bought (16.6) the doll.

In birthday party, he gave (16.7) it to his cousin. But she didn't like (16.8) it. So he felt (16.9) very upset and took (16.10) the doll to his home. Than he began (16.11) to think about the doll very much. He began (16.12) to live with it. He was (16.13) very thoughtfull. And he even ate (16.14) his meals with it. He put a name (16.15) to the doll. Her name was (16.16) Mary. He thought (16.17) that she was (16.18) a teacher. Than he went (16.19) to the toy shop to ask questions about the doll. He asked (16.20) the owner of the shop if he had taken (16.21) a model when making that doll. He said (16.22) "yes, I took (16.23) a teacher called Mary as a model". When he heard (16.24) this, he became very surprised (16.25). And he learnt (16.26) Mary's address. When he went (16.27) there he couldn't encourage to ring the bell. So he came back (16.28). When he came (16.29) home, he thought (16.30) that he was (16.31) alone. He was feeling (16.32) lonely. And he needed (16.33) a woman. So he went (16.34) to the Mary's house to ask her to marry with him. When he rang the bell (16.35), a woman opened (16.36) the door who was (16.37) very similar to the doll. So John was very surprised (16.38). And he asked (16.39) if she is (16.40) alone or not. She said (16.41) "yes I'm (16.42) alone. I feel (16.43) very lonely. " After this words John became very happy (16.44). Than Mary showed (16.45) a boy doll which is (16.46) very similar to John. John asked (16.47) where she found (16.48) that doll, and Mary told (16.49) she had bought (16.50) it from the same shop.

At the end, they thought (16.51) that it was (16.52) a play of fate. Than, they put (16.53) the dolls together. It meant (16.54) they weren't (16.55) alone after that time.

Subject 20

The Dolls

One day a man named John Walter went (20.1) to a toy-shop. The owner of the shop was (20.2) an old-lovely man. Mr. Walter was coming (20.3) to this shop properly because he liked (20.4) talking with the owner of the shop, but this day was (20.5) different because he would buy a doll for his cousin as it was (20.6) her birthday. He walked (20.7) in the shop looking around a doll. On a shelf he saw (20.8) a doll sitting on a chair. He liked (20.9) it and bought (20.10) it.

In the night he went (20.11) to his sister's home with the gift. While they were sitting (20.12) in the table he gave (20.13) the gift to her cousin. She opened (20.14) it, but she didn't like (20.15) it. She said (20.16) it was (20.17) good. Then she went (20.18) to a party which was prepared (20.19) by her school-mates. Realising she didn't like (20.20) the baby, Mr. Walter took (20.21) it to send back to the shop, but he couldn't send it. He thought (20.22) he could share his loneliness with the baby and he talked (20.23) her as if she were (20.24) real. He named (20.25) it after Mary Dickinson and thought (20.26) she was (20.27) a teacher.

The next day he went (20.28) to the shop again and asked (20.29) the man if he had used (20.30) a model for this doll. The man said (20.31) that he had used (20.32) a model and her name was (20.33) Mary Dickinson and she was (20.34) a teacher and he gave (20.35) him her adress. He went (20.36) to Mary's house but in his first visit he couldn't ring the bell so he went back (20.37) to his own home. Something happened (20.38) strange, the doll fell down (20.39) to the floor with the keys in her hand. He suddenly took (20.40) the doll and left (20.41) home. He went (20.42) to the Mary's house. He rang the bell (20.43) and she opened (20.44) the door. He was (20.45) so excited and so she was (20.46) too. She invited (20.47) him inside and she showed (20.48) him his doll. The dolls were (20.49) younger than now and she said (20.50) the man had told (20.51) her his name and address, but she couldn't find him. Then they laughed (20.52) and a good relationship ending with marriage started (20.53).

Subject 28

The Mystery of the Doll

John has never married (28.1) and he was (28.2) 42 years old. His elder sister was always complaining (28.3) about his pity situation.

The following day was (28.4) the birthday of John's niece and he thought (28.5) to buy a toy baby. While he was looking (28.6) for one in the doll store, a fair baby was staring (28.7) at him as if it says (28.8) "buy me".

When his niece opened (28.9) the present of her marital uncle, she seemed (28.10) not to like her. Later, John took (28.11) the doll to buy a watch instead of it. He was attracted (28.12) so much that he was behaving (28.13) her as a human. He has never fallen (28.14) in love before. This was (28.15) different. Although she was (28.16) a doll, he psychologically began (28.17) to imagine sth. about her. He named (28.18) her as Mary and said (28.19) her you were (28.20) a teacher.

