ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

A STUDY ON THE PASSIVISATION ERRORS OF TURKISH LEARNERS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Özlem KURTOĞLU

MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA, 2006

ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

A STUDY ON THE PASSIVISATION ERRORS OF TURKISH LEARNERS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Özlem KURTOĞLU

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hatice SOFU

MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA, 2006

We certify that this thesis is satisfactory for the award of the degree of Master of Arts in the Department of English Language Teaching.

_____

Assoc. Prof. Hatice SOFU

(Supervisor)

_____	_____
Assoc. Prof. Mustafa AKSAN	Assist. Prof. Cem CAN
(Member of Examining Commitee)	(Member of Examining Commitee)

I certify that this thesis conforms to the formal standards of the Institute of Social Sciences.

_____

Prof. Dr. Nihat KÜÇÜKSAVAŞ

(Director of the Institute)

P.S.: The uncited usage of reports, charts, figures, and photographs in this thesis, whether original or quoted from other sources, is subject to the Law of works of Art and Thought No: 5846.

Not: Bu tezde kullanılan özgün ve başka kaynaktan yapılan bildirişlerin, çizelge, şekil ve fotoğrafların kaynak gösterilmeden kullanımı, 5846 sayılı Fikir ve Sanat Eserleri Kanunu'ndaki hükümlere tabidir.

ÖZET

İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİN EDİLGENLEŞTİRME HATALARI ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

Özlem KURTOĞLU

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Danışman: Doç. Dr. Hatice SOFU
Haziran 2006, 81 sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin eylemleri edilgenleştirirken ne tür hatalar yaptıklarını saptamak ve bu hataların kaynaklarını bulmaktır. Bu nedenle, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türklerin yaptıkları hataların belirli sözcüklerde daha fazla olup olmadığını araştırdık. Yanlış edilgenleştirilen eylemlerin dilbilgisel ve anlambilimsel özelliklerini inceledik.

Katılımcılar, Çukurova Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Merkezindeki alt-orta seviyedeki öğrenciler arasından seçildi.

Birinci bölümde, problemin tanımı, geçmişte bu konuda yapılan çalışmalar hakkında bilgi, araştırma soruları, hipotezler, tanımlar ve sınırlılıklar verilmiştir. İkinci bölümde bu konuda daha önce yapılan İngilizce ve Türkçe araştırmalara değinilmiş ve kuramsal açıklamalara yer verilmiştir. Üçüncü bölümde araştırma modeli, katılımcılar, veri toplama araçları, verilerin toplanması, çözümü ve yorumu açıklanmıştır. Dördüncü bölümde edilgenleştirme hatalarının dilbilgisel ve anlambilimsel analizi yapılmıştır. Sonuç, beşinci bölümde verilmiştir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: geçişli, geçişsiz, edilgen, etkilenmesizler, etkilenmeliler

ABSTRACT

A STUDY ON THE PASSIVISATION ERRORS OF TURKISH LEARNERS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Özlem KURTOĞLU

M.A. Thesis, English Language Teaching Department

Advisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hatice SOFU

June 2006, 81 pages

The aim of this study is to find out what kind of errors Turkish learners of EFL make in passivising the verbs. We focus on the sources of errors in passivisation and find out whether Turkish learners of EFL make more errors in passivising certain verbs. We analyzed the grammatical and semantic characteristics of the verbs which are passivised incorrectly.

The participants of the study are selected from pre-intermediate level students at YADİM in Çukurova University.

In Chapter One, the statement of the problem, background to the study, research questions, hypotheses, operational definition, assumptions and limitations are presented. Related literature on passivisation in English and Turkish is reviewed in Chapter Two. Chapter Three provides the research design, subjects, materials and tasks, data collection and data analysis. Chapter Four contains grammatical and semantic analyses of the errors on passivization. Conclusion is drawn in Chapter Five.

Key Words: transitive, intransitive, passive, unergatives, unaccusatives

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

According to tradition, the first acknowledgement made is to one's advisor. In my case, however, it is not simply tradition that compels me to extend an almost inexpressable gratitude to my advisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hatice Sofu. She shared her valuable time, energy and knowledge with me. She has always been kind and patient. I count myself fortunate to have been her student.

I am more grateful than I can say to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mustafa Aksan. The breadth and depth of his knowledge have constantly amazed me. I feel deeply grateful to him for his invaluable guidance. I thank him for his optimism and encouragement. Without his support, this work would most certainly not have been completed.

I also thank one of my best friends Haydar for his support and patience in my busiest and most stressful time.

Finally, the most heart-felt gratitude of all goes to my family, especially to my mother and grandmother for their continuous support and encouragement. To my father, thanks for not asking too often 'So, when will you graduate?' Thank you for your unflagging optimism and eternal patience.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Özet……i
Abstract……ii
Acknowledgements……iii
List of Tables……..vii
List of Appendices……viii

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION……...1
1.0. Introduction……1
1.1. Statement of the problem……...1
1.2. Background to the study……...2
1.3. Research questions……2
1.4 Hypotheses……..2
1.5 Operational definitions……...2
1.6 Assumptions and limitations……...3

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE……...4
2.0 Introduction……4
2.1 Passivisation in English……..4
2.1.1. Formal Properties of Passive Construction in English……4
2.1.1.1. Passives of Transitive Verbs……5
2.1.1.2. Passives of Ditransitive Verbs……5
2.1.1.3. Passive Across Clause Boundries……7
2.1.1.4. Impersonal Passives……...8
2.1.1.5. ‘Have’ and ‘Get’ Passives……9
2.1.1.6. Adjectival Passive……..10
2.1.1.7. Expressing the Agent……11

2.1.1.8. Agentless Passive……..12
2.1.1.9. Constraints on Passive Construction…….15
2.1.1.9.1. Agent Constraints……..15
2.1.1.9.2. Semantic Constraints…….16
2.1.1.9.3. Object Constraints…….17
2.1.1.9.4. Verb Constraints……18
2.1.2. Functional Properties of Passive in English……...20
2.2 Passivisation in Turkish……22
2.2.1 The passive morpheme……23
2.2.2 Adjectival Passives……..26
2.2.3 Passives from Transitives……28
2.2.4 Passives from Ditransitives……..28
2.2.5 Passives from Intransitives……..28
2.2.5.1 Impersonal Passives…….28
2.2.5.2 Double Passives……...30
2.2.6 Expressing the Agent……..31
2.3 Transitive- intransitive distinction in English……31
2.4 Transitive- intransitive distinction in Turkish……...32
2.5 Unaccusative Hypothesis……..35
2.6 Semantic Determinants of Unaccusativity……...37
2.7 Syntactic Determinants of Unaccusativity……38
2.8 Turkish Impersonal Passives and Unaccusative Hypothesis……39
2.9 Acquisition of passives……40
2.9.1 Acquisition of passives in English as L1……...41
2.9.2 Acquisition of passives in Turkish as L1……...45
2.9.3 Acquisition of passives in English as L2……...47

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY……53
3.1. Research Design……..53
3.2.Subjects……53
3.3.Materials and Tasks……..53
3.4. Data Collection…….....54

3.5.Data Analysis……54

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION…….……55
4.0 Introduction……...55
4.1 Analysis of the Data……..55

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION……..69
5.1. Summary and conclusion…….69
5.2. Recommendations for Future Research……...70
5.3. Implications of the study……..70

REFERENCES……...72

APPENDICES…….....77

CURRICULUM VITAE……81

LIST OF TABLES

Tables Page

4.1. Verbs, expected forms, types and number of errors…….....56
4.2. Types of errors and their distribution……..57
4.3. Incorrect use of verbs……...59
4.4. Written data of picture sequence task…….….60
4.5. Spoken data of picture sequence task……..61
4.6. Dynamic and stative verbs……...62
4.7. Types of dynamic verbs…….....62
4.8. Semantic distinctions of the verbs……...63
4.9. Total number of errors…….64
4.10. Number of errors on transitive verbs…….65
4.11. Total errors and their distribution between unergatives and unaccusatives…..66
4.12. Number of errors on unergatives……...67
4.13. Number of errors on unaccusatives……67

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Fill in the blanks task…….77
Appendix 2: Picture sequence……78
Appendix 3: Grammaticality judgement test…….79

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Introduction

Passive voice is a complex phenomena for most of the Turkish students who learn English as a foreign language. The most frequent errors in passives that Turkish learners of English as a foreign language make are divided into two categories. The first is the lack of grammatical knowledge of passive. In this category, the errors generally occur because of the absence of the auxiliary verb 'am, is, are', 'was, were' or 'been'. Another error type stems from the lack of knowledge of the verb forms. Students overgeneralize the suffix *-ed* and apply it to the irregular verbs. They use base form or simple past form instead of the past participle form. In some cases, they have difficulty in choosing the correct NP with the Patient role in the sentence.

The only problem is not the lack of knowledge of L2 grammar. Although the rules for making passive and other constructions are mastered by learners, they still make errors in using passives. The second category of errors that are made by Turkish learners of English as a foreign language is the overpassivisation of unaccusative and unergative verbs.

The aim of this research is to find out the types of errors made by Turkish learners of English as a foreign language and to provide an explicit account of these errors. This topic is important to study on because the errors of passivisation are made by many learners at pre-intermediate level. This study will help us to shed a light into this issue and apply an appropriate educational strategy in EFL classes.

1.1. Statement of the problem

Turkish learners of English as a foreign language are observed to make some errors in passivisation. In this study, our aim is to analyze the types of grammatical characteristics of the student errors of passivisation and to identify the semantic and syntactic features that lead the students to make passivisation errors.

1.2. Background to the study

Overpassivisation is a phenomenon defined as nontargetlike or nonnativelike passivisation of intransitive verbs by second language learners (Yip,1990).

In this study, we are going to focus on the Unaccusative Hypothesis in investigating our data.

The Unaccusative Hypothesis

The basic claim of the Unaccusative Hypothesis is that certain intransitive clauses have an initial 2 but no initial 1 grammatical roles(Perlmutter,1978). Perlmutter (1978) also presents the 1 Advancement Exclusiveness Law (1AEX Law) which states that in a given clause, only one argument can advance to subjecthood.

1.3. Research Questions

1) Do Turkish learners of EFL make overpassivisation errors in certain verbs?
2) What are the grammatical and semantic characteristics of the verbs that Turkish learners make errors in making passive in English?

1.4. Hypotheses

1) Turkish learners of EFL make overpassivisation errors when the sentence contains an unaccusative verb.
2) Turkish learners of EFL make errors in the passivisation of the irregular verbs and they forget to use the auxiliary verb and its correct forms.

1.5. Operational Definitions

Overpassivisation: Passivisation of intransitive verbs as nontargetlike or nonnativelike.

1.6. Assumptions and Limitations

Socio-economical status and the sex of the participants are not considered in this research. This might lead to an error in the calculation of the data. In addition, all the data collected is valid just for participants who take part in this study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

The aim of this study is to investigate how Turkish EFL students acquire passives. For this purpose, an overview is made on the formation of passive constructions and their use in English and in Turkish in this chapter. Also, Unaccusative Hypothesis is explained. Acquisition of passives in Turkish as L1, acquisition of passives in English as L1, acquisition of passives in English as L2 are explained in order to shed a light on the sources of the errors of Turkish learners of English as L2.

2.1 Passivisation in English

The voice of a verb refers to the form of the verb used in relation to what the subject is doing. In English there are only two voices: active and passive. The passive voice of a verb simply means the form of the verb used when the subject is being acted upon rather than doing something.

2.1.1. Formal Properties of Passive Construction in English

In the unmarked case, any active sentence with an object can be made passive in English. Verbs that express high transitivity, in other words, verbs that assign Agent role to their subject and Patient role to their objects produce acceptable passive sentences.

SUBJ	V	OBJ
AGENT		PATIENT

Passivisation simply moves the object NP to the subject position and the subject of the active clause is demoted to the object of preposition position.

(1) a. John broke the glass.
b. The glass was broken by John.

In both (a) and (b) above, the same state of affairs is expressed. In other words, in both sentences the same event of breaking is expressed; the participants of the event remain identical. In both cases, it is the glass which is broken and it is John who performed the action. The minimal semantic difference is that while sentence (a) is about what John did, sentence (b) is about what happened to the glass. As it is argued in many studies on passives in English, one of its major functions is to reorganize the information structure of the sentence.

2.1.1.1. Passives of Transitive Verbs

In principle, almost all transitive verbs can be passivized in English. In fact, English passivisation rule needs to identify an object NP in order to move to the subject position. Verbs that express low transitivity, despite the fact that they have objects, can not passivize in English. This means that verbs that are marked semantically can not be made passive. For example, a verb like *like* which projects a seemingly transitive construction can not passivize grammatically.

(2) a. John likes beer.
b. *The beer is liked by John.

The above sentence represents a transitive clause with its subject and object NPs each overtly expressed in sentence.

2.1.1.2. Passives of Ditransitive Verbs

Verbs that subcategorize for double objects, in other words, direct and indirect objects can be made passive in which both objects may be moved to the subject position.

(3) a. John gave *a book* to *Mary*.
b. *A book* was given to *Mary* by John.
c. *Mary* was given *a book* by John.

If a verb has three arguments, only one of those arguments is acted upon. Rewriting an active sentence with two objects in passive voice means that one of the two objects becomes the subject; the other one remains an object. The personal object, in other words, the patient is usually made the subject of the passive sentence when the verb in the active sentence takes two objects. Some of these verbs are *give, send, show, lend, pay, promise, refuse, tell, offer*, etc. (Allen,1992:270).

(4) a. Someone gave him a lot of money.
b. He was given a lot of money.

We can also use the form *'A lot of money was given to him.'* when it is necessary to emphasize the new subject (Dyson,2001:85) . Which object to transform into a subject depends on what we want to put the focus on.

A noun clause may be the direct object of the sentence. The rules for changing the verb forms are the same. On the other hand, while the introductory verb that introduces the noun clause must be changed, the verb in the noun clause may be changed or it may remain in the active voice (Pollock,1997:185).

(5) a. Everyone applauded what Bob said.
b. What Bob said was applauded by everyone.
c. What was said by Bob was applauded by everyone.

