

KARADENİZ TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY * INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF WESTERN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

MASTER'S PROGRAM IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS

**A CORPUS-BASED SEMANTIC PROSODIC ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH INTENSIFIERS
IN NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE CORPORA WITH A SPECIAL FOCUS TO THEIR
USAGE PATTERNS AND EVALUATIVE MEANINGS**

MASTER'S THESIS

Neslihan KELEŞ

MAY - 2019

TRABZON

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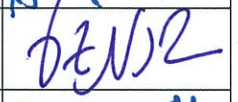

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APPROVAL

Upon the submission of the dissertation, **Neslihan KELEŞ** has defended the study “**A Corpus-Based Semantic Prosodic Analysis of English Intensifiers in Native and Non-native Corpora with a Special Focus to Their Usage Patterns and Evaluative Meanings**” in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in English Language and Literature at Karadeniz Technical University, and the study has been found fully adequate in scope and quality as a thesis by **unanimous / ~~majority~~** vote on **21.06.2019**

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ÖZET

Bu tezin amacı İngilizce’de yer alan pekiştireçlerin ana dili İngilizce ve ana dili Türkçe olan üniversite seviyesindeki yabancı dil öğrencileri tarafından tartışmacı yazılar içerisindeki kullanım sıklığını, kullanım şekillerini ve anlamlarını yerli ve yabancı derlem verilerine dayalı olarak anlamsal bürün (semantik prozodi) açısından incelemektir. Pekiştireçler, yazılı anlatımdaki ifadeleri güçlendiren ve vurgulayan zarf niteliğinde sözcüklerdir. Son yıllarda dil bilimi alanında birçok çalışmaya konu olan semantik prozodi kavramı ise dil birimlerinin ve sözcük gruplarının örtülü biçimde taşıdığı olumlu olumsuz veya nötr anlam yüklerinin belli bir semantik ortamda kullanılma eğilimi olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Bu çalışma metodolojik açıdan karşılaştırmalı ara dil analizini benimsemektedir. Bu konuda yapılan araştırmaların ancak bilgisayar destekli derlem (corpus) verileri ile objektif bir şekilde incelenebilmesi mümkün olabilmektedir. Bu bağlamda, internet destekli derlem arayüzü olarak Sketch Engine programı kullanılmış olup çalışmaya konu olan hedef pekiştireçler üç derlemin karşılaştırılması ile anlamsal bürün açısından incelenmiştir. KTUCLE, TICLE ve LOCNESS derlemleri çalışmamızda temel alınan yerli ve yabancı derlem kaynakları olarak kullanılmıştır. KTUCLE İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı öğrencilerinin yazma (writing) dersinden elde edilen 709,748 kelimelik bir öğrenci derlemidir. Uluslararası Öğrenci Derlemi (ICLE)’nin bir alt derlemi olan 199,532 kelime içerikli TICLE çalışmamızdaki ikinci öğrenci derlemidir. Araştırmamızın referans derlemi olan LOCNESS ise anadili İngilizce olan öğrencilerin makalelerinden elde edilen 361,054 kelimedenden oluşan genel bir derlemidir. Verilerin incelenmesi neticesinde üniversite düzeyindeki Türk yabancı dil öğrencilerinin kısıtlı pekiştireçleri kullandıkları ve bu pekiştireçlerin anlamsal bürün ve eşdizim açısından farkındalık düzeylerinin düşük olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Ayrıca ana dili İngilizce olmayan öğrencilerin kullanım ve anlam bakımından birbirine yakın pekiştireçleri sıkça kullanmayı tercih ettikleri görülmektedir. Bu çalışmanın önemi yerli derlemlerin yabancı derlemlerle karşılaştırılarak incelenmesi neticesinde anadili İngilizce olmayan öğrencilerin hedef dilde yazmada pekiştireçleri kullanım şekilleri ve anlam bakımından farkındalıkları yabancı dilde kelime öğrenimine pedagojik açıdan ışık tutmaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Anlamsal Bürün, Pekiştireçler, Tartışmacı Yazı, Öğrenci Derlemi

ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of the present study is to investigate semantic prosodic nature of intensifiers used by both native speakers of English and Turkish students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners in their expository and argumentative essays along with a special focus on their overall distribution and usage patterns. Intensifiers are degree adverbials modifying attitudinal or evaluative meaning in written production. Semantic prosody, on the other hand, refers to a hidden meaning, either positive, negative or neutral, which is revealed when certain node words frequently collocate with other words from different semantic sets. The study mainly adopts the methodology of Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis by Granger (1996) in nature. A comparative corpus research on the semantic prosodic analysis of intensifiers can simply and objectively be conducted with the help of special corpus tools in a computerized environment. In this regard, the study investigating the semantic prosodic analysis of ten target intensifiers (the maximizers *absolutely*, *completely*, *entirely*, *fully*, *perfectly*, *totally*, and *utterly* as well as the boosters *very*, *so*, and *too*) utilizes Sketch Engine as the concordancer to compare three distinct corpora; KTUCLE (Karadeniz Technical University Corpus of Learner English) together with TICLE for non-native corpora and LOCNESS (Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays) for native corpus. The local learner corpus of the study, KTUCLE, contains essays written by the students of a Turkish university called Karadeniz Technical University and consists of 709,749 words. The second learner corpora is TICLE, as Turkish sub-corpus of ICLE (International Corpus of Learner English), comprises 223,449 tokens in total. It is a collection of argumentative essays written by Turkish adult learners of English. The reference corpus called LOCNESS contains essays of native speakers and includes a total of 361,054 words. The results of the data analysis concludes that tertiary level EFL learners use rather limited range of maximizers such as *completely* and *totally*, and they have little semantic prosodic awareness about their usage. They predominantly prefer using boosters such as *very* which are open-ended in use and can be interchangeably used in all written discourse. This study is significant for revealing semantic prosodic behavior of non-native EFL learners concerning intensifier use and providing pedagogical implications for phraseological skills in foreign language learning.

Keywords: Semantic Prosody, Intensifiers, Argumentative Writing, Learner Corpus

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BNC	: British National Corpus
CIA	: Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis
CLC	: Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis
EA	: Error Analysis
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
IL	: Interlanguage
KTUCLE	: Karadeniz Technical University Corpus of Learner English
L1	: First Language
LL	: Log-likelihood Ratio
LOCNESS	: Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays
NL	: Native Language
NNS	: Non-native Speakers
NS	: Native Speakers
SLA	: Second Language Acquisition
SP	: Semantic Prosody
TICLE	: Turkish International Corpus of Learner English
TL	: Target Language

INTRODUCTION

English is “– *the language - on which the sun does not set, whose users never sleep*”
(Quirk, 1985: 1)

There has been an increase in the number of non-native speakers of English worldwide; even they greatly outnumber native ones at present time. The emergence and spread of English as the world’s first global language, namely as lingua franca, has fundamentally altered the focus of linguistic studies paving the way for teaching and learning it in an efficient way. Foreign language acquisition at tertiary level has been a controversial issue for decades in places where English is not the first language. This fact has been certainly valid in Turkey where English language is the medium of instruction in many universities today.

University students come across a wide range of challenges and adaptations, many of which involve even the process of learning a new language (Biber, 2006: 1). Most tertiary level students as non-native learners of English as a Foreign Language (henceforth, EFL) may not be furnished with an adequate theoretical knowledge on the target language, so they are likely to encounter some challenges in putting what they have learned into practice. In other words, even advanced level of EFL learners may not be well-equipped with vocabulary and grammar rules; hence, they may not be capable of achieving a proficiency and accuracy in writing skills. According to Pawley and Syder (1983), the sentences that they generate can be acceptable and correct in terms of grammar, but they may lack “idiomaticity” and “nativeness” (as cited in Wang, 2017: 3). More specifically, Lorenz (1998: 53) claimed that advanced learners are typically considered as ‘advanced’ for being able to command the “basic rules of syntax and morphology”. The students’ diversion from the native-like usage, particularly in written production, creates an impact of foreign sounding or leads to “lack of idiomaticity” (Lorenz, 1998: 53).

It is obvious that while acquiring a new language, the EFL learners may inevitably experience difficulty in putting words together in a meaningful way. This is considerably because a good command of vocabulary has the central place in language learning process. As Levelt (1989: 181) puts forward, “the lexicon is the driving force behind sentence production.” According to Meara (1980: 221), English learners unhesitatingly accept the truth that they have serious problems in learning vocabulary. After overcoming the early stages of foreign language learning process, almost all of them agree on the point that the vocabulary acquisition still remains a difficult area to learn. Undoubtedly, writing, as a productive language skill, can be regarded as one of the most

problematic ways of language use by learners. Thus, the importance of mastering vocabulary in writing has entailed more involvement of both EFL learners and researchers in this problematic area.

The ability to write in foreign language is becoming increasingly fundamental, especially for academic purposes; thus, productive knowledge of tertiary level EFL learners is considered to be worth of further investigation through corpus linguistics. In other saying, it is emphasized by Leech (1998: xviii) that according to most of the EFL learners, writing is an extremely significant competency, and it is valuable for creating corpora from written learner language. In writing, the potential problems and errors are inevitable with a limited amount of English that the language learners have acquired during their interlanguage development. Thus, much attention is required to be given to interlanguage development level of EFL learners so as to throw light on their awareness of language use, especially in writing. The term “interlanguage (IL)” can be comprehended easily when it is considered as a continuing process between first language and foreign language that the language learners take part in actively and progress in time (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991: 60). To understand the concept better, interlanguage can be defined as a state of language learning process where target language (L2) is not completely acquired yet, and it still carries the traces of mother tongue (L1).

One of the many ways eliciting the features of interlanguage is to investigate the awareness of EFL learners on semantic prosody, which can be described in a way, in which a hidden meaning, either positive, negative or neutral, is revealed when certain node words frequently collocate with other words from different semantic sets. Partington (1998) highlights that it is important for non-native learners to have knowledge of semantic prosody in order to understand “what is grammatically possible in their language production” as well as which is proper to use and what really occurs (as cited in Fuqua, 2014: 79). Furthermore, being aware of semantic prosodic aspect of a language helps language learners and interpreters to make a distinction among synonymous words (Morley and Partington, 2009: 140). According to Chief et al. (2000), many language users or learners have to select certain words between lexical options which are provided by context or their own mental lexicon, either consciously or unconsciously. The choice of the most contextually appropriate word may not be easy for near-synonymous ones in terms of nuances and collocational restrictions (as cited in Kara, 2017: 97). Intensifiers are among these near-synonymous words with which foreign language learners frequently come across in daily life and struggle to choose correctly between these items having nearly the same meaning. For Biber et al. (1999), the use of English intensifiers differs in spoken and written production, and the frequency of intensifiers is found to be more abundant in writing than in speaking (as cited in Dong and Chiu, 2013: 32). In this sense, this particular corpus-based study concentrates upon semantic prosodic analysis of intensifiers in Turkish learners’ academic writing and attempts to investigate whether there are any influences of interlanguage development on their intensifier use.

Intensifiers in current English belong to a group of words typically functioning as adverb or adverbials. Portner (2006: 149) states that there is a wide range of adverbials in world languages, and it can be difficult to explain what the best way is to comprehend all of them. On the importance of using intensifiers, Lobov (1984: 43) states that “at the heart of social and emotional expression is the linguistic feature of intensity.” Partington (1993: 178) describes intensification as “a direct indication of a speaker’s desire to use and exploit the expression of hyperbole.” In addition, he underlines the significance of intensification for a successful conversation by adding that intensifiers are generally used for strengthening the messages by affecting, approving or even insulting to affect the receivers’ perception.

The EFL learners use different kinds of intensifiers in writing. “Although syntactically marginal, adjective intensification plays a major role in spoken and written interaction” (Lorenz, 1998: 53). Novice writers might know dictionary meaning of intensifiers in English language; however, they may ignore all other functions or contextual use of them. Gong and Wu (2012: 4) points out that conventional dictionaries are inadequate for presenting additional knowledge on various “usages, collocations, and connotative meanings for lexical words.” Therefore, it remains a problem for foreign language learners and interpreters to use the vocabulary of the target language like a native speaker. Another problem concerning the EFL learners’ use of intensifiers in written discourse is L1 transfer. For example, most of the English intensifiers having some nuances in meaning have the same equivalence in Turkish language. Therefore, Turkish EFL learners may get difficulty in making a selection among English intensifiers which sounds more proper in certain semantic sets. Restraining themselves from using a wide range of intensifiers in writing, they tend to write with a limited set of intensifiers like *very* in order to eliminate the potential of making mistakes. It is quite necessary to gain better insight into underlying problems of non-native learners of English language while using intensifiers in their written essays, whether they overuse or underuse them, or they neglect semantic prosodic nature of intensification.

The best and most convenient way to carry out an elaborative semantic prosodic analysis of intensifiers can only be possible by a computerized corpus analysis. “It should be borne in mind that semantic prosody is a relatively new concept and as such requires careful elaboration” (Steward, 2010: 54). “The use of corpus for lexical investigation is not a recent phenomenon but its full significance and value has, in the last decade, been realized especially after the introduction of computerized corpus tools by a much larger group of linguists all around globe” (Özbay and Kayaoğlu, 2016: 343). It is an undeniable truth that human intuition cannot be adequate alone for disclosing semantic prosodic properties of certain word sets. Native speakers can sometimes make accurate exemplifications on collocations, but they may not give precise estimations about their frequency and overall distribution (Stubbs, 1995: 24). Hunston (2007) also claims that it would hardly be possible to determine the prosodic profile of a word without the technological advances in the methodology of corpus linguistics. Thanks to corpus linguistics, the study of semantic

prosody has become feasible even on larger language data. This corpus-based study aims at investigating EFL learner's semantic prosodic behavior while using English intensifiers in written production in comparison to native speakers.

Apart from this introductory part, the current thesis has four main chapters that are framework of the study, literature review, methodology, and findings and discussions as well as a final part presenting conclusion and suggestions along with limitations, pedagogical implications.



CHAPTER ONE

1. FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

1.1. Introduction

The first chapter which is divided into seven subheadings presents the background of the study, statement of the problem, significance and purpose of the study, main research questions, operational definitions and outline of the thesis. The background part highlights the importance of computerized learner corpora in corpus linguistics as well as Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis as the research methodology of the thesis. Then, the main problem of the study is discussed in the light of the research questions. Next part introduces the significance and aim of the research which tries to investigate semantic prosodic analysis of intensifiers in terms of their usage patterns and meanings based on native versus non-native corpora. Finally, the first chapter ends with the operational definitions used in both theoretical and methodological background of the thesis, and it outlines the research as a whole.

1.2. Background of the Study

Corpus linguistics, to a great extent, has been facilitating the studies on semantic prosody in recent years. This explanation can be supported with McEnery and Wilson's argument (2001: 1-2) which asserts that corpus linguistics works on 'real life' evidences, and it is "a methodology rather than an aspect of language requiring explanation or description." In an attempt to illuminate corpus linguistics further, it would be a wise step to touch upon the definition of 'corpus' in the first place. For Atkins and Clear (1992), "a corpus is a body of text assembled according to explicit design criteria for a specific purpose" (as cited in Granger, 1998: 7). As Francis (1982) defines, corpus is "a collection of texts assumed to be representative of a given language, dialect, or other subset of a language, to be used for linguistic analysis (as cited in Tognini-Bonelli, 2001: 53). Corpus linguistics, which has gained much attention in language teaching area, is valued by Biber and Conrad (2001: 332) in the way that corpus is of high importance because it holds natural evidences in a context, and it also provides a new insight with its quantitative analysis without which it could be otherwise impossible for researchers to examine linguistic patterns.

One of the pioneers of corpus linguistics, Granger (1998: 3) asserts that computer has an important role in corpus linguistics. She confirms that with the widespread use of the computer

corpus technology, a new discipline has appeared called ‘corpus linguistics’ which cannot be solely regarded as a ‘computer-based methodology’, but it is a “new research enterprise, a new way of thinking about language, which is challenging some of our most deeply-rooted ideas about language” (Leech, 1992; as cited in Granger, 1998: 3). Granger (2004: 124) puts forward that “computer learner corpora are electronic collections of spoken or written texts which are produced by foreign or second language learners.” Aijmer (2002: 56) also claims that different aspects of interlanguage, which has been a rather difficult area for investigation before, can be analyzed with the help of computer learner corpora. Similarly, Louw (1993) states that semantic prosody is a linguistic feature which has been only investigated through computational methods to be able to reveal its level of progress (as cited in Stewart, 2010: 80).

At the center of many studies utilizing computerized learner corpora lies the methodology of Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CIA). This recent approach, which Granger (1998) calls CIA, comprises the comparisons of both native speakers versus non-native speakers (NS / NNS) as well as non-native speakers versus non-native speakers (NNS / NNS). Granger (1998: 13) suggests that native language and interlanguage (NL / IL) comparisons aim to uncover the features of “non-nativeness” of learner language whereas the main objective of the comparison of two interlanguages (IL / IL) is to hold a mirror to the nature of interlanguage. As Barlow (2005) notes, some concerns occur when a corpus of learner is compared to a corpus of native speakers. The researcher additionally argues that studies utilizing native corpora as a norm to compare with learner corpora reflects “the nature of interlanguage” by highlighting the underlying aspects of non-native speech or writing (Barlow, 2005: 342). Correspondingly, Leech (1998) states that “a comparison of learner corpora with NS corpora provides data on the properties of interlanguage, covering features which are typically overused or underused, in addition to those which are misused by language learners” (as cited in Barlow, 2005: 342).

Among many interlanguage problems that EFL learners have recently encountered in language learning process is semantic prosody, and it has become an increasingly important and popular field of linguistic studies in the last two decades. As Zhang (2010: 190) asserts, “the notion of semantic prosody was primarily introduced by Louw in 1993.” Additionally, Stubbs (1996) suggests that semantic prosodies are divided into three categories: “some words tend to have a predominantly negative prosody, a few have a positive prosody and many words are neutral” (as cited in Wang, 2017: 15). As one of the fundamental fields of inquiry in corpus linguistics, this study elaborates on semantic prosody roughly following Stubbs’s way of classification into three as negative, positive or neutral.

The semantic prosody can be investigated through the use of intensification by non-native learners because it seems a problematic area even for advanced EFL learners having a higher proficiency in language (Lorenz, 1999). Different forms of intensifiers have been categorized in

reference books of English grammar as well as in earlier studies. Quirk et al. (1985: 445) identify two subcategories of intensifiers: “amplifiers and downtoners.” Lorenz (1999: 24) states that “on the whole Quirk et al.’s classification has, of course, been highly influential” since many researchers investigating the intensification employ Quirk et al.’s category in their studies (Partington, 1993; Lorenz, 1999; Méndez-Naya, 2003; Wang, 2017, etc.). Therefore, the present study adopts the categorization of Quirk et al. (1985) as the basis of analyzing English intensifiers.

As a significant lexical class in terms of strengthening meaning, intensifiers can also be examined from different aspects, such as usage pattern and evaluative meaning. For Hunston and Francis (2000: 3), “a pattern is a phraseology frequently associated with (a sense of) a word, particularly in terms of the prepositions, groups, and clauses that follow the word.” In a broader sense, they emphasize the interdependency of meaning and patterns with the explanation that “in many cases different senses of words are distinguished by their typical occurrence in different patterns; and secondly because words which share a given pattern tend also to share an aspect of meaning” (Hunston and Francis, 2000: 3).

To sum, this comparative interlanguage analysis concentrates upon different usage patterns of adjective intensification and their association with meaning from semantic prosodic point of view by comparing non-native tertiary level EFL students with native speakers.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

Among four essential language skills, which are listening, speaking, reading, and writing, the last one is commonly treated as the most challenging by EFL learners. The language learners do not naturally acquire writing skill, but they learn and practice it over time. For certain, a language being learnt is enhanced thanks to an adequate amount of exposure. That is to say, written production in foreign language needs much time and effort in order to gain greater comprehension.

It is an absolute fact that writing in target language is a real concern for most learners. Although the EFL students endeavor to memorize and learn the meaning of many isolated words, they still have difficulty in employing them in an appropriate way. Conzett (2000) supports the view that although learners of a foreign language might have the knowledge of many words or grammar rules, they may be insufficient in using those words in combination with different linguistic items; therefore, they may have inadequate competency to create a richer intended meaning. In other saying, words may have different meanings in different semantic settings. Thus, EFL learners should know how to use vocabulary and collocations in a context to express themselves well.

In written English, intensification has “a potential to be a challenge for tertiary level EFL learners since intensifiers may have synonymous meanings” (Özbay and Aydemir, 2017: 40). Biber (1999) suggests that both in speaking and writing, one should make a selection among a great many degree adverbials intensifying adjectives which can be used interchangeably like “fully and ‘strongly’”, but “in many cases, there is little semantic difference between the degree adverbs. Thus the adverbs could be exchanged in the following pair of sentences with little or no change of meaning: *That’s completely different. It’s totally different*” (as cited in Kennedy, 2003: 470). Before I was graduated as an English major, I had some concerns about using such adverbials to put an emphasis or to add evaluative value to my written expressions. I had a great inclination to use intensifiers in writing; however, I did not pay attention to their collocational nature and had little semantic awareness about their usage patterns as an EFL learner. The wide range of intensifiers that I had encountered in native writing samples made me stay focused on this issue as an individual interest and preference for studying. In order to find out the nuances among near-synonymous degree adverbials, I decided to conduct a corpus-based study dealing with the semantic prosodic analysis of intensifiers in English language.

It is obvious that the learners of English language have an inclination to use intensifiers for capturing readers’ attention on the intended message and to enhance the value of their writing skills. Having a full command of the dictionary meaning of intensifiers may be insufficient for their meaningful use. In a similar sense, Ahmadian et al. (2011) claim that learning the meaning of individual words is not sufficient for acquiring fluency in L2. They argue that “knowing the way words combine into chunks (collocations) characteristic of the language, as well as being aware of the conditions of semantic prosody is necessary” (Ahmadian et al., 2011: 294). Concerning this truth, this study mainly focuses on the semantic prosodic orientation of English intensifiers both in native and learner language so as to reveal EFL learners’ potential to command their vocabulary knowledge and skills in certain semantic discourses. Also, the study seeks to examine the role of degree adverbs in English vocabulary and practicing them in writing skills. As Lorenz (1999: 27) suggests, intensifier usage of target language learners can be investigated with the purpose of gaining an appreciated understanding of behavior in target language. This will also contribute to raising EFL learners’ awareness of adverbials and intensification to achieving fluency and accuracy in English.