The other day he went (28.21) to the store and asked (28.22) Mr. Liebmacher whether he had used (28.23) a model while making that doll. And the answer was (28.24) very amazing. He said (28.25) his model was (28.26) a teacher whose name was (28.27) Mary. John was (28.28) too surprised. He didn't know (28.29) what he would do. He tried (28.30) to meet her but he wasn't (28.31) enough brave to speak with her. When he returned (28.32) home, he saw (28.33) the baby was holding (28.34) the key of his car. He surprisingly realized (28.35) that she wanted (28.36) him to go Mary.

John was (28.37) very excited while he was standing (28.38) in front of Mary's door. He hesitated (28.39) but he thought (28.40) he had to see her. When the woman opened (28.41) the door he said (28.42) only, the doll is (28.43) you. Then she welcomed (28.44) him. The amazing story started (28.45). He told (28.46) his story about the doll and Mary said (28.47) she knew (28.48) Mr. Liebmacher. Later, she showed (28.49) a baby which resembled (28.50) to John too much that as if it is (28.51) John. John asked (28.52) her whether she knew (28.53) the meaning of Liebmacher in German. The word she said was (28.54) the most interesting thing in this event. Liebmacher means (28.55) lovmaker. They looked (28.56) each other. It seemed (28.57) they would marry in future.

Subject 32

The Doll

There was (32.1) a doll shop, and handmade doll maker Libemair, who was (32.2) very old. Then John Walters, who called (32.3) himself talkative sponger, came (32.4) in and chose (32.5) a beautiful handmade girl doll, to bring it for his nephew for her birthday. In the evening while they were celebrating (32.6) her birthday, he gave (32.7) his present. But his nephew didn't like (32.8) it, so he decided (32.9) to take it away. Indeed, he didn't want (32.10) to give it back and kept (32.11) it in his home. He was (32.12) 47 years old and alone. He was talking (32.13) , he was eating (32.14) meal etc. with the doll. The doll was (32.15) very beautiful and he supposed (32.16) that it was resembling (32.17) to a woman, whose name was (32.18) Mary and she was (32.19) a teacher. Also she had (32.20) a surname but he wasn't sure (32.21) about it. He went (32.22) to the doll shop to ask Libemair if he had used (32.23) a model for that baby or not. Libemair had used (32.24) a model who was (32.25) a teacher and whose name was (32.26) Mary Dickenson. John decided (32.27) to Mary's house to say that he had loved (32.28) her and wanted (32.29) to marry to her. But he couldn't dare and came back (32.30) to his home. He thought (32.31) for a while and again he decided (32.32) to go. For the first coming, he had understood (32.33) that she was (32.34) alone according to the post box. For the second coming, he encouraged (32.35) himself and rang the bell (32.36). The woman, who opened (32.37) the door was (32.38) Mary Dickenson, she was resembling (32.39) the doll, so John was confused (32.40). He introduced (32.41) himself and asked (32.42) her if she had become (32.43) a model for Libemair or not. But she hadn't. They went (32.44) in her home. She showed (32.45) another doll. He looked at (32.46) her. It was resembling (32.47) John. In fact he hadn't been (32.48) for Libemair. Libemair had given (32.49) it to Mary but she couldn't venture to meet John. Then John understood (32.50) that "Libemair" meant (32.51) "love maker". Libemair had made (32.52) that plan. In fact those dolls was (32.53) the young of them. At the end they became (32.54) friend.