Dative Movement in Passive

Two kinds of dative is used in English passive sentences: 'to-datives' and 'for- datives'. 'To-datives' can be written in passive in two different ways. In example (6 c, and 6 d), passive counterparts of the active sentences in (6 a and b) are written. However, 'for- datives' can be written in passive in only one way as exemplified in (7b).

(6) a. I sent a letter to Mary.
b. I sent Mary a letter.
c. A letter was sent to Mary.

d. Mary was sent a letter.

(7) a. I bought a T-shirt for Jack.

b. A T-shirt was bought for Jack.

2.1.1.3. Passive Across Clause Boundries

Syntactic arguments of embedded clauses can be moved to subject position in English passivisation. For example, subjects of the embedded small clauses appear in the subject position of the matrix clause in the passive sentence.

The direct object is written in object complement to explain the object with a noun or an adjective. The sentence in (8) can also be expressed by using a that clause as in (9).

(8) a. Queen Victoria [considered [him a genius]].

b. He was considered a genius.

(9) a. Queen Victoria considered [that he is a genius.]

b. That he is a genius is considered by Queen Victoria.

(10) a. They elected [him president.]

b. He was elected president.

(11) a. We regarded [him as an expert.]

b. He was regarded as an expert. (Swan, 1980:461)

If a verb follows the main verb, infinitive is used in the verb phrase.

(12) a. Somebody saw [him draw on the wall.]

b. He was seen to draw on the wall.

Verbs of perception such as *see, hear, feel, watch, notice, observe* can be followed by a present participle in both the active and passive voice.

(13) a. Somebody saw [him leaving the bank.]

b.He was seen leaving the bank.

2.1.1.4. Impersonal Passives

One of the reasons why we prefer passive is that the active sentence contains a vague subject such as 'people', 'they', 'everyone' , etc. This type of passive is called impersonal passive. In the following example, two kinds of passive counterpart of the active sentence 'People say figs are better for us than bananas' is given.

(14) a. It is said that figs are better for us than bananas.
b. Figs are said to be better for us than bananas.

By using the introductory 'it' we used another vague subject in sentence (a). So, it is better to use the subject of the clause introduced by 'it' as the subject of the passive voice as in the sentence in (b) (Allen,1992:274).

(15) a. People assume that they'll get married one day.
b. It is assumed that they'll get married one day.

As Graver (1990:105) , Dyson (2001:85) and Collins (1990:404) point out, we prefer the dummy subject (impersonal *it*) as subject instead of the vague pronoun *people* in the active form. (see (b) sentences in the following examples. But it is possible to make an alternative construction. We can make the noun clause the subject of the sentence in the passive voice. In this case, the noun clause takes the infinitive form. (see (c) sentences in the following examples.)

(16) a.They say that he knows very influential people.
b. It is said that he knows very influential people.
c. He is said to know very influential people.

(17) a. People felt that the social workers were doing valuable work.
b. It was felt that the social workers were doing valuable work.
c. The social workers are felt to be doing valuable work.

However, there are some exceptions. The verb ‘ to say’ and ‘to feel’ in the previous examples allow us to make several paraphrases, a verb like ‘to hope’ lets fewer variations:

(18) a. People hoped that England would win.
b. It was hoped that England would win.
c. *England was hoped to win.

2.1.1.5. ‘Have’ and ‘Get’ Passives

In addition to passivisation of actions, there is another structure in which ‘have’ and ‘get’ are used to express causatives. *Get* passive is preferred mostly in spoken English, although *be* can be used in all situations. (Murphy, 1985:88) *Have* and *get* passives are constructed by the formula: ‘*Have* or *get* + noun + past participle’

(19) a. I had my car serviced. / I got my car serviced.
b. He had his arm broken while playing rugby.
c. He was knocked down by a car. / He got knocked by a car.

Have and *get* are often used with the past participle to express a passive meaning. In sentence (19a), *have* and *get* suggests that ‘I’ arranged for my car to be serviced. Sentence (19b) describes what happened to the subject; there is no suggestion, of course, that ‘he’ arranged for his arm to be broken, while in sentence (19c) *get* is simply an alternative to *was*. *Get* is also often used in a reflexive way:

(20) Wait a minute! I’m just getting dressed.

If the action is not planned, we can use *get* instead of *be* in the passive voice.

(21) Our flight got cancelled / Our flight was cancelled.
(22) I got paid today / I was paid today.

Get can't be used with general situations and state verbs. The sense of *get* is a *concrete event plus result*, so that where no result is implied, we can not use *get:*

(23) a. He is liked by a lot of people.
b. * He gets liked by a lot of people.

(24) a. She is known to be a hard-working employee.
b. * She gets known to be a hard-working employee.

(25) a. John liked Mary.
b. *Mary got loved by John.

2.1.1.6. Adjectival Passive

There is another type of passives called adjectival passives. The passivized verbs in verbal passivisation belong to the category of verbs whereas the category of the passivized participle in adjectival passivisation is adjective. The example sentence in (26) has an adjectival passive construction.

(26) The strike was unexpected.

Levin and Rappaport (1986:645) suggest the following properties of adjectival passives:

a. affixation of the passive morpheme -ed
b. change of category [+V ,-N] [+V ,+N]
c. suppression of the external role the base verb
d. externalization of the internal role the base verb
e. elimination of the [NP, VP] position

The verbal passive and adjectival passive both share the properties (a, c, e). The properties (b, d, f) belong to only adjectival passive. In (b), category conversion is indicated. This means that the past participle in the adjectival passive is adjective. It is stated in (d) and (f) that adjectival passive formation involves externalization of an internal role. Thus, the adjectival passive verb assigns a theta-role to subject position but it is not placed into the object position [NP, VP].

2.1.1.7. Expressing the Agent

We use 'by' phrase to express the agent in the passive sentence. Although our interest in the predicate allows us to use the passive voice, the active subject has some interest of its own. As it is obvious in the sentence (28), the interest is in the poem but we mention the poet to complete the sense.

(27) This poem was written by Keats.

(Allen,1992:271)

When it is important to know the performer of the action, 'by' phrase is used in the passive sentence.

(28) Romeo and Juliet was written by William Shakespeare.

(Pollock,1997:183)

We often mention the agent at the end of the clause by using 'by' when we want to refer back to the agent in the next clause.

(29) His best friend was killed by a grenade, which exploded under his car.

(30) The defending champion, John Pritchard, was beaten by Chris Boardman.

(31) This view has been challenged by a number of workers.

(Collins,1990:405)

In some cases, there is no real agent. The following examples are related with location in space. The preposition *with* is used in these sentences: There are a few transitive verbs which refer to states (e.g. *cram, crowd, decorate, fill, ornament* and *throng*) are used in the passive, the agent is put after the preposition 'with'.

(32) The room was filled with pleasant furniture.

(33) The square was crowded with people.

(34) The hall was decorated with flowers.

'By' is also used with some verbs which describe a state. (e.g. *conceal, exceed, illuminate, inhabit, occupy, overshadow*) (Collins,1990:405). Some verbs (e.g. *adorn, besiege, cover, encircle, overrun, surround*) can be used with either 'with' or 'by' in the passive.

(35) Her right hand was covered with blood.
(36) One entire wall was covered by a gigantic chart of the English Channel.
(37) The house was surrounded with tanks and policemen dogs.
(38) The building was surrounded by a deep green lawn.

(Collins,1990:406)

The use of the preposition 'with' or 'by means of' can also indicate the instrument used to achieve something. We can mention something that the agent used to do the action after the preposition 'with'.

(39) The values were measured by means of a measuring device.
(40) A circle was drawn in the dirt with a stick.
(41) Moisture must be drawn out first with salt.

We can mention the method using an '–ing' form after 'by'

(42) Much of their strong taste can be removed by changing the cooking water.

2.1.1.8. Agentless Passive

In a passive sentence, the agent may be left out as in example (43). The construction in this example is called an agentless passive.

(43) Esmeralda was examined.

(Katamba, 1993: 268)

We may not mention the agent for the following reasons:

A) If we do not know who or what the agent is, we don't use agent phrase in the passive sentence.

(44) The Jones' car was stolen last week.
(45) The fence between the two properties had been removed.

B) If it is not important for us who or what the agent is, we make a passive sentence without a by phrase.

(46) The meeting was cancelled. (The meeting's cancellation is what is important, not who cancelled it.)
(47) These boots were made in Italy. (The fact they were made in Italy is what's important, not who made them.)

C) If there is a vague active voice subject, it is not expressed in the passive voice.

In the sentence (a), the indefinite subject *someone* stands in the most prominent place. Active subjects such as *I, we, you, they, one, someone, nobody, people, a man, a boy, the servant,* etc. do not worth mentioning in the passive sentences in most cases. Therefore, we prefer passive voice without an Agent:

(48) a. Someone has stolen my books.
b. My books have been stolen.

(Allen,1992:268)

D) When the doer of the action is obvious we prefer passive voice without an agent.

(49) a. The police arrested the escaped convict two days later.
b. The escaped convict was arrested two days later.

In this example, we use passive because we are interested in what happened to the escaped convict rather than who did it. The agent is omitted not because it is a vague subject, but because it is obvious and it can be understood from the context. In sentences (1) and (2), the agent is obvious. In sentence (3) the agent of the passive sentence can be infered from the context; therefore it is not mentioned.

(50) The letter will be picked up after 1:00 (by the mailman).

(51) We were given an exam (by the teacher).

(Pollock,1997:183)

(52) There was a terrible storm last night. Hundreds of houses were destroyed.

E) When the doers of the action consist of a large group of different individuals, passive voice is used without a by phrase.

(53) A lot of coffee is grown in Brazil.

(Pollock,1997:183)

F) If the agent has already been mentioned before, we don't express the agent.

(54) The government responded quickly, and new measures were passed which strengthened their powers.

(Collins,1990:404)

G) If people in general are the agents, we don't express the agent.

(55) Both of these books can be obtained from the public library.

(56) It is very strange and has never been adequately explained.

(Collins,1990:404)

H) If we wish to conceal the agent's identity or to distance ourselves from our own action, we do not mention the agent.

(57) The vase was broken.

(58) The original has been destroyed.

(59) She had been given instructions to moderate her tone.

(60) The government was forced to say that the report would be implemented.

(Collins,1990:404)

I) While we are describing a process or a scientific issue, we prefer passive without an agent to sound objective. Our focus is on what happens and not on who or what makes it happen so we use passive voice without mentioning the agent.

(61) The principle of bottling is very simple. Food is put in jars and their contents are heated to a temperature which is maintained long enough to ensure that all bacteria, moulds and viruses are destroyed.

(Collins,1990:404)

2.1.1.9. Constraints on Passive Construction

2.1.1.9.1. Agent Constraints

A) If the subject in the active sentence is not the Agent, the passive can not be used. The following sentences have not a real agent. Thus, they can not be put into passive.

(62) a. This theory constitutes a breakthrough.

b. *A breakthrough is constituted by this theory.

(63) a. John resembles the Prime Minister.

b. *The Prime Minister is resembled by John.

(64) a. He lacks confidence.

b. *Confidence is lacked by him.

B) A rule for passivisation is that Agent and Patient must be seperate entities. We can not passivize the following sentences because the Patient refers to a part of the body.

(65) John nodded his head.

(66) He rubbed his hands.

If the object is not a real direct object, passivisation is not possible.

(67) The suitcase weighs twenty kilos.

However, if the verb is used for a concrete event, then it is possible to make it pasive. In (68), the verb *to weigh* is used in a concrete sense.

(68) a. The airline clerk weighed the suitcase.
b. The suitcase was weighed by the airline clerk.

C) Reflexive verbs can not be passivized:

(69) I blame myself for not paying attention.

Verbs which take reciprocal pronoun can not be passivized.

(70) The atoms repel each other.

2.1.1.9.2. Semantic Constraints

The verbs must be used in their literal and concrete sense in order to be passivized. The following examples haven't got passive counterparts because they are not used in their literal sense. The verb *to love* in example (71) can not be passivized because it is used metaphorically. Idioms and proverbs in examples(72-76) are used figuratively or metaphorically. Therefore, they can not be passivized.

(71) This flower loves water.

(72) She washes her dirty linen in public.

(73) Mr Jones kicked the bucket.

(74) The early bird catches the worm.

(75) That really takes the biscuit.

(76) Someone has sold you a real pup.

If we passivize these sentences, they have completely different meaning. For example, the metaphorical meaning of (76) is, something is sold which is useless or worthless. If we make this sentence passive, it means that a real, young dog has been sold to you.

2.1.1.9.3. Object Constraints

A) Some parts of speech can be objects; nevertheless, they can not be used as the subject of a passive sentence. Clauses with the present participles, clauses with infinitives and that-clauses can not be passivized.

(77) a. Lots of people enjoy playing golf.
b. *Playing golf is enjoyed by lots of people.

(78) a. John hoped to meet her.
b. *To meet her was hoped by John.

(79) a. John said that she was attractive.
b. *That she was attractive was said by John.

B) When the object is followed by another element, this does not affect the passivisation. The object itself has an effect on whether the patient can be the subject of the passive sentence. Examples (80), (81), (82) can be passivized.

(80) a. The caretaker saw the burglar leaving the building.
b. The burglar was seen leaving the building by the caretaker.

(81) a. The doctor advised Helen to take a long rest.
b. Helen was advised by the doctor to take a long rest.

(82) a. The caller told me that my mother was ill.
b. I was told by the caller that my mother was ill.

2.1.1.9.4. Verb Constraints

Although transitive verbs take objects and thus should be passivized, there are some transitive verbs which do not occur in the passive. These verbs are divided into three groups as symmetric verbs, verbs which refer to static relationships, and verbs which inherently focuses on the subject.

A) Symmetric verbs refer to a state that relates equally to two entities which both can fill the subject slot. Thus, (83 a) has the same meaning as (83 b). This is relevant for the example (84 a) and (84 b) where the verb *marry* means 'enter into matrimony with'.

(83) a. Mary resembles Kate.
b. Kate resembles Mary.

(84) a. Kate married Tom.
b. Tom married Kate.

B) Verbs referring to a state such as *contain, weigh, last, cost, belong to, lack, equal* can not be passivized. Verbs such as *hold, weigh, grow* lack passive when referring to a state but they can be passivized when they denote an activity.

(85) a. The barrel holds petrol.
b. *Petrol is held by the barrel.