1.4. Purpose and Significance of the Study

The primary aim of this research work is to investigate semantic prosodic nature of intensifiers used by both native speakers and Turkish EFL learners in their expository and argumentative essays. Along with a special focus on usage patterns and meaning of intensifiers, the study also tries to make a comparison between native and non-native learners regarding their semantic prosodic awareness on adverbial use. The reason behind choosing the intensifiers as the subject of study is that intensifiers are the kind of adverbials, which are frequently used by EFL

learners in both oral and verbal language with an aim to add an emphasis or force to the meaning, without paying attention to their positive or negative semantic prosodic features and collocational usage patterns. In the scope of the study, it is contended that the mastery of these adverbials will likely to increase the awareness of tertiary level EFL students towards the usage patterns of these lexical items as well as their semantic prosodic analysis perspectives so that they make more appropriate lexical decisions as well as consider the prosodic profiles.

From a broader perspective, ‘intensifier’ is used as an umbrella term covering all intensification types, usage patterns and meanings encountered in the writings of both native and non-native speakers of English. Although, ‘intensifiers’ are used as a general label on research title, the focal point of the study is on a specific category of intensifiers, namely ‘amplifiers’. In this study, the seven frequently used amplifiers selected from the studies of Kennedy (2003) and Wang (2017) are comparatively analyzed concerning their types and usage patterns. The study tries to find an answer whether the usage patterns have any effect on the meaning of intensifiers. All these issues shed light on the semantic prosodic awareness of non-native learners versus native intensification. In this context, this study aims to draw a detailed picture of the way Turkish EFL learners use amplifiers having a position adjacently before adjectives in written language.

A comparative corpus research on the semantic prosodic analysis of intensifiers requires an extensive investigation of large scale of learner corpora; thus, such studies can simply and objectively be executed with the aid of special corpus tools or concordance programs in a computerized environment. In an effort to carry out a contrastive corpus analysis, first and foremost, a corpus needs to be compiled carefully because “the results are only as good as the corpus” (Sinclair, 1991; as cited in Granger, 1998: 7). Therefore, a good compilation of a corpus is the key element. Literally, the quality of the data adds great deal to the validity of the investigation (Granger, 1998). Also, it is not always so easy to have an access to corpus of English learners which is ready for analysis and freely available. Since I have no experience in teaching as a profession, I have never had any chance to compile my own corpus. Therefore, with the guidance of my supervisor, I have decided to heavily concentrate on a learner corpus called KTUCLE compiled from the essays of tertiary level language students from Department of English Language and Literature in Karadeniz Technical University.

The study is conducted by utilizing three distinct corpora; KTUCLE (Karadeniz Technical University Corpus of Learner English) together with TICLE for non-native corpora and LOCNESS (Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays) for native corpus. The central learner corpus of the study, KTUCLE, contains essays written by the students of a Turkish university Karadeniz Technical University and consists of 709,749 words. The second learner corpora is TICLE, as Turkish sub-corpus of ICLE (International Corpus of Learner English), comprises 223,449 tokens in total. It is composed of argumentative essays that were written by Turkish adult learners of

English. The reference corpus called LOCNESS contains essays of native speakers of English and includes a total of 361,054 words. The present study analyzes the different usage patterns of intensifiers and their semantic prosodic nature in the two learner corpora; namely KTUCLE and TICLE, comparing native speakers of English with reference to LOCNESS by using Sketch Engine as a concordancer.

More specifically, the study which attempts to investigate the semantic prosodic awareness of Turkish EFL learners on the use of intensifiers in their argumentative essays in English mainly adopts the methodological approach of Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CIA), which includes two kinds of comparison in nature as Granger (1998: 12) proposed: comparing native language and interlanguage (NL vs. IL) and comparison of two distinct interlanguages (IL vs. IL). The purpose of such a comparative research design is to identify the areas of language use that are resembling and differentiating between native and non-native speakers of English in order to reveal common interlanguage aspects of EFL learners. This research is conducted through the use of two learner corpora: KTUCLE and TICLE as non-native learner corpora as well as LOCNESS for the control corpus. The use of two different non-native learner corpora is most likely to provide information about interlanguage features of the EFL learners.

1.5. Research Questions

The major focus of the recent study is on conducting a semantic prosodic analysis of intensifiers in argumentative writing of Turkish EFL learners with a view to characterizing their usage patterning and meaning features. The main research question inquires the semantic prosodic awareness of Turkish EFL learners on the use of intensifiers in their written texts.

Also, this research tries to find answers to the following questions:

1. What is the frequency distribution of intensifiers in argumentative essays of tertiary level Turkish EFL learners and native speakers of English in selected native and non-native corpus?
2. Do intensifiers have a specific semantic prosodic profile such as positive, negative or sometimes neutral as evidenced in the three corpora under investigation?
3. What are the different usage patterns of intensifiers existing in native corpus and non-native corpora?

1.6. Operational Definitions

Concordancer: Text retrieval programs which are called ‘concordancers’ are among the extensively used linguistic software devices (Granger, 1998: 14).

Corpus: It is an extensive compilation of texts, either spoken or written, which are utilized for research purposes (Collins Cobuild Dictionary, 2001: 313).

Corpus Linguistics: It is the study of large scale data related to language. Corpus linguistics takes the advantage of computer in order to analyze huge amounts of transcribed nonverbal texts (McEnery and Hardie, 2011).

Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis: Introduced by Granger (1998), CIA combines the two major approaches: an IL vs. IL comparison and an IL vs NL comparison.

Intensifier: Words like *very* and *extremely* that are located before an adjective or adverb in order to enrich its meaning is called ‘intensifier’ (Collins Cobuild Dictionary, 2001: 756)

Learner Corpora: Studies find ‘learner corpora’ helpful in second language acquisition as they are useful in creating a learner language profile. They focus on error analysis or extensively or rarely uttered words of the learner compared to native speakers (Baker, et al., 2006: 103).

Reference Corpus: Reference corpus aims to depict the general nature of the language via a large scale corpus design rather than a sample of and specific written text (Baker, et al., 2006: 138).

Semantic Prosody: It is associated with lexical items collocating with semantic sets of words that are either positive, negative or sometimes neutral (Stubbs, 1995).

Subcorpus: “A subset of a corpus, either a static component of a complex corpus or a dynamic selection from a corpus during on-line analysis” (Atkins et al., 1992: 1).

1.7. Outline of the Study

This part presents the overall structure of the thesis which is consisted of five sections: as follows:

Introduction: As the initial section of the study, it gives overall information and rationale behind the thesis.

Chapter One: It presents the background information, the aim of the study, the significance of the study as well as the statement of the problem along with research questions.

Chapter Two: It is the review of the literature which gives detailed information on definitions of semantic prosody and intensifiers. Besides, it presents previous corpus-based semantic prosodic studies in other countries related to use of intensifiers.

Chapter Three: It is the methodology part which presents the methods and procedures employed in this study.

Chapter Four: It is the part of findings and discussion which introduces data obtained through corpora and its elaborative analysis based on the research questions.

Conclusion and Suggestions: It presents an overview of the study as well as limitations, pedagogical implications, and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

*“I’m glad you like adverbs — I adore them;
they are the only qualifications I really much respect.”*

Henry James (1902)

2.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews the relevant literature in the field of applied linguistics. From a general perspective, this part initially highlights the importance of corpus linguistics in understanding language and the use of corpora in linguistic investigations. Then, the chapter presents a theoretical background discussing the major concepts of the study. As the core of the research, this chapter also evaluates relevant studies on EFL learners’ use of intensifiers in written production with a special focus to usage pattern and meaning.

2.2. The Importance of Corpus Linguistics in Understanding Language

Language is a system using signs and sounds to convey messages or meanings among the members of society. A pioneer linguist Chomsky (2006: 88) claims that “when we study human language, we are approaching what some might call the human essence, the distinctive qualities of mind that are, so far as we know, unique to man.” Basically, the scientific study of this system unique to human beings for communication is called linguistics. In addition to the aforementioned views, “today the field of linguistics studies not just the nuts-and-bolts of forms and their meanings”, but also the process of language learning, its role of creating interaction, the help of computers in analyzing language, and the representation of language in human brains (Fasold and Connor-Linton: 2006: 10).

There are numerous subfields of linguistics each dealing with another aspect of languages. Corpus linguistic, one of these branches in applied linguistics, has started to develop rapidly in the last three decades with the availability of computer technology in modern age. Aijmer and Altenberg (1991: 1) claim that the reason of this development arises from two major cases that occurred in the 1960s; the first one was launching of the Survey of English Usage (SEU) by Randolph Quirk and the second event triggered by the development in computational area which

paved the way for storing, scanning and grouping materials. The Brown corpus which is well-known as “the first modern computerized corpus of the English language” was compiled by Nelson Francis and Henry Kucera at Brown University (Aijmer and Altenberg, 1991: 1). From then on, especially after 1980s, corpus linguistics gained popularity among scholars and linguistics (McEnery et al., 2006: 4).

From an etymological point of view, “corpus is derived from the Latin word meaning body” (Dash and Arulmozi, 2018: 4). Generally speaking, in linguistics, “the term corpus has been historically stands for ‘body of data’ referring “a sample of utterances or texts – which provides evidence about the language it comes from” (Cameron and Panovic, 2014: 81). However, they add that nowadays in corpus linguistics, corpus is mostly used as a body of genuine linguistic input that is kept in computational form and analyzed applying computational software. McEnery et al. (2006: 5) summarized the scope of ‘corpus’ echoing the definitions of other scholars such as Francis (1992) and Atkins et al. (1992); “...there is an increasing consensus that a corpus is a collection of *machine-readable* (2) *authentic texts* (including transcripts of spoken data) which is (3) *sampled* to be (4) *representative* of a particular language or language variety.”

According to Granger (2002: 4), corpus linguistics is a methodology of applied linguistics which uses electronic linguistic data compiled from texts. She also argues that corpus is not a new field in linguistics, but it is just the core of the linguistic evidence; thus, it happens to be a strong methodology. For Kennedy (1998), corpus linguistics differs from other linguistic theories in terms of the sources of evidence that CL provides (as cited in Şanal, 2007: 21):

Linguists have always needed sources of evidence for theories about the nature, elements, structure and functions of language, and as a basis for stating what is possible in a language. At various times, such evidence has come from intuition or introspection, from experimentation or elicitation, and from descriptions based on observations of occurrence in spoken or written texts. In the case of corpus-based research, the evidence is derived directly from texts. In this sense corpus linguistics differs from approaches to language, which depend on introspection for evidence.

In a similar sense, Altenberg (2011: xiii) holds the view that “although corpus linguistics is strictly speaking a methodology rather than a theory of language, it has opened up new approaches to the study of language and new and fruitful ways of matching theory and data.” As a linguist, Sinclair (2004: 1) notes that working on corpora, a researcher may feel a sense of “creative energy” which makes the studies applicable, subtle and flexible in nature. Startvik (2007: 23) agrees upon the idea of Wallace Chafe (1992):

What, then, is a ‘corpus linguist’? I would like to think that it is a linguist who tries to understand language, and behind language the mind, by carefully observing extensive natural samples of it and then, with insight and imagination, constructing plausible understandings that

encompass and explain those observations. Anyone who is not a corpus linguist in this sense is, in my opinion, missing much that is relevant to the linguistic enterprise.

Stubbs (1996) claims that “the heuristic power of corpus methods is no longer in doubt” (as cited in Granger, 2002: 4). Not surprisingly, corpus linguistics enables the exploration of new aspects of language and provides insights into the areas of language learning and teaching. It has allowed scholars and linguists to explore many areas which could be difficult to investigate without the advent of computers. According to Aijmer and Altenberg (1991: 2), the study of corpora empowers the motivation of English language studies. When compared to old kinds of language materials, corpus data provides more authentic evidence for the descriptive analysis of “lexis, syntax, discourse and prosody” in English language. In the second place, corpus provides an efficient basis for comparison of all aspects of English language in a probabilistic and quantitative manner.

Apart from its benefits, the use of corpus has some limitations for linguistic studies as summarized by Hunston (2002: 22-23). First of all, a corpus is thought to give information about frequency, not possibility. The conclusions that are drawn from a corpus analysis should be considered as inferences, not truths. In addition, a corpus can provide evidence instead of concrete information. Lastly, a corpus reflects the aspects of a language “out of its context.”

As this section summarizes, the study of corpora plays an important role in understanding the nature of language. When conducting a linguistic research, the data should have an objective base to make an accurate interpretation about the language itself. Thus, corpus linguistics becomes an inevitable part of language studies with the help of computer-assisted comparative analysis. Instead of depending solely on the intuitions, the linguists or researchers can reach accurate numerical data by comparing many aspects of different languages. With this in mind, this study adopts corpus linguistics as the methodological basis to provide empirical evidences. The theories used in the current corpus-based study will be explained in the next section.

2.3. Theoretical Background of the Study

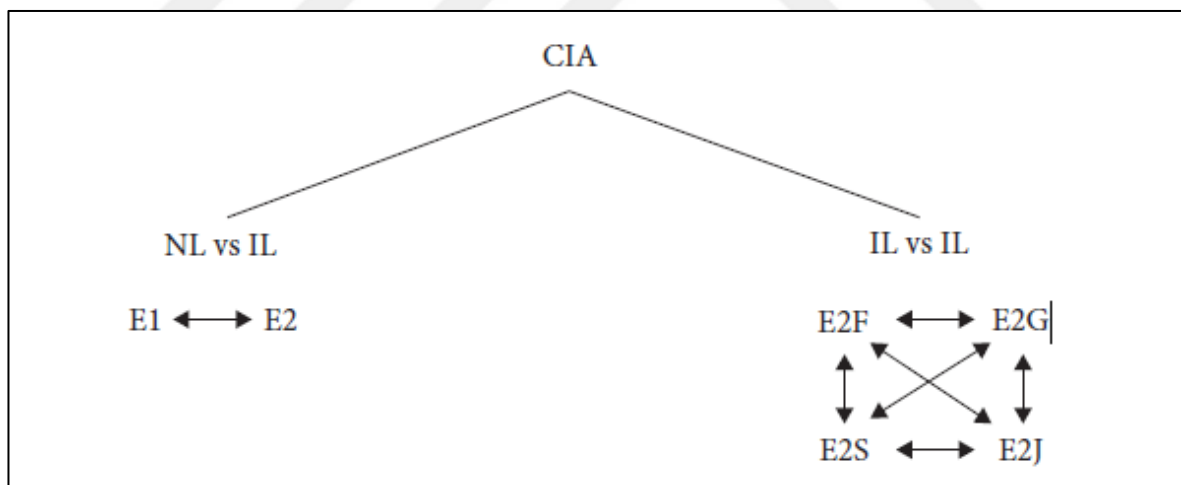
The current study of corpus-linguistics investigates the semantic prosodic analysis of English intensifiers by contrasting two computerized learner corpora with a reference corpus to elicit some interlanguage problems of Turkish EFL learners. Depending on this main research problem, the underlying theoretical concepts behind the thesis; respectively contrastive interlanguage analysis (CIA), computer learner corpus (CLC) research, and semantic prosody (SP), will be discussed in detail under this title.

2.3.1. Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CIA)

Linguists have always been dealing with comparing different language systems in pursuit of eliciting learning difficulties. Contrastive analysis, thus, is considered to have a great contribution to understanding many dimensions of second or foreign language learning process. On the other side, the emergence of ‘interlanguage’ theory helps researchers examine learner’s current first language abilities and their progress towards the target language. Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CIA), which can be considered as an integration of these two approaches, namely contrastive analysis and interlanguage development research, was proposed by Granger in 1996.

Unlike contrastive analysis ‘in the traditional sense’ embarking on a comparison between the mother tongue and second language, Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CIA) mainly depends on comparing learner data with native speaker (L2 vs. L1). This new approach, which Selinker (1989) regarded a “new type of CA” and which Granger called CIA “lies at the heart of CLC-based studies” (Granger, 1998: 12). According to Granger (1998: 12), “CIA involves two major types of comparison: (1) NL vs. IL, i.e. comparison of native language and interlanguage, and (2) IL vs. IL, i.e. comparison of different interlanguages” as shown in the diagram below:

Figure 1: Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis



Source: Granger (1996: 44)

Granger (2015: 8) explains the abbreviations that she used in this diagram with her own statements as follows:

In this first presentation of CIA, native and learner languages were abbreviated as NL and IL (interlanguage) respectively and the language used to illustrate the method was English: E1 for native English and E2 for English as a foreign language. The IL/IL branch of the method was illustrated with interlanguages representing different mother tongue backgrounds: English of French learners (E2F), German learners (E2G), Swedish learners (E2S) and Japanese learners (E2J).

Granger (2015: 8) also uses some other abbreviations or ‘labels’ during the presentation of CIA approach: ‘NS’ represents “native speaker while ‘NNS’ refers to “non-native speaker”. In addition, ‘L1’ is abbreviated for “first/native” and ‘L2’ for “foreign/second language.”

Before in-depth evaluation of Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis, as one of the significant concepts that the present study adopts by nature, the theory of ‘interlanguage’ needs inevitably a broad explanation to shed light on the progress that CIA went through until its emergence.

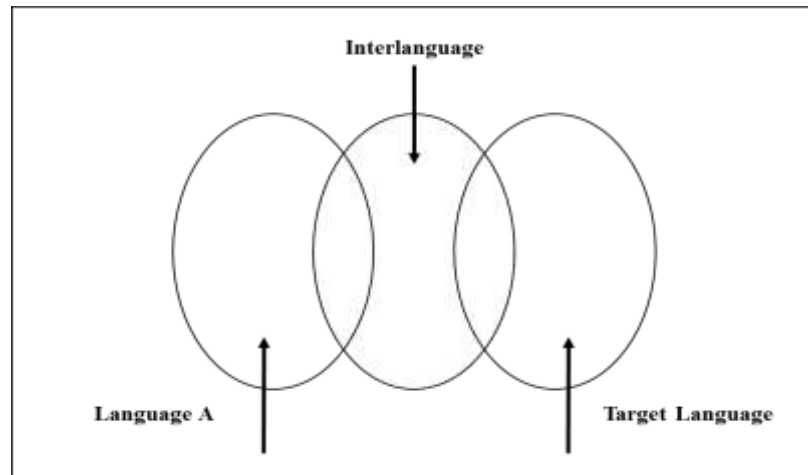
2.3.1.1. What is Interlanguage?

An American linguist Selinker (1972) created the concept ‘interlanguage’ which refers to a linguistic system. According to Ellis (1997: 33), interlanguage centers on the mother tongue but again dissimilar with it and the target language. In other words, it is a kind of linguistic state isolated from both EFL learners’ mother language and the target language. The term interlanguage was derived from Weinreich’s (1953) “interlingual identifications” (as cited in Selinker 1972: 211). Today, in addition to interlanguage, the term “language learner language” has been also preferred by researchers in linguistic studies (Lennon, 2008: 56).

Selinker (1972) describes interlanguage as “a dialect whose rules share characteristics of two social dialects of languages, whether these languages themselves share rules or not” (Corder, 1981: 17). In other words, the interlanguage is a linguistic organization “in its own right” (Lakshmanan and Selinker, 2001: 395). It can be supposed to be a stage when the learner is not able to have fluency and accuracy in language proficiency. Hence, the linguistic proficiency of a learner in second language or foreign language learning process can precisely be characterized with the analysis of interlanguage in its specific set of rules. Being discrete in the sense that learner language is clearly different from mother language and target language, interlanguage is likely to have the following main features suggested by Trawinski (2005: 54):

- erroneous (containing language errors on various language levels)
- systematic (rule-governed and common to all learners)
- dynamic (constantly changing through the gradual process of accommodation of new rules)
- distinct from the L1 and L2 (including grammatical/lexical/phonological elements of both language)
- permeable (open to amendment, not fixed)

Figure 2: Interlanguage



Source: adopted from Corder (1981: 17)

The diagram above simply illustrates the theory of interlanguage in which ‘Language A’ stands for first language (L1). In an attempt to explain it further, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 60) point out that interlanguage may be better recognized when it is considered to be a “continuum” between the mother tongue and the second language. The interlanguage is a system having its own rules. In its core sense, interlanguage can also be termed as a linguistic system in progress under the influence of a learner’s both mother tongue and the second language. Likewise, as Tarone (2006: 747) asserts, the learner language is considered as a detached system in linguistics which remains diverse from the mother tongue and the target language, but needs both of them to identify the learners’ interlingual behaviours.

Selinker’s (1972) identification of five principle cognitive processes underlying interlanguage concept is summarized by Ellis (1994: 351) as follows:

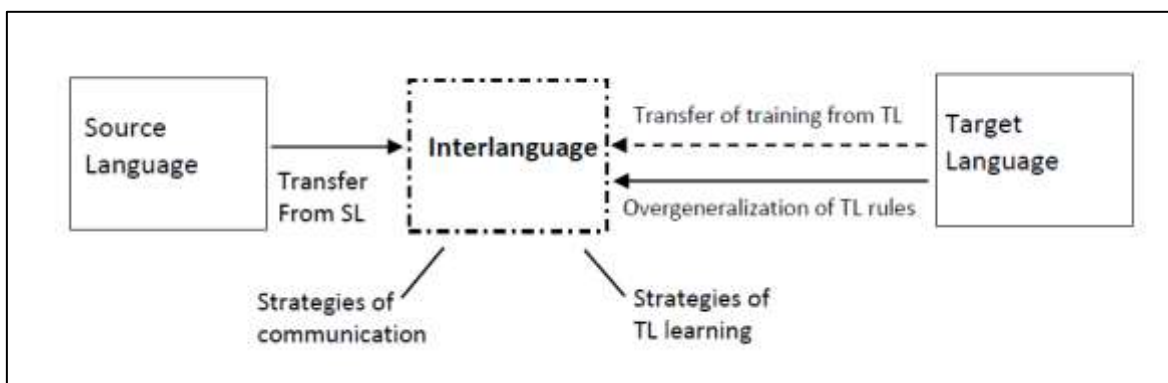
1. Language transfer
2. Transfer of training
3. Strategies of second language learning
4. Strategies of second language communication
5. Overgeneralization of the target language material

These five processes refer to (1) transmitting the knowledge from one language to another (not all but some elements might be transmitted from mother language to second language), (2) transmitting the competencies acquired while learning language (a number of interlanguage items may arise from the aspect of teaching), (3) the techniques used for acquiring foreign language (the target language learner may define the learning equipment), (4) the techniques for communication (the target language learner may define the appropriate path for taking part in conversation with target language user) and (5) employing the general rules for the all elements of foreign language (the items produced in the process of interlanguage arise from the obvious generalizing of

principles and lexical points of target language). This list appears to be valuable in terms of presenting “mental processes responsible for L2 learning” as well as “key distinctions” such as overgeneralization and language transfer (Ellis, 1994: 351).

The above-mentioned processes of interlanguage proposed by Selinker are visualized in following diagram to clarify the mutual relationship among SL, TL and IL:

Figure 3: The Five Mental Processes of Interlanguage



Source: Krezeszowski, 1977 (as cited in Paradowski, 2008)

In his well-known essay “Interlanguage”, Selinker (1972: 214) also introduces three types of IL produced utterances which are regarded as “psychologically relevant data of L2 learning”: “(1) utterances in the learner’s native language (L1) produced by the learner; (2) IL utterances produced by the learner; and (3) TL utterances produced by native speakers of that TL.”