Subject 36

The Doll

One day Mr. Liebemacher went (36.1) to a toy shop. The owner of the shop was (36.2) one of his friends. He went (36.3) there to buy a present for his cousin. Because that day was (36.4) his cousin's birthday. He chose (36.5) a doll without his friend's help and bought (36.6) it. That night he visited (36.7) his cousin and gave (36.8) it to her. Her cousin didn't say (36.9) anything about the present. This made (36.10) Liebemacher feel unhappy and decided (36.11) to give it back. When he arrived (36.12) home, he put (36.13) the doll in its box. But while putting it he stated (36.14) to speak with it. He named (36.15) it Mary. Then he tried (36.16) to find a surname. Also the doll, according to his opinion, was look like (36.17) a teacher. Actually, Liebemacher liked (36.18) the doll and and didn't give (36.19) it back. It was (36.20) very strange but Liebemacher began (36.21) to think that the doll was made (36.22) by looking at a real person. Because it seemed (36.23) very alive to him. The next day he decided (36.24) to go his friend's shop to ask this strange thing. When he asked (36.25) his friend about the doll he learned (36.26) something very interesting news. Because the owner of the shop explained (36.27) that he made (36.28) the doll by looking at a woman called Mary Dickenson. And he said (36.29) she was (36.30) a teacher. When he heard (36.31) this, he felt (36.32) very exciting. Also he was shocked (36.33). Because his opinions, the name he gave (36.34) and the job were (36.35) the same with his explanations. So he decided (36.36) to find her. He took (36.37) the address of her from him. Then he went (36.38) Dickenson's house. First he couldn't ring the bell. Because she was (36.39) afraid if she behaved (36.40) him good or bad. But then he rang the bell (36.41) bravely. Mary opened (36.42) the door asked (36.43) him who he was (36.44). He said (36.45) his name and asked (36.46) if he could go in. They began (36.47) to talk each other. He showed (36.48) the doll to her. At that time Mary showed (36.49) the doll which was very look like (36.50) Liebemachier. And also Mary told (36.51) the same things to him. When he heard (36.52) this he understood (36.53) that they lived (36.54) the same events. One more thing they were (36.55) both single and lonely. At the end Liebemachier asked (36.56) her to marry him. An Mary Dickenson accepted (36.57) this.

Subject 44

The Doll

John Walter is (44.1) the main character of the film. He was (44.2) 42 years old and not married. He was (44.3) a lonely man, tall and medium-built.

One day he went (44.4) to a toy shop where handmade dolls were sold (44.5). He wanted (44.6) to take a baby doll for his cousin, because at that night she had (44.7) a birthday. The owner of the shop, who was (44.8) very old, suggest (44.9) that he should buy what he want (44.10). When he was wandering (44.11) in the shop, he saw (44.12) a baby doll which was (44.13) very beautiful. He took (44.14) it and he gave (44.15) it to his cousin as a birthday present. But she didn't like (44.16) the baby. He felt (44.17) sorry buying a baby doll instead of a useful one, and he took (44.18) it to give the owner back. But in his house he thought (44.19) that it was (44.20) a bad idea to give it and he didn't give (44.21) it. Because the baby was influenced (44.22) him, especially the beauty of the baby. He gave (44.23) it a name, Mary and he thought (44.24) what her job might be. Then he went (44.25) to Liebmacher, which was (44.26) the name of the old man, to get some information from him about the baby. Mr. Liebmacher said (44.27) that he used (44.28) a model for making this baby, and gave (44.29) Walter to her name and her job, and also her address. He went (44.30) to Maria Dickenson house, but couldn't ring the bell, because he thought (44.31) that she might think him as an insane. That night he looked (44.32) the baby and saw (44.33) a key over the doll's hand and went (44.34) her house, ring the bell (44.35) and saw (44.36) the woman who looked like (44.37) the baby doll very much. Mary Dickenson was (44.38) a little older than the baby doll and she was (44.39) as beautiful as it. She invited (44.40) him to go into the house and she showed (44.41) him his doll too, which was (44.42) very similiar to him. Both of them were (44.43) single and lonely, the baby dolls started (44.44) a love. Liebmacher means (44.45) in Germany the maker of love. It was (44.46) the end of he story.

Subject 47

Handmade Dolls

It was raining (47.1) crazily and he was looking (47.2) for a present for his cousin. He saw (47.3) a handmade doll shop and got into (47.4) there. He talked (47.5) with the old salesman and bought (47.6) a doll which influenced (47.7) him very much.

At the birthday party he gave (47.8) his present to his cousin but she didn't like (47.9) this doll. Because she was (47.10) nearly sixteen years old, and this present didn't fascinate (47.11) her. After party little girl went out (47.12) with her friends. And he took (47.13) his gift away for changing it a new watch which she wanted (47.14).

It was still raining (47.15) and he got on (47.16) to his car with that little woman. It is (47.17) about 1.30 am but he didn't sleep (47.18) and started (47.19) to talk with that doll like a real woman. He love (47.20) her very much and slept (47.21) with her. After that night he taught (47.22) to give that doll away but he changed his idea (47.23). He decided(47.24) to ask this doll's name. He went (47.25) to the shop and asked (47.26) who he had taken (47.27) like a model while making it. He said (47.28) that he took (47.29) Mary Dickensen like a model and said (47.30) her address.