(86) The thief was held by the police.

(87) a. Tomatoes weigh two kilos.
b. *Two kilos are weighed by tomatoes.

(88) a. Tom grew three centimetres.
b. *Three centimetres were grown by Tom.

Since the verbs *to weigh* and *to grow* refer to measurement they do not have any effect on the object. When they denote activity, they can be passivized.

(89) a. Mother weighed sugar.
b. Sugar was weighed by mother.

(90) a. Tom grew carrots.
b. Carrots were grown by Tom.

C) Verbs that inherently focus on the subject are not passivized. *Possess* is not passivized because it implies a strong emotional or mental connection between owner and possession. *Know* and *believe* are seldom passivized but a 'by' phrase does not occur with them. *Join* with the meaning of 'become a member of' has no passive because the focus is on the subject. *Like* and *enjoy* focus on the subject and therefore they are not passivized but there is an exception: When they continue an established topic, they are passivized. (see 94).

(91) *A fine sense of loyalty is possessed by her.

(92) He is known *to* the police because of his previous criminal record.
*He is known *by* the police.

(93) The robbers are believed to have escaped via Heathrow Airport.
*All the crew are believed dead *by* everyone.

(94) It is a great club. Why don't you join?
*Why aren't you joined?

(95) That concert, which was put on by the sixth-grade pupils, was thoroughly enjoyed.

2.1.2. Functional Properties of Passive in English

Passive voice is generally taught as if it were merely another way of expressing a sentence in the active voice but passive voice has a special place in the languages. English teachers give them transformation exercises such as the following and ask the students to write the active ones in passive voice:

(96) John likes girls.

(97) Henry can read English and French.

They are good in the active voice but they are 'just grotesque curiocities' when we put them into the passive voice (Allen,1992:277). The passive should not be taught as simply an equivalent to the active. It may be syntactically possible to express the same idea in both forms and converting active into passive or vice versa may be useful for practising the structure but the process is essentially artificial (Graver,1990:105). Therefore, students should know where to use passive structures. Passive is particularly useful in these situations:

In order to avoid mentioning the subject, we use passive. If speaker does not know who the subject is, passive without an agent is used(see example 98). Sometimes, we do not mention the subject although we know it, for the purpose of concealing the performer of the action (see example 99). In some cases the identity of the subject is so obvious that we do not need to mention it (see example 100). In some cases, identity of the performer of the action is not worth mentioning (see example 101).

(98) Mary was attacked last night.

(99) It has been reported to me that students have been collaborating on their assignments.

(100) I've been promoted (no need to say whom by)

(101) I had been told that it would be perfectly quiet.

When it is more important to draw our attention to the person or thing acted upon, we use passive. In other words, when the main interest is on the verb activity itself rather than on the active subject, we want to express this idea first. In the sentence (102 a) too much importance is given to the vague subject *people* although

our main interest is *the speaking of English.* Thus, using passive voice helps us to express this idea much better. In (103 a) since the focus is on the subject, the passive counterpart of this sentence sounds odd.

(102) a. People speak English all over the world
b. English is spoken all over the world.
(Allen,1992:271)

(103) a. That fat girl is eating an ice-cream.
b. *An ice-cream is being eaten by that fat girl.

If there is a specific reference (such as in 104 a), passive is preferrred. (104 b) is also correct but we prefer to use active instead of passive if there is a non specific reference. Therefore, (104 c) sounds better.

(104) a. *Our* pet dog was shot by that new policeman.
b. *A* dog was shot by that new policeman.
c. That new postman shot a dog.

We use passive to place a topic into subject relation. A discorse is organized around a topic. If a topic occurs in underlying object relation, then a passive construction is used to put it in surface subject slot.

(105) The hold-up man hid in the woods for five days living on berries, and then he (deep O, passive S) was caught and put in jail.

Passive construction is also used in order to satisfy syntactic constraints. In English, if two consecutive clauses have the same subject, it can be omitted from the second clause as in (106 a). However, if two coordinated clauses share a NP which is in subject position in one and object position in the other omission is not possible. Therefore, the final *John* in (106 b) is not omissible. In (106 c), both *John*s are in subject position and it is possible to omit the second one. Passive voice is a device to save changing the subject of a clause sequence. The sentence (107 b) expresses it more concisely than (107 a).

(106) a. John took of his coat and then (John) scolded Mary.
b. John took off his hat and then Mary scolded John.
c. J. took off his coat and was then scolded by Mary.

(107) a. He spoke at great length; people asked him many questions at the end, which he answered satisfactorily.
b. He spoke at great length, was asked many questions at the end, and answered them all satisfactorily.

(Allen,1992:274)

The passive voice is also useful when describing a mechanical process in which the details of process are much more important than anyone's taking responsibility for the action. It is especially helpful in scientific or technical writing or lab reports, where the actor is not really important but the process or principle being described is of ultimate importance (Collins,1990:404).

(108) The first coat of primer paint is applied immediately after the acid rinse.

(109) Twenty cc of acid is/was poured into the beaker.

If we want to focus on the result of the activity, we use passive.

(110) My neighbour was appointed to the board.
(111) The goalkeeper is being rested from next week's game.
(112) a. John was fired. (general redundancy in the firm)
b. John got fired. (did something foolish)

2.2. Passivisation in Turkish

In Turkish, construction markers are added to active verbs to make them passive. A passive suffix is inserted between verb and tense marker.

2.2.1. The Passive Morpheme

Of all the possible permutation of the four grammatical function changing suffixes cooccuring, only the following are grammatical:

V-REC-CAUS-PASS
V-REC-CAUS
V-REC-PASS
V-CAUS-PASS
V-CAUS-CAUS
V-REF-PASS
V-PASS-PASS

Order of suffixes: verb + derivational morphemes + inflectional morphemes

Due to the fact that Turkish is an agglutinative language, voice is indicated by suffixes. A phonological factor which affects the affixes is vowel harmony. If an affix is specified in the lexicon as containing /a/, it can surface either as /a/ or /a/ depending on the quality of the preceeding vowel. If, on the other hand, an affix is specified as having /i/, the alternation is between /i/, /ı/, /ü/, /u/. The passive suffix in Turkish has three variants:

a. –n (attached to stems ending in vowel)
b. –in (attached to stems ending with the consonant l)
c. –il (attached to stems ending with all other consonants)

With the effect of vowel harmony, the passive suffix has the following forms*: -n, -ın, -in, -un, -ün, -ıl, -il, -ul, -ül.*

While making passives of Verbs Stems ending in a Consonant (Except -l) the suffix -il - subject to Vowel Harmony - is added to the verb stem to make a passive sentence.

(113) Yapmak yapılmak
(114) Kesmek kesilmek

(115) kırmak kırılmak

The passive suffix /-Vl/ is added to verb stems, simple roots and derived stems (Şahinel, 1988). The suffix /-Vl/ changes according to vowel harmony and becomes /-il/, /-ıl/, /-ul/, /-ül/.

(116) Açmak (to open) açılmak (be opened)
(117) Gezmek (to visit) gezilmek (be visited)
(118) Kesmek (to cut) kesilmek (be cut)
(119) Sormak (to ask) sorulmak (be asked)
(120) Süpürmek (to sweep) süpürülmek (be swept)
(121) Vermek (to give) verilmek (be given)
(122) Yazmak (to write) yazılmak (be written)

(Şahinel,1988: 18)

If the verb stem ends in a vowel or the consonant /-l/, the passive suffix /-Vn/ is used. Although suffix /Vl/ is widely used, /-Vn/ is limited.

(123) Başlamak (to begin) başlanmak (be begun)
(124) Beklemek (to wait) beklenmek (be waited)
(125) Bilmek (to know) bilinmek (be known)
(126) Bulmak (to find) bulunmak (be found)
(127) Kaplamak (to cover) kaplanmak (be covered)
(128) Okumak (to read) okunmak (be read)
(129) Tanımak (to know) tanınmak (be known)

When the suffix /-ın/ is added to the verb stem which ends with a vowel, the vowel of the suffix is omitted.

(130) Besle-n-mek
(131) Oku-n-mak
(132) Sırala-n-mak

Göksel (1993) gives examples showing the combination of passive suffix and other suffixes:

Passive/Passive

(133) 1 Mayıs-ta Taksim-e gid-il-ir-se vur-ul-un-ur.
1 May-LOC Taksim-DAT go-PASS-AOR-COND shoot-PASS-PASS-AOR
'If one goes to Taksim on May 1st, (one) (be) (shot)'

Passive/Reflexive

(134) a. *Giy-il-in-di
dress-PASS-REF-PAST

b. Giy-in-il-di
dress-REF-PASS-PAST

Passive/Reciprocal

(135) a. Öp-üş-ül-dü
kiss-REC-PASS-PAST
There was a (mutual) kissing.
b. *Öp-ül-üş-tü
kiss-PASS-REC-PAST

There are two suffixes in Turkish which occur in sentences that have passive, middle and reflexive readings: *-il* and *-(i)n*. The former is the canonical passive and the latter is the canonical reflexive morpheme. However, it may be confusing that-*il* has *–(i)*n as one of its variants and both converge on a *middle reading*.

(136) Kapı aç-ıl-dı.
a. The door was opened.
b. The door opened.

(137) Çocuklar yıka-n-dı.
a. The children were washed.
b. The childrenwashed themselves.

(138) a. Çok öv-ün-dü-n.
'You praised yourself a lot'

b. Çok öv-ül-dün
'You were praised a lot'

The morpheme *-il* has a passive and a middle reading in (136), but it only has a passive reading in (138 b). In (137), -(i)n has a passive and reflexive reading but in (138 a) it only has a reflexive reading.

(139) a. Çocuk çabucak giy-in-di
child quickly wear-REF-PAST
'The child dressed (herself) quickly'

b. Elbise çabucak giy-il-di.
dress quickly wear-PASS-PAST
'The dress worn quickly'

(140) a. Adamlar döv-ün-dü
men beat-REF-PAST
'They beat themselves'

b. Adamlar döv-ül-dü.
Men beat-PASS-PAST
'The men were beaten'

As it is demonstrated in these examples, it is the distinct morphological shape of the two suffixes which induce the relevant readings. Thus, we consider the passive and reflexive morphemes as lexically distinct in Turkish.

2.2.2. Adjectival Passives

Some adjectival passives are constructed by adding participle suffixes to the verbs in, some adjectival passives are constructed by attaching the agentive suffix –(Y)EN.

(141) gidilecek yer 'the place to be gone to'
(142) güvenilir kaynak 'reliable source'

(143) satılan kitap ‘the book which is sold’
(144) yapılan iş ‘the work which is done’

Unaccusative/unergative distinction plays an important role in the construction of adjectival passives. The pre-nominal adjectival participle –mIş suffixed to intransitives modifies the subjects of unaccusatives but not unergatives. In the following examples, (a) represents unaccusative verbs; (b) represents unergative verbs.

(145) a. Bozul-muş/ çürü-müş/ don-muş yiyecek
‘The decomposed/rotten/ frozen food’
b. *koş-muş/ yüz-müş/ bağır-mış çocuk
‘The run/ swum/ shouted child’

The suffix –Ik is a derivational morpheme which derives adjectives from verbs. It can be attached only to unaccusative verbs but not to unergative verbs:

(146) Bat-ık gemi ‘the sunk ship’
(147) Çök-ük bina ‘the collapsed building’
(148) Patla-k su borusu ‘the burst water pipe’
(149) Düş-ük fiyatlar ‘the fallen prices’

(150) *çalış-ık adam ‘the worked man’
*gül-ük çocuk ‘the laughed child’
*koş-uk genç ‘the run teenager’
*yüz-ük kadın ‘the swum woman’

2.2.3. Passives from Transitives

The process of passivization of transitives in Turkish is the same as the passivisation of transitives in English. Any active sentence with an object can be passived in Turkish. Passive sentences are constructed if verbs that that assign Agent role to their subject and Patient role to their objects.

SUBJ	OBJ	V
AGENT	PATIENT	

The object NP is moved to the subject position in passivization. The following sentences are examples of passive sentences with transitive verbs.

(151) Şiir okunuyor. ‘A poem is being read.’

(152) Banka soyulmuş. ‘The bank has been robbed.’

2.2.4. Passives from Ditransitives

Just like in English, Turkish allows passivisation from ditransitives. While writing an active sentence with two objects in passive voice, one of the two objects becomes the subject; the other one remains an object.

(153) Çocuğa balon alındı.
Balon çocuğa alındı.

(154) Öğrencilere kitaplar verildi.
Kitaplar öğrencilere verildi.

2.2.5. Passives from Intransitives

Turkish passive construction differs from English passive only in one aspect. In English, we can passivize only transitive verbs. In Turkish we can make passive from intransitives as well as from transitives.

2.2.5.1. Impersonal Passives

Impersonal passives are another type of passives. We generally use them to sound objective or not to lay emphasis on the Agent (Tarzi:1983: 11).

(155) Bu masa üst kata taşınacak.
‘This table will be carried to upstairs’

(156) İçeri girmek için sağdaki kapı kullanılır.
'Use the door on the righr to enter'

(157) Buraya girilmez
'No entrance'

(158) Sigara içilmez
'No smoking'

(159) Şoförle konuşulmaz.
'Do not talk with the driver'

The underlying meaning of the last three sentences above is imperative. They mean:

(160) Buraya girmeyiniz
'Do not enter here'

(161) Sigara içmeyiniz.
'Do not smoke'

(162) Şoförle konuşmayınız.
'Do not talk to the driver'

In public announcements, impersonal passives are used commonly for the purpose of giving a formal touch:

(163) Eleman aranıyor.
'A personnel (is) needed.

(164) Anahtar yapılır.
'Keys (are) made'

2.2.5.2. Double Passives

The suffix /-Vn/ doesn't always give passive meaning because reflexive and passive forms are homophonous. To prevent ambiguity, the passive is distinguished by a double passive suffix in such words.

Firstly, /-Vn/ suffix is used; then, /-Vl/ is used after the /n/ of /-ın/ (Şahinel,1988:19).

(165) Söylemek söyle-n-il-mek (be said)
(166) Denemek dene-n-il-mek (be tried)
(167) Karşılamak karşıla-n-ıl-mak (be met)
(168) İstemek iste-n-il-mek (be wanted)

Özkaragöz (1986) argues that there are grammatical sentences in Turkish formed by impersonally passivizing a personal passive. In these examples, each sentence contains a verb which is suffixed with two passive morphemes.