It is crucial to state that interlanguage development plays a vital role in throwing light on the undiscovered features of second or foreign language learning process. For Hasselgärd and Johansson (2011: 33),

Learning a foreign language is a slow and, for most people, difficult process which rarely leads to full mastery. Even advanced language learners make mistakes and normally have a limited repertoire compared with native speakers of the target language. Problems may be linked to features of the target language, the learner’s first language or to the learning process itself. Revealing features of learner language, or interlanguage, has become an important means of surveying both obvious and more subtle differences between interlanguage and native speaker performance, and can potentially lead to improved language teaching as well as insights into the processes of language learning.

In general terms, the concept of interlanguage looks for the answer of two questions (Ellis, 1997: 31) which ask for the nature of linguistic utterances in the target language and how those utterances evolve as time passes. In order to seek an answer to such inquiries related to interlanguage development, plenty of linguistic researches can be done through large scale of computerized corpus analysis using statistical methods. The present contrastive corpus-based study

can be shown as an example to interlanguage investigation because it analyzes semantic prosodic behavior of EFL learners while using English intensifiers in their argumentative essays. The study is conducted on Turkish EFL learners who are currently going through a developmental process in language learning. Further insights from previous studies of interlanguage would certainly clarify the scope of such investigations utilizing learner corpora.

First of all, Hinkel's (2002) book called *Second Language Writers' Text* is actually based on an interlanguage investigation examining academic written essays of native and non-native speakers. The purpose of the study is to find out linguistic features of some written tasks given to both native speakers and advanced non-native learners from different first language backgrounds such as Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, Indonesian and Arabic nationalities studying in US universities. The corpus compiled from 1457 essays, 1215 of non-native speakers and 242 of native speakers, has a size of approximately 434,000 words. The study mainly analyzes the frequency of 68 different linguistic features and patterns, 26 of which are found to have a significant difference between L1 and six groups of English Language learners. The statistics show that ELL texts have higher usage of the forms of 'to be' as the main verb, "predicative adjectives, public and private verbs", however, writing samples in L1 include "passive voice, perfect aspect, and reduced adjective clauses".

Another interlanguage research conducted by Kil (2003) analyzes five immigrant Korean English learners in U.S. in terms of the common error in their writing samples. The focus was on common error types such as 'word order errors, co-occurring articles and determiners' as well as 'excessive use of wrong expressions (overgeneralization)'. Kill (2003: 247) concludes that the errors in learner language progress in time.

In his dissertation, Zhang (2008) investigates the acquisition of 'to be' by Chinese learners of English through a corpus-based approach. By comparing two Chinese learner corpora compiled from English essays of students from Hong Kong and Mainland China, he aimed at giving a general overview of the functions of BE in writing. The pedagogical implication drawn from the research is that it finds solutions to challenges that the learners of second language might face and presents strategies to overcome the difficulties in obtaining 'to be' and its related constructs.

As a recent example to interlanguage research, Asikin (2017) examined the existence and underlying reasons of interlanguage in EFL students' narrative writings. Ten narrative texts written by nine Indonesian students in a high school in city of Kuningan were analyzed concerning the concept of interlanguage introduced by Selinker in 1972. The results showed that the existence of interlanguage errors were found in passive sentences, verb selection, using auxiliary verbs, and translation. According to the researcher, interlanguage occurs due to an effect of first language.

From pedagogical point of view, it was implied that students should have an adequate exposure to appropriate use of English grammar.

The current literature from Turkish L1 background abounds with studies of interlanguage analysis of written discourse (Atasever, 2014; Bozdağ, 2014; Bozdağ and Badem, 2017; Can, 2009; Eveyik-Aydın, 2015; Kilimci and Can, 2008; Kilimci, 2001; Özbay and Bozkurt, 2017; Şanal, 2007; Taş, 2008). However, corpus-based interlanguage studies in Turkey through the use of KTUCLE (Karadeniz Technical University Corpus of Learner English) as the local learner corpus of the study as well as TICLE (Turkish International Corpus of Learner English) which was introduced by Kilimci and Can (2008) as a subcorpus of ICLE (International International Corpus of Learner English) deserve initial mention since the present study utilizes both of them as learner corpora under investigation.

Şanal (2007) made a lexical investigation in the written language of Turkish EFL learners by contrasting TICLE and LOCNESS, which are also used as research corpora in my study. Through the use of a computerized contrastive methodology, the researcher was in pursuit of exploring learners' lexical complexity and richness, the differences between reference and learner corpus in terms of frequently used tokens, and stereotypes of learner corpus. The conclusion that Şanal (2007: 77) drew from his analysis was that the reference corpus has a more complex lexical diversity and density in comparison to the learner corpus. There were also some evidences of overuse and underuse patterns of certain lexical items under the linguistic influence of learners' mother tongue.

Moreover, Bozdağ (2014) investigated the interlanguage behaviours of Turkish EFL learners in academic written discourse. In this corpus-based study, the researcher compared TICLE with LOCNESS to find out the lexical preference of EFL learners by focusing on ten frequently used "AKL (Academic Keyword List) verbs". According to the results, the learners were found to overuse and underuse some certain verbs in academic writing when compared with native speakers.

In their comparative interlanguage analysis, Özbay and Bozkurt (2017) examined tertiary level Turkish EFL students' expository argumentative essays in terms of the usage of complex prepositions by comparing two corpora, respectively LOCNESS and KTUCLE, which is also the local learner corpus in present research. The focus of paper was on overused and underused or misused prepositions used by the learners in certain contextual situations. The results indicated that the overuse and underuse profile in learner corpus have differences in comparison to reference corpus.

A closer look to the prior relevant literature on the theory of interlanguage suggests that the methodology of contrastive corpus-based analysis of learner corpora gives researchers and linguists

an opportunity to analyze interlanguage development of language learners besides their linguistic awareness, lexical preference, and potential in making errors, or many other aspects in the process of language learning.

2.3.1.2. Historical Overview of Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis

Before the emergence of the idea of ‘interlanguage’; linguistic studies employing comparative procedures had undergone a significant shift from contrastive analysis (CA) to contrastive interlanguage analysis. According to contrastive analysts, “the second-language learner’s language was shaped solely by transfer from the native language” (Tarone, 2006: 747). That is to say, contrastive analysis suggested that potential errors in foreign language learning process mainly stem from the differences between L1 and L2. It is believed that by a comparison, many problems and difficulties that learners may encounter in second language learning can be predicted. As Mackey (2006: 435) stated, “differences between the learner’s L1 and L2 were thought to be the main source of difficulty for L2 learners, and the phonology and grammatical structures of languages were compared to predict areas of difficulty. This became formally known as the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH).”

Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis was introduced by Lado (1957) in his book called *Linguistics Across Cultures* which is accepted to have launched the contrastive analysis movement in language teaching (Tajareh, 2015: 1106). Lado (1957) was the first who suggests comprehensive procedures for contrastive analysis of languages predicting learner difficulties. In his own remarks, Lado (1957: 2) asserts that “we assume that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult.” Lado (1957: 59) also details this issue as follows:

Since even languages as closely related as German and English differ significantly in the form, meaning, and distribution of their grammatical structures, and since the learner tends to transfer the habits of his native language structure to the foreign language, we have here the major source of difficulty or ease in learning the structure of a foreign language. Those structures that are similar will be easy to learn because they will be transferred and may function satisfactorily in the foreign language. Those structures that are different will be difficult because when transferred they will not function satisfactorily in the foreign language and will therefore have to be changed.

Although there was a consensus on the idea that comparison of languages could facilitate predicting errors, later researches have shown that challenges in language learning process cannot be reliably predicted by differences between languages. For example, Whitman and Jackson (1972) examined four different contrastive analysis conducted in English and Japanese languages and

arrived at the conclusion that contrastive analysis may not predict alone the interference problems of interlanguage (as cited in Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991: 56).

According to Mackey (2006: 435), “studies have indicated that very few of the errors produced by L2 learners can be traced to their L1. Instead, many errors are due to developmental processes common to all learners regardless of L1 background.” Also, CAH was criticized by many researchers because “many errors predicted by Contrastive Analysis were inexplicably not observed in learners' language” (Rustipa, 2011: 17). According to Rustipa (2011), Contrastive Analysis could not estimate difficulties in learning, but it is good at explaining errors.

Moreover, Wardhaugh (1970) distinguishes “the strong and the weak version” of the CAH. According to the strong version, “contrastive analysis would be able to predict all learning problems” while weak version implies that “contrastive analysis could explain the cause of many but far from all, systematic-language learning errors” (as cited in Celce-Murcia et.al, 1996: 20). Based upon this distinction, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 57) made the following explanation: “The strong version involved predicting errors in second language learning based upon an a priori contrastive analysis of the L1 and L2, and as we have seen, the predictions are not always borne out.” On the contrary, in the weak version researchers focus on learner errors by distinguishing similarities and differences between two languages.

Error analysis (EA) appeared in the 1960s by Corder and his counterparts to criticize the opinion that contrastive analysis could predict great majority of errors. Until the late sixties, the general view held by the behaviorists on the issue of SLA was that the process of learning mostly depends on acquiring new language habits. Therefore, errors made by learners were supposed to be predicted by comparing mother tongue and target language. As Corder (1981: 1) emphasized that “what was overlooked or underestimated were the errors which could not be explained in this way”. It is an explicit fact that “learners from an error analysis (EA) perspective differs vastly from the view of learners from the CA perspective.” In contrastive analysis, errors occur as a result of interference with first language habits which are out of the learners' control. However, in error analysis, the learner have an active participation in “processing input, generating hypotheses, testing them and refining them, all the while determining the ultimate TL level he or she will attain” (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991: 61).

In 1970s, there was a shift from behaviorist methods towards various internal aspects dealing with language acquisition of learners (Mackey, 2006: 435). Interlanguage theory appeared as a reaction to the CAH, and it began to lose its importance. “While the status of the IL notion has been maintained in the field, EA, like CA, fell into disfavor” (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991: 61). On the basis of the evidence that CA and EA have “weaknesses and failure”, the benefits of these two hypotheses should not be underestimated in terms of their influence on SLA research.

For Zhang (2008: 10), a contrastive analysis between mother language and target language enable researchers to understand the basis of learner language. On the other side, the researcher considers error analysis as a simple method for analyzing difficulties in language learning process and fruitful tool for teachers to identify EFL learners' common problems. Nevertheless, many scholars turned their attention towards interlanguage development to search for second language acquisition. It was widely agreed upon that learners' linguistic systems were somehow different from both their L1 and L2. "Interlanguage is a theoretical construct which underlies the attempts of SLA researchers to identify the stages of development through which L2 learners pass on their way to L2 (or near L2) proficiency" (Ellis, 1989: 42).

In order or to better understand the scope of Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis, the researchers should internalize all the aforementioned historical phases it has passed through so far. An interlanguage analysis gives information about the nature of acquiring a foreign or second language and focuses on the progress in learner language instead of predicting errors depending on their first language. In that sense, this study carries out a contrastive analysis to elicit the interlanguage problems and tendencies of tertiary level EFL learners in using intensifiers

2.3.1.3. Studies on Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis

As noted earlier, Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis compares native corpora with non-native corpora to reveal linguistic features of learners based on their authentic speech or writing samples. "NS/NNS comparisons can highlight a range of features of non-nativeness in learner writing and speech, i.e. not only errors, but also instances of under and over representation of words, phrases and structures" (Granger, 2002: 12). Some examples of studies applying the methodology of CIA are reviewed here so as to outline the importance of learner corpora in SLA and EFL research settings.

It is worth to begin with a study of Granger, who is well-known as the pioneer researcher of Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis. Granger and her colleague Altenberg (2001) investigated EFL learner use of high frequency verbs with a special focus on the usage of the verb 'make.' In particular, the study aimed at finding out the overuse and underuse of these verbs by comparing authentic learner data with computerized native speaker corpora. There were two groups of EFL learners from Swedish and French backgrounds. The learner corpus was consisted of samples from ICLE (International Corpus of Learner English) database including the essays of French and Swedish learners. On the other hand, LOCNES was used as the control native corpus of the study. According to results, it is obvious that "EFL learners, even at an advanced proficiency level have great difficulty with a high frequency verb such as make" (Altenberg and Granger, 2001: 173).

Granger (2004:132) draws the attention to many researchers adopting CIA such as Ringbom (1998), Aijmer (2002), and Nesselhauf (2003). For instance, Ringbom (1998) identified the use of high frequency of lexis having generality such as nouns like 'people' and 'thing' in EFL learners' written production by making a comparison of learner corpora with a similar native speaker corpus. In other CIA based research, Aijmer (2002) detected the use of modals by Swedish, German and French EFL learners by comparing student essays with essays of native speakers. She found out the overuse of modals by these three learner groups. It is clearly understood from the research that learners from different language backgrounds prefer different modals which are correspondingly similar to their native language usage. Likewise, Nesselhauf (2003) explored the use of collocations by advanced German EFL students based on the data from German subcorpus of ICLE in comparison with dictionaries and British National Corpus. The study is resulted in that the influence of first language on the production of English collocations by German EFL learners was significantly high.

The methodology of comparing learner and native corpus is also adopted by Leńko-Szymańska (2004) who investigated the overuse and underuse of demonstratives in detailed. In this two-way comparison analysis, the researcher used the PELCRA corpus of learner English compiled from written essays of Polish university students and the British National Corpus (BNC) to identify native-like use of demonstratives. The results showed that Polish EFL learners need specific assistance in learning this particular feature of language. As Leńko-Szymańska concluded that even the tiniest details of interlanguage problems which have not been explored yet can be enlightened by learner corpus data (as cited in Aston et al., 2004: 4).

A recent research from Turkey conducted by Babanoğlu and Can (2018) employs the methodology of CIA to analyze the use of adverbial connectors in Turkish EFL learners' argumentative essays. With this in mind, four corpora were compared in this study: three learner corpora which were respectively TICLE, SPICLE (Spanish Corpus of Learner English), and JPICLE (Japanese Corpus of Learner English) besides one native speaker corpus, LOCNESS. The findings obtained from the contrastive analysis of connector usage indicate that the overuse connectors are commonly used by many Turkish EFL learners. Babanoğlu and Can (2018: 27) found in the study that the overuse of adverbial connectors in three EFL learner corpora can be considered as a general inclination for sharing common interlanguage properties.

Another study carried out by Turkish researchers Akbana and Koşar (2015) examines the highest-frequency vocabulary in advanced learners and native speakers through contrastive interlanguage analysis. The data retrieved from two corpora, LOCNESS and TICLE, have been analyzed on the basis of CIA to investigate the use of the top ten words. The study came to the conclusion that the overuse and underuse of the words seem to have a common interlanguage use.

Apart from these, in a research carried out by Özbay and Kabakçı (2016), the support verb construction use of tertiary level EFL learners was examined through native and non-native academic and argumentative corpora. The study uses two native and two non-native corpora for the investigation of SVC use: BAWE (British Academic Written English), KTUCALE (Karadeniz Technical University Corpus of Academic Learner English), TICLE (Turkish International Corpus of Learner English) and LOCNESS (The Louvain Corpus of English Essays). Özbay and Kabakçı (2016: 1462) put forward that tertiary level Turkish EFL learners had a tendency to use fewer and specific SVCs.

2.3.2. Computer Learner Corpus (CLC) Research

Computer learner corpus research (CLC, hereafter) has been a relatively new method which “is still in its infancy”; and it uses the methods and tools of corpus linguistics to throw light into authentic learner language (Granger, 1998: xvi). For Leech (1998, as cited in Granger, 1998: 123), CLC is “a new research enterprise, a new way of thinking about learner language, which is challenging some of our most deeply-rooted ideas about learner language.” Granger (2004: 124) simply defines computer learner corpora as “electronic collections of spoken or written texts produced by foreign or second language learners.” In order to expand upon the explanation of CLC, Granger (2002: 7) adopted Sinclair’s (1996) definition below:

Computer learner corpora are electronic collections of authentic FL/SL textual data assembled according to explicit design criteria for a particular SLA/FLT purpose. They are encoded in a standardised and homogeneous way and documented as to their origin and provenance.

It is an undeniable fact that computers and software corpus tools play an important role in fast-changing nature of language learning and teaching. Since 1990s, “the rapid development of automatic data processing and information technology has opened up new prospects for contrastive approaches through the potential of large corpora” (Tajareh, 2015: 1107). Until quite recently, the researchers dealing with SLA or EFL studies needed great time and effort to collect and analyze even small amounts of learner data. Granger (1998: 3) cited Rundell and Stock’s (1992) statement to emphasize that computers liberate linguists “from drudgery and empowers [them] to focus their creative energies on doing what machines cannot do.” Accordingly, Hunston (2002: 3) argues:

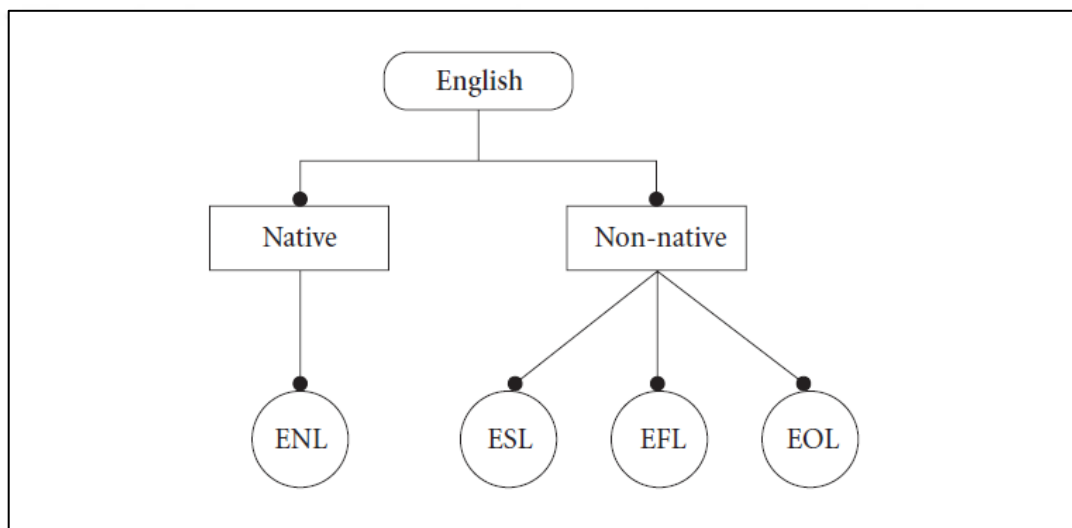
Strictly speaking, a corpus by itself can do nothing at all, being nothing other than a store of used language. Corpus access software, however, can re-arrange that store so that observations of various kinds can be made. If a corpus represents, very roughly and partially, a speaker’s experience of language, the access software re-orders that experience so that it can be examined in ways that are usually impossible. A corpus does not contain new information about language, but the software offers us a new perspective on the familiar.

On the benefit of electronically encoding of corpus data, Baker (2006: 2) asserts that “complex calculations can be carried out on large amounts of text, revealing linguistic patterns and

frequency information that would otherwise take days or months to uncover by hand, and may run counter to intuition.” For Kennedy (1998: 5), “the analysis of huge bodies of text ‘by hand’ can be prone to error and is not always exhaustive or easily replicable.” However, today, the progress in technology enables us to compile larger sizes of learner data on computer and analyze them on linguistic software programs (Granger: 2002: 7).

Before dwelling on the importance of computer-aided analysis of learner corpora in language teaching and learning settings, the varieties of English language should be clarified in detail. Granger (2002) states that learner corpora are centered on the non-native varieties of English and can be categorized as follows:

Figure 4: Varieties of English



Source: Granger (2002: 9)

ENL refers to English as a native language spoken by people who acquired it as their first language or mother tongue. The non-native varieties of English, on the other hand, include “EOL (English as an Official Language), ESL (English as a Foreign Language), and EFL (English as a Foreign Language)”, and in her own explanation, she defined these varieties as (Granger, 2002: 9):

EOL is a cover term for indigenised or nativised varieties of English, such as Nigerian English or Indian English. ESL is sometimes referred to as Immigrant ESL: it refers to English acquired in an English-speaking environment (such as Britain or the US). EFL covers English learned primarily in a classroom setting in a non-English-speaking country (Belgium, Germany, etc.). Learner corpora cover the last two non-native varieties: EFL and ESL.

The present study focuses on tertiary level EFL students to find out the semantic prosodic behavior of their intensifier usage based on two learner corpora and a reference corpus. With this in mind, the use of learner and reference corpora in second or foreign language learning environment will henceforth be explained in detail.

2.3.2.1. The Use of Learner Corpora in EFL and SLA Research

In general terms, Hunston (2000: 15) describes learner corpora as the compilation of texts like essays which are produced by language learners in order to identify to what extent and in what respects learners differ from each other and from native speakers. In analyzing language learning use, Hunston (2002: 212) puts emphasis on two major advantages of learner corpora over other methods in corpus-based studies:

Firstly, it makes the basis of the assessment entirely explicit: learner language is compared with, and if necessary measured against, a standard that is clearly identified by the corpus chosen. If that standard is considered to be inappropriate (if, for example, the appropriate target for Norwegian school children is considered to be expert Norwegian speakers of English rather than British speakers of English), then the relevant corpus can be replaced. Secondly, the basis of assessment is realistic, in that what the learners do is compared with native/expert speakers actually do rather than what reference books say they do. Many of the parameters of difference noted, such as vocabulary range, or word-class preference, do not appear in most grammar books.

Similarly, Reppen (2006) claims that second language learner corpora are used by researchers to investigate language patterns of EFL learners “rather than relying on information from case studies and single examples” (as cited in Babanoğlu and Can, 2018: 17). Comparative studies based on learner corpora make it perfectly possible for teachers and researchers to find out various types of learner errors and weaknesses in addition to the differences between native and non-native performance eliciting interlanguage development properties “which were not or hardly accessible via the previous methods” (Şanal, 2007: 26).

To Leech (1998), learner corpora is “a useful resource for anyone wanting to find out how people learn languages and how they can be helped to learn them better” (as cited in Kilimci, 2014: 401). In the preface of book called *Learner English on Computer*, Leech (1998: xvii) also puts forward:

...[L]earner corpus is a new phenomenon: it enables us to investigate the nonnative speaking learners' language (in relation to the native speaker's) not only from a negative point of view (what did the learner get wrong) but from a positive one (what did the learner get right?). For the first time it also allows a systematic and detailed study of the learner's linguistic behaviour from the point of view of 'overuse' (what linguistic features does the learner use more than a native speaker?) and 'underuse' (what features does the learner use less than a native speaker?)