First, he went (47.31) her house but he gave up (47.32) ringing bell. But one day later he went (47.33) to her house and rang the bell (47.34). A woman opened (47.35) the door and she is (47.36) the same as his doll. He surprised (47.37). She invited (47.38) her coming into. When he got into (47.39) the house he saw (47.40) that she was holding (47.41) a doll looking like him. She surprised (47.42) too.

They understood (47.43) that they belong (47.44) to each other.

Subject 50

The Doll

John Walters, everyday, went (50.1) a shop which sold (50.2) handmade dolls made by Mr. Liebemacher. One day, John went (50.3) there to buy a doll for his cousin's birthday. He saw (50.4) a doll which was (50.5) very beautiful and buy (50.6) it. That evening, he gave (50.7) his present to his cousin. But the girl is (50.8) too old to play this kind of doll, so she didn't like (50.9) the doll. When John understood (50.10) that, he took (50.11) the doll back, promising to buy a watch for her. John loved (50.12) the doll so much that he spoke (50.13) with it as if it's (50.14) a living woman. While he was talking (50.15) with the doll, John thought (50.16) that her name was (50.17) Mary Dickenson and she's (50.18) a teacher. John wondered (50.19) if Mr. Lieber used (50.20) a model while he was making (50.21) his dolls. He went (50.22) to ask his question. Mr. Liebermacher said (50.23); "Yes, I used (50.24) Mary Dickens as a model when I made (50.25) this doll, she was (50.26) a teacher". John wanted (50.27) to see and say that he loved (50.28) her and his willing to marry with her. When he went (50.29) her house, he couldn't do that, came back (50.30) his home. But the doll still wanted (50.31) to go that home, we understood (50.32) that from her falling down with the key of car in its hand.

John decided (50.33) to go Mary's home again to say his feelings. He was afraid (50.34) of Mary's reaction, when he told (50.35) the truth. On the contrary, Mary met (50.36) him very nice and showed (50.37) him her doll which was (50.38) as same as John.

APPENDIX B: STATISTICAL RESULTS

Name of token file: Nepean.Tok

Name of condition file: U.Cnd

(

(1)

(2 (r (COL 2 r))

(w (COL 2 w)))

(3)

)

Number of cells: 8

Application value(s): abcdefhzx

Total no. of factors: 6

Group		a	b	c	d	e	f	h	z	x	Total	%

1 (2)												
r	N	2043	54	47	0	7	0	0	1	0	2152	90
	%	95	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0		
w	N	13	79	19	25	86	3	6	0	6	237	10
	%	5	33	8	11	36	1	3	0	3		
Total	N	2056	133	66	25	93	3	6	1	6	2389	
	%	86	6	3	1	4	0	0	0	0		

2 (3)												
n	N	757	20	15	3	69	1	0	0	0	865	36
	%	88	2	2	0	8	0	0	0	0		
k	N	764	100	40	13	15	2	1	0	1	936	39
	%	82	11	4	1	2	0	0	0	0		
l	N	240	9	5	5	5	0	0	0	0	264	11
	%	91	3	2	2	2	0	0	0	0		
m	N	295	4	6	4	4	0	5	1	5	324	14
	%	91	1	2	1	1	0	2	0	2		
Total	N	2056	133	66	25	93	3	6	1	6	2389	
	%	86	6	3	1	4	0	0	0	0		

TOTAL	N	2056	133	66	25	93	3	6	1	6	2389	
	%	86	6	3	1	4	0	0	0	0		

Name of new cell file: U.Cel

APPENDIX C: STATISTICAL RESULTS

Name of token file: Nepean.Tok

Name of condition file: S2.Cnd

(

(3)

(2 (R (COL 2 r))

(W (COL 2 w)))

)

Number of cells: 2

Application value(s): klmn

Total no. of factors: 2

Group	k	l	m	n	Total	%

1 (2)						
R N	834	246	299	773	2152	90
%	39	11	14	36		
W N	102	18	25	92	237	10
%	43	8	11	39		
Total N	936	264	324	865	2389	
%	39	11	14	36		

TOTAL N	936	264	324	865	2389	
%	39	11	14	36		

Name of new cell file: S2.Cel

APPENDIX D: STATISTICAL RESULTS

Name of token file: Nepean.Tok

Name of condition file: S3.Cnd

(

(1)

(2 (R (COL 2 r))

(W (COL 2 w)))

)