(169) Bu şato-da boğ-ul-un-ur.
'In this chateau one is strangled by one.'

(170) Bu odada döv-ül-ün-ür
'In this room one is beaten by one'

(171) Harpte vur-ul-un-ur.
'In war, one is shot by one.'

There are also infinitival double passives. The following example is from Kornfilt (1988)

(172) Üniversiteler kuşat-ıl-mak iste-n-di.
'The universities were wanted to be surrounded.'

2.2.6. Expressing the Agent

Turkish has a particular construction in the passive to denote the Agent acting on the subject. The agent is placed in the Genitive Case and followed by 'tarafından' – 'by'. The following sentences are examples including the agent. It is lexically specified for animate objects.

(173) Kitap, onlar tarafından yazılacak
'The book will be written by them'

(174) Top, Mustafa tarafından bulundu
'The ball was found by Mustapha '

(175) Araba, Ali tarafından temizleniyor
'The car is being cleaned by Ali'

(176) * Bulaşıklar makine tarafından iyi yıkanmamış.
'The laundry hasn't been washed well by the washing machine.

It is only used in passivized transitives; therefore, the sentence becomes ungrammatical when it is used with intransitives.

(177) Saat sekizde herkes tarafından eve gel-in-ecek.
'There will be a coming home at eight o'clock by everyone.'

2.3 The Transitive-Intransitive Distinction in English

Some verbs have both transitive and intransitive uses in English. The first sentence of each pair is intransitive and the 2nd pair of each of them is transitive:

(178) a. The stick broke.
b. The boy broke the stick.

(179) a. The bell rang.
b. The children rang the bell.

Verbs which can be used as transitive or intransitive are called causative alternation verbs (Levin, 1989:27).

2.4 The Transitive-Intransitive Distinction in Turkish

Verbs which take an object are called transitive verbs. Verbs which do not take an object are called intransitive verbs. In Turkish (unlike in English), passives are not restricted to only transitive verbs.

Turkish allows the passivisation of certain intransitive verbs. Most of these intransitives are action verbs:

(180) a. Hep beraber maça gidildi.
'We went to the match altogether'
b. Biz hep beraber maça gittik.
'We went to the match altogether'

(181) a. Saat onda okula gelinecek.
'One will come to school at ten o'clock'
b. Çocuklar saat onda okula gelecek.
'The children will come to school at ten o'clock'

(182) a. Burada durulmaz.
'Do not stop here'
b. İnsanlar burada durmaz.
'People do not stop here'

(183) a. Bu sandalyeden kolayca düşülür.
'One falls easily from this chair'
b. İnsan bu sandalyeden kolayca düşer.
'One falls easily from this chair'

(184) a. Bu gece 11de yatılacak.
'We will go to bed at 11 tonight'
b. Onlar bu gece 11de yatacak.
'They will go to bed at 11'

(185) a. Bu kadar sığ yerde batılır mı?
'Can one sink in such a shallow place?'
b.İnsan bu kadar sığ yerde batar mı?
'Can one sink in such a shallow place?'

Intransitive process verbs, however, can not take the passive suffix unless they become transitive verbs with the addition of the causative suffix –DIR:

(186)	bit-	'finish	*bitil-	'be finished'
(187)	Piş-	'cook'	*pişil-	'be cooked'
(188)	Eri-	'melt'	*erin-	'be melted'
(189)	Büyü-	'grow'	*büyün-	'be grown'

Intransitive process verbs are made passive after the addition of the causative suffix and then the passive suffix:

(190) a.İşler çabucak bitirildi.
'The work was finished quickly.
b. İşçiler işleri çabucak bitirdi.
'The workers finished the work quickly'

(191) a. Dün pırasa pişirildi.
'Leek was cooked yesterday'
b. Aşçı dün pırasa pişirdi.
'The cook cooked leak yesterday'

(192) a.Buzlar eritildi.
'The ice was melted'
b. Çocuklar buzları eritti.

‘The children melted the ice.

(193) a. Bu fotoğrafım büyütülmeli.
‘This photograph must be enlarged.
b. Fotoğrafçı bu fotoğrafımı biraz büyütmeli.
‘The photographer must enlarge this photograph’

If the argument of the verb can not by itself instigate the situation, it is called externally instigated situation. ‘Open’, ‘collapse’ and ‘break’ are the examples of externally instigated situation.

(194) Kapı açıldı.
‘The door opened’

(195) Bina yıkıldı.
‘The building collapsed’

(196) Cam kırıldı.
‘The window broke’

The sentences above show a change of state. There is no external instigation. However, when we add ‘tarafından’ agent phrase, it describes an external force:

(197) Kapı adam tarafından açıldı.
‘The door was opened by the man’

(198) Bina inşaat işçileri tarafından yıkıldı.
‘The building was demolished by the construction workers’

(199) Cam kadın tarafından kırıldı.
‘The window was broken by the woman’

2.5 Unaccusative Hypothesis

As formulated by Perlmutter, Unaccusative Hypothesis claims that intransitives are divided into two classes: unaccusatives and unergatives. Perlmutter, who introduced Unaccusative Hypothesis within the context of the Universal Alignment Hypothesis, proposes that the syntactic representation of arguments can always be predicted from the meaning of the verb.

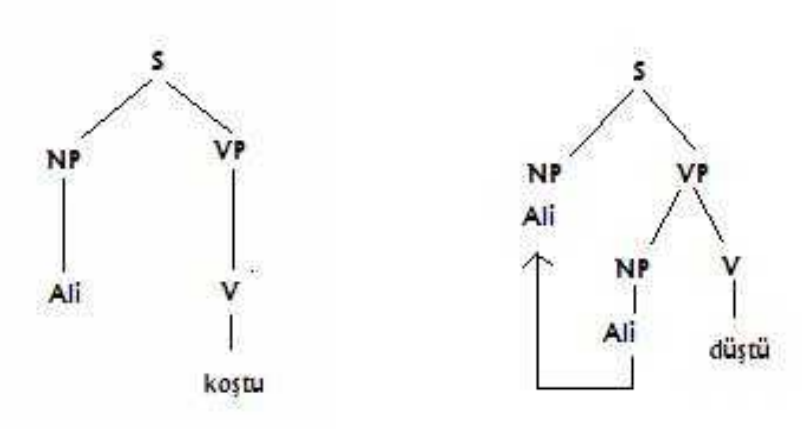
Many people have discussed Perlmutter's assumption and have tried to find out if the unaccusative/unergative distinction can be semantically determinable and if there are universal semantic principles which constitute as a basis for this distinction.

The crosslinguistic studies of unaccusativity in different languages have grown that synonymus intransitive verbs do not always behave similar in terms of their classification as unaccusative or unergative. Thus, Perlmutter's hypothesis is challenged by Harris (1982), who presents data from Georgian as an evidence, Rosen (1984), who found evidence from various languages and Legendre (1989), who gives some French sentences as examples.

All of them accept the fact that there is a strong tendency for particular meanings to be connected with unaccusativity or unergativity but they reject the assumption that there is consistent and universal characteristics which are taken as a basis for it. They suggest that the unaccusative-unergative distinction should be characterized in terms of syntax. They propose two different syntactic representation to show the distinction between unaccusatives and unergatives. The syntactic difference between these two types of intransitives are that the sole argument of an unergative verb is underlying a subject while the sole argument of an unaccusative verb is underlying a direct object. (Nakipoğlu,1998: 4). In the following example, (a) has an unergative verb, and (b) has an unaccusative verb.

(200)

a. b.



The difference between an unaccusative and an unergative verb is presented in both Relational Grammar and Government and Binding Theory by showing that there is an advancement derivation which is triggered by the fact that 'the sole argument of an unaccusative verb is underlying a direct object which advances to the subject position on the surface' (Perlmutter, 1978).

(201) a. Donna danced.
b. Donna ached.

According to Perlmutter's claim, *Donna* is the agent of the semantically active unergative clause in (a) whereas it is the patient of the semantically inactive unaccusative clause (Knecht,1986:54).

Both the unaccusative advancement and the passive rule involve 2-1 advancement. In order to prevent confusion, Perlmutter (1978) explains the difference between them: If a stratum containes both a 1 and a 2, it is subject to passive. If a stratum contains a 2 but no 1, it is subject to Unaccusative Advancement.

According to Perlmutter's proposal, there are universal principles which helps us to predict if the clause is initially unergative or unaccusative. Perlmutter's proposal develops from a more general hypothesis called Universal Alignment Hypothesis (Knecht, 1986: 55).

The Universal Alignment Hypothesis: There exists some set of universal principles on the basis of which, given the representation of a clause, one can predict which initial grammatical relation each nominal bears.

If the predicate of an intransitive clause describes an act or event which is voluntary, controllable, or agentive, it is initially unergative; otherwise, it is initially unaccusative. Predicates which describe involuntary bodily process are to be unaccusative but Perlmutter claims that certain of them such as *cough, sleep, burp,* etc. should be classified as unergative (Knecht,1986:56).

The relational grammar analysis of passives shows that before passive can apply, an initially unaccusative clause must undergo Unaccusative Advancement. The passive of the initially unaccusative clause must involve two advancements to subject. But, 1Advancement Exclusiveness Law (1AEX) does not permit more than one advancement to subject in a clause (Knecht,1986:57).

2.6 Semantic Determinants of Unaccusativity

Perlmutter (1978) presumes that Unaccusative Hypothesis can be seen in three different ways:

a. Initial unaccusativity varies from language to language. There is no way to predict which predicates in a given language will be initially unaccusative and which initially unergative.
b. There exist principles which predict initial unergativity or unaccusativity for a certain class of intransitive clauses in all languages. There exist another class of such clauses whose initial unergativity or unaccusativity varies from language to language.
c. There exist universal principles which predict initial unaccusativity vs unergativity for all initially intransitive clauses in all languages. Initial unaccusativity vs. unergativity can not vary from language to language.

According to Perlmutter, (c) is the most essential. Perlmutter suggests that unergatives denote activities whereas unaccusatives denote states or events.

Nakipoğlu (1998:8) makes a list of predicates determining initially unergative clauses and predicates determining unaccusative clauses. According to this list, predicates describing willed or volitional acts (e. g. *Work, play, hunt, whistle, walk, laugh, dance,* etc.), manner of speaking verbs (e.g. *whisper, shout, mumble*, etc.),

predicates describing sounds made by animals (e.g. *bark, roar, neigh*, etc.), certain involuntary bodily processes (e.g. *cough, sneeze, sleep, breath*, etc.) are classified unergatives. She also explains that predicates expressed by adjectives in English (e.g. *sizes, shapes, colours* etc.), predicates whose initial nuclear term is semantically a patient (e.g. *burn, fall, sink, float,* etc.), inchoatives (e.g. *melt, freeze, evaporate,* etc.), predicates of existing and happening (e.g. *exist, happen, occur,* etc.), involuntary emission of the stimuli that impinge on the senses (e.g. *shine, glitter, smell,* etc.), aspectual predicates (e.g. *begin, start, stop, cease, continue*), and duratives (e.g. *last, remain, stay, survive,* etc.) are classified as unaccusatives.

2.7 Syntactic Determinants of Unaccusativity

The Unaccusative Hypothesis suggests that certain intransitives have an initial 2 (i.e. object) but no initial 1 (i.e. subject). All initially unaccusative clauses involve an advancement to 1.

According to Unaccusative Hypothesis, certain intransitives can not have prepositional or impersonal passive equivalents because, it would require more than one advancement from the object position to the subject position and therefore, it would violate the 1Advancement Exclusiveness Law.

Perlmutter and Postal (cited in Nakipoğlu,1998:14) illustrate it with an example:

(202) a. The bed was jumped on by the children
(Active: The children jumped on the bed.)

b. * The bed was fallen on by dust.
(Active: Dust fell on the bed.)

(a) is a correct prepositional passive whereas (b) is unacceptable because it violates the 1AEX Law which does not allow two advancements in one clause from a non-subject to a subject position.

2.8 Turkish Impersonal Passives and the Unaccusative Hypothesis

Perlmutter (1978) illustrates data from Dutch and Turkish to strenghten his predictions about impersonal passives and Unaccusative Hypothesis. But Knecht (1986:59) found out that these data are not completely correct.

Perlmutter (1978) gives the following examples in his work:

Impersonal passives of unergative clauses :

(203) a. Burada çalışılır/oynanır/bağırılır.
'It is worked/played/ shouted here'

b. Burada gecenin geç saatlerine kadar dans edilir.
'It is often danced here until the late hours of the night.'

c. Düşmandan kaçılmaz.
'It is not run away from the enemy'

Impersonal passives of unaccusative clauses:

(204) *Buharlaşıldı/çüründü/kokuldu
'It was evaporated/rotted smelled'

(205) *Damlanır/fışkırılır.
'It is dripped/gushed.

(206) * Buzun üstünde sık sık düşülür.
'It is often fallen on the ice.'

(207) *Bu yetimhanede çabuk büyünür.
'It is grown quickly in this orphenage'

Perlmutter (1978) claims that (c) and (d) are ungrammatical but Özkaragöz (1980) and Knecht (1986) judged them to be grammatical although they contain

unaccusative passives. They differ from other unaccusative passives in that the predicates in (c) and (d) describe non- volitional events.

But the following examples are ungrammatical if the doers of the action are interpreted as animals. However they are judged grammatical if the doers of the action are interpreted as humanbeings who pretend the voice of animals in a context such as a theatre stage.

(208) * Burada havlanır
'It is barked here (by dogs)'

(209) * Şu ormanda çok ötülür.
'It is chirped a lot in that forest (by birds). (Knecht, 1986: 66)

If the actions are performable by humans and non-humans, the impersonal passive is always interpreted as being about people only.

(210) Sabahleyin ahırdan çayıra gidilir.
'In the morning it is gone from the stable to the pasture (by people).'

We can conclude that we can passivize some predicates which describe non-volitional events. But these predicates must be animate and human.