Finally, authenticity is an important criterion for learner corpora. James (1992) noted “the really authentic texts for foreign language learning are not those produced by native speakers for native speakers, but those produced by learners themselves” (as cited in Baker et al., 2006: 103). In other words, a learner corpus contains L2 output produced by language learners of any proficiency level. However, the aspect of authenticity is considered somehow problematic with regard to learner language. For Granger (2002: 8),

Even the most authentic data from non-native speakers is rarely authentic as native speaker data, especially in the case of EFL learners, who learn English in the classroom. We all know that the foreign language teaching context usually involves some degree of 'artificiality' and that learner data is therefore rarely fully natural. A number of learner corpora involve some degree of control.

Upon authenticity, Widdowson (1998, 2000; as cited in Tono, 2016: 35) argues that corpus data is not authentic language since the text is separated from its original context, and he also claims that "in language learning contexts, learners are often authenticate genuine text as they do not belong to the community for which the texts are created."

2.3.2.2. Corpus Compilation and Design Criteria

According to Sinclair (1996), "a corpus is a collection of pieces of language that are selected and ordered according to explicit linguistic criteria in order to be used a sample of the language" (McEnery et al., 2006: 4). The corpora are built for various purposes "which in turn influence the design, size and nature of the individual corpus" (Kennedy, 1998: 3). The most frequent corpus types can be listed as "specialised corpus, general corpus, comparable corpora, parallel corpora, learner corpus, pedagogic corpus, historical or diachronic corpus, and monitor corpus" (Hunston, 2002: 15-16). This study deals with written learner corpus to compare with native speakers. Granger (2002: 10) also lists different kinds of learner corpus typology designed or compiled for many different purposes such as synchronic or diachronic, monolingual or bilingual, general or technical, spoken or written.

Briefly to say, there are some essential aspects in corpus compilation such as size, content, and representativeness (Hunston: 2002: 25). The size of a corpus is a fundamental issue in corpus design. As it is previously noted, the advances in computer technology make it easy and reliable to store and analyze even larger size of corpora. As Hunston (2002: 25) claims, "the feasible size of a corpus is not limited so much by the capacity of a computer to store it, as by the speed and efficiency of the access software." Researchers may also prefer using smaller size of corpus to work on to have an access to reliable data. The content of a corpus depends on the scope and purpose of the research. Representativeness of a corpus is closely associated with the sampling. Biber (1993: 243) states that "representativeness refers to the extent to which a sample includes the full range of variability in a population." According to Leech (1991: 27), "in practical terms a corpus is 'representative' to the extent that findings based on its contents can be generalized to a larger hypothetical corpus." However, the representativeness of a corpus may change over time and it becomes 'unrepresentative' if not updated regularly (Hunston: 2002: 30).

It is quite obvious that a learner corpus should be carefully compiled on the basis of some certain features. The texts that learner corpus include may not be supposed to be called as

“naturally occurring texts” like texts in native corpora (Nesselhauf, 2005: 40). A clear design criteria is a must for the compilation of a learner language corpus since it is ‘heterogeneous’ for holding various kinds of learners from different learning backgrounds (Granger: 1998: 7). Granger (1998) lists some of the main features which are relevant to learner corpus compilation:

Table 1: Learner corpus design criteria

Language	Learner
Medium	Age
Genre	Sex
Topic	Mother Tongue
Technicality	Region
Task Setting	Other Foreign Languages
	Level
	Learning Context
	Practical Experience

Source: Granger (1998: 8)

Granger (1998: 8) explains that the attributes in the category of language shown in the table are quite similar to criteria used in native corpus design. Medium represents written or spoken corpora in which different genres can be used such as “argumentative vs. narrative writing or spontaneous conversation vs. informal interview.” The topic is of high importance since it has an effect on ‘lexical choice’ while technicality determines both the “lexis and grammar.” Task setting is related to features such as preparedness (time limit) or being part of an exam. Except for “age and sex”, all the attributes belonging to the learner are unique to learner corpora. Learner’s mother tongue, other foreign languages s/he knows, language varieties spoken in his or her region, language level, learning context, and practical experience all have a potential to influence ‘L2 output’.

2.3.2.3. Reference corpora

Reference corpus represents the standards and norms of native speakers. It is supposed to be large enough to comprise all varieties and characteristics of a language in order to be used as a reliable reference. Leech (1998: xv) defines the reference corpus as “a standard of comparison, a norm against which to measure the characteristics of the learner corpora.” Granger (2002: 12) highlights that there are quite many native corpora available today for contrastive analysis to take as a norm. Baker (2006: 43) concentrates upon the benefits of reference corpora in linguistic researches. Initially, he states that reference corpora can represent a specific genre to provide evidence of its discourse. He adds that “a reference corpus acts as a good benchmark of what is

‘normal’ in language, by which your own data can be compared to”. In addition to these, reference corpora can be used to test linguistic theories (Baker, 2006: 43).

It seems an obvious truth that writing texts produced by native speakers can serve as professional criteria to be compared for eliciting learners’ interlanguage development. As Adel (2006; as cited in Paquot, 2010: 72) puts forward,

On the one hand, it can be argued that in order to evaluate foreign learner writing by students justly, we need to use native-speaker writing that is also produced by students for comparison. On the other hand, it can also be argued that professional writing represents the norm that advanced foreign learner writers try to reach and their teachers try to promote. In this respect, a useful corpus for comparison is one which offers a collection of what Bazerman (1994: 131) calls ‘expert performances.’

What is more, Hunston (2002: 20) highlights the importance of using native corpora in language studies as follows:

A corpus essentially tells us what language is like, and the main argument in favor of using a corpus is that it is a more reliable guide to language use than native speaker intuition is. Although a native speaker has experience of very much more language than is contained in even the largest corpus, much of that experience remains hidden from introspection... Intuition is a poor guide to at least four aspects of language: collocation, frequency, prosody and phraseology.

Thus, the current study which is mainly based on semantic prosodic analysis of English intensifiers employs the utilization of native corpus in comparison with learner corpora to investigate interlanguage development of EFL learners. Through the use of corpora, one can analyze the prosodic nature of lexical items, namely semantic prosody, which refers to “the spreading of connotational coloring beyond single word boundaries” (Louw, 1993: 157). When the learner corpora, KTUCLE and TICLE are compared with a reference corpus such as LOCNESS, it means that L1 corpus is taken as a standard reference with which the learner data from a L2 corpus will be compared.

2.3.3. Semantic Prosody (SP)

Semantic prosody has aroused intense interest among corpus linguists for almost twenty years (Stewart, 2010: 6). “Louw was the linguist who introduced the term semantic prosody to the linguistic field” (Al-Sofi et al., 2014: 121). He explained the concept as “a consistent aura of meaning with which a form is imbued by its collocates” (Louw, 1993: 157). This is obviously a short definition, but the use of metaphors is worth to be explained in detail to understand the SP concept in a broader sense. Semantic prosody is a meaning transferred from one word to another, and here this transfer is expressed metaphorically with the verb ‘to imbue’ which can be simply explained by Whitsitt (2015: 288) as follows:

...in order to better understand these terms and how they are linked, we need to understand what the word imbue means and how it is used. In the Oxford English Dictionary we find “imbue” as a transitive verb with a literal and figurative meaning. The literal sense is linked with fluids: when one imbues something, it means: “to saturate, wet thoroughly (with moisture); to dye, to tinge, impregnate (with colour.)” The figurative meaning refers to immaterial principles, such as spirit, moral vigor, beliefs, as in “to impregnate, permeate, pervade, or inspire (with opinions, feelings, habits, etc.)” What seems to be happening here is that immaterial things such as spirit, meanings, and beliefs can be transferred by imbuing because they are thought of as liquids.

There is another metaphor used in Louw’s well-known definition that meaning is thought of as an ‘aura’ which is described in Oxford English Dictionary as “the distinctive atmosphere or quality that seems to surround and be generated by a person, thing, or place.” Similar to Louw’s above-mentioned metaphorical description of SP as “aura of meaning”, Bublitz (1996) suggests that “words can have a specific halo or profile, which may be positive, pleasant and good, or else negative, unpleasant and bad” (as cited in Cheng, 2013: 1).

To define the concept better, Louw (2000: 60) expands the scope of SP in his working definition:

A semantic prosody refers to a form of meaning which is established through the proximity of a consistent series of collocates, often characterisable as positive or negative, and whose primary function is the expression of the attitude of its speaker or writer towards some pragmatic situation.

It can be clearly derived from above-quoted description that Louw’s understanding of semantic prosody depends on the consistency of two fundamental issues that are ‘collocation’ and ‘attitudes’. Semantic prosody is often found in the company of the term ‘collocation’. This fact can be explained briefly as follows “if several different words all sharing the same semantic trait are frequently used with another word, meaning will be passed, over time, from that group of words to the other word” (Whitsitt, 2000: 284). In other words, in semantic prosody certain individual words have a tendency to collocate with positive, negative, or neutral items by nature. According to Stubbs (1995: 25), “it is becoming increasingly well documented that words may habitually collocate with other words from a definable semantic set.” Hunston (1999) also agrees that “briefly, a word may be said to have a particular semantic prosody if it can be shown to co-occur typically with other words that belong to a particular semantic set” (as cited in Hunston and Francis, 2000: 104).

Another definition is provided by Sinclair (1996), who had originally suggested the idea of SP to Louw during a “personal communication in 1988” as Louw himself stated in his well-known article “Irony in the Text or Insincerity in the Writer?” (Louw, 1993: 158). Even though Louw (1993) is known as the first researcher who introduced the concept of semantic prosody, Sinclair

initially mentioned and caught the attention to it. As it is deduced from the following definition, Sinclair (1996: 87) actually adopts a pragmatic approach to SP:

Semantic prosody...is attitudinal, and on the pragmatic side of the semantics / pragmatics continuum. It is thus capable of a wide range of realisation, because in pragmatic expressions the normal semantic values of the words are not necessarily relevant. But once noticed among the variety of expression, it is immediately clear that the semantic prosody has a leading role to play in the integration of an item with its surroundings.

Partington (2004: 131) states that Sinclair (1987, 1996, 1998), Louw (1993) and Stubbs (2001) are among the most notable linguistics elaborating on the concept of semantic prosody. Hunston (2007) puts forward that Sinclair's study of *set in* (1991), Stubbs' study on *cause* (1995) and Louw's analysis of *utterly* (1993) are the common examples on semantic prosody which have caught the most attention among many other linguists. In the first place, Louw's example of adverb 'utterly' which carries a negative semantic prosodic effect, is mostly combined with undesirable collocations such as *depression, terrified, against, destroying, demolished*, etc. Retrieved from Cobuild corpus, above-mentioned concordances of 'utterly' indicates that it has mostly 'bad' prosody and just a few 'good' collocations (Louw, 1993: 161). Based on Cobuild corpus, Louw also finds out that *bent on* usually collocates with pretty unpleasant items; for instance, *bent on destroying / harrying / mayhem* (Partington, 2004: 133).

In addition, Stubbs (1995) explains in the abstract of his article that "using data from corpora of up to 12 million words, it is shown that the lemma CAUSE occurs in predominantly 'unpleasant' collocations, such as cause of the trouble and cause of the death." Since *cause* tends to collocate frequently with negative items, researchers are more likely to label it as bearing negative prosody (Wachter, 2008: 13). However, this negative prosodic identification of the lemma *cause* is criticized by Hunston (2007) by emphasizing the significance of context. According to Hunston (2007: 263):

With respect to CAUSE, for example, it would be possible to suggest that this verb loses its association with negative evaluation when it occurs in 'scientific' registers. A more sustainable argument, however, might be that...the attitudinal meaning associated with CAUSE applies only when the 'caused entity' concerns animate beings, their activities and goals. Where the 'caused entity' is an inanimate object unrelated to human goals no attitudinal meaning is implied. If a register makes more use of the second phenomenon than the first, it will appear that in that register CAUSE has no attitudinal meaning.

It is clearly understood from this explanation that Hunston agrees with Stubbs who thought *cause* generally tends to have an undesirable meaning when the context is related to something animate or human properties. In the example of Wachter (2012: 13), "these proteins cause a smell to be less strong", *cause* refers to inanimate thing, and it cannot be regarded as having negative prosody. That is to say, semantic prosody depends on the collocations of a word.

Moreover, Sinclair gives an example to semantic prosody by putting an emphasis on the negative effect of phrasal verb 'set in'. The collocations of this phrasal verb always has a bad semantic profile in the data he examined. On *set in*, Sinclair (1987, as cited in Partington, 2004: 132) notes:

The most striking feature of this phrasal verb is the nature of the subjects. In general they refer to unpleasant states of affairs. Only three refer to the weather; a few are neutral, such as reaction and trend. The main vocabulary is rot (3), decay, ill-will, decadence, impoverishment, infection, prejudice, vicious (circle), rigor mortis, numbness, bitterness, mannerism, anticlimax, anarchy, disillusion, disillusionment, slump. Not one of these is desirable or attractive.

Partington (1998: 68) explains semantic prosody as “the spreading of connotational coloring beyond single word boundaries.” Partington (1998: 67) adds that “often a favourable or unfavourable connotations is not contained in a single item, but is expressed by that item in association with others, with its collocates.” Partington (1998: 67) provides an example to unfavorable prosody with the term *rife* since it has a tendency to co-occur with words like “corruption, violence, speculation, crime, misery and disease.”

Concerning all the examples above, Partington (2004) points out that in such cases, the word seems to collocate frequently with many items sharing distinct semantic set, but having evaluative meaning in common. Similarly, Hunston and Thompson (2000: 5) emphasize the attitudinal function of SP which they describe as “the speaker or writer’s attitude or stance towards, viewpoint or feelings about the entities and propositions that he or she is talking about.” It is also defined as an indicator of good or bad (Partington, 2004, 131).

It is well-known that computer-held studies have greatly contributed to the semantic prosodic analysis in recent years. “Semantic prosodies have, in large measure and for thousands of years, remained hidden from our perception and inaccessible to our intuition” (Louw, 1993: 173). In other words, human introspection is not a reliable source for retrieving semantic prosodies. In this vein, Zethsen (2006: 279) highlights the significance of corpus studies:

The important discovery of the existence of semantic prosodies means that we cannot reveal connotative meaning in a text by simply looking at individual words. We must take into account the wider semantic/collocational patterns which these words form part of in order to reach the evaluations which are likely to be triggered in a reader’s mind and for this we need computers and corpus studies.

Xiao and McEnery (2006: 106) also assert that “yet as the size of corpora has grown, and tools for extracting semantic prosodies have been developed, semantic prosodies have been addressed much more frequently by linguists as exemplified” and summarized below by them:

Table 2: Examples of Semantic Prosody

Author	Negative Prosody	Positive Prosody
Sinclair (1991)	BREAK OUT	
	HAPPEN	
	SET in	
Louw (1993, 2000)	bent on	
	build up of	BUILD up a
	END up <i>verbing</i>	
	GET oneself <i>verbed</i>	
	a recipe for	
Stubbs (1995, 1996, 2001a, 2001b)	ACCOST	PROVIDE
	CAUSE	career
	FAN the flame	
	signs of underage	
	teenager(s)	
Partington (1998)	COMMIT	
	PEDDLE/peddler	
	Dealings	
Hunston (2002)	SIT thorough	
Schmitt and Carter (2004)	bordering on	

Source: Xiao and McEnery (2006: 106)

2.3.3.1. Semantic Prosody as an Extended Unit of Meaning (EUM)

“The starting point of the description of meaning in language is the word” writes John Sinclair (2004: 24) in his book *Trust the Text* to put an emphasis on the importance of words as the smallest basic units conveying the meaning. However, Stubbs (2009: 124) puts forward that an individual word is not enough for conveying meaning. The meaning of an individual lexical item may differ in a context through its connections with different words. In other words, the unit of meaning lies at the heart of the phrases that a word collocates with.

One of the forerunners of corpus linguistics, Sinclair’s model of ‘the unit of meaning’ is consisted of four types of co-selection categories: “collocation, colligation, semantic preference and semantic prosody.” The following descriptions of these four units of meaning are ordered from concrete to abstract (Stubbs, 2009: 124-125):

- (1) COLLOCATION is the relation of co-occurrence between an obligatory core word or phrase (the node) and individual COLLOCATES: word/tokens which are directly observable and countable in texts.
- (2) COLLIGATION is the relation of co-occurrence between the node and abstract grammatical categories (e.g. past participles or quantifiers). A traditional category such as “negative” may

be realized grammatically (would not budge) or semantically (would hardly budge, refused to budge).

(3) SEMANTIC PREFERENCE is the relation of co-occurrence between the phrasal unit and words from characteristic lexical fields. Recurrent collocates provide observable evidence of the characteristic topic of the surrounding text (e.g. typical subjects or objects of a verb).

(4) SEMANTIC PROSODY is the function of the whole extended unit. It is a generalization about the communicative purpose of the unit: the reason for choosing it (and is therefore related to the concept of illocutionary force).

To sum up, the model of ‘Extended Units of Meaning’ has the following main components:

Table 3: The components of EUM

COLLOCATION	tokens	co-occurring word-forms
COLLIGATION	classes	co-occurring grammatical classes
SEMANTIC PREFERENCE	topics	textual coherence
SEMANTIC PROSODY	motivation	communicative purpose

Source: (Stubbs, 2009: 125)

As Tognini-Bonelli (2001: 19) adds, “the units thus described are ‘extended units of meaning’ because, having started with a node as a core, they have incorporated other words in the co-text that appeared to be co-selected with it and form a regular pattern.” Last but not least, Sinclair (1996, as cited in Zethsen, 2006: 279) concludes that “so strong are the co-occurrence tendencies of words [collocation], word classes [colligation], meanings [semantic preference] and attitudes [semantic prosody] that we must widen our horizons and expect the units of meaning to be much more extensive and varied than is seen in a single word.”

2.3.3.2. Semantic Preference vs. Semantic Prosody

Semantic preference is “the relation, not between individual words, but between a lemma or word-form and a set of semantically related words” (Stubbs, 2001: 65). In other words, semantic preference is closely related to the issue of collocation in which a particular lexical item collocates not with another individual item, but with a series of items in a semantic field (Partington, 2004: 150). For instance, Stubbs examines the word *large* in a corpus having 200 million tokens and reveals that the 25% of 56,000 examples frequently collocates with lexical items such as “number, scale, part, amounts, quantities etc.” belonging to the same semantic category; and the semantic preference of *large* is typically “quantities and sizes” (Begagić, 2013: 404). Semantic prosody, on the other side, is regarded by Sinclair as “an obligatory property of a unit of meaning, although it may be more or less explicit in any one example” (Hunston, 2007: 250) essentially being either positive or negative in its context. There are various “two-term” evaluations of SP in the literature: “positive and negative, favourable and unfavourable, desirable and undesirable” (Morley and

Partington and, 2009: 141). When a word is not associated with positive or negative items in a context, it can be considered as having neutral prosody in nature (Ünalđı, 2013: 42).

For Stubbs (2009: 126), “the concepts of semantic preference and semantic prosody has received substantial commentary” among many linguists such as Partington (2004) and Hunston (2007). However, these two units of meaning in Sinclair’s EUM model seem to lead to confusion on many readers. In a similar sense, Bednarek (2008: 119) states that these two terms are likely to be often confusing due to being two distinct but related phenomena at the same time. According to Stubbs (2001), “the distinction [...] is not entirely clear-cut. It is partly a question of how open-ended the list of collocates is: it might be possible to list all words in English for quantities and sizes, but not for unpleasant things” (as cited in Partington, 2004: 149). Hence, Stubbs (2009: 126) offers that the complication between semantic preference and semantic prosody might be prevented by using different terms “in order to distinguish between semantic relations (to the topic of the surrounding text) and the pragmatic function (of the whole phrasal unit).”

To McEnery and Hardie (2012: 138), “semantic preference links the node to some word in its context drawn from a particular semantic field, whereas semantic prosody links the node to some expression of attitude or evaluation which may not be a single word, but may be given in the wider context.” Sinclair’s analysis of *the naked eye* can be given as an example to clarify the distinction between these two concepts. According to the concordances below, Sinclair (as cited in McEnery and Hardie, 2012, 138) discusses that expression of “*the naked eye* has a semantic preference of visibility” which is clearly derived from the words such as “seen, visible and perceived.”

- ...too faint to be seen with *the naked eye*
- ...it is not really visible to *the naked eye*
- ...cannot always be perceived by *the naked eye*

In other respects, the expression of “*the naked eye* has a semantic prosody of difficulty.” However, this semantic meaning cannot be deduced from the isolated words in the context, but by pragmatic interpretation of readers or analysts (McEnery and Hardie, 2012: 138). “Semantic prosodies are evaluative or *attitudinal* and are used to express the speaker’s approval (good prosody) or disapproval (bad prosody) of whatever topic is momentarily the object of discourse” (Sinclair, 1996, as cited in Partington, 2004: 150).

The core of the current study is on intensifiers which are the attitudinal way of expressing one’s perspective, opinion, or point of view. Therefore, the main focus of the analysis and discussion will be on semantic prosody within Sinclair’s EUM model, which is evaluative and attitudinal in nature.

2.3.3.3. Studies Related to Semantic Prosody

Recently in the field of corpus linguistics, a great many investigations have been carried out on semantic prosody by well-known linguists mentioned before (Louw, 1993; Sinclair, 1996; Partington, 1998, 2004; Stubbs, 2001). In addition to western studies, the SP concept has begun to arouse attention in the past few years among many scholars from other countries, especially from China.

To begin with the Chinese researchers, Wei (2002) investigated semantic prosody of the verb CAUSE in English language, and he found out that it has a negative semantic prosody similar to other researchers' findings. His analysis also indicated that there are different semantic prosodic features in specialized genres and texts. For instance, the word *cause* has predominantly negative prosodic nature in academic texts than general writing texts (Zhang, 2009). Wang and Wang (2005) also conducted a comparative study on the semantic prosodic analysis of the lemma CAUSE. The study focused on the English written texts produced by native speakers and Chinese learners, and utilized two corpus: Chinese Learner English Corpus (CLEC) and part of the British National Corpus (SBNC). With this in mind, the collocates of CAUSE were retrieved from the two corpora and then two of most frequent collocates were determined for comparison: *change(s)* and *great(er, est)*. The analysis indicated that a significant difference occurred between native speakers and non-native Chinese learners concerning semantic prosodic usage of CAUSE. Chinese EFL learners were found to underuse the typical negative semantic prosody of the lemma CAUSE while they tend to overuse its positive SP.

McEnery and Xiao's (2006) study compared the collocational semantic prosodic behavior of three groups of near-synonyms in English with those in Chinese language from a cross-linguistic perspective. They used English and Chinese corpora to conduct their research. Based on the statistical analysis, they drew the conclusion that semantic prosodic nature of both languages are observable and similar in manner. Similarly, another investigation carried out by Gong and Wu (2012) examined the issue of collocation, semantic prosody and near-synonymy like McEnery and Xiao (2006). Their focus was on the collocational and semantic prosodic nature of two verbs used for 'help' in Mandarin Chinese, and they utilized a Chinese corpus called Chinese Word Sketch to make their analysis. According to the results of their research, it was found out that the near-synonymous words have different collocations in terms of semantic prosody.