Number of cells: 2

Application value(s): abce

Total no. of factors: 2

Group	a	b	c	e	Total	%
<hr/>						
1 (2)						
R	N	2043	54	47	7	2151 92
	%	95	3	2	0	
W	N	13	79	19	86	197 8
	%	7	40	10	44	
<hr/>						
Total N		2056	133	66	93	2348
	%	88	6	3	4	
<hr/>						
2 (3)						
k	N	764	100	40	15	919 39
		83	11	14	2	
l	N	240	9	5	5	259 11
		93	3	2	2	
m	N	295	4	6	4	309 13
		95	1	2	1	
n	N	757	20	15	69	861 37
<hr/>						
Total N		2056	133	66	93	2348
	%	88	6	3	4	
<hr/>						
TOTAL N		2056	133	66	93	2348
	%	88	6	3	4	

Name of new cell file: S3.Cel

APPENDIX E: STATISTICAL RESULTS

ç CELL CREATION ç

Name of token file: Nepean.Tok

Name of condition file: DENİZ.Cnd

(

(1)

(2)

(3)

)

Number of cells: 8

Application value(s): a

Total no. of factors: 6

Group		Non-Apps	apps	Total	%
<hr/>					
1 (2)					
r	N	2043	109	2152	90
	%	95	5		
w	N	13	224	237	10
	%	5	95		
Total N		2056	333	2389	
	%	86	14		
<hr/>					
2 (3)					
n	N	757	108	865	36
	%	88	12		
k	N	764	172	936	39
	%	82	18		
l	N	240	24	264	11
	%	91	9		
m	N	295	29	324	14
	%	91	9		
Total N		2056	333	2389	
	%	86	14		
<hr/>					
TOTAL N		2056	333	2389	
	%	86	14		

Name of new cell file: DENİZ.Cel

ç BINOMIAL VARBRUL, 1 step
Name of cell file: DENİZ.Cel

Using fast, less accurate method.
Averaging by weighting factors.
One-level binomial analysis

Run # 1, 8 cells:
Iterations: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Convergence at Iteration 7
Input 0.923

Group Factor Weight App/Total Input&Weight

1:	r	0.645	0.95	0.96
	w	0.004	0.05	0.05
2:	n	0.600	0.88	0.95
	k	0.324	0.82	0.85
	l	0.598	0.91	0.95
	m	0.673	0.91	0.96

Cell	Total	App'ns	Expected	Error
wn	92	0	6.752	7.287
wm	25	2	2.453	0.093
wl	18	1	1.310	0.079
wk	102	10	2.517	22.814
rn	773	757	750.212	2.083
rm	299	293	292.531	0.035
rl	246	239	238.688	0.014
rk	834	754	761.539	0.859

Total Chi-square = 33.2645

Chi-square/cell = 4.1581

Log likelihood = -461.480

Execution time: 0 min, 11.8 sec

APPENDIX F: STATISTICAL RESULTS

• CELL CREATION •

Name of token file: Nepean.Tok
 Name of condition file: DEN<Z1.Cnd

(
 (1)
 (2)
 (3)
)

Number of cells: 8
 Application value(s): b
 Total no. of factors: 6

Group	Apps	Non- apps	Total	%
<hr/>				
1 (2)				
r	N 54	2098	2152	90
	% 3	97		
w	N 79	158	237	10
	% 33	67		
Total	N 133	2256	2389	
	% 6	94		
<hr/>				
2 (3)				
n	N 20	845	865	36
	% 2	98		
k	N 100	836	936	39
	% 11	89		
l	N 9	255	264	11
	% 3	97		
m	N 4	320	324	14
	% 1	99		
Total	N 133	2256	2389	
	% 6	94		
<hr/>				
TOTAL	N 133	2256	2389	
	% 6	94		

Name of new cell file: DEN<Z1.Cel

• BINOMIAL VARBRUL, 1 step •

Name of cell file: DEN<Z1.Cel

Using fast, less accurate method.

Averaging by weighting factors.

One-level binomial analysis...