2.9 Acquisition of Passives

In child language, passives appear late in relation to other constructions. The late appearance of passive construction is related to maturation according to Borer and Wexler (1987, qtd in Golinkoff, R. M. And Hirsh-Pasek, K.1995:449)

This argument is relevant for English but if we consider other languages, the consequences may be different. Crosslinguistic research showed that adjectives and truncated passives were not associated in some languages. In some other languages, two forms occur in very different developmental times. On the other hand, in some languages, one of the constructions appear if the other one is absent.

Sesotho, which is a Southern Bantu language, there is not any adjectival passives and children who acquire this language produce passives as early as two

years old (Demuth, 1989: 56). It shows us that maturation is not a factor that affects the use of passive because, children who acquire Sesotho, could not be producing passives based on analogy with adjectival passives as there is no adjectival passives in this language.

2.9.1 Aquisition of Passives in English as L1

In English, the passive is not a frequent structure which is used while speaking with children. Therefore, it is a difficult construction for children to master.

Greenfield and Smith (1976:78) state that children in the early stages of language acquisition relate the words used to aspects of situation being described in order to interpret the utterances. The children observe many times that the word referring to the Agent precedes the word referring to the action in adult sentences. Then, children induce a rule about the order of those semantic elements. Then, children hear sentences in which the words in the first position does not refer to the Agent:

(211) The cake got eaten.

When the children hear passive sentences like the one above, they leave the simple semantic rule for a syntactic rule including the notion of sentence subject (Greenfield and Smith: 1976:78). They found out that when the children are presented with passive sentences for the first time, they treat them as active ones ignoring the elements which indicate that it is a different sentence stucture. The children treat the first mentioned noun as if it was the subject (in other words the 'Agent') of the verb.

Children are able to produce passive verb forms soon after age two. When they are three years old, they can produce sentences by using 'get' and 'be' passives. Children use animate subjects more than inanimate subjects when they produce 'get' passives.

(212) We will get striked by lightning. (3;6)

(213) I just got pinched from these pointed stuff. (3;3)

(214) Does the cream of wheat need to be cooled? (2;8)

(215) I want these pancakes to be sugered. (4;2)

(Fletcher&Mc Whinney, 1995:407)

Fletcher&Mc Whinney (1995:407) state that children acquire simple active structures earlier than the more complex passive structures. It's also indicated that, truncated passives appear before full passives in child discourse.

(216)

Active: The hunters killed the deer.
Passive: The deer were killed by the hunters.
Truncated passive: The deer were killed.

Borer and Wexler(1987; cited in Golinkoff&Pasek 1995: 449) argue that the early appearance of truncated passives are adjectival passives rather than verbal passives. The sentences in (217) and (218) have a parallel sructure. But the structure of full passive sentence in (219) is not parallel to (217) and (218).

(217) The doll was broken.
(218) The doll was green.
(219) The doll was broken by Mary.

As it is clear in the examples, there is no movement required to make the adjectival passive. But in order to make a verbal passive, it's necessary to move the object to the subject position.

Maratsos and Abramovitch (1975) found evidence against the adjectival interpretation of passive voice in English by making a test. They found out that when children are given passive sentences without the word 'by' or when they are given sentences which contain a nonsense word instead of 'by' they could not interpret the passive sentences correctly. When they are given such sentences, it is observed that their comprehension is disrupted. (cited in Golinkoff&Pasek 1995: 449-450)

(220) *The cat is licked the dog. ('by' is omitted.)
*The cat is licked po the dog. (nonsense 'po' is used instead of 'by')

It is more difficult for children to comprehend sentences like passive with transformations than the sentences like the active declarative ones without transformations. After the NP is moved to the subject position, a coindexed trace of the object NP remains. Because of this, passives result in an "argument chain" (A-chain) as it is introduced under the Government and Binding Analysis (Chomsky,1981; Jaeggli, 1986, cited. in Golinkoff&Pasek 1995:449).

(221) Josh chased Allison.
(222) Allison was chased by Josh.

The passive morpheme absorbs the external theta role, which can be assigned to oblique object. Then, nominative case is assigned to the subject of these sentences. So, English speaking children make correct passive sentences around late age three (Bowerman, 1973; cited in Golinkoff&Pasek 1995: 449).

Some verbs can not be used in passive. For the purpose of explaining how children know that only some verbs can be passivized, Maratsos Kuczaj, Fox and Chalkley (1979:155) suggested that there is a semantic rule for passivisation which allows only subjects and objects that are agents and patients to undergo passivisation.

(223) *The shampoo was contained by the bottle.

How the child learns which verbs can not be used in passive constructions is investigated by Maratsos et al. (1979). They found that children at the age of four or five, do not comprehend passive sentences which contain nonactional verbs.

(224) The boy was <u>hit</u> by the girl.
actional verb

(225) The boy was <u>liked</u> by the girl.
nonactional verb

It is found out that children's spontaneous passives contain primarily action verbs. As Maratsos, Kuczaj, Fox and Chalkley (1979; cited in Golinkoff&Pasek 1995: 450) state, children at the age of 5 have no problem with understanding a

sentence which contains an action verb such as (226). However, they fail to interpret a sentence constructed by a non-action verb as in (227):

(226) The mouse was bitten by the squirrel.

(227) The man was remembered by the girl.

Children pay great attention to word order and they rely on it while interpreting sentences. Because of their reliance on the word order, they ignore the actual sentence structure. When they become aware of the interaction between syntactic ordering rules and morphological affixes, they do not have any problems with interpreting such sentences.

(228) The dog was chased by the girl.

In this example, the verb 'was chased' indicates that the sentence is passive and the grammatical subject of the sentence 'dog' is actually the object of the action described. But most of the children under age five would interpret the sentence as 'the dog chased the girl' (Bever, 1970; cited in Steinberg & Meyer1995: 257). Even so, they understand easily passive sentences which make sense only in one direction. Thus, they do not interpret the sentence 'The food was eaten by the baby' as 'The food ate the baby'.

Cromer (1976:460) claims that children do not understand passives until age 4 or 5 or even later. He supports this idea with an example: Children even at the age of 2 or 3 do not have any trouble with understanding 'The candy is eaten by the girl' because it is impossible to interpret the candy as eating the girl. But the children at 3 or 4 years old have difficulty in interpreting the reversible sentences such as 'The cow is kicked by the horse' . They assume the first noun "cow" is the agent. Cromer (1976:460) also states the fact that children at the age of 6 enter an intermediate stage of language development lasting for approximately three years. During this time, children may use the rule 'grammatical implies agent' when they interpret a structure such as 'easy to see', but do not apply the same rule when they interpret the passive.

The passive is very essential to assess because children who can understand the passive in reversable sentences are using a syntactic grammar rather than semantic knowledge. We understand it easily because, the 'agent-action-patient' sequence of 'subject-verb-object' pattern of English is violated by passive sentences.

The children must be aware of the syntactic relations of subject and object in order to comprehend passives.

2.9.2 Aquisition of Passives in Turkish as L1

Slobin and Aksu (1980:10) state that in Turkish, at very early stages of development (e.g. below age 2;6) verbs are sometimes pronounced with extra meaningless syllables between the stem and the final person-number affixes. Early on, it seems that the child attempts to retain some 'rhytmic picture' of complex verbs, uncomprehendingly inserting syllables that sound like passive and accusative particles. (cited in Fletcher & Garman:1986:527)

As Sofu (1995) states, children are not able to make distinctions clearly between reflexive and passive suffixes because of the characteristics of passives in Turkish. Due to the fact that agentless passives are more common in Turkish, it is sometimes difficult to understand if the patient is trated as the object of passive verb or the agent of the reflexive verb. Sofu (1995:95) illustrates this fact with an example in which a child is talking about a broken toy. In the context, there is no cue of the doer of the action:

(229) Child: Oyuncak bozuldu. (2;0)
'The toy has been broken'

Adult: Ne bozuldu?
'What has been broken?'

Child: Oyuncak
'The toy'

From the children's speech at this age, we can not decide on whether the child thinks that an Agent which is not mentioned changed the state of the object (thus, used a passive construction) or the state of the object is changed on its own (thus, used a reflexive construction) :

(230) Adult: Getir ben açayım.

‘Let me open it’

Adult: Ver bakiyim ver açiyim.
‘Give it to me, I’ll open it.’

Child: Bu açılmıyor.
‘This does not open/ this is not opened.’ (Sofu: 1995:96)

Children’s passives have two functions. First of all they may prefer using passive in order to conceal the Agent of the action. For example, (54) can be interpreted that the child has broken the toy and prefers using passive voice by not mentioning the Agent. It may also be read as a reflexive construction. The child prevents himself from the blame and shows the action as if it had happened itself by using reflexive. The following is another example for the use of passive in child speech. The child is (2;8) years old. He is in a kindergarten and playing with a toy lorry with broken windows:

(231) Adult: Ne yapıyorsun burada!
‘What are you doing here!’

Child: Cam kırıyorum.
‘I am breaking windows’

Adult: Neden kırıyorsun camları?!
‘Why are you breaking the windows?!’

Child: Eeee, camlar kırılmış cam takıyorum.
‘Er.. the windows are broken so I’m putting (new) windows.’’

Another function of children’s use of passive at early stages is the rule statement. Sofu (1995: 98) explains this function by giving an example from a 2;8 year old child in (b) and (c) . The child uses passive voice in her speech to explain her rules about playing toys:

(232) a. Adult: Köpeğe binilmez ama.
'But you can not get on a dog.'

b. Child: binilir.
'You can.'

c. Child: Oyuncakın üstüne çıkılır.
'You can get on toys.'

Children in later syntactic development use more complex structures. Example (233) belongs to a child at the age of (4;7).

(233) Adult: Sen ne yaptın hayatım resmi görünce?
'What did you do when you saw the photograph?'

Child: Ben görmüştüm resmi ben çekilmiştim, diil mi?
Sonra annem beğenmişti. 'Ne güzel çekilmişsin' demişti.

'I had seen this photograph, I had been taken this photograph, hadn't I? Then my mother had loved it. She had said' " How well had your photograph been taken!"

The studies mentioned so far show that passive is a complex phenomenon which is acquired at a relatively later stage. Consequently, it would also be a problematic issue in foreign language learning as well. In the following, we will explain acquisition of passives in English as L2.

2.9.3 Acquisition of Passives in English as L2

Passivisation errors of L2 learners have been a concern of many second language researchers. The following sentences which contain errors are taken from the studies of some researchers on L2 learners of English:

(234) a.*The most memorable experience of my life was happened 15 years ago.

b. *Most of people are fallen in love and marry with somebody.

c. *My mother was died when I was just a baby.

(Zobl,1989)

d. *He was arrived early.

e. *This problem is existed for many years.

(Hubbard, 1994)

Hubbard (1994: 68) stated that the majority of errors of non-native (non-targetlike) passivisation occur with a certain class of intransitives called unaccusatives. Furthermore, he found out that those errors are common not only in performances of learners at low profeciency level but also in conversations of learners at relatively advanced level students.

In most of the L2 studies, the source of the errors in passivization is found in unaccusative verbs; thus, our main concern will be on unaccusatives.

Oshita (2000:294) states that the argument of unaccusatives shows the syntactic characteristics of the object of a transitive verb while the argument of unergatives exibits the characteristics of the subject.

There are five major accounts of passivisation of unaccusative verbs in L2 acquisition literature:

1- transfer of a compound tense/aspect system in the learner's L1

2- overgeneralization of the adjectival passive formation in English

3- non-target lexical causativisation

4- identification of the passive morphosyntax with the lack of a logical subject

5- non-target overt marking of syntactic NP movement

L1 Transfer of tense/aspect auxiliary verb+ past participle

Richards (1973: 103-104) considered the errors made by passivising unaccusative verbs as an evidence of the learner's incomplete mastery of the English tense/aspect system.

Many languages such as German and Dutch have a compound tense-aspect system. According to this system, unaccusatives take a 'be' type auxiliary verb

whereas unergatives and transitives take a ‘have’ type. The following grammatical German and Dutch examples are taken from the study of Richards (1973:104)

(235) German: Drei Jungen sind am Bahnhof angekommen.
Three boys be3pl to the station arrive p.p.

(236) Dutch: Drie jongens zijn op het station gearriveerd.
Three boys be3pl to the station arrive p.p.

The prepositional phrase ‘to the station’ precedes the main verb in German and Dutch sentences above. Nevertheless, the combination of ‘be’-type auxiliary and past participle of an unaccusative reminds us the typical error of passivized unaccusatives in English as L2 such as:

(237) *Three boys are arrived at the station.

Italian and French examples are more alike this construction when the word order of them is considered. The sentences in (238) and (239) are grammatical. They are also identical to IL English in word order:

(238) Italian: Tre ragazzi sono arrivati alla stazione.
Three boys be3pl arrive p.p. to the station

(239) French: Trois garçons sont arrives a la gare.
Three boys be3pl arrive p.p. to the station

Because of this resemblance, Hubbard and Hix (1988) thought that the case of this phenomenon could be because of the relevant morphosyntactic properties of the learner’s first language, which may be carried over to their L2 English.

On the other hand, this explanation is not enough to find out why the errors of ‘passive’ unaccusatives are done by learners whose L1 hasn’t got such a morphosyntactic property. For example, Chinese, Japanese and Korean do not have a comparable compound tense/aspect system. Yet, the learners of English as L2 whose

L1 is Chinese, Japanese or Korean make errors in passivisation by passivising unaccusative verb (Oshita , 2000:299).

Therefore, we have to consider other major accounts to find an explanation for the reasons of such errors. The second account is the overgeneralization of adjectival passive formation in English:

Overgeneralization of the English Adjectival Passive Formation

Another account on the passivisation of unaccusatives is the deverbal adjective formation which is found in the target English. Oshita(2000:299) explains this account by describing the differences between the verbal passive and the adjectival passives in the following examples:

(240) a) The apartment was (quickly) furnished to make it more attractive.
b) When John moved in, the apartment was (already/still) furnished.
c) John is looking for a furnished apartment.

(Oshita, 2000:299)

In this example, (b) and (c) are different from (a) because 'furnished' has a stative meaning whereas the meaning of (a) is dynamic.

Levin and Rappaport (1986) state that adjectival passives are derived from transitive change of state verbs. Unaccusative verbs undergo this lexical process, too.