Zhang (2010) conducted a comparative study on Chinese EFL learners' semantic prosodic use of the verb COMMIT by contrasting learner corpus CLEC and reference corpus BROWN. The analysis indicated that Chinese EFL learners had somehow similar prosodic behaviour when compared to native speakers. Nonetheless, some collocations and patterns of semantic prosody far

from nativeness and harmony were observed in EFL learners who were in their interlanguage development period.

Sardinha (2000) carried out a contrastive corpus-based investigation identifying semantic prosody of equivalent items in English and Portuguese languages. According to the findings, the striking features of semantic prosody were observed through a 140-million word corpus of Portuguese. BNC is also used as reference corpus. In their corpus-based analysis, Oster and Lawick (2008) investigated translation aspects of co-occurrence patterns for selected idioms in German, Spanish and/or Catalan in order to find out similarities and differences regarding semantic preference and semantic prosody.

McGee (2012) examined the semantic prosodic awareness of three groups of participants consisted of non-native university undergraduate students, Arab English teachers, and native speaker English teachers in terms of seven lexical items, respectively *bring about, cause, completely, face, potentially, provide, regime*. The goal of the research was to investigate to what extent two non-native speaker groups of different English language level are aware of the semantic prosodic usage of these words in comparison to native speakers. The results showed that semantic prosodic awareness did not actually develop in non-native learners' use of lexical items under investigation, whereas the group of native speakers was observed to have semantic prosodic tendencies for all seven items.

Begagić (2013) researched one of the most frequently used V-N collocations *make sense* in terms of semantic preference and semantic prosody, which are two notions that have been recently studied in corpus linguistics. First 100 occurrences of *make sense* were selected randomly from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and analyzed manually in detail.

As a Turkish researcher, Ünalı (2013) examined the semantic prosodic properties of the word *pose* in English in COCA, a 464-million-word corpus. The collocational occurrences of the target word *pose* in academic contexts were compared with other genres. The findings indicated that *pose* seems to combine with negative lexical items in academic contexts, whereas in others it has a tendency to have neutral semantic prosody.

There are also studies examining the semantic prosodic aspects of Turkish language. For instance, a corpus-based research implemented by Aksan et al. (2008) aimed at analyzing two groups of synonymous Turkish words: (1) *aşk, sevda, sevgi*; standing for 'love'; and (2) *Tanrı, Allah*; for 'God'. The study utilized the METU Turkish Language Corpus to examine these word groups in terms of semantic prosody. Çalışkan (2014) also had a study based on different semantic prosodic aspects of Turkish language. The target node words of the study, namely "*aksettirmek, ...dan ibaret, ...nin teki, karşı karşıya, varsa yoksa*", were analyzed through the demo version of the

Turkish National Corpus. In addition, Kara (2017) carried out another research concerning the issue of semantic prosody in Turkish language based on Turkish National Corpus. His study investigated Turkish near-synonymous words “*örgüt, kurum, kuruluş, teşkilat, şebeke*” all denoting a meaning of ‘institution’. Pilten (2017) also elaborated on the concept of SP by giving examples from Turkish language and previous relevant studies from abroad.

2.4. Intensifiers

Many researchers (Quirk, et al., 1985; Partington, 1993; Lorenz, 1999) have extensively studied intensifiers. Bolinger (1972: 17) defines the term intensifier as “any device that scales a quality, whether up or down or somewhere between the two.” Intensifiers are also labelled as ‘degree adverbs’ or ‘degree modifiers’. With regard to this issue, Quirk et al. (1985: 445) came up with an explanation that “most commonly, the modifying adverb is a scaling device called an intensifier, which cooccurs with a gradable adjective.”

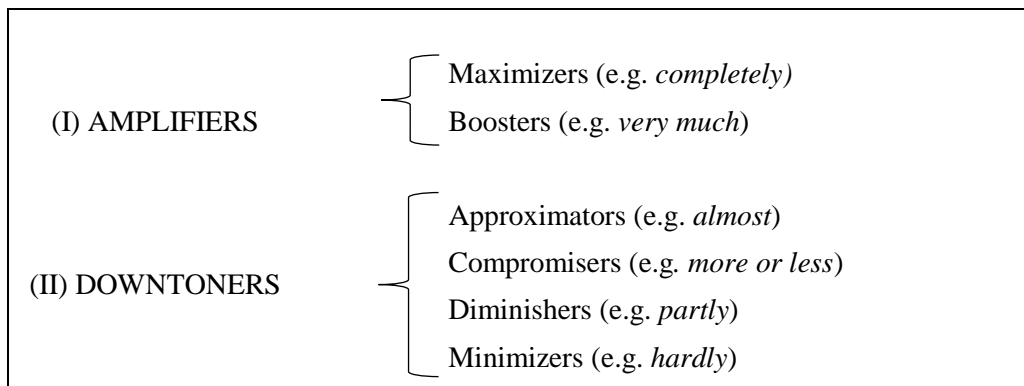
Different forms of intensifiers have been categorized in reference books of English grammar as well as in earlier studies. Stoffel (1901) is the first linguist who made a distinction between “intensives and down-toners, which respectively express a high or a low degree of the adjective that is being premodified, e.g. extremely good and rather good” (Wittouck, 2011: 11). This categorization was later adopted and developed by Quirk and his counterparts. Referring to intensifiers as degree adverbs, Quirk et al. (1985: 445) identify two subcategories of intensifiers which are “amplifiers and downtoners”. Amplifiers indicate “scale upwards from an assumed norm” (e.g. ‘a very funny film’) while downtoners “have a generally lowering effect, usually scaling downwards from an assumed norm” (e.g. ‘It was almost dark’). Bolinger’s (1972) definition of intensifiers is similar to that of Quirk et al.’s; however, he divided intensifiers “differently into Boosters (Quirk et al.’s Amplifiers), Compromisers (Quirk et al.’s Approximators and Comprimisers), Diminishers, and Maximizers” (as cited in King, 2016: 2). Lorenz (2002) also categorizes intensifiers into “five semantic categories according to their sources: (a) scalar, which just scale a quality, with no additional propositional content, e.g. very; (b) feature copying, which achieve ‘their intensifying effect by copying a substantial part of the adjective’s denotation’ as in blatantly clear; (c) evaluative, which express an evaluation on the part of the speaker, e.g. ridiculously low; (d) comparative, like eminently or especially; and (e) modal, which state the degree to which the quality holds true” (as cited in Méndez-Naya, 2003: 378). The table below demonstrates different categorizations of intensifiers suggested by eminent scholars:

Table 4: Different Categorizations of Intensifiers

Scholar	Categories for Scale of Degree
Stoffel (1901)	Intensives, Down-toners
Bolinger (1972)	Boosters, Compromizers Diminishers, Minimizers
Quirk et al. (1973)	Amplifiers (Maximizers, Boosters) Downtoners (Approximators, Compromizers, Diminishers, Minimizers)
Biber et al. (1999)	Amplifiers / Intensifiers, Diminishers / Downtoners
Lorenz (2002)	Scalar, copying, evaluative, comparative, modal

Quirk et al.’s (1985) classification of intensifiers actually deserves special mention since it is widely recognized and cited in many recent studies related to the use of intensifiers (Tagliamonte, 2008; Wittouck, 2011; Yaoyu and Lei, 2011; 2014; Özbay and Aydemir, 2017; Wang, 2017). Quirk et al. (1985: 590) classify amplifiers into “two subgroups a) maximizers which can denote the upper extreme of the scale b) boosters which denote a high degree, a high point on the scale.” Downtoners, on the other hand, are divided into four subcategories: (a) approximators which refer “to express an approximation to the force of the verb”, (b) compromisers that “have only a slight lowering effect”, (c) diminishers that “scale downwards and roughly mean ‘to a small extent’”, (d) minimizers which are “negative maximizers (not) to any extent” (Quirk et al., 1985: 597). The following table illustrates all subcategories of intensifiers proposed by Quirk and his colleagues:

Figure 5. The Subsets of Intensifiers



Source: Quirk et al., (1985: 589-590)

The subcategory of intensifiers proposed by Quirk et al. (1985) will be henceforth the focus of the present study, and the research will mostly revolve around amplifiers.

2.4.1. Amplifiers

The current study focuses on amplifiers because they are the most frequent category of intensifiers in British National Corpus (Kennedy, 2003: 472). According to Altenberg (1991: 128),

“what makes amplifiers an interesting category to study from a collocational point of view is that they are subject to a number of syntactic, semantic, lexical and stylistic restrictions affecting their use in various ways and fostering a great deal of competition between them.” In a similar vein, on amplifiers, Granger (as cited in Lorenz, 1999: 27) remarks:

They constitute a particularly rich category of lexical collocation involving as they do a complex interplay of semantic, lexical and stylistic restrictions and covering the whole collocational spectrum, ranging from restricted collocability – as in bitterly cold – to wide collocability – as in completely different/new/free etc.

Briefly, the amplifying intensifiers “scale upwards from an assumed norm” (Quirk et al., 1985: 590). For Biber et al. (1999: 554), “traditionally, degree adverbs that increase intensity are called amplifiers.” The amplifiers are divided into two categories: “(a) ‘maximizers’ (*absolutely, completely, entirely, totally, utterly*, etc.), which denote an absolute degree of intensity and therefore occupy the extreme upper end of the scale, and (b) ‘boosters’ (*very, awfully, terribly, bloody, tremendously*, etc.), which denote a high degree but without reaching the extreme end of the scale” (Altenberg, 1991: 128). According to Altenberg (1991: 129), maximizers and boosters differ in terms of “their different demands on the gradability of the intensified element.” Maximizers signify ‘nonscalar’ items which “do not normally permit grading (e.g. empty, impossible, wrong)”, whereas boosters basically modify ‘scalar’ items which are “fully gradable (e.g. very beautiful)”.

Many EFL learners consciously overuse adjective intensification in their written performance on the purpose of keeping readers’ attention and focus. Another reason for non-native learners’ tendency to overuse of amplifiers is that they would like to conceal their insufficient knowledge of vocabulary. “The learners not only use more intensification, they also use it in places where it is semantically incompatible, communicatively unnecessary or syntactically undesirable” (Lorenz, 1998: 64). EFL learners believe that an amplifier may be easily replaced by its synonyms in a context. Although amplifiers can be regarded as near-synonymous pairs and can be used interchangeably in the same pattern, there are slight differences related to their meaning. Near-synonymous lexical items that have similar meanings pose a challenge for EFL learners.

2.4.2. Studies on the use of Intensifiers by EFL Learners

There are a great number of studies investigating EFL learners’ use of intensifiers in spoken and written language. As being relevant to the scope of present study, the researches elaborating on intensifier use especially in writing are widely mentioned in this section. A couple of investigations belonging to prominent scholars or linguists (Lorenz, 1998; Granger, 1998; Kennedy, 2003; Partington, 2004) are initially presented. Then, various studies conducted by other researchers, who

are studying or interested in applied linguistics, are discussed to throw light at the issue of EFL learners' intensification in their writing.

First of all, Lorenz (1998) examined adjective intensification in German EFL students' writing by comparing them with British native speaker students. Totally four corpora were used in the study: two learner corpora compiled from German teenagers and German university students of English, and two native speaker corpora, namely ICLE and LOCNESS. The findings show that advanced German EFL learners were observed to overuse adjective intensification.

Furthermore, Granger (1998) compared French EFL learners with native speakers of English concerning their use of *-ly* ending amplifiers in writing. Only three amplifiers (*completely*, *totally* and *highly*) were found to have statistically significant differences. French students overused *completely* and *totally* while they underused *highly*. On the other hand, the frequency of boosters was less than the ones native speakers used. It is found out that French EFL learners had a tendency to use fewer amplifier collocations than native speakers. Besides, French learners had a tendency to use proper collocations that might be resulted from the L1 transfer (Granger, 1998: 6).

Kennedy (2003) thoroughly analyzed the use of twenty four most frequently used amplifiers in British National Corpus. The researcher examined frequencies and collocations of selected amplifiers. The maximizers under investigation were "*fully, completely, entirely, absolutely, totally, perfectly, utterly, and dead*". The selected boosters were "*very, particularly, clearly, highly, very much, extremely, badly, heavily, deeply, greatly, considerably, severely, terribly, enormously, and incredibly*". Fundamentally, this particular research is crucial because the seven of the selected maximizers, excluding *dead*, are also analyzed in this thesis.

As the title of his paper "*Utterly Content in Each Other's Company*" suggests, Partington (2004) examined a group of maximizers used in British English by utilizing 10 million-word Cobuild corpus. The amplifiers "*absolutely, perfectly, entirely, completely, thoroughly, totally and utterly*" were analyzed in terms of semantic preference as well as semantic prosody so as to find out whether they collocate with favorable or unfavorable items. The table below summarizes the observations that Partington (2014) made throughout his study on intensifier usage:

Table 5: Partington’s Study on Intensifiers

Maximizer	Preference for	Prosody
absolutely	hyperbole, superlatives	
perfectly		favourable
utterly	absence / change of state	unfavourable
totally	absence / change of state	
completely	absence / change of state	
entirely	absence / change of state, (in) dependency	
thoroughly	emotions / liquid penetration	

Source: Partington (2014: 218)

Liang (2004) compared Chinese EFL learners’ way of maximizer use with native English speakers in their spoken language. The frequency of maximizers in Chinese corpus was found to be less than those used by native English speakers. The researcher made the inference based on the finding that non-native English speakers are supposed to have an insufficient knowledge of maximizers; thus they are likely to use the same maximizers with different collocates in various contexts.

Yaoyu and Lei (2011) investigated amplifiers in the doctoral dissertations of Chinese EFL learners to evaluate their use in academic writings in a strict sense. There were two corpora in the study compiled by the researchers. CND is the corpus consisted of 20 dissertations written by native Chinese EFL learners, while USD is the control corpus consisting of the dissertations by native English speakers in the United States of America. The results indicated that Chinese EFL learners seem to use more amplifier collocations when compared to native speakers.

Many investigations on intensifier collocation or adjective intensification in second or foreign language learning concern corpus studies of semantic prosody. For example, Eriksson (2013) investigated American and Swedish journalists’ use of maximizers in writing. With this purpose, maximizers are analyzed in two corpora which are SWENC (The Swedish-English Corpus) and TIME (Time Corpus of American English). Based on the investigation, the researcher concluded that there are some differences between Swedes and Americans in terms of maximizer usage. The frequency of each maximizer between the two corpora does not show a significant difference. However, larger variations were found in the use of intensifier collocations and semantic prosody.

Turkish researchers Özbay and Aydemir (2017) examined tertiary level Turkish EFL learners’ use of intensifiers based on two learner corpora named as Karadeniz Technical University Corpus of Academic Learner English (KTUCALE) and British Academic Written English (BAWE). The study attempted to investigate EFL learners’ semantic prosodic awareness while using maximizers such as “*absolutely, completely, entirely, totally, utterly, fully and perfectly*” in

their academic writing. The results indicated that Turkish EFL learners are observed to have a restricted knowledge of intensifiers. According to the findings, *absolutely*, *entirely*, *fully* and *perfectly* are found principally positive, while *completely* is observed as a neutral maximizer. On the other hand, *totally* and *utterly* have negative semantic prosody with their high proportion of negative collocates.

The subject of intensifiers and their semantic prosodic nature have recently attracted much interest from Chinese researchers, as well. Zhang (2013) conducted a study on semantic prosodic change of intensifiers based on historical and modern corpus data. The Bank of English Corpus (BOE) and the Corpus of Late Modern English Texts (CLMETEV) were utilized in the study. Four adverbial intensifiers were examined in the study, namely “*terribly*, *awfully*, *horribly* and *dreadfully*”. The results showed that intensifiers having negative semantic prosody may co-occur with items in neutral or positive meaning.

Huang (2007) conducted a research on Chinese EFL learners in terms of their semantic prosodic behavior in adjective intensification based on two corpora: CLEC and BNC. According to results, the semantic prosodic use of amplifiers was generally in parallel with that of native speakers, but the frequency, types, and idiomaticity of amplifier collocations varied when language proficiency of the learners have a progress in level. In addition, Chinese learners were observed to misuse *totally* and *very much* in terms of semantic prosody and they have a tendency to underuse the positive semantic prosody of *terribly*.

Kim and Lee (2009) analyzed synonymous lexical items such as *totally*, *absolutely*, *utterly*, *completely*, and *entirely* by comparing contemporary authentic American language and Korean English textbook use. The American National Corpus consisting of 3.9 million spoken and 18.5 million written words was exploited for reference to make the analysis of authentic data. The Korean High School textbooks were composed of 291,501 words. A closer look at results revealed that intensifiers *absolutely* and *entirely* have semantic prosody, with a frequency percentage that is more than half the total frequency rate. On the other hand, the words *totally*, *utterly* and *completely* have an orientation towards negative semantic prosody.

Furthermore, Dao (2014) examined English amplifiers *absolutely*, *completely*, and *totally* from grammatical and functional aspects by using the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and various mini-corpora (MC) of everyday language use. These mini-corpora contain 677,930 words compiled from authentic texts such as letters of complaint, letters of application, chart descriptions, fairy tales, event announcements, bad news deliveries, and everyday conversations. The conclusion drawn from the statistical analysis showed that *absolutely* can probably co-occur more with positive adjectives, verbs, and adverbs; whereas the amplifiers *completely* and *totally* tend to modify items that have a negative semantic meaning.

Yang (2014) investigated Chinese English Learners' usage of one of the downtoners *somewhat* by comparing them with native speakers in terms of features such as semantic prosody, semantic preference, frequency, collocation, and colligation. The native English corpus used in the present study is the BYU-BNC developed in accompany with the BNC. The learner corpus of the study is the Chinese Learners' English Corpus (CLEC). The Chinese EFL learners tend to use less *somewhat* when compared with the native English speakers. As Yang (2014: 2336) stated that the downtoner usage of Chine EFL learners is significantly different in terms of collocations, colligation, semantic preference and semantic prosody.

Su (2016) conducted a study on intensifiers used by second or foreign language learners of English in China. Four general intensifiers were selected for the focus of the research: *quite*, *pretty*, *rather*, and *fairly*. There were three corpora in the study: the British National Corpus (BNC), the Written English Corpus of Chinese Learner (WECCL), and the Chinese Learner English Corpus (CLEC), which are compared in terms of practical usage and semantic prosodic features. It was observed that native speakers and EFL learners had different preferences and understanding on the use of four intensifiers in their writing.

Last but not least, the book of Wang (2017) under the title of *Patterns and Meanings of Intensifiers in Chinese Learner Corpora* is vital in respect of its scope as the present thesis focuses on similar issues to investigate on Turkish EFL learners' intensifier use. The book includes an extensive corpus investigation of Chinese EFL learners' amplifier usage distribution and patterns as well as features related to semantic prosody and preference. The frequency of intensifiers in learner corpora was in comparison with that in LOCNESS as reference corpus. As major findings, Wang (2017: 124) found that data distribution of intensifiers in the learner corpus had remarkably different features from those in the native corpus. A general tendency prevailing in the research was that Chinese learners of English tend to overuse intensifiers in terms of tokens but underuse intensifiers in terms of types. Moreover, learners demonstrate specific semantic prosodic behaviors and semantic preferences in using intensifiers (Wang, 2017: 125).

CHAPTER THREE

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodological framework of the study including procedures for data selection, collection and analysis. The methodology section also presents design criteria of two learner corpora and features of one reference corpus utilized in the study.

The aim of the current corpus-based study is to investigate the frequency level as well as semantic prosodic awareness of tertiary level Turkish EFL students in terms of using English intensifiers in their expository argumentative essays. By comparing two computerized learner corpora with a native speaker corpus, this research is conducted to reveal different patterns of intensifiers and the existing problems of intensifier use in learner English within interlanguage development period. From a pedagogical point of view, it can be assumed that the evaluation of intensifier usage by EFL learners focusing on their semantic prosodic awareness offers insights into the present levels of language learning and teaching settings in Turkey as well as the tertiary level Turkish EFL learners' existing practices and preferences in terms of using lexical and grammatical properties of English with a focus to their usage patterns of intensifiers. In other words, the most frequently used intensifiers by Turkish EFL learners will be described and presented in tables and graphics in terms of their patterning and the existing semantic prosodic features.

3.2. Methodological Framework

Methodologically, the study follows quantitative research techniques depending on the computer-aided analysis of three written corpora under investigation. As explained in the introductory chapter before, the present study mainly adopts the methodology of Granger's Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CIA) by nature with the help of two computerized non-native corpora and one native corpus as illustrated in Table 6:

Table 6: The CIA Model of the Study

L2 vs. L1	L2 vs. L2
KTUCLE vs. LOCNESS	KTUCLE vs. TICLE
TICLE vs. LOCNESS	

One of the above-mentioned non-native corpora, KTUCLE is the local learner corpus of the study and stands for Karadeniz Technical University Corpus of Learner English. Being an in-house learner corpus compiled by MA thesis supervisor of the researcher in Karadeniz Technical University in Turkey, KTUCLE is particularly preferred as the central L2 corpus to examine the written productions of EFL students in an attempt to study intensifier usage patterns. The second non-native corpus under research is TICLE (Turkish International Corpus of Learner English) as Turkish sub-corpus of ICLE (International Corpus of Learner English). The utilization of TICLE for complementary means helps to reveal alternative data for usage frequency and patterns in different Turkish speaking EFL settings. All the findings derived from these two learner corpora were compared with a native corpus called LOCNESS in order to make a comparison between the usage patterns and overuse/underuse levels in all corpora. LOCNESS (The Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays) as the reference corpus employed in this investigation is supposed to shed light on the standard use of English intensifiers by native speakers.

The learner corpus KTUCLE contains essays written by tertiary level preparatory students of a Turkish university in the city of Trabzon and all the essays are expository in character. The second learner corpus TICLE is consisted of essays collected from students in three universities in Turkey: Çukurova University, Mersin University and Mustafa Kemal University (Kilimci and Can, 2008). The reference corpus LOCNESS contains expository argumentative essays written by American and British university students (Granger, 1998). It is a corpus of native English made up of total 361,054 words. The profile and distribution of these corpora are shown in the following table:

Table 7: The Profiles of the Three Corpora Utilized in the Research

	KTUCLE	TICLE	LOCNESS
Tokens	709,748	223,449	361,054
Texts	1600	280	282+
L1	Turkish	Turkish	American English, British English
Genre	Expository	Expository Argumentative	Expository Argumentative

As emphasized in the previous sections, this research initially attempts to find out the overall usage frequency of intensifiers in learner English. Intensifiers are modifying phrases which carry the traces of speakers' attitudes. The data distribution of intensifiers in learner corpora in comparison with those in native corpus will also uncover different usage patterns and features of

semantic meaning. While analyzing form or patterns, one can also obtain information about meaning. Obviously, such descriptions of meaning can be made possible through the analysis of large-scale corpora.