Run # 1, 8 cells:

Iterations: 1 2 3 4 5 6

Convergence at Iteration 6

Input 0.023

Group Factor Weight App/Total Input&Weight

1:	r	0.422	0.03	0.02
	w	0.945	0.33	0.28
2:	n	0.313	0.02	0.01
	k	0.762	0.11	0.07
	l	0.493	0.03	0.02
	m	0.223	0.01	0.01

Cell	Total	App'ns	Expected	Error
wn	92	15	14.136	0.062
wm	25	3	2.566	0.082
wl	18	6	5.030	0.260
wk	102	55	57.210	0.194
rn	773	5	5.886	0.134
rm	299	1	1.433	0.131
rl	246	3	3.971	0.241
rk	834	45	42.746	0.125

Total Chi-square = 1.2307

Chi-square/cell = 0.1538

Log likelihood = -360.767

Execution time: 0 min, 10.5 sec

APPENDIX G: STATISTICAL RESULTS

• CELL CREATION •

Name of token file: Nepean.Tok
 Name of condition file: DEN<Z2.Cnd
 (
 (1)
 (2)
 (3)
)

Number of cells: 8
 Application value(s): c
 Total no. of factors: 6

Group		Apps	Non-apps	Total	%
<hr/>					
1 (2)					
r	N	47	2105	2152	90
	%	2	98		
w	N	19	218	237	10
	%	8	92		
Total	N	66	2323	2389	
	%	3	97		
<hr/>					
2 (3)					
n	N	15	850	865	36
	%	2	98		
k	N	40	896	936	39
	%	4	96		
l	N	5	259	264	11
	%	2	98		
m	N	6	318	324	14
	%	2	98		
Total	N	66	2323	2389	
	%	3	97		
<hr/>					
TOTAL	N	66	2323	2389	
	%	3	97		

• BINOMIAL VARBRUL, 1 step •

Name of cell file: DEN<Z2.Cel

Using fast, less accurate method.

Averaging by weighting factors.

One-level binomial analysis...

Run # 1, 8 cells:

Iterations: 1 2 3 4

Convergence at Iteration 4

Input 0.023

Group Factor Weight App/Total Input&Weight

1:	r	0.467	0.02	0.02
	w	0.770	0.08	0.07

2:	n	0.401	0.02	0.02
	k	0.629	0.04	0.04
	l	0.443	0.02	0.02
	m	0.433	0.02	0.02

Cell	Total	App'ns	Expected	Error
wn	92	10	4.572	6.780
wm	25	3	1.406	1.913
wl	18	1	1.055	0.003
wk	102	5	11.939	4.568
rn	773	5	10.462	2.891
rm	299	3	4.599	0.565
rl	246	4	3.953	0.001
rk	834	35	28.022	1.798

Total Chi-square = 18.5182

Chi-square/cell = 2.3148

Log likelihood = -286.384

Execution time: 0 min, 9.3 sec

APPENDIX H: STATISTICAL RESULTS

103

• CELL CREATION •

Name of token file: Nepean.Tok

Name of condition file: deniz3.Cnd

(
(1)
(2)
(3)
)

Number of cells: 8

Application value(s): e

Total no. of factors: 6

Group		Apps	Non- apps	Total	%
<hr/>					
1 (2)					
r	N	7	2145	2152	90
	%	0	100		
w	N	86	151	237	10
	%	36	64		
Total	N	93	2296	2389	
	%	4	96		
<hr/>					
2 (3)					
n	N	69	796	865	36
	%	8	92		
k	N	15	921	936	39
	%	2	98		
l	N	5	259	264	11
	%	2	98		
m	N	4	320	324	14
	%	1	99		
Total	N	93	2296	2389	
	%	4	96		
<hr/>					
TOTAL	N	93	2296	2389	
	%	4	96		

Name of new cell file: deniz3.Cel

• BINOMIAL VARBRUL, 1 step •
 Name of cell file: deniz3.Cel

Using fast, less accurate method.
 Averaging by weighting factors.
 One-level binomial analysis...

Run # 1, 8 cells:
 Iterations: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
 Convergence at Iteration 8
 Input 0.003

Group Factor Weight App/Total Input&Weight

1:	r	0.364	0.00	0.00
	w	0.994	0.36	0.32

2:	n	0.824	0.08	0.01
	k	0.264	0.02	0.00
	l	0.433	0.02	0.00
	m	0.280	0.01	0.00

Cell	Total	App'ns	Expected	Error
wn	92	63	62.969	0.000
wm	25	3	3.806	0.201
wl	18	5	4.690	0.028
wk	102	15	14.510	0.019
rn	773	6	6.004	0.000
rm	299	1	0.192	3.412
rl	246	0	0.308	0.308
rk	834	0	0.522	0.522

Total Chi-square = 4.4910
 Chi-square/cell = 0.5614
 Log likelihood = -163.360

Execution time: 0 min, 13.0 sec

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