(241) a. elapsed time
b. fallen leaf
c. the drifted snow
d. wilted lettuce
e. a collapsed tent
f. vanished civilizations

(a-c from Bresnan,1982 and d-f from Levin and Rappaport,1986; cited in Oshita:2000:299)

According to these examples, we can conclude that the cause of passivisation of unaccusatives may be the overgeneralization of the adjectival passive formation. However, there are some doubts about the validity of adjectival passive account. Chuming (1995:294) gives an example to question the validity of this account. He states that if they are adjectives, we expect them to be used attributively as well as predicatively. However, students who make many errors of 'passive' unaccusatives

do not make errors such as *died people* and *happened accidents* in the sense of 'dead people' and 'accidents that have happened'.

Non-target Lexical Causativisation

As Montrul (1997: 136) suggests, L2 learners first of all coin a nonce causative verb and add a causer of the event as an external argument to the original argument of an unaccusative verb which does not alternate. Then, they passivize the nonce word. However, they do not show that word syntactically in a 'by' phrase. Rutherford (1987) exemplifies the non-target causative errors by these sentences:

(242) a. *The shortage of fuels occured the need for economical engine.
b. *This construction will progress my country.

However, we cannot adopt this account completely because stative and achievement verbs such as 'exist' and 'arrive' undergo this causativisation. Unlike accomplishment verbs, they do not have a causing sub-event.

According to this account, 'passive' unaccusative errors are genuine verbal passives. An agentive 'by' phrase can be used with them.

(243) a. * Jane was fallen down by Mary.
b. * The accident was happened to collect the insurance.
(Balcom,1997)

These examples support the idea of the syntactic presence of a suppressed external argument in a sentence. But this kind of errors are rare. In contrast, most of the errors are found in passives without a 'by' phrase.

Identification of the Lack of a Logical Subject

Zobl (1989:215) suggest that a logical subject is not required for a passive or unaccusative predicate. As Zobl speculates, L2 learners of English may canonically associate the lack of logical subject in the verbs' argument structure with the be+ V3 structure in sytax. The movement analysis requires an NP argument in the object position. English expletives 'there' and 'it' hypothesized for languages like Italian may function as a place holder. Zobl gives an example from his data:

(244) * I was nearly killed all of us.

Non-target Overt Marking of Syntactic NP Movement

Zobl (1989) states that a 'passive' unaccusative structure shows that the internal argument of an unaccusative verb is projected to the object position. Then, it moves to the surface subject position. The learner's grammar and the native English grammar are the same on this point but the difference is that in the learner's grammar, the movement is 'overtly' and 'mistakenly' marked by the be + V3. Oshita (2000:317) exemplifies this phenomenon with the following sentences.

(245) a. Grandma kissed Maya.
b. Maya$_i$ was kissed t_i by grandma. (Passive verb)

(246) a. There arrived three boys at the station.
b. Three boys$_i$ arrived t_i at the station. (Unaccusative verb)

(247) a. It seemed that the boy was very popular.
b. The boy$_i$ seemed t_i to be very popular. (Raising verb)

(248) a. It is likely that John will oppose the plan.
b. John$_i$ is likely t_i to oppose the plan. (Raising adjective)

In the examples given above, each NP argument produced after and lower than a predicate verb or adjective has moved forward and upward over the predicate in the (b) sentences. This movement is only overtly marked by 'an auxiliary + past participle' in the passive sentence of (245 b). Because, in English, the only structure that overtly indicates the movement of the NP to the surface subject position is the passive morphosyntax of be + V3. The reason for the 'passive' unaccusative errors, in other words, the derivaton of sentences with unaccusative verbs is that L2 learners of English often overgeneralize this morphosyntactic characteristic of the English passive structure.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Design

This study is designed as a descriptive research and for this purpose, 24 pre-intermediate students at YADİM in Çukurova University are chosen as participants. They are given an oral and written tasks. In the first written task, they were given a process type of paragraph with blanks and they are asked to fill in them. The second written task was about telling the events shown by the picture sequences. A week after this task, they are asked to tell the events described in the same picture sequences orally. Their reports about the pictures are recorded. In order to find out the verb classes on which the most common errors are made, the participants are given a grammaticality judgement test as a written task. The data were analyzed to find out the types of errors that they made and the semantic properties that lead the students to do these errors.

3.2. Subjects

The participants of the study are Turkish speaking students who learn English as a foreign language. The subjects are chosen among the preparatory class students at YADİM in Çukurova University. All subjects are at pre-intermediate level. 24 students participated in written tasks and all of them also participated in the oral task in this study. Then, they are given a grammaticality judgement test.

3.3. Material and Tasks

Two kinds of materials are used in this study: At first, the subjects are given a text which describes how tea is made. The verbs are given in brackets and students are asked to fill in the blanks by using these verbs. Then, they are given a picture sequence which describes a bank robbery. In these pictures, the robbery is shown step by step. Only verbs are given as keywords to help the students make sentences. Students are asked to write about the events shown in the pictures and to tell the

robbery. The same picture sequence is also used for another activity a week later. The students are asked to tell the robbery by looking at the pictures and using the keywords. While they are talking about the robbery, they are recorded with the help of a cassette recorder. Then, a grammaticality judgement test which contains 20 transitive and 20 intransitive verbs are given to the participants. 10 of the intransitive verbs are unaccusatives and 10 of them are unergatives. 20 answers are grammatical and 20 answers are ungrammatical.

3.4. Data Collection

24 pre-intermediate students from Çukurova University are chosen as the participants of the study. Written and spoken data are collected through the following tasks: They are given a 'fill in the blanks' task. A picture sequence about a robbery is given to the participants. In this picture sequence, the robbery is shown step by step in every picture. They wrote sentences about the process in the picture sequence. A week later, they are given the same picture sequence to talk about. While they are telling the events that happen in the pictures, they are recorded with the help of the cassette recorder. Then, the students are given a grammaticality judgement test which contains 20 true and 20 false sentences. 20 sentences are transitive and 20 sentences are intransitives. Intransitive verbs contain two groups of verbs: 10 unergative and 10 unaccusative verbs. The students are asked to judge on the grammaticality or ungrammaticality of the sentences.

3.5. Data Analysis

The written and spoken data is ananalyzed in terms of the sources of the errors. Qualitative and quantitative data shows us that most of the errors are made because of the lack of knowledge about grammatical rules as the students are at pre-intermediate level. The semantic properties of the verbs that are frequently used incorrectly in the passive voice are also analyzed.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

24 pre-intermediate students who learn English as L2 at YADİM in Çukurova University are chosen as the subjects for this study. Data is collected from four tasks: Students are asked to do a fill-in the blank task, to write a description of the picture sequence, to tell the picture sequece orally and to do the grammaticality judgement test.

The written and spoken data are analyzed in terms of the sources of the errors. While analyzing the errors, we only focus on the verb. The data is analyzed in terms of grammatical errors and semantic errors. Grammatical errors are found in subject-verb agreement, incorrect past participle formation, using base form or infinitive instead of the past participle, and the choice of active voice although the context requires the use of passive voice. Then the written and spoken data is compared. Semantic verb classes of the verbs which are passivized incorrectly are identified and semantic description of them are made. The grammaticality judgement test is analyzed to find out the verb classes on which the students do most of the errors.

4.1 Analysis of the Data

In order to find out the errors students made the data has been analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The first task we applied was a fill-in the blanks activity in which students were provided with 12 verbs. The students who had this task did many errors in the formation of passives (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Verbs, expected forms, types and number of errors

Verbs	Expected forms	Sources of errors	Number of Errors	Total
lay out	be laid out	Active	7	19
		Error in formation of V3	9	
		V1 is used instead of V3	3	
grade	be graded	agreement	4	8
		V1 is used instead of V3	2	
		Active	2	
sell	be sold	Active	4	7
		V1 is used instead of V3	1	
		Error in formation of V3	2	
leave	(be) left	Active	6	7
		V1 is used instead of V3	1	
grow	be grown	Agreement	2	6
		Auxiliary verb is not used	1	
		Active	2	
		V1 is used instead of V3	1	
dry2	be dried dry	Error in formation of V3	1	6
		V1 is used instead of V3	4	
		Infinitive	1	
export	(be) exported	Active	5	5
dry1	be dried dry	Error in formation of V3	2	3
		V1 is used instead of V3	1	
roll	be rolled roll	V1 is used instead of V3	3	3
pick	be picked	Active	1	3
		V1 is used instead of V3	1	
		Infinitive	1	
transport	be transported	Active	2	3
		V1 is used instead of V3	1	
pass	be passed pass	V1instead of V3	1	1

As can be seen from the table, the most problematic verb is ‘lay out’ with 19 errors. 7 students prefered to write it in the active voice, 9 students wrote an incorrect form of past participle and 3 students wrote the base form of the verb instead of past participle. ‘Grade’ is the next verb on which the students made many mistakes. The sources of errors on this verb are on the subject –verb agreement, using V1 instead of V3 and the choice of active voice. Although 4 of 8 errors were on subject verb agreement, we do not think that it is an essential error in terms of passivization. Because, our main concern is on the verb; but the decision on the use of singular or plural auxiliary verb is related to the noun in the subject position. The number of errors on ‘sell’ and ‘leave’ are the same. Two of the sources of the errors made on them are also the same; writing it in the active voice and using V1 instead of the past participle. Also, two students do errors on the past participle form of the verb. The same number of errors were made on ‘grow’ and ‘dry2’. The active voice of the verb ‘export’ is preferred by 5 students. Although ‘dry2’ is used incorrectly by 6 students, ‘dry 1’ is used incorrectly by only 3 students. 3 errors were made on ‘roll’, ‘pick’ and ‘transport’ . The verb ‘pass’ was the verb with fewest error in this task. Table 4.2. is given in order to show the distribution of the number of errors according to the types of errors.

Table 4. 2 Types of errors and their distribution

Verbs	Active	V1 instead of V3	Formation of V3	Agr.	Inf.	No aux.
lay out	7	3	9	0	0	0
grade	2	2	0	4	0	0
sell	4	1	2	0	0	0
leave	6	1	0	0	0	0
grow	2	1	0	2	0	1
dry2	0	4	1	0	1	0
export	5	0	0	0	0	0
dry1	0	1	2	0	0	0
roll	0	3	0	0	0	0
pick	1	1	0	0	1	0
transport	2	1	0	0	0	0
pass	0	1	0	0	0	0
Total	29	19	14	6	2	1

According to Table 4.2., a number of errors stem from the use of active voice instead of the passive voice. Total 29 errors were made by using active voice where the passive voice was required.

Another common error is the preference of the base form of verb rather than the past participle of the verb. 19 errors were made by using V1 instead of V3. 'lay out', 'dry2' and 'roll' are the most problematic verbs for students. The reason for it may be their uncertainty of the correct formation of the past participle and their fear of writing it incorrectly. The verb 'dry' is used twice in the text. In the second 'dry', base form is preferred instead of past participle by four students whereas in the first 'dry' base form is preferred rather than past participle by only one student. The context is the same, so the difference in the number of errors of 'dry1' and 'dry2' does not depend on the context. If we comment on the difference in the number of errors of the same verbs, we suggest that the students do not know exactly how to use these words. Therefore, they try different usages in the same text with the expectation of finding the correct one by chance.

The third common error is the incorrect formation of past participle of the verbs. The past participles of 'lay out', 'sell' , 'dry2', and 'dry1', were formed incorrectly. The most problematic one of the incorrectly formed verbs was 'lay out'. 9 of 24 students wrote the past participle of 'lay out' incorrectly; for example, they wrote '*are layed out', 'are laied out', 'are layt out', ' are lied out',* etc. The levels of the students are pre-intermediate, so, this error may stem from the lack of knowledge. They may not know the past participle of many verbs at this level.

Another grammatical error is in the subject-verb agreement. Students at this level make only a few errors in subject-verb agreement. The verbs 'grade' and 'grow' are incorrect in terms of their subject-verb agreement. All others were correct. 4 of 24 students made error in agreement of 'grade' and only 2 of 24 students used singular auxiliary verb with a plural subject while using the verb 'grow'.

The use of infinitive is another error although it is rarely seen. The verbs 'dry2' and 'pick' are used with an infinitive by a student.

The fewest common error is the missing auxiliary. Only one student didn't use the auxiliary verb before the verb 'grow'. All others used the auxiliary verb correctly. The examples of exact errors are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Incorrect use of verbs

Verb	Correct Use	Incorrect Use
lay out	are laid out	lay out are lay out are layed out are laied out are layt out are lied out are laying out are loid out are lie out
grade	is graded	are graded grades grade have been graded
sell	is sold sold have been sold	sells is sell will be selt sell are selt
leave	are left left will be left were left	leave are leave
grow	are grown were grown have been grown	is grown grown grow are grow
dry 2	are dried will be dried dry	are dryed will dry dried are dry are going to dry will be dry are drying is drying to dry
export	is exported exported will be exported have been exported was exported	export exports
dry 1	are dried were dried dry	dried are dryed are dry are drying
roll	roll are rolled were rolled	are roll were roll
pick	are picked	picked are pick to pick
transport	are transported	transport are transport
pass	pass are passed were passed have been passed	passed are pass are passing

We have identified the types of grammatical errors and the frequency of errors made by students. These errors show us that although the students have learnt the passive rule, they still lack of some knowledge of how to use it. Once they decide on whether it should be active or passive, they encounter with other problems such as the incorrect formation of past participle, agreement errors, using base form instead of past participle, using the verb with infinitive and omitting the auxiliary verb.All these kinds of errors indicate that they are at pre-intermediate level and they have a lot to learn although they learnt the passive rule.

In the next task, the students were asked to write a description of the event which was shown step by step in picture sequences. Then, a week later, they were given the same pictures but this time they were asked to describe the events orally. The data collected from this task is shown on the Table 4.4 and Table 4.5.