In the light of corpus data, “the co-occurrence of particular words with particular grammatical patterns” can be identified (Carter, 2004: 72). According to Hunston et al. (1997) “there are two main points about patterns to be made: Firstly, that all words can be described in terms of patterns; secondly, that words which share patterns, share meanings” (as cited in Carter, 2004: 73). In order to investigate the function of meaning, semantic prosodic attitude of both non-native learners and native speakers of English in terms of using intensifiers in written production will be evaluated in this study in a descriptive manner based on Stubbs’ (1996) classification of semantic prosody as positive, negative, and neutral.

3.2.1. Labelling of Patterns

For pattern analysis of intensifiers, the study employs the approach of ‘pattern grammar’ held by Hunston and Francis (2000) in their book with the same name. To define it simply, the notion of pattern can be supposed as a grammatical form of a lexical item. In this study, ‘pattern’ is used as an indicator showing both the grammar and meaning function of a specific word. The patterns of major word-classes are simply labeled by Francis et al. (1996, 1998) as follows (Hunston and Francis, 2000: 51):

- v: verb group
- n: noun group
- adj: adjective group
- adv: adverb group
- that: clause introduced by that (realised or not)
- -ing: clause introduced by an ‘-ing’ form
- to-inf: clause introduced by a to-infinitive form
- wh: clause introduced by a wh-word (including how)
- with quote: used with direct speech

The labeling of intensifier patterns as Wang (2017) employed in his research based on the method of Hunston’s pattern grammar are adopted in this study. Intensifier plus adjective combination is labelled by Wang (2017) as ‘INT-adj’ in which intensifier is “the node word that is capitalized and abbreviated for pattern expression” (Wang, 2017: 52). INT-adj (intensifier + adjective) is the focused type of investigated intensifier collocations; therefore, other intensifier patterns such as modifying nouns, adverbs or verbs are not included within the scope of the current investigation.

3.3. The Selection Criteria of Intensifiers

Intensifier is used as an umbrella term to analyze adjective intensification. Quirk et al.'s (1985) taxonomy of intensifiers is taken as a reference in this study as it is widely-used in related corpus-based investigations. In this aforementioned categorization, there are two main sub-categories: amplifiers and downtoners. As their name suggests, amplifiers are the intensifiers that scale upwards while downtoners are the ones that scale downwards. Prior studies (Lorenz, 1999, Wang, 2017) have shown that amplifiers outnumber downtoners in learner English. Therefore, amplifiers were the main focus of the study to see to what degree native or learner speakers use them in their written production. There are two sub-sets of amplifiers which are maximizers and boosters. The most frequently used amplifiers are determined and investigated in terms of their usage patterns and semantic prosodic function. The selected intensifiers under investigation are shown below:

Table 8: Selected Intensifiers

	Maximizers	Boosters
Amplifiers	absolutely	very
	completely	so
	entirely	too
	fully	
	perfectly	
	totally	
	utterly	

3.4. Corpora and Tools for Data Collection

This corpus-based investigation, as mentioned above, is conducted through the utilization of three corpora. The first two are Turkish learner corpora and the third one is a reference native corpus. This section summarizes the design criteria of the learner corpora as well as the features of native speaker corpus. Besides, corpus tools to be used in the study are presented below.

3.4.1. Learner Corpora

“A type of corpus that is immediately related to the language classroom is a learner corpus” (McEnery et. al, 2006: 65). It is inevitable that a learner corpus should be carefully compiled and have a strict design criteria. The design criteria of learner corpora is composed of language and learner variables. Language variables are categorized into five main subtitles: “medium of language, genre, topic, technicality and task setting.” Learner variables, on the other hand, identify features such as “age, sex, mother tongue, region, other foreign languages, level, learning context

and practical experience” (Granger, 1985). The following table illustrates the language and learner variables of KTUCLE as the local learner corpus:

Table 9: The Design Criteria of KTUCLE

Language Variables		Learner Variables	
Medium	written	Mother Tongue	Turkish
Genre	argumentative	Age	18-22
Topic	education, literature, society	Gender	Female 79% Male 21%
Technicality	academic essay	Language Proficiency	B2
Task Setting	untimed essay 90% exam 10%	Learning Context	EFL classroom setting

The table below presents the design criteria of second learner corpus TICLE which is the Turkish sub-corpus of ICLE (International Corpus of Learner English):

Table 10: The Design Criteria of TICLE

Language Variables		Learner Variables	
Medium	written	Mother Tongue	Turkish
Genre	argumentative	Age	21-23
Topic	education, society	Gender	Female 81% Male 19%
Technicality	academic essay	Language Proficiency	B2-C2
Task Setting	untimed essay	Learning Context	EFL classroom setting

Source: Can, 2011 (as cited in Akbana and Koşar, 2015)

3.4.2. Reference Corpus

In a comparative corpus-based research, the use reference corpus provides the standards and norms of native speakers. A native control corpus is required to make a comparison between learner language use and native use (Altenberg and Granger, 2001: 175). The present study utilizes Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS) as the control corpus of this research. Table 11, which is constituted based on the information on University of Louvain webpage, illustrates the features and data distribution of LOCNESS in detail:

Table 11: The Profile of LOCNESS

LOCNESS	Setting	Task	Genre	Text Number
British Essays	unknown	exam	literary	15
	unknown	exam	expository – historical	18
	unknown	exam	literary	24
	unknown	not rigidly timed	argumentative	33
British Essays (A Level)	unknown	untimed essays	argumentative	Unknown
American Argumentative Essays	Marquette University	untimed essays	argumentative	46
	Indiana University	timed essays	argumentative	28
	Presbyterian College	untimed essays	argumentative	6
	University of South Carolina	untimed essays	argumentative	6
		timed essays	argumentative	17
		untimed essays	argumentative	13
		untimed essays	argumentative	17
University of Michigan	timed essays	argumentative	43	
American Literary Mixed-Essays	Presbyterian College	exam	literary-mixed	16
		Total Text Number		282+

Source: <https://uclouvain.be/en/research-institutes/ilc/cecl/locness.html>

The selection of a reference corpus seems to be a significant methodological decision since it may affect the outcome of the analysis. It should be better to choose a control corpus having representativeness and similarities in size, participants, topic, and text types. For this purpose, LOCNESS is selected as the reference corpus and it is highly comparable to learner corpora for containing texts written in argumentation by students and having similar age of participants.

3.4.3. Corpus Tools

In corpus linguistics, it may be easy to make an introspection through smaller size of corpora. However, larger corpora could not be easily analyzed without the help of concordance programs or computer-aided methods comparing data and estimating their frequency. “A concordance brings together utterances which have been produced at different times by different speakers, makes visible recurrent patterns, and allows us to count them” (Stubbs, 2009: 117). Sketch Engine, which was utilized for the quantitative analysis of the current corpus research, is one of the most preferred kind of such software tools in corpus linguistics field. Granger (2008: 93) states that by utilizing such tools, researchers immediately retrieve frequency information of words from their corpus.

This online concordancer contains ready to use corpora; besides, it also enables researchers to build or upload their own corpora. The three corpora under investigation were uploaded to the system and the requested data were retrieved automatically for the analysis. All the concordance

lines related to intensifier collocations were extracted. Then, the raw frequencies of the data were normalized per one million automatically by using Sketch Engine program since raw frequencies do not show the proportional data in comparison process.

3.5. Data Analysis Procedures

The study is mainly based on quantitative research method because it tries to obtain frequency-based statistical data. In the matter of quantitative analysis of corpus, Stubbs (2009: 117) stated that “corpora are just data and quantitative methods are just methods, but their combination has led to a major shift in theory, and it is this theory which has to be evaluated.”

In this study, the frequency of intensifier collocations gathered from two learner corpora and one native speaker corpus are compared with each other via log-likelihood measurement. LL (log-likelihood) ratio is regarded as “the most useful statistical device to measure the comparison between two corpora as it calculates the frequency regarding the corpus word size” (Babanoğlu and Can, 2018: 21) An online log-likelihood calculator of Lancaster University was used to find LL scores of selected intensifiers to see whether the frequency differences of three corpora in comparison have reached any statistical significance. In addition, the rate of overuse and underuse of intensifiers can be found out with the help of log likelihood measurement. To explain it better, if the log likelihood score is greater than 6.63, the difference between the two corpora is less than 1%. The result is usually expressed as $p < 0.01$ and it means that we are 99% certain of the result. If the log likelihood score is 3.84 or more, the probability of its happening by chance is less than 5% and it is expressed as $p < 0.05$. This means that we are 95% certain of the result. In short, the higher the critical value, the more significant the difference happens to be between two corpora.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

The present descriptive corpus-based research investigates the use of intensifiers by tertiary level Turkish EFL learners and native speakers of English with a special focus to their usage patterns and evaluative meaning. Initially, this chapter reveals the overall data distribution of intensifiers in native speaker corpus LOCNESS and two Turkish learner corpora, namely KTUCLE and TICLE. The target intensifiers under investigation are amplifiers which are divided into subcategories as maximizers and boosters. The selected amplifiers with their adjective collocates (INT-adj) in three corpora are retrieved and described in terms of their raw and normalized frequencies with the help of a corpus tool called Sketch Engine. Then, the tendency of tertiary level EFL learners to overuse and underuse amplifiers in writing are also identified based upon the Log-likelihood measurements. Finally, the most frequent amplifier collocations of adjectives in learner corpora and their semantic prosodic profiles as positive, negative or neutral are presented to shed light on the awareness of EFL learners' adjective intensification by comparing them with native speakers of English. The amplifiers in each corpora are also analyzed in terms of their common usage patterns.

4.2. Overall Frequency Distribution of Amplifiers

In this quantitative research, the overall frequency of intensifiers in each corpus was initially calculated to make inferences about their usages by native speakers of English and non-native EFL learners. The raw frequency of each intensifier was normalized into a value per million automatically by Sketch Engine in order to compare frequencies between corpora of different sizes. Then, Log-Likelihood (LL) scores were measured in an attempt to illustrate the differences or similarities between native speakers and EFL learners in overusing or underusing amplifiers in their written production. Aforementioned in the section of methodology, the LL score greater than 6.63 signifies that the difference between the two corpora is less than 1%. When the LL score is 3.84 or more, the difference between the two corpora is less than 5%. Based upon these calculations, maximizers and boosters in all corpora are separately analyzed concerning their overall distribution.

4.2.1. Maximizers

As a subcategory of amplifiers, there are seven target maximizers in the study: *absolutely*, *completely*, *entirely*, *fully*, *perfectly*, *totally* and *utterly*. The findings on concordance program reveal that there are 495 additional occurrences of intensifiers modifying adverbs, verbs or nouns in three corpora under investigation. As the focus of the study, the number of maximizer plus adjective combinations is 164 in total and they compose 33% of the whole types of occurrences. Although there are many other occurrences of maximizers in all corpora, the total number of maximizer plus adjective combinations is limited. Table 12 illustrates the raw frequencies and percentages of maximizers in an alphabetical order in the three corpora.

Table 12: Overall Distribution of Maximizer + Adjectives

Maximizers (INT-adj)	LOCNESS (361,054)		KTUCLE (709,748)		TICLE (223,449)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
absolutely	5	8,06	22 ¹	29,33	3	11,11
completely	15	24,19	28 ²	37,33	11	40,74
entirely	8	12,90	5	6,66	1	3,70
fully	7	11,29	2	2,66	6	22,22
perfectly	14	22,58	2	2,66	0	0
totally	12	19,35	15	20	6	22,22
utterly	1	1,61	1	1,33	0	0
TOTAL	62	100	75	100	27	100

Table 12 shows that in native corpus LOCNESS, *completely* (f = 15) and *perfectly* (f = 14) are the most frequent maximizers while *utterly* (f = 1) is the least frequent one. On the other hand, according to the distribution in the local learner corpus KTUCLE, *completely* (f = 28) and *absolutely* (f = 22) have the highest percentages while *utterly* (f = 1), *fully* (f = 2) and *perfectly* (f = 2) have the lowest percentages. Finally, in TICLE, as the second learner corpus of the study, *completely* (f = 11) has the highest percentage, whereas *perfectly* and *utterly* have no hits, and *entirely* (f = 1) is low in percentage.

Considering the overall distribution of maximizers, *completely* is the most frequently used maximizer both in native corpus and learner corpora. On the contrary, *utterly* is the least frequent maximizer used in the three corpora. Another commonly employed maximizer in KTUCLE and TICLE is *totally* which has a function scaling upwards like the maximizer *completely*. For Kennedy

¹ In KTUCLE, there are actually 24 concordance lines of *absolutely* retrieved from Sketch Engine, but two occurrences are excluded from the scope of the analysis since they do not collocate with adjectives (see Appendix 2, lines 11-12).

² Two concordance lines of *completely* + adjective combinations in KTUCLE are repeated in Sketch Engine, hence the total number of occurrences is taken as 28. (See Appendix 2, lines 5-10 and 12-13).

(2007: 154-155) some amplifiers such as *completely* and *totally* are supposed to be synonymous, but according to British National Corpus (BNC) “even apparently synonymous amplifiers seem to prefer to keep different company.”

The following tables present the 1R adjective collocations of *completely* and *totally* occurred in both native and non-native corpora. As shown in Table 13 and Table 14, these two distinct maximizers have a different distribution of collocations. The only common adjective combination of *completely* placed in all corpus is ‘completely different’ and obviously it is not the most frequent collocation in any corpus (KTUCLE f = 5, LOCNESS f = 2, and TICLE f =1). When the number of tokens in three groups of corpora is taken into consideration, no judgments can be made about the presence of any overuse or underuse regarding the use of ‘completely different’ as an intensified adjective collocation.

Table 13: 1R + Adjective Collocations of *completely*

COMPLETELY	LOCNESS (361,054)		KTUCLE (709,748)		TICLE (223,449)	
completely + 1R adj	indifferent	2	wrong	6	unpleasant	1
	innocent	2	different	5	opposite	1
	different	2	good	4	special	1
	recyclable	1	useful	3	safe	1
	erroneous	1	clear	1	adequate	1
	unjustified	1	misguided	1	right	1
	abhorrent	1	coherent	1	theoretical	1
	false	1	independent	1	human	1
	ethical	1	innocent	1	true	1
	equal	1	valid	1	equal	1
	new	1	helpful	1	different	1
	impossible	1	true	1		
			dependent	1		
			possible	1		
	TOTAL	15		28		11

As regards *totally*, there is no common occurrence of intensified adjective collocation in three corpora. ‘Wrong’ is the most frequent INT-adj collocation in KTUCLE, but TICLE holds only one occurrence. ‘Different’ and ‘true’ are among the adjectives that collocate no more than once or twice with the maximizer *totally*. Surprisingly, there is no occurrence of ‘totally different’ in KTUCLE unlike to ‘completely different’.

Table 14: 1R + Adjective Collocations of *totally*

TOTALLY	LOCNESS (361,054)		KTUCLE (709,748)		TICLE (223,449)	
totally + 1R adj	unacceptable	2	wrong	4	different	2
	dependent	2	bad	2	invaluable	1
	alien	1	useful	2	wrong	1
	absurd	1	distribute	1	true	1
	powerless	1	dependable	1	little	1
	abhorrent	1	poisonous	1		
	blameless	1	opposite	1		
	futile	1	right	1		
	unrealistic	1	harmful	1		
	different	1	true	1		
	TOTAL	12		15		6

The second highest collocation found in KTUCLE is *absolutely*. However, the other two corpora do not display its usage as much as KTUCLE (TICLE f = 3, LOCNESS f = 5). Table 15 represents that there are various adjectives modified by the maximizer *absolutely*, but no common collocation has been identified in each group. Similarly as in *totally* and *completely*, ‘wrong’ is the most frequent adjective collocation of *absolutely* in KTUCLE. The native speakers, on the other side, prefer using ‘wrong’ just one time in combination with *absolutely*. It is because the EFL learners may tend to use the same adjective with near-synonymous maximizers regardless of their semantic nuances.

Table 15: 1R + Adjective Collocations of *absolutely*

ABSOLUTELY	LOCNESS (361,054)		KTUCLE (709,748)		TICLE (223,449)	
absolutely + 1R adj	unacceptable	1	wrong	9	meaningless	1
	huge	1	necessary	3	compulsory	1
	ridiculous	1	right	2	impossible	1
	necessary	1	efficacious	1		
	wrong	1	barbaric	1		
			express	1		
			false	1		
			unnecessary	1		
			essential	1		
			aware	1		
			important	1		
TOTAL	5		22		3	

As presented in Table 16, *perfectly* is the second most frequent maximizer in reference corpus, but it is found to be less favored by EFL learners (LOCNESS f = 14, KTUCLE f = 2, TICLE f = 0). Even, no occurrence of *perfectly* plus adjective has been found out in TICLE. The

sole common collocation in LOCNESS and KTUCLE is ‘perfectly healthy’. The low usage frequency of *perfectly* in learner corpora confirms that Turkish EFL learners often make use of a small repertoire of maximizers such as *completely* and *totally* in writing to enhance the evaluative value of their focus.

Table 16: 1R + Adjective Collocations of *perfectly*

PERFECTLY	LOCNESS (361,054)		KTUCLE (709,748)		TICLE (223,449)	
perfectly + 1R adj	legal	2	healthy	1		
	natural	2	safe	1		
	safe	2				
	good	2				
	comparable	1				
	understandable	1				
	visible	1				
	healthy	1				
	logical	1				
	acceptable	1				
TOTAL	14		2		0	

As shown in Table 17 and Table 18, the maximizers *entirely* and *fully* apparently have quite similar frequencies in LOCNESS. In KTUCLE, both maximizers in adjective head are not much preferred. LOCNESS and KTUCLE share ‘entirely dependent’ as the only common collocation. In TICLE, there is only one occurrence of *entirely*.

Table 17: 1R + Adjective Collocations of *entirely*

ENTIRELY	LOCNESS (361,054)		KTUCLE (709,748)		TICLE (223,449)	
Entirely + 1R adj	true	2	obsolete	1	unnecessary	1
	separate	1	man-made	1		
	unfounded	1	clear	1		
	voluntary	1	wrong	1		
	contradictory	1	dependent	1		
	dependent	1				
	ethical	1				
	TOTAL	8		5		1

Whereas the two maximizers *entirely* and *fully* may both appear to be roughly synonymous, they each collocate strongly with different adjectives as illustrated in Table 17 and Table 18.

Table 18: 1R + Adjective Collocations of *fully*

FULLY	LOCNESS (361,054)		KTUCLE (709,748)		TICLE (223,449)	
fully + 1R adj	integrated	1	useless	1	conscious	3
	presidential	1	individual	1	human	2
	reassured	1			functioning	1
	intergrated ³	1				
	redundant	1				
	human	1				
	aware	1				
TOTAL	7		2		6	

The expression of ‘fully human’ is the only common collocation that appear in LOCNESS and TICLE. At first sight, one can suppose that ‘human’ is a noun, so it should be beyond the scope of the study. On the contrary, the concordances extracted from both corpora confirm that they have an adjective function (e.g. *the unborn is not fully human*). According to online Oxford Learner’s Dictionary, ‘human’ in adjective form means “having the same feelings and emotions as most ordinary people (e.g. *He's really very human when you get to know him.*)”. When the proficiency level of EFL learners get higher, they can be able to distinguish between the correct word classes in English.

According to Table 19, the last and the least frequent maximizer is *utterly* which has no common adjective collocations in each corpora. It is a rarely used maximizer either in combination with adjectives or other items.

Table 19: 1R + Adjective Collocations of *utterly*

UTTERLY	LOCNESS (361,054)		KTUCLE (709,748)		TICLE (223,449)	
utterly + 1R adj	devoid	1	different	1		
TOTAL	1		1		0	

It can be concluded that Turkish EFL learners significantly overuse a limited range of intensifiers such as *completely*, *totally* and *absolutely*. However, some certain maximizers such as *perfectly* are rarely used or not preferred by EFL learners when compared to native speakers of English. This issue may be a characteristic feature of interlanguage during which EFL learners’ linguistic ability does not match with that of native speakers in language production. The learners of English may not be competent enough to master vocabulary in an efficient way.

³ The misspelling of the adjective ‘*integrated*’ is corrected and accounted as having two occurrences in LOCNESS.

4.2.2. Boosters

The second amplifier category investigated in this research is boosters which are commonly used in both spoken and written language in English. There are three target boosters: *so*, *too*, and *very*. The total number of boosters in all corpora is 2926 and they outnumbered maximizers to a great extent. The boosters are nearly 18 times more than maximizers ($f = 164$) in the research. There are 568 boosters in LOCNESS. On the other hand, the learner corpus KTUCLE has 1751 and TICLE contains 607 boosters in total. The following table presents the distribution of boosters in native corpus and two non-native corpora in an alphabetical order:

Table 20: Overall Distribution of Booster + Adjectives

Boosters (INT-adj)	LOCNESS (361,054)		KTUCLE (709,748)		TICLE (223,449)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
so	133	23,41	392	22,38	166	27,34
too	97	17,07	343	19,58	77	12,68
very	338	59,50	1016	58,02	364	59,96
TOTAL	568	100	1751	100	607	100

In order to gain a clearer view of typical booster collocation patterns and their usage distribution, top ten most frequent common boosters in native and non-native corpora were selected and their LL scores were measured. Then, native corpus was taken as a reference to be compared with each non-native corpus to reveal learners' general tendencies to overuse or underuse the boosters. All the results are presented in separate tables for each booster.

Table 21: Log-likelihood Ratio of *very* in LOCNESS and KTUCLE

VERY – LOCNESS vs KTUCLE Log Likelihood Scores						
	LOCNESS 361,054		KTUCLE 709,748			
1R adj	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	LL score	Overuse Underuse
important	25	69,20	245	345,19	89,28	+
few	15	41,55	7	9,86	10,85	-
strong	12	33,24	6	8,45	8,11	-
low	6	16,62	2	2,81	5,69	-
hard	6	16,62	25	35,22	3,15	
little	11	30,47	10	14,08	3,08	
popular	7	19,39	7	9,86	1,57	
good	14	38,78	33	46,49	0,33	
difficult	12	33,24	23	32,40	0,01	
expensive	6	16,62	12	16,90	0	

To start with *very*, which has the highest frequency among three boosters with the raw frequency of 1718 in total, it can be argued that it is highly exploited by the participants in three corpora with similar usage proportions. When the reference corpus LOCNESS and the local learner corpus KTUCLE are compared in terms of their overuse and underuse patterns, it can be possibly inferred that non-native corpus participants overused the intensification ‘very important’ with the LL score of +89,28, and it is the most frequently used adjective in KTUCLE. On the other hand, LOCNESS participants used the aforementioned intensification in their written materials with 69,20 normalized frequency while KTUCLE participants involved it with 89,28 normalized frequency. Concerning their normalized frequencies and corpus sizes, the difference between native and non-native corpus seems significantly high as it leads to the overuse by KTUCLE students with the LL score of +89,28.