Table 4.4 Written data of picture sequence task

Number of students	Expected number of passives	No answer	Students' number of actives	Students' number of passives	Correct pass.	Incorrect pass.
1	10	0	6	4	4	0
2	10	0	6	4	3	1
3	10	0	7	3	3	0
4	10	0	6	4	3	1
5	10	0	8	2	2	0
6	10	0	8	2	0	2
7	10	0	5	5	2	3
8	10	0	7	3	1	2
9	10	0	5	5	4	1
10	10	0	6	4	2	2
11	10	0	8	2	2	0
12	10	0	9	1	0	1
13	10	0	7	3	2	1
14	10	0	7	3	3	0
15	10	0	3	7	7	0
16	10	0	9	1	1	0
17	10	0	6	4	4	0
18	10	0	4	6	6	0
19	10	0	4	6	4	2
20	10	0	6	4	3	1
21	10	0	5	5	2	3
22	10	0	5	5	5	0
23	10	0	2	8	7	1
24	10	0	5	5	3	2
Total	240	0	144	96	74	23
Total	100%	0%	60%	40%	76%	24%

Table 4.5 Spoken data of picture sequence task

Number of students	Expected number of passives	No answer	Students' number of actives	Students' number of passives	correct	incorrect
1	10	0	4	6	5	1
2	10	0	6	4	3	1
3	10	0	6	4	2	2
4	10	0	5	5	3	2
5	10	0	2	8	4	4
6	10	0	3	7	4	3
7	10	0	5	5	3	2
8	10	0	3	7	6	1
9	10	0	8	2	1	1
10	10	0	7	3	3	0
11	10	0	8	2	1	1
12	10	0	3	7	4	3
13	10	0	7	3	1	2
14	10	1	5	4	2	2
15	10	0	5	5	1	4
16	10	1	8	1	1	0
17	10	2	6	2	1	1
18	10	2	6	2	1	1
19	10	1	6	3	1	2
20	10	5	1	4	4	0
21	10	0	5	5	0	5
22	10	0	1	9	6	3
23	10	0	2	8	5	3
24	10	0	3	7	2	5
Total	240	12	115	113	64	49
Total	100%	5%	48%	47%	57%	43%

The written and the spoken data have some differences: In the written task, the students used a total of 96 passive sentences, 74 of which are correct and 23 of which are incorrect. On the other hand, the result of the spoken data shows differences in the number of incorrect answers. The students used a total of 113 passive sentences, 64 of which are correct and 49 of which are incorrect. It shows us that although they feel themselves more confident in using passive while speaking, they can not focus on the correctness of the structure.

The tasks which have been analyzed so far were aimed at determining errors related to form which can be attributed to lack of knowledge in the target language. However, the same errors may be originating because of semantic properties of the verbs involved. Therefore, the semantic description of verbs in the fill-in the blanks task is given in Table 4.6, Table 4.7, and Table 4.8.

Table 4.6 Dynamic and stative verbs

Verbs and number of errors		dynamic	stative
Lay out	19		+
Grade	8	+	
Sell	7	+	
Leave	7		+
Grow	6	+	
Dry2	6	+	
Export	5	+	
Dry1	3	+	
Roll	3	+	
Pick	3	+	
Transport	3	+	
pass	1	+	

Most of the verbs with different number of errors such as *grow (6), pick (3), pass (1), export (5), sell (7),* etc. are dynamic verbs. Therefore, there is not an obvious relationship between the verbs' 'dynamic' situation type and their error rate. The types of dynamic verbs are given in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Types of dynamic verbs

Dynamic verbs & number of errors		event	process	durative	punctual	telic	atelic	inchoative	resultative
Grade	8	+			+	+			+
Sell	7	+		+		+			+
Grow	6		+	+			+	+	
Dry2	6		+	+		+			+
Export	5	+		+		+			+
Dry1	3		+	+		+			+
Roll	3		+	+			+	+	
Pick	3	+			+	+			+
transport	3	+		+		+			+
pass	1		+	+		+			+

Verbs which are described as 'events' are *grade, sell, export, pick and transport.* They differ from each other in terms of the number of errors. For example, *pick* is used incorrectly by 3 students whereas *sell* is used incorrectly by 7 students. Process verbs in this task are *dry (6), pass (1)* and *roll (3)* which differ in the number of student errors. Durative verbs differ in their number of errors. For example, *lay out (19)* and *pass (1)* are in the same category. *Grade (8),* and *pick (3)* are punctual

verbs with different number of errors. When we consider telic and atelic verbs, we find verbs with the same error rate from both categories. For example, tr*ansport* and *roll* are used incorrectly by 3 students but they differ in their telicity. *Dry* and *grow* are used incorrectly by 6 students but *dry* is telic whereas *grow* is atelic. The verbs *dry* and *pass* share the same semantic properties but they differ in their number of errors. All of the verbs except *grow* and *roll* are resultative and they differ in their number of errors. Table 4.8 shows state, activity, accomplishment and achievement verbs.

Table 4.8 Semantic distinctions of the verbs

Verbs & number of errors		states	activities	accomplishments	achievements
lay out	19	+			
grade	8				+
sell	7				+
leave	7	+			
grow	6		+		
dry2	6			+	
export	5				+
dry1	3			+	
roll	3		+		
pick	3				+
transport	3			+	
pass	1			+	

Lay out and *leave* are state verbs with different number of errors. Activity verbs are also different in terms of their number of errors. *Dry2* and *pass* are accomplishments; however, *dry2* is used incorrectly by 6 students and *pass* is used incorrectly by only 1 student. *Grade* with 8 errors and *pick* with only three errors are also in the same category. Although both of them achievements, they differ in their number of errors.Thus, we can infer from these data that semantic situation types do not play an important role on student errors.

The second task which was about making a description of a picture sequence is not suitable to make semantic analysis because focus is on the verbs. Although students are provided key words, most of them preferred not to use them. They made sentences about pictures by using their own verbs. They made sentences such as 'The robbers decided to rob the bank.' 'There was a bank.' 'The money is put into the

bag.' 'The man was hit'. Another factor that prevents us from analyzing it semantically is that they misunderstood some key words. They construct sentences such as 'The bank is robbered' and 'Security is tidied up'. All of the keywords were verbs but some of them judged them as if they were nouns. For example, they used the verb *identify* in sentences such as 'The police found identify', 'Their identify is found', 'The test is brushed' etc. Due to the fact that the students did not used some of the given verbs, the analysis can not be made on all of them.

The tasks that we have discussed above require only passive sentences, therefore, they do not provide us any information about the overpassivisation errors of L2 learners of English whose L1 is Turkish. Thus, a grammaticality judgement test which contains 20 transitive, and 20 intransitive verbs is applied to 24 pre-intermediate level students at YADİM in Çukurova University. Table 4.9 shows that most of the errors are done when the sentence contains an intransitive verb. The students did a total of 257 errors of passivization 54 of which were made using transitive verbs, 203 of which were made using intransitive verbs.

Table 4.9 Total number of errors

Total number of passive errors	Total number of errors with transitive verbs	Total number of errors with intransitive verbs
257	54	203
100%	21%	79%

The transitive verbs used incorrectly are presented in the following table. The participants of this study used *help* with the most errors. *Teach* is used incorrectly by 6 students. *Take* and *see* with 5 errors, and *make, plant* and *wash* with 4 errors are also problematic for students. 3 students made error on *brush* and *invite*, and 2 students made error on *throw, open, rob,* and *sell*.

The number of errors on *build, kill, clean* and *write* was only 1 and no errors were done on the verbs *paint, steal* and *send.* (Table 4.10)

Table 4.10 Number of errors on transitive verbs

Transitive verbs	Number of errors	Number of correct answers
help	8	16
teach	6	18
take	5	19
see	5	19
make	4	20
plant	4	20
wash	4	20
brush	3	21
invite	3	21
throw	2	22
open	2	22
rob	2	22
sell	2	22
build	1	23
kill	1	23
clean	1	23
write	1	23
paint	0	24
steal	0	24
send	0	24

Only transitive verbs allow passivisation in English whereas it is possible to make passives from both intransitives and transitives in Turkish. Intransitive verbs are divided into two groups as unaccusatives and unergatives.

(249) John went into the classroom.
(250) The vase fell onto the floor.

Thematically, the verb in (249) take Agent, and that in (250) Theme. In terms of argument structure, the verb in (249) takes external argument, that in (250)

internal argument. The verb in (249) is an unergative verb and that in (250) is an unaccusative verb. Therefore, the argument structure of verbs *stay, work, escape, cry, exit, sneeze, dance, play and pass* is the same as the verb in (249) and the argument structure of verbs *perish, die, appear, freeze, shine, collapse, grow, leak and melt* is the same as the verb in (250).

The two types of verbs are represented differently in the argument structure and in the syntactic structure, as shown below:

(251) a. unergative: x < >

b. unaccusative: <x>

As it is shown in Table 4.11, 114 of 203 errors were on the unergative verbs and 89 of total errors were on unaccusative verbs. This table shows us that one of our hypothesis is not realized. We predicted the students to make more errors on unaccusative verbs but the participants of this study made more errors on unergative verbs.

Table 4.11 Total errors and their distribution between unergatives and unaccusatives

Total number of errors with intransitive verbs	Total number of errors with unergatives	Total number of errors with unaccusatives
203	114	89
100%	56%	44%

Table 4.12 shows the unergative verbs and the number of errors. Most of the errors were made on the verbs *pass (19), play (16)* and *dance (14).* 11 errors were made on *go* and *exit. Sneeze* is overpassivized by 10 participants. *Work* and *cry* are made passive by 9 students. *Stay* (8) and *escape* (7) were the verbs with fewest errors.

Table 4.12 Number of errors on unergatives

Unergative verbs	Number of errors	Number of correct answers
pass	19	5
play	16	8
dance	14	10
go	11	13
exit	11	13
sneeze	10	14
work	9	15
cry	9	25
stay	8	16
escape	7	17

The following table shows the unaccusative verbs and the number of errors. *Leak* was the verb with most errors. *Fall, grow* and *melt* were also among the most incorrectly used verbs. The overpassivisation of *die, shine, collapse* are judged grammatical by 9 students. *Perish, freeze* and *appear* have the fewest errors.

Table 4.13 Number of errors on unaccusatives

Unaccusative verbs	Number of errors	Number of correct answers
leak	12	12
fall	11	13
grow	11	13
melt	11	13
die	9	15
shine	9	15
collapse	9	15
perish	6	18
freeze	6	18
appear	5	19

The errors on unergative verbs are more than the errors on unaccusative verbs. The data of this study shows us that one of our hypohesis is wrong. At the beginning of this study, we expected the students to make more errors on unaccusative verbs. However, the data showed us that they made more errors on unergatives. Thus, the source of overpassivisation errors is not the unaccusative verbs as Perlmutter (1978) suggests. Students made errors on both types of verbs and the difference in the number of unaccusative errors and unergative errors is not significant. Thus, we can conclude that students passivize intransitive verbs in English and the type of the intransitive verb does not have an essential effect on the error. The reason for making passives from intransitives in English is their first language which allows passive constructions of intransitive verbs. In other words, the reason of the student errors of overpassivisation is L1 interference.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, summary of results are given and conclusion is drawn depending on the analysis of data. Then, recommendations are made for future research. Finally, implications for practice are presented.

5.1. Summary and Conclusion

Turkish students who learn English as a foreign language make many errors on the passivisation of verbs. In this study, we intended to find out the types of student errors on English passive construction and the underlying sources of these errors.

The errors in passivisation that Turkish learners of English as a foreign language make are analyzed in two ways. Firstly errors which occur because of the lack of the grammatical knowledge is identified. The most common errors were the use of active voice instead of the passive voice, preference of the base form of verb rather than the past participle, incorrect formation of past participle of the verbs. Another grammatical error is found in the subject-verb agreement. Since the profeciency level of students are pre-intermediate, many grammatical errors are found. However, the only reason was not the lack of grammatical knowledge. Although they learn the rules of passive, they still make errors on some verbs. They overpassivize some verbs. During the research, we tried to investigate whether these errors occur when certain verbs are used or not.

We focused on the transitive - intransitive, and unergative – unaccusative distinction in English and took the Unaccusative Hypothesis proposed by Perlmutter (1978) as the basis of this study.

Although we expected students to make more errors on unaccusative verbs following the study of Perlmutter (1978), the participants of this study made more errors on unergatives. However, the difference between them was not significant. Then, we considered the semantic description of the verbs used in the tasks but we could not find a relation between the errors and the semantic descriptions of verbs, either.

In this study, we found out that errors in passive are mostly based on transitive / intransitive distinction. As Turkish allows passive construction from intransitive verbs, Turkish students who learn English as a foreign language try to passivize English intransitive verbs. In other words, there seems to be an L1 interference on L2 English.

5.2. Recommendations for Future Research

The present study was intended to find out the types of errors in passivisation and the sources of these errors. Since the study was conducted in only one setting, Çukurova University, the results can not be generalized for different situations. The study can be duplicated in other Turkish universities for a comparison of results.

In this study we did not give a free-writing activity to the participants. Passivisation errors in the students' exam papers may also be analyzed.

The participants of this study were pre-intermediate students at YADİM in Çukurova University. Another research might be directed to compare the error rates and error types of students from advanced level to investigate whether the number and types of errors differ as their proficiency levels change.

5.3. Implications of the Study

Passive is a complex phenomena for a lot of Turkish learners of English as a foreign language. Student errors are valuable because, they not only lead researchers to find out the underlying sources of these errors but also guide language teachers to provide ways of reducing these errors.

In this study, most of the grammatical errors were found on the form of past participle. Some students preferred using base form instead of past participle and some others produced past participle forms with incorrect spelling. Teachers should not teach passive voice unless they are sure that the students know past participles of irregular verbs. If there is a lack of knowledge on the form of V3, the teacher should make a review of this subject.

Another error found in some passive sentences was the subject-verb agreement. Before teaching passive, teachers should focus on the subject-verb agreement in the preceeding lessons.

The data showed us that some students prefer using active voice where the passive voice sounds more appropriate. In traditional education, students are given transformation exercises from active to passive or from passive to active. Therefore, they are not aware of the fact that passive voice is not just another way of expressing a proposition which can also be expressed in the active voice. Although it may be syntactically possible to express the same idea in the active sentence by using a passive construction, passive voice has a significance on its own and there are some situations where passive voice is preferred over the active voice. Thus, students should be taught where to use passive voice. It's also useful to provide them with authentic material where passive constructions are used. For example, texts describing a process such as recepies and manuals can provide the students a real context for passives. A newspaper article which includes a lot of passive sentences may help the students to see this construction in a real context. With the help of this kind of material, students will realize that passive is more appropriate in some contexts.

There is a need to make the students and teachers aware of the fact that L1 interference is a problem that may affect the students who learn English as a foreign language. Data of this study shows that Turkish students who learn English as a foreign language passivize intransitives. English does not allow passivisation of intransitives whereas Turkish does. Therefore, teachers can compare the structures and focus on the similarities and differences between their L1 and EFL.

REFERENCES

Allen, W.Stannard (1992) *Living English Structure,* Longman, Hong Kong.

Balcom, P. (1997) Why is this happened? Passive morphology and unaccusativity. *Second Language Research*, 13(1):1-9

Chuming, W. (1995) Semantic structure theory and L2 learning of English adjectival particles. In: *Proceedings of the 19th Boston University Conference on Language Development.* Boston, MA, 291-302

Collins, W. (1990) *Collins Cobuild English Grammar*, Collins publishers, London.

Cromer, R. F. (1976) Developmental strategies for learning. In V. Hamilton and M. D. Vernon (eds.) *The development of cognitive processes*. London and New York: Academic Press. 30, 435, 460

Demuth, K. (1989) Maturation and the Acquisition of the Sesotho Passive. *Language* 65,56–80

Dyson, J. (2001) Exploring use of English, İstanbul: Best Kitabevi

Fletcher, P. and Garman, M., eds (1986) *Language Acquisition*, 2nd ed. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press

Fletcher, P. and Mc Whinney, B. (1995) *The Handbook of Child Language*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishers Ltd.

Golinkoff, R. And Hirsh-Pasek, K. (1995) Reinterpreting children's sentence comprehension: Toward a new framework. In P. Fletcher and B. MacWhinney eds., *The Handbook of child language. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.*

Göksel, A. (1993) *Levels of representation and argument structure in Turkish* Unpublished Ph D. Dissertation, University of London.

Graver, B.D. (1990) *Advanced English Practice,* Oxford, OUP

Greenfield, P.M. & Smith, J.H. (1976) *The structure of communication in early language development.* N.Y.: Academic Press.

Haris, A. (1982) Georgean and the unaccusative hypothesis. *Language* 58: 290–306

Hubbard, P. L. (1994) Nontransformational theories of grammar: Implications for language teaching. In T. Odlin (Ed.), *Perspectives on pedagogical grammar* (pp. 49–71). New York: Cambridge University Press

Hubbard, P.L. & Hix, D. (1988) Where vocabulary meets grammar: verb subcategorization errors in ESL writers. *CATESOL Journal*, 89–100.

Katamba, F. (1993) *Morphology.* Macmillan: Basingstoke.

Knecht, L. (1986) *Subject and object in Turkish.* Unpublished Ph. D. Dissertation, MIT.

Kornfilt, J. (1988) "NP-deletion and Case Marking in Turkish, in Koç. S. (ed.) *Studies on Turkish Linguistics*. Ankara: Middle East Technical University Press.

Legendre, G. (1989) Unaccusativity in French. *Lingua* 79, 95 164

Levin, B. (1989) *English Verb Classes and Alternations*: A Preliminary Investigation. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Levin, B. & Rappaport, M. (1986) "The formation of adjectival passives". *Linguistic Inquiry* 17: 623–661

Maratsos, M. P. & Abramovitch, R. (1975) How children understand full, truncated, and anomalous passives. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior* 14. 145–157

Maratsos, M.P., Kuczaj, S.A., II, Fox, D.E., & Chalkley, M. (1979) Some empirical studies in the acquisition of transformational relations: Passives, negatives, and the past tense. In W.A. Collins (Ed.), *Minnesota Symposium on Child Psychology,* Vol. 12. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Eclbaum Associates

Montrul, S. (1997) *Transitivity alternations in second language acquisition: A crosslinguistic study of English, Spanish, and Turkish.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, McGill University, Montreal, Quebec.

Murphy, R. (1985) *English grammar in use*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Nakipoğlu, M. (1998) *Split intransitivity and the syntax-semantics interface in Turkish*. Unpublished Ph. D. Dissertation, University of Minnesota.

Oshita, H. (2000) What is happened may not be what appears to be happening: A corpus study of "passive" unaccusatives in L2 English. *Second Language Research*, 16, 293–324.

Özkaragöz, İ. (1980) Evidence from Turkish for the unaccusative hypothesis. In Bruce R. Caron, Meredith A. B. Hoffman, Marilyn Silva, and Jeanne Van Oosten, editors, *Proceedings of the Sixth Annual Meeting of the Berkeley Linguistics Society*, pages 411–421, University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley Linguistics Society.

Özkaragöz, İ. (1986) "Monoclausal Double Passives in Turkish," in Slobin, D. and Zimmer, K.(eds.), *Studies in Turkish Linguistics*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins

Perlmutter, D. (1978) *Impersonal passives and the unaccusative hypothesis* (BLS No. 4). University of California at Berkeley, Berkeley Linguistics Society.

Pollock, C. W. (1997) *Communicate what you mean*. New Jersey, Prentice Hall Inc.

Richards, J. C. (1973) A noncontrastive approach to error analysis. In Oller, J. W. Jr. And Richards, J. C., editors, *Focus on the learner: pragmatic perspectives for the language teacher*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 96–113.

Rosen, C. (1984) The Interface between Semantic Roles and Initial Grammatical Relations. In David Perlmutter and Carol Rosen (eds.), *Studies in Relational Grammar 2*. Chicago, Univ. of Chicago Press.

Rutherford, W. E. (1987) *Second language grammar: learning and teaching.* London: Longman.

Sebüktekin, H. (1971) *Turkish-English Contrastive Analysis*, Mouton.

Slobin D. I. and Aksu, A. A. (1980) Acquisition of Turkish. In Slobin D. I. (1985) *The Crosslinguistic study of language acquisition.* Hillsade. Nj Erbaum p. 527

Sofu (1995) *Acquisition of lexicon in Turkish* Unpublished Ph. D. Dissertation, Adana: Çukurova University

Steinberg, L. & Meyer, R. (1995) *Childhood*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Swan, M. (1980) *Practical English usage*. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Şahinel, M. (1988) *A Diagnostic study of the use of English passive constructions by Turkish students learning English as a foreign language* Unpublished MA Thesis, Eskişehir, Anadolu University

Tarzi, M. (1983) *The Analysis of Turkish Passives in Discourse*, Boğaziçi Ü. M. A. Thesis

Underhill, R. (1980) *Turkish Grammar*, Massachusetts: The Massachusetts Institute of Technology

Yip, V. (1990) Interlanguage ergative constructions and learnability. *CUHK Papers in Linguistics: Vol. 2* (pp. 45–68). Hong Kong, Chinese University.

Zobl, H. (1989) Canonical structures and ergativity. In S. M. Gass & J. Schachter (Eds.), *Linguistic perspectives on second language acquisition* (pp. 203–221). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Appendix 1

Read the text and then put the verbs in brackets into the correct form of the passive.

THE PRODUCTION OF TEA

Tea plants (1) ……(grow) in fields and their green leaves (2) ……. (pick) by hand. Then they (3) …… (transport) to a factory, usually by a truck.

Here they (4) …… (dry) on shelves made of nylon. When they have lost some of their moisture they (5) …… (pass) through rolling machines.

When the leaves (6) …… (roll) they (7) …… (lay out) on tables and (8) …… (leave) to take in oxygen from the air. As they do this, they turn brown. Next, the leaves (9) …… (dry) in a stream of hot air, and at this point they turn black.

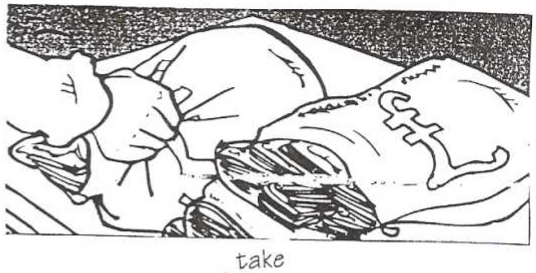
Finally, the tea (10) …… (grade) according to its quality before (11) ……..(export) all over the world and (12) …… (sell) in shops.

Appendix 2

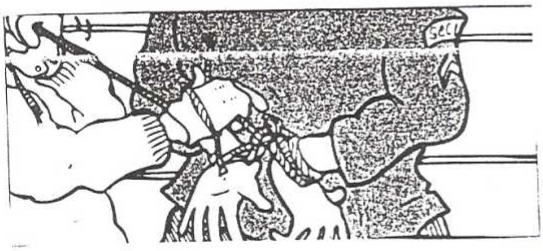
THE ROBBERY



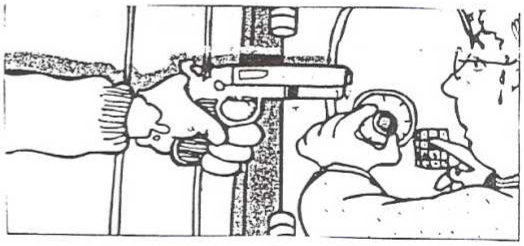
rob



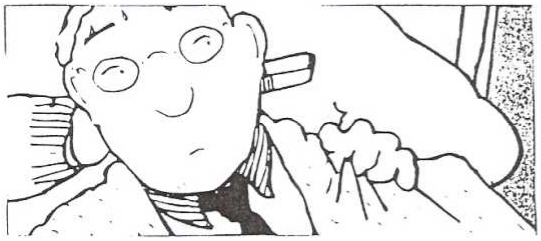
take



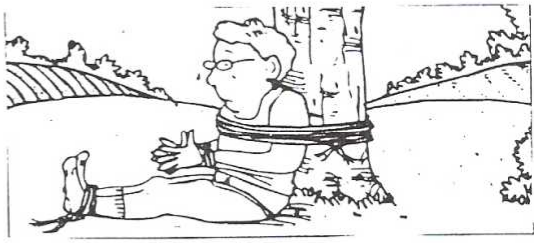
tie up



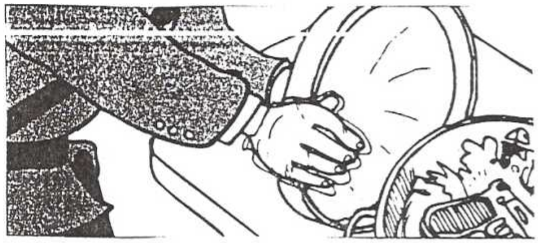
tell / open



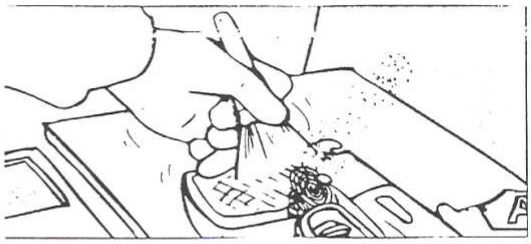
take hostage



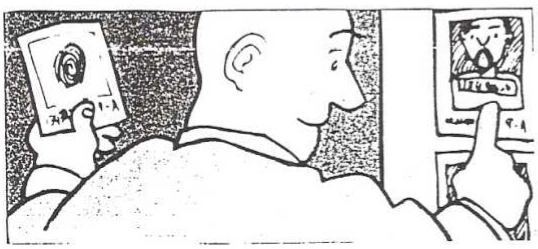
find



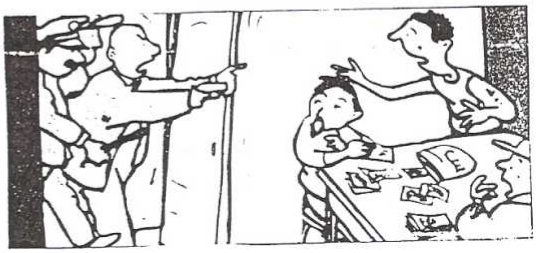
find



test



identify



catch

Appendix 3

Circle "T" if the sentence is grammatically true, circle "F" if the sentence is grammatically false.

1. The moon is shined over the lake. T / F

2. The walls were painted an hour ago. T / F

3. Birthday presents were opened at the party. T / F

4. The audience were exited from the hall. T / F

5. Three apples were fallen from the sky. T / F

6. A paragraph was written. T / F

7. The ball is played in the garden. T / F

8. The water is leaked from the pipe. T / F

9. That letter was sent to England. T / F

10. The sun is appeared from the horizon every morning. T / F

11. Her hair is brushed easily. T / F

12. All of the 3rd year lessons were passed. T / F

13. Maths is taught in school. T / F

14. My car was stolen. T / F

15. New buildings are built every year. T / F

16. Three hundred people were perished in the earthquake. T / F

17. It is often sneezed in this weather. T / F

18. The oak trees were planted in the time of Napoleon. T / F

19. The rubbish was thrown away. T / F

20. This hotel is stayed during the vacation. T / F

21. The old man was killed in his house T/ F

22. People are not escaped from prison. T / F

23. Children are grown in this orphenage. T / F

24. A terrible mistake was made last year. T / F

25. City bank was robbed yesterday. T / F

26. At her birthday party, it was danced until the midnight. T / F

27. The homeless people are helped. T / F

28. The ice-cream is melted. T / F

29. All the tickets were sold. T / F

30. It is worked very much for the exam. T / F

31. Photographs are not taken in this museum. T / F

32. Ankara was gone last weekend. T / F

33. In this area, it is died at an early age because of cancer. T / F

34. The house is cleaned everyday. T / F

35. This T-shirt is washed at high heat. T / F

36. This lake is frozen in winter. T / F

37. His family was cried for his death. T / F

38. Everybody is invited to the party. T / F

39. John was seen in the library yesterday. T / F

40. My uncle's chair is collapsed under his weight. T / F

CURRICULUM VITAE

Name	Özlem KURTOĞLU
Date of Birth	June 11, 1980
Place of Birth	Hildesheim
Address	Yeşilyurt Mah. 116 Sok. No: 11 Seyhan/ADANA
Telephone	0 537 350 66 84
E-mail	ozlemkurtoglu77@hotmail.com

ACADEMIC

Degree	Date	Department	Institution
M.A.	June, 2006	ELT	Çukurova University, Adana
B.A.	June, 2003	Linguistics	Mersin University, Mersin
Certificate of English Teaching	2002	ELT	Mersin University, Mersin

EMPLOYMENT

Date	Place	Duty
February, 2006	Sumbas Ç.P.L., Osmaniye	Teacher