Having mentioned one occurrence of overuse in KTUCLE, there remain three underuse examples of adjective intensifications: ‘very few’, ‘very strong’ and ‘very low’. As illustrated in Table 21, LOCNESS holds 15 evidences with the normalized frequency of 41,55, whereas the non-native corpus participants use ‘few’ 7 times with the normalized frequency of 9,86. Despite being featured as the largest corpus in the study, KTUCLE has a relatively low frequency of ‘few’; and it seems that this booster intensification is underused with the LL measure of -10,85. Other recurrent adjective collocations ‘very strong’ and ‘very low’ are also underused by the EFL learners with their LL measures of -8,11 and -5,69 respectively. ‘Strong’ holds the normalized frequency of 33,24 in LOCNESS whereas it is included in KTUCLE with the normalized frequency of 8,45.

Table 22: Log-likelihood Ratio of *very* in LOCNESS and TICLE

VERY – LOCNESS vs TICLE Log Likelihood Scores						
	LOCNESS 361,054		TICLE 223,449			
1R adj	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	LL score	Overuse Underuse
important	25	69,20	44	196,91	18,35	+
few	15	41,55	1	4,47	8,89	-
strong	12	33,24	1	4,47	6,43	-
difficult	12	33,24	17	76,08	4,92	+
hard	6	16,62	11	49,22	4,86	+
little	11	30,47	15	67,12	4,02	+
good	14	38,78	16	71,60	2,80	
expensive	6	16,62	2	8,95	0,63	
popular	7	19,39	3	13,42	0,30	
low	6	16,62	4	17,90	0,01	

Very + adjective comprises four overuse and two underuse examples in TICLE when compared to LOCNESS. TICLE participants overuse the adjective intensifications ‘very important’, ‘very difficult’, ‘very hard’ and ‘very little’ with the LL measures of +18,35, +4,92, +4,86 and +4,02 correspondingly. The booster + adjective collocation ‘very important’ is the highest occurrence of overuse since LOCNESS has a normalized value of 69,20, while TICLE has 196,91. Thus, the LL score of +18, 35 makes this collocation the most overused one as occurred in KTUCLE. Besides, ‘very difficult’ (LL = +4,86), ‘very hard’ (LL = +4,92) and ‘very little’ (LL = +4,02) are three other overused collocations with approximately similar LL scores.

In addition to the overuses in TICLE, there are two underuse examples of *very* + adjective collocations: ‘very few’ and ‘very strong’. Correspondingly, the two non-native learner groups are found to show a tendency to underuse ‘very few’ and ‘very strong’ in writing. However, ‘very low’ which is the third underused intensifier collocation in KTUCLE is not an evidence of underuse in TICLE because its LL score is not found significantly different from the native corpus.

So is the second highest booster intensification having totally 690 occurrences in all corpora as shown above in Table 20 (LOCNESS f =132, KTUCLE f =392 and TICLE f =166). The following two tables give the information about the common adjective use with the head of booster *so* in all groups of corpora.

Table 23: Log-likelihood Ratio of *so* in LOCNESS and KTUCLE

SO – LOCNESS vs KTUCLE Log Likelihood Scores						
	LOCNESS 361,054		KTUCLE 709,748			
1R adj	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	LL score	Overuse Underuse
important	2	5,53	44	61,99	24,09	+
little	5	13,84	1	1,40	6,29	-
bad	1	2,76	8	11,27	2,48	
many	40	110,78	57	80,31	2,38	
useful	1	2,76	7	9,86	1,90	
easy	2	5,53	8	11,27	0,92	
different	1	2,76	5	7,04	0,88	
hard	7	19,38	9	12,68	0,69	
much	19	52,62	46	64,81	0,60	
difficult	2	5,53	7	9,86	0,57	

KTUCLE includes one example of overuse and underuse in *so* + adjective collocations. ‘So important’ is applied 2 times in the native corpus while KTUCLE consists 44 raw frequencies of it. Therefore, this booster + adjective collocation is regarded as being overused in KTUCLE with the

LL score of +24,09. ‘So little’ has only 1 raw frequency with a normalized frequency of 1,40 in KTUCLE while LOCNESS involves 5 raw frequencies with a normalized frequency of 13,84. Thus, this refers to an evidence of underuse with the LL measure of -6,29. ‘So many’ and ‘so much’ are among the most favored collocations, but the difference between two corpora is not statistically significant to mention about any instance of overuse or underuse.

While KTUCLE includes one example of overuse of *so* + adjective collocations, TICLE, by contrast, involves 3 evidences: ‘so important’, ‘so many’ and ‘so easy’. The adjective intensification of ‘so important’ holds a normalized frequency of 5,53 in the native corpus while it exists in TICLE with a normalized frequency of 67,12. Therefore, the LL score calculated as +18,46 refers to the overuse of ‘so important’ in TICLE as shown in Table 24. ‘So many’ is the second example of overuse with the LL score of +9,58 in TICLE. The last overused *so* + adjective collocation is ‘so easy’ with the normalized frequency of 110,78 in LOCNESS while it holds the normalized frequency of 214,81 in TICLE. Apart from these, KTUCLE and TICLE hold one *so* + adjective collocation in common as an evidence of overuse which is ‘so important’.

Table 24: Log-likelihood Ratio of *so* in LOCNESS and TICLE

SO – LOCNESS vs TICLE Log Likelihood Scores						
	LOCNESS 361,054		TICLE 223,449			
1R adj	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	LL score	Overuse Underuse
important	2	5,53	15	67,12	18,46	+
many	40	110,78	48	214,81	9,58	+
easy	2	5,53	9	40,27	8,80	+
different	1	2,76	4	17,90	3,65	
much	19	52,62	21	93,98	3,34	
little	5	13,84	1	4,47	1,33	
bad	1	2,76	2	8,95	0,99	
hard	7	19,38	6	26,85	0,34	
useful	1	2,76	1	4,47	0,11	
difficult	2	5,53	1	4,47	0,03	

Following the analysis of the adjectives with the booster *so*, Table 25 and Table 26 introduce the most common ten booster + adjective collocations with *too* in KTUCLE and TICLE and their frequencies in comparison with the native control corpus LOCNESS. *Too* is the least frequent booster among three corpora with the total raw frequency of 517 (LOCNESS f= 97, KTUCLE f= 343 and TICLE f= 77) as illustrated before in Table 20 presenting the overall distribution of boosters.

Table 25: Log-likelihood Ratio of *too* in LOCNESS and KTUCLE

TOO – LOCNESS vs KTUCLE Log Likelihood Scores						
	LOCNESS 361,054		KTUCLE 709,748			
1R adj	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	LL score	Overuse Underuse
much	23	63,70	182	256,42	55,76	+
high	4	11,07	1	1,40	4,52	-
late	5	13,84	23	32,40	3,51	
difficult	1	2,76	7	9,86	1,90	
important	3	8,30	10	14,08	0,70	
long	2	5,53	3	4,22	0,09	
many	14	38,77	29	40,85	0,03	
big	1	2,76	2	2,81	0	
young	1	2,76	2	2,81	0	
strong	1	2,76	2	2,81	0	

KTUCLE includes the adjective intensification ‘too much’ with a normalized value of 256,42 whereas the native corpus holds a normalized frequency of 63,70. Therefore, the LL score of +55,76 indicates that it is the sole instance of overused example in KTUCLE. Surprisingly, KTUCLE, a corpus of 709,748 tokens, has one evidence of underuse concerning *too* + adjective collocation, which is ‘too high’ with 1 raw frequency. However, this particular collocation appears 4 times in LOCNESS, and the Log-likelihood score is found -4,52. The remaining adjectives do not have any statistically significant difference in terms of overuse or underuse of booster *too*.

One outstanding finding is the use of ‘too many’ that is the second most preferred booster + adjectives in KTUCLE and LOCNESS. Its normalized frequencies in native and non-native corpora indicate that there is not a meaningful difference concerning its usage. Although ‘too much’ is overly used by non-native English major students when compared to native speakers, the occurrence of ‘too many’ in KTUCLE is found to be consistent with the native usage frequency. There is no evidence of underuse or overuse regarding ‘too many’. Another striking result is that ‘much’ is one of the high frequently used adjectives in combination with *too*, but it does not appear among the top ten common booster + 1R adjective collocations of *very*. That is to say, ‘very much’ (LOCNESS $f = 2$, KTUCLE, $f = 11$, TICLE $f = 4$, see Appendix 4,5 and 6) is not preferred as widely as ‘too much’ in writing. Their semantic difference will be further analyzed in depth in the section of semantic prosodic description.

The following table displays the normalized frequencies and LL scores of *too* with the use of adjectives both in TICLE and LOCNESS:

Table 26: Log-likelihood Ratio of *too* in LOCNESS and TICLE

TOO – LOCNESS vs TICLE Log Likelihood Scores						
	LOCNESS 361,054		TICLE 223,449			
1R adj	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	Raw Frequency	Normalized Frequency	LL score	Overuse Underuse
difficult	1	2,76	6	26,85	6,76	+
much	23	63,70	29	129,78	6,54	+
young	1	2,76	4	17,90	3,65	
high	4	11,07	1	4,47	0,77	
late	5	13,84	5	22,37	0,57	
important	3	8,30	1	4,47	0,31	
long	2	5,53	2	8,95	0,23	
many	14	38,77	7	31,32	0,22	
big	1	2,76	1	4,47	0,11	
strong	1	2,76	1	4,47	0,11	

While KTUCLE includes one example of overuse and one evidence of underuse when compared to LOCNESS, TICLE holds no evidences of underuse in terms of *too* + adjective collocations. Instead, there exist two overuses of booster + adjectives that are ‘too difficult’ and ‘too much’. ‘Too much’ is the only collocation that is overused in KTUCLE; in other words, it is correspondingly overused in both non-native corpora.

Moreover, TICLE participants use ‘too difficult’ with a normalized frequency of 26,85 while the native corpus includes 1 occurrence of it with a normalized frequency of 2,76. Therefore, this booster + adjective collocation has the LL score of +6,76 which stands for its overuse in TICLE. Additionally, ‘too much’ is used with the normalized frequency of 63,70 in LOCNESS while it is employed with the normalized frequency of 129,78 in TICLE. The LL measure of the aforementioned adjective collocation is +6,54 in TICLE and therefore it is the second example of overuse in written production .

To sum up, although these three distinct boosters, *so*, *too* and *very* are near-synonymous, native speakers or EFL learners may intentionally prefer using certain adjectives in the company of these boosters. Their semantic prosodic profiles described in the following section may hold a mirror to the EFL learners’ specific preferences for adjective intensification in writing.

4.3. Semantic Prosodic Description of Amplifiers

The language learners should have an awareness of semantic prosodic properties associated with the usage of intensifiers in a similar manner that native speakers do. This section is concerned

specifically with the semantic prosodic analysis of amplifiers in English to reveal similarities and differences between tertiary level Turkish EFL learners and native speakers in the use of adjective intensification. Retrieved from both native corpus LOCNESS and non-native corpora KTUCLE and TICLE, two amplifier clusters, which are maximizers (*absolutely, completely, entirely, fully, perfectly, totally, utterly*) and boosters (*so, too, very*), are analyzed in terms of semantic prosody. Considering this, all the maximizers and boosters in combination with adjectives are categorized based on Stubbs' (1996) classification of SP such as positive, negative, or neutral.

4.3.1. Semantic Profiles of Maximizers

The maximizers under scrutiny are all separately analyzed with a focus on their common adjective collocates. Initially, the raw frequencies of each maximizer + adjective collocations that are categorized according to their semantic profiles are shown in Table 27. The typical usage of maximizers in native corpus is taken as a reference to distinguish improper usages of EFL learners and their semantic prosodic behavior.

Table 27: Semantic Prosodic Profiles of maximizers + adjectives

		absolutely	completely	entirely	fully	perfectly	totally	utterly
LOCNESS	Positive	2	6	3	3	13	1	0
	Negative	3	5	3	1	0	10	1
	Neutral	0	4	2	2	1	1	0
KTUCLE	Positive	10	15	1	0	2	4	0
	Negative	12	5	3	1	0	11	1
	Neutral	0	8	1	1	0	0	0
TICLE	Positive	0	7	0	6	0	2	0
	Negative	3	2	1	0	0	2	0
	Neutral	0	2	0	0	0	2	0

Depending on the maximizer + 1R adjective collocations in the reference corpus, it can be inferred that *perfectly, completely* and *fully* seem to have positive semantic profile and *totally, absolutely* and *utterly* have a negative profile, while *entirely* tends to occur between negative and positive polarity. It must be noted that a certain maximizer may collocate with adjectives bearing a positive meaning, but in its context it may have an underlying negative evaluation. Thus, concordance lines in reference corpus should be examined in depth to uncover semantic prosodic features of each maximizer because the raw frequencies of their adjective collocations may not reflect their exact semantic orientation in native usage.

Acting mainly as an adjective modifier, *absolutely* denotes the meaning of “to the fullest extent; in the highest or utmost degree” (Lorenz, 1999: 83). It is clearly seen in Table 28 that

absolutely can be used either with positive or negative adjectives for not being employed in a regular prosody. Partington (2004: 146) found out that there is “a balance between favourable and unfavourable items” that collocate with *absolutely*. The randomly selected examples from online Oxford Dictionary also indicate positive, negative and neutral prosodic usage of *absolutely* are “absolutely incapable, absolutely correct, and absolutely personal.”

Table 28: The Semantic Prosodic Profile of *absolutely*

ABSOLUTELY	
LOCNESS	
Positive (2)	huge, necessary
Neutral	
Negative (3)	unacceptable, ridiculous, wrong
KTUCLE	
Positive (10)	necessary (3), right (2), efficacious, express, essential, aware, important
Neutral	
Negative (12)	wrong (9), barbaric, false, unnecessary
TICLE	
Positive	
Neutral	
Negative (3)	meaningless, compulsory, impossible

The findings related to *absolutely* in the reference corpus LOCNESS confirms that the use of this maximizer is distributed in a roughly balanced manner (negative f= 3, positive f=2). The same situation is valid for the frequency of maximizers in KTUCLE (positive f = 10, negative f= 12). Such a distribution of adjective collocation in native and non-native corpora may not be enough to label *absolutely* as having a positive or a negative prosody, but having a mixed semantic profile to put it in a simple terms.

Completely is a maximizer which tends to co-occur predominantly with negative adjectives (Louw, 1993; Paradis, 1997; Kennedy, 2003; Wang, 2017). For Greenbaum (1970, as cited in Johansson and Stenström, 1991: 137), *completely* is commonly used with “verbs denoting a failure to attain a desirable goal or state” (e.g. ‘forget’ and ‘ignore’). In his study based on Cobuild Corpus, Partington (2004: 148) found out that *completely* collocates with a number of items expressing a state of ‘change’ (e.g. “hopeless, ignored, lost, and unexpected”) or ‘absence’ (e.g. “altered, changed, destroyed, and different”). Oxford Dictionary gives examples in parallel with Parrington’s findings such as “completely unsatisfactory, completely ridiculous, completely untrue, completely different, and completely transformed.”

Table 29: The Semantic Prosodic Profile of *completely*

COMPLETELY	
LOCNESS	
Positive (6)	innocent (2), recyclable, ethical, equal, new
Neutral (4)	indifferent (2), different (2)
Negative (5)	erroneous, unjustified, abhorrent, false, impossible
KTUCLE	
Positive (15)	good (4), useful (3), clear (1), coherent, independent, innocent, valid, helpful, true, possible
Neutral (5)	different (5)
Negative (8)	wrong(6), misguided, dependent
TICLE	
Positive (7)	special, safe, adequate, right, human, true, equal
Neutral (2)	theoretical, different
Negative (2)	unpleasant, opposite

In contrary to the findings of above-mentioned researchers, *completely* is observed to have seemingly a good prosody according to Table 29. Surprisingly, the native corpus in the study also seems to collocate with adjectives being positive in meaning, but actually many of them have a negative association in the context as shown in the concordance lines retrieved from LOCNESS:

- ...a lot for the better, not everything is *completely equal*. Men are just lime woman, some of them may (LOCNESS)
- ... of universal guilt because no one can be *completely innocent*. Camus raises the idea that even Jesus (LOCNESS)

KTUCLE which is composed of participants of Turkish EFL learners include a great many positive adjective collocations with the maximizer *completely* (positive f = 16). In TICLE, there appears positive adjectives more than other two prosodic profiles (positive f = 7). It can be inferred that EFL learners are not fully aware of the negative attitudinal meaning of *completely*. The results also point out that the adjectives are mostly compounded with negative prefixes similar to Wang's (2007: 90) findings that "the intensifier *completely* has a strong tendency to collocate with adjectives with negative prefixes" (e.g. indifferent, unjustified, impossible, abhorrent, misguided, unpleasant). The only common adjective employed in three corpora is 'different' which has no evidence of prosody for being neutral in meaning.

As shown in Table 30, there is a balanced distribution of negative and positive adjectives intensified by the maximizer *entirely*, and the number of neutral items are found to be roughly similar in LOCNESS. That is to say, there appears no noticeable semantic prosodic distribution of adjectives in control corpus. In the corpus-based research of amplifiers conducted by Kennedy

(2003: 476), *entirely* is found with items having either positive or negative associations. For Partington (2004: 148), “the collocations of *entirely*, however, also seem to encompass a slightly wider range of senses than those of the others. They include a number of words which express an opposition between dependence-independence or relatedness-unrelatedness.” It can be claimed that there is “no clear-cut distinction” for *entirely* in terms of semantic prosodic categories (Özbay and Aydemir, 2017: 47).

Table 30: The Semantic Prosodic Profile of *entirely*

ENTIRELY	
LOCNESS	
Positive (3)	true (2), voluntary
Neutral (2)	separate, ethical
Negative (3)	unfounded, contradictory, dependent
KTUCLE	
Positive (1)	clear
Neutral (1)	man-made
Negative (3)	obsolete, wrong, dependent
TICLE	
Positive	
Neutral	
Negative (1)	unnecessary

In present study, the native speakers are likely to use *entirely* with negative adjectives such as ‘unfounded’, ‘dependent’ or in negative pattern. The two positive intensification examples in LOCNESS employed with the adjective ‘true’ are used in negation (e.g. ‘not entirely true’). The result that can be derived from the findings is that *entirely* collocates mainly with neutral or negative items. On the other hand, Turkish EFL learners do not highly prefer making use of this maximizer in their written discourse.

The maximizer *fully* can be supposed to have a positive orientation. According to Altenberg (1991: 137) synonymous maximizers such as *entirely*, *completely*, *totally* and *fully* are considered to “share the sense in every respect.” The definition of *fully* in Oxford Dictionary is “completely or entirely; to the fullest extent” and the examples of *fully* in combination with adjectives include “fully determined, fully aware, fully candid, fully interactive” all having positive meaning. Additionally, Kennedy (2003) reported that the maximizer *fully* has exclusively bond with positive adjectives having *-able* or *-ible* suffix.

Table 31: The Semantic Prosodic Profile of *fully*

FULLY	
LOCNESS	
Positive (3)	reassured, human, aware
Neutral (3)	integrated (2), presidential
Negative (1)	redundant
KTUCLE	
Positive	
Neutral (1)	individual
Negative (1)	useless
TICLE	
Positive (6)	conscious (3), human (2), functioning
Neutral	
Negative	

In this study, the only negative prosody in LOCNESS is ‘redundant’ and the sentence is structured in negation as given below:

- ...the case, then the human brain will never become *fully redundant*. There has (LOCNESS)

There are solely evidences of positive associations in TICLE (positive f = 6), whereas no positive semantic usage is found in KTUCLE. *Fully* is not a highly preferred amplifier among EFL learners, though. Instead of it, EFL learners may have a tendency to use *completely* that can be more familiar to them in reading materials or books in English language.

Perfectly, as its name suggests, strongly has a positive semantic prosody. According to Bäcklund (1970) “Perfectly tends to collocate with words referring to positive or commendable qualities” (as cited in Altenberg, 1991: 137). Partington (2004: 146) stated that *perfectly* demonstrates a “distinct tendency” to bond with good things. It can be noted that the adjectives intensified by this maximizer should not be combined with negative prefixes since perfectly sounds ‘strange’ when collocate with words having negative morphemes such as ‘perfectly unhealthy’ (Paradis, 1997: 81). Likewise, there are 13 positive occurrences in LOCNESS as Table 32 displays:

Table 32: The Semantic Prosodic Profile of *perfectly*

PERFECTLY	
LOCNESS	
Positive (13)	legal (2), natural (2), safe (2), good (2), understandable, visible, healthy, logical, acceptable
Neutral (1)	comparable
Negative	
KTUCLE	
Positive (2)	healthy, safe
Neutral	
Negative	
TICLE	
Positive	
Neutral	
Negative	

An interesting finding is that despite of being a large corpus KTUCLE has only 2 occurrences of positive prosody while TICLE has no evidence of any semantic category. In KTUCLE and LOCNESS, ‘safe’ and ‘healthy’ are common adjective collocations with *perfectly*. Although *perfectly* has a predominant positive reflection in use and creates no prosodic complexity, the EFL learners do not prefer using it in their writing.

Paradis (1997: 82) stated that “*completely* and *totally* are the modifiers *par preference* with adjectives with negative morphemes”. Kennedy (2003) also ascertained in his research that *totally* co-occurs mainly with negative associations.

Table 33: The Semantic Prosodic Profile of *totally*

TOTALLY	
LOCNESS	
Positive (1)	blameless
Neutral (1)	different
Negative (10)	unacceptable (2), dependent (2), alien, absurd, powerless, abhorrent, futile, unrealistic
KTUCLE	
Positive (4)	useful (2), right, true
Neutral	
Negative (11)	wrong (4), bad (2), distribute, dependable, poisonous, opposite, harmful
TICLE	
Positive (2)	invaluable, true
Neutral (2)	different (2)
Negative (2)	wrong, little

It is obviously seen in Table 33 that the negative associations of *totally* in LOCNESS and KTUCLE outnumber positive and neutral prosodies. However, TICLE has an equal distribution of semantic categories. The sole example concerning the positive prosody of *totally* + adjective collocation retrieved from LOCNESS is used in negation.

- ...the scientists involved, by they by no means *totally blameless*. I suggest the alternative opinion (LOCNESS)

The particular example below indicates that the EFL learner participants in TICLE may have no semantic awareness in the use of *totally* with adjectives.

- ...from the problems of the life maybe this is not *totally true*, but not *totally wrong*. And again what (TICLE)

Additionally, *totally* is often used by EFL learners in a positive manner regardless of its underlying negative prosodic effect.

- ...and healthy way to use animals on testing. It is *totally true* that animal testing is beneficial for (KTUCLE)
- ...on the other hand, the others say it is *totally useful* for us. In my opinion cell phone is really (KTUCLE)

Lastly, the maximizer *utterly* seems to be associated with unpleasant events. According to the observations of Greenbaum (1970) and Louw (1993), *utterly* falls into the category of unfavorable semantic prosody (as cited in Partington, 2004: 147).

Table 34: The Semantic Prosodic Profile of *utterly*

UTTERLY	
LOCNESS	
Positive	
Neutral	
Negative (1)	devoid
KTUCLE	
Positive	
Neutral (1)	different
Negative	
TICLE	
Positive	
Neutral	
Negative	

According to this analysis, *utterly* is the least frequent type of maximizer + adjective collocation of all. It has only two evidences, one of which is negative prosody in LOCNESS and the second one is neutral prosody in TICLE. Thus, the findings cannot be adequate to make any inference on its semantic prosodic use in learner corpora. It may be concluded that *utterly* is not preferred by tertiary level EFL learners in academic writing.

Overall, it can be noted that the target maximizers in the study all have a distinct semantic prosodic profile. The findings of Bublitz (1998: 26) go in parallel with the results of the current study: *Completely* and *entirely* exhibit a shared “up-scaling” meaning, but concerning the distribution of negative and positive semantic prosody, these two near-synonymous amplifiers are not regarded as ‘complementary’. That is to say, they differ in a way that “*completely* has a clear negative semantic prosody” while “*entirely* has no definite semantic prosody at all” which has a potential to collocate with negative, positive, and neutral items. On the other hand, he added that the remaining scalar maximizers *utterly* (negative), *totally* (negative) and *perfectly* (positive) have an obvious semantic prosody.

4.3.2. Semantic Profiles of Boosters

The three selected boosters *so*, *too* and *very* are classified according to their semantic profiles as shown in Table 35. The boosters can be interchangeably used in combination with adjectives for expressing negative, positive and neutral evaluations. It is much difficult to identify precise prosodic nature of boosters due to having a wide range of semantic relationship when compared to maximizers. All the adjective collocations used with target boosters are given in the Appendices between 4 and 12.

Table 35: Semantic Prosodic Profiles of Booster + Adjectives

Booster + 1R adj	Semantic Prosody	so		too		very	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
LOCNESS (361,054)	Positive	89	66,91	62	63,91	151	44,67
	Neutral	11	8,27	9	9,27	78	23,07
	Negative	33	24,81	26	26,80	109	32,24
KTUCLE (709,748)	Positive	269	68,62	237	69,09	623	61,31
	Neutral	26	6,63	39	11,37	149	14,66
	Negative	97	24,74	67	19,53	244	24,01
TICLE (223,449)	Positive	118	71,08	49	63,63	178	48,90
	Neutral	13	7,83	9	11,68	86	23,62
	Negative	35	21,08	19	24,67	100	27,47

The reference corpus LOCNESS reveals that the three boosters similarly have a high frequency of positive semantic prosodic profile and ‘*very important*’ is the first most common positive adjective collocation in three corpora. It is explicitly seen in the findings that the semantic profiles of *very* in LOCNESS have a mixed nature in use since there is not a substantial difference among percentages. The positive semantic profile of *very* constitutes 44% of whole while negative prosodic percentage is 32% and neutral is 23%. The frequencies of *very* in TICLE is relatively close to results in LOCNESS. However, in KTUCLE, the EFL learners tend to use *very* in positive semantic orientation with a percentage over 60%. The adjectives having negative and neutral prosodies are used less when compared to positive ones. The tertiary level EFL learners prefer *very* as it can be simply combined with adjectives with various meanings. For having a broader collocational range, *very* is highly exploited by language learners when compared to other boosters or maximizers.

The booster *so* is the second most common booster preferred by the participants in three corpora as illustrated in Table 35. The positive, negative and neutral semantic usage percentages of *so* in native corpus and non-native corpora are very close to each other. The positive prosodic usage of *so* is similarly high in each corpus with the percentage ranging between 67 and 71%. However, this booster cannot be labeled as having a positive prosody because different ranges of adjectives are likely to be used properly in combination with *so*. Some common examples to adjective collocations of *so* having positive meaning are ‘important’, ‘useful’, and ‘easy’; those having negative meanings are ‘hard’, ‘bad’, and ‘difficult’; and those having neutral meanings are ‘different’, ‘general’ and ‘little’.

Both in native corpus and non-native corpora, *too* is the less frequent one among other boosters under investigation. The results seemingly imply that this booster mostly tends to intensify adjectives carrying positive meanings. The percentages of *too* in LOCNESS go parallel with the frequency in TICLE. Table 35 indicates that these two corpora have a positive semantic profile with the percentage of 63% while KTUCLE has the percentage of 69%. However, these findings tell us little about its underlying semantic profile. ‘Too many’ and ‘too much’ are the two most common adjective collocations of *too* in all corpora. The total frequency of ‘much’ and ‘many’ constitutes 90% (f = 211) of whole positive adjectives in KTUCLE (f = 232). In LOCNESS, ‘much’ and ‘many’ compose 66% (f = 41) of whole positive adjectives in combination with *too* (f = 62), while they are exposed of 73% (f = 36) of positive ones in TICLE (f = 49). However, when the concordance lines are analyzed in depth, it is clearly seen that ‘too much’ or ‘too many’ are highly used for expressing exaggeration or negation. Although ‘many’ and ‘much’ seem to be adjectives with positive attitudes, a negative association can be revealed when they collocate with *too* in certain usage patterns such as ‘too *much / many* that’. Such occurrences will be analyzed in the next pattern analysis section.

4.4. Pattern Analysis of Amplifiers

In this part, the most frequent usage patterns of amplifiers in non-native corpora KTUCLE and TICLE are analyzed in comparison with those in LOCNESS based on the patterning labels of Hunston and Francis (2000) in their book titled *Pattern Grammar*. In this particular research, a pattern is regarded as “the combination of both grammar and lexis of a given node word, which carries a specific meaning, and to realize certain function” (Wang 2017: 51). Adopted from Wang (2017), the labelling of adjective intensification is abbreviated and expressed as ‘INT-adj’ which refers to ‘intensifier + 1R adjective’ collocation. Intensifier (INT) is used as a representation for all target amplifiers. As the focus of the study, the coding of intensifier is shown in capital letters while other elements or word classes are in lower case letters. The elements representing an actual word such as prepositions are coded in italics (Hunston and Francis, 2000: 33).

4.4.1. Usage Patterns of Maximizers

Seven maximizers *totally, completely, absolutely, entirely, fully, utterly* and *perfectly* in native and non-native corpora were analyzed in terms of their patterning features. Different types of maximizer plus adjective collocations were found in three corpora. However, it was observed that most of the maximizer patterns were not abundantly used by both native speakers and non-native learners. There are three common types of maximizer plus adjective collocation patterns among seven types in three corpora. In its simplest form, the first pattern is intensifier + adjective following a link verb which is abbreviated as ‘v-link INT adj’. Another major usage of maximizers is negative form of the first pattern that is ‘v-link *not* INT adj’. The other frequent usage pattern is intensifier + adjective clause modifying a noun labelled as ‘INT adj n’. Additionally, there are other patterns such as ‘V int adj’, ‘modal v-link INT adj’, ‘v n/pron INT adj’ and independent use of ‘INT adj’ which were not frequently used in native and non-native corpora. Therefore, these four pattern types having a low percentage are categorized as ‘other patterns’ in Table 36.

Table 36: Overall Percentages of Maximizer Patterns

Maximizers (INT-adj patterns)	LOCNESS (361,054)		KTUCLE (709,748)		TICLE (223,449)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
v-link INT adj	41	66,12	53	70,66	12	44,40
INT adj n	14	22,58	12	16,00	6	22,22
v-link <i>not</i> INT adj	2	3,22	5	6,66	7	25,92
Other Patterns	5	8,06	5	6,66	2	7,40
TOTAL	62	100	75	100	27	100

According to the findings, most frequently used maximizer patterns in two learner corpora are similar to ones in native corpus. In all three corpora, the first three patterns have the highest percentages despite of the differences regarding the proportions. The ‘v-link INT adj’ is the dominant pattern in LOCNESS, KTUCLE and TICLE. This pattern composes 70% of overall usage in KTUCLE and 66% in LOCNESS. It is clearly seen that maximizers as modifying adverbials preceding adjectives were mainly used for a predicative function. A predicate in a sentence is thought to contain a verb explaining the action along with modifiers and other complements. The concordance lines retrieved from three corpora under scrutiny are given below to exemplify this pattern:

Pattern 1: v-link INT adj

- ... for rail transport, and as their problems are *completely different* in most respects, it must be clear (LOCNESS)
- ...as you get older. They are skills that are *absolutely essential* in community organizations, in (KTUCLE)
- On the other hand, they can't be equal as they're *totally different*. First of all, their roles are (TICLE)

Additionally, the statistics show that the second pattern ‘INT adj n’ is also preferred by native speakers and non-native learners with almost the same percentages. In this pattern, maximizers were used as attributives accompanying with adjective to intensify noun as shown in the examples below:

Pattern 2: INT adj n

- ...only should we study it should be given as an *entirely separate* discipline. Joseph Zaitchik, editor (LOCNESS)
- ...and you can communicate with people in a *completely different* environment and you cannot (KTUCLE)
- ...everyday of the year, hundreds of *fully conscious* animals are scalded, beaten or (TICLE)

The negative form of the first pattern ‘v-link *not* INT adj’ is also seen in three corpora. However, the learners have a tendency to use this type of negative pattern more than native speakers. One reason is that native speakers use various negation forms (e.g. *no, nobody, no one, no longer, nothing, never, neither, nor*) instead of negative maximizer patterns including *not*. Another reason is that learners may be lack of awareness concerning semantic prosody, thus they may refrain from using various negative maximizer patterns to express judgments.

Pattern 3: v-link not INT adj

- ...the scientists involved, they are by no means *totally blameless*. I suggest the alternative opinion (LOCNESS)
- ...of universal guilt because no one can be *completely innocent*. Camus raises the idea that even Jesus (LOCNESS)
- ... the case, then the human brain will never become *fully redundant*... There has (LOCNESS)
- ... 'of making the best of it'. Caligula is not a *totally abhorrent* character in this play. Camus gives (LOCNESS)
- Yes, we use very a lot yet we are not *totally dependable*. In my opinion, if we have not the (KTUCLE)
- ...from the problems of the life maybe this is not *totally true*, but not *totally wrong*. And again (TICLE)

The total number of maximizers used in three corpora is not high in numbers; therefore, their raw frequencies (or exact number of occurrences) can be shown in distinct tables in order to see different usage patterns of each node words. It can be concluded there are some slight differences in terms of usage. Table 37, Table 38 and Table 39 illustrate the overall occurrences of maximizer + adjective patterns in LOCNESS as reference corpus and KTUCLE and TICLE as learner corpora under investigation:

Table 37: Typical patterns of 'INT-adj' in LOCNESS

	LOCNESS (361,054)	completely	absolutely	totally	entirely	fully	perfectly	utterly
1	v-link INT adj	10	4	10	5	3	9	-
2	v-link <i>not</i> INT adj	-	-	1	1	-	-	-
3	INT adj n	3	1	1	2	2	5	-
4	v INT adj	-	-	-	-	2	-	1
5	modal v-link INT adj	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	v n/pron INT adj	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	INT adj	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	TOTAL	15	5	12	8	7	14	1

In LOCNESS, the first pattern has the highest percentage similar to learner corpora. Even *perfectly*, which is scarce in learner English, is abundantly used in the pattern of 'v-link INT adj'. *Completely* and *totally* are similarly the most frequent maximizers in LOCNESS. Negative predicative forms are not widely preferred by native speakers. That is to say, they often express their judgments by adding negative prefixes to adjectives or using other items having negative meaning such as *never*, *no*, *nobody* etc.

Table 38: Typical patterns of ‘INT-adj’ in KTUCLE

	KTUCLE (709,748)	completely	absolutely	totally	entirely	fully	perfectly	utterly
1	v-link INT adj	16	19	12	3	1	1	1
2	v-link <i>not</i> INT adj	3	-	1	1	-	-	-
3	INT adj n	7	1	1	1	1	1	-
4	v INT adj	1	1	1	-	-	-	-
5	modal v-link INT adj	1	1	-	-	-	-	-
6	v n/pron INT adj	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	INT adj	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	TOTAL	28	22	15	5	2	2	1

KTUCLE, as the local learner corpus, is larger than other corpora concerning token number, but many of the maximizer patterns are not much in this learner corpus. *Completely*, *absolutely* and *totally* are the most common maximizers. Although *completely* most often appears having a positive meaning in native corpus, the non-native students are more likely to use this maximizer in negative sentences. *Completely* is also highly used in the third pattern.

Table 39: Typical patterns of ‘INT-adj’ in TICLE

	TICLE (223,449)	completely	absolutely	totally	entirely	fully	perfectly	utterly
1	v-link INT adj	7	1	2	1	1	-	-
2	v-link <i>not</i> INT adj	3	-	3	-	1	-	-
3	INT adj n	1	-	1	-	4	-	-
4	v INT adj	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	modal v-link INT adj	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	v n/pron INT adj	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
7	INT adj	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
	TOTAL	11	3	6	1	6	0	0

In TICLE, the second learner corpus of the research, *completely* is the most frequent maximizer and it is also used in negative predicative form similar to the findings in KTUCLE. Not surprisingly, there is no occurrence of *perfectly* and *utterly*. Strikingly, the last two patterns in the table ‘v n/pron INT adj’ and independent use of INT + adjective are only found in TICLE despite of being a learner corpus. These two rare maximizer patterns occur with the use of *absolutely* as shown in following concordance lines:

Pattern 6: v n/pron INT adj’

- The conception of ‘ABORTION’. They may feel it absolutely compulsory to let the infant off to get rid of (TICLE)

Pattern 7: INT adj'

- ... a life is gone away and you want to go back. Absolutely impossible! So, how are you going to keep this (TICLE)

4.4.2. Usage Patterns of Boosters

The three most frequently used boosters in English language, respectively *so*, *too* and *very*, are examined in terms of their usage patterns in non-native corpus and learner corpora. It is obviously seen that there is a strong predominance of boosters in the category of amplifiers. The findings show that they are quite more than maximizers in three corpora (see Table 20). For this reason, the frequency of each booster + adjective pattern is not counted one by one as it is done in the pattern analysis of maximizers. Instead, the raw frequencies of each target booster are given along with their percentages by focusing on differences and similarities in terms of typical patterns and functions between native speakers and learners of English.

KTUCLE is the larger corpus in size; thus, three selected boosters are normally higher than those in other two corpora. In all corpora, the order of most frequently boosters are the same, respectively *very*, *so* and *too*. The analysis of three corpora revealed that there are not many outstanding differences concerning the types of booster + adjective patterns. However, native speakers and EFL learners significantly differ not in using various types of booster patterns but in frequency of their occurrence. Randomly selected concordance lines exemplifying common pattern varieties of each target booster + adjective combinations are retrieved from three corpora and will be treated separately in depth under following subsections.

4.4.2.1. Very

Very is one of the most frequently encountered English amplifiers either in spoken or written language. According to Lorenz (1999: 64), “*very* is the booster *par excellence*. It is highly versatile in its collocability and combines almost freely with adjectives.” According to Table 20, nearly 60% of total boosters in native corpus is composed of the booster *very*. The percentage of *very* in LOCNESS is almost similar to that of TICLE with 60.36. KTUCLE has the highest frequency of *very*, but its percentage of the whole is under 50. The concordance lines given below present typical pattern types of booster combinations with the use of *very*:

Pattern 1: v-link INT adj

- ...or not, but I do know that life for some people is *very difficult* and unless someone can really feel (LOCNESS)
- ...good more than harm. Primarily, internet is *very important* in our daily lives as well as in (KTUCLE)

- ...immediately. The system in education is *very strict*, it uses the student only as a model. (TICLE)

Pattern 2: INT adj n

- ...bring up the point that coal mining is a *very dangerous* job. Coal miners can contract lung (LOCNESS)
- ...of the instant noticing. You can also see *very beautiful* places especially overseas, which (KTUCLE)
- ...so many inventions in the 20th century and had *very large* impacts on our lives. They changed our (TICLE)

Pattern 3: v-link INT adj for n/pron

- ... nuclear power being so new and different, it is *very scary* for people. In order for these people to be (LOCNESS)
- ...get used to live alone, living with a child is very hard for them. Secondly, they don't supply life (KTUCLE)
- ...best decision for the parents to divorce. It is very hard for the children to be witness to their (TICLE)

Pattern 4: v-link INT adj to inf

- ...where relativism reign supreme. It would be *very difficult* to impose such an ethic on members of (LOCNESS)
- ...of treatment methods and medicines are *very important to destroy* these diseases. In this (KTUCLE)
- on the screen of your computer. Nowadays, it is *very popular* to find friends by the help of computers (TICLE)

Pattern 5: modal v-link INT adj

- ...to Hamlet's uncle, Claudius. Hamlet can be *very clever* when it is necessary. When he suspects (LOCNESS)
- ...want assurance from someone eye contact can be *very important* in getting your thoughts across. When (KTUCLE)
- ...there is an immediate event or warning it can be *very good*. They can reach you wherever you are, but (TICLE)

Pattern 6: v INT adj

- Again at peak times, trains can become *very cramped* with very few facilities and often (LOCNESS)
- ...is attack to animal rights. Scientists have *very good* reason for do it. To save the human life is (KTUCLE)
- ...may be illogical, rubbish way which may seem *very reasonable* at first. A person is born alone, (TICLE)

Pattern 7: v-link not INT adj

- ...role has evolved. In the constitution it is not *very clear* who exactly in charge. Some articles (LOCNESS)
- ...or friends help us but a teacher safe us. It is not *very complex*. Sometimes we need to talk just a (KTUCLE)
- ...like everything in our life television is not a *very bad* thing or not a *very good* thing in people's (TICLE)

The present investigation conducted on a native corpus and two learner corpora indicate that there are seven above-mentioned common patterns of booster + adjective collocations. In addition to these typical patterns appearing in all corpora with different proportions, there are some other patterns which are not abundant but have some relatively significant nuances. It is apparent that there are much different types of pattern in native corpus. For instance, in native corpus, some examples to 'v *something* INT adj' pattern are found (e.g. find something *very difficult* to take). Besides, 'v-link prep INT adj n' combinations are also encountered (e.g. under *very fierce* competition). In LOCNESS, 'INT adj n' pattern is also found in the form of subject at the initial position of sentence (e.g. *Very little freight is transposed by rail these days.*). The verb collocations on the left are more likely to be varied in LOCNESS such as *find, seem, offer, become make, feel, have* while in learner corpora verbs such as *make, become, and have* are observed. Different negative forms are not preferred much with this adjective modifier. Patterns like 'there v-link INT adj' and 'this/that v-link INT adj' are widely used in each corpus.

4.4.2.2. So

So is the second booster having the high-frequency adjective combinations in the present study. *So* has the percentage of 34 of total booster use in KTUCLE while in TICLE *so* is employed with the proportion of 27 percent (see Table 20). On the other hand, *so* composes nearly half of the boosters in reference corpus. There are five typical patterns of *so* + adjective combinations in LOCNESS, KTUCLE and TICLE. As in other amplifiers, the first two patterns, that are 'v-link INT adj' and 'INT adj n', are dominantly observed with the use of *so*. The form of 'v-link INT adj *that*' is another common pattern peculiar to the use of *so* + adjective, and the EFL learners' usage frequency of this pattern is found to be no fewer than the native speakers. The fourth booster pattern accompanying to-infinitive is also preferred in both native corpus and two learner corpora. Here are the concordance lines randomly extracted from three corpora:

Pattern 1: v-link INT adj

- ...in many different places because travel is *so easy*. The last area I'm going to touch on is (LOCNESS)
- ...a lot of disaster. Every people know that it is *so harmful* but they don't want to believe it's (KTUCLE)

- ...right to decide his own death. His children are *so emotional* and *selfish*. Because they think (TICLE)

Pattern 2: INT adj n

- ...and authority. By showing how the networks have *so little* regard for that status that the (LOCNESS)
- ...our mental process will work. Some may say ‘I am *so sociable* person and I learned a lot of things to (KTUCLE)
- ...people. Although giving these two causes is *so selfish* attitude, the human being is only think (TICLE)

Pattern 3: v-link INT adj *that*

- ...state of mind, health, and body. Disorder *so severe* that there is such a strong (LOCNESS)
- ...that situation was proved in the past. It is not *so bad* that death of animals, in the environment (KTUCLE)
- ...a great effect on the child’s character. It is *so obvious* that violence has so many bad effects (TICLE)

Pattern 4: v-link INT adj *to* inf

- ...Hoederer in a bad light and the fact that he takes *so long* to carry out the act is because he’s not (LOCNESS)
- ...have an enjoyable time. However, recently it is *so rare* to see anybody visiting his/her friend or (KTUCLE)
- ...arrived at this point in his ongoing life, it is *so hard* to turn back. Maybe you don’t really want to (TICLE)

Pattern 5: v INT adj

- ...jobs with good salaries, they may then become *so preoccupied* with their job and success, that (LOCNESS)
- ..., he went on. As she was telling to me felt *so bad*. She said he suffered much while he was dying (KTUCLE)
- ...think that computers are not beneficial. It has *so many* advantages that I cannot mention all of (TICLE)

Surprisingly, a widespread pattern in learner corpora is ‘v-link INT adj *for* n/pron’ where the adjective is followed by *for* to signify someone or something ‘relating to’ or ‘connected with’ the intensified thing. However, in LOCNESS, such usage type is not found.

Pattern 6: v-link INT adj *for* n/pron

- ...every time. First of all, family life is so important for a student. If a student’s family (KTUCLE)
- ...each stage we take in life, we need money. It is so vital for people that one feels that she/he can (TICLE)

The EFL learners tend to be lack of variety in forming negative sentences with boosters, as well. They only prefer using *not* with link verbs to express negation in intensification, while native speakers use other negative words.

Pattern 7: v-link NEG INT adj

- ...compensation for services rendered is never *so simple* as remitting a predetermined salary (LOCNESS)
- ...family unit. Family members are no longer *so dependent* on one another. They can go elsewhere (LOCNESS)

Some frequent verbs collocating with boosters in learner corpora are *become, feel, have, know*, and there are a few occurrences of *love, need* and *provide* in KTUCLE. Despite of being not many in numbers, the verbs preceding *so* + adjective combination in TICLE contain *give, have, make, take* and *become*. In LOCNESS, there are a variety of verbs collocating with boosters: *become, have, seem, spend, try, take, endure*, and *make*. The modals such as *must, can, could, will, and should* are also used in the pattern of ‘modal v-link INT adj’.

Lorenz (1999: 70) stated that “where there is no basis of comparison, the boosting function of *so* is even more apparent, mostly in connection with emotive predications” (e.g. It looked *so brutal* and *disgusting*). In fact, *very* is a more commonly used booster in English, but *so* is intentionally preferred in some certain cases bearing correlative function. It is noticeable that ‘so much’ and ‘so many’ are the high frequency combinations which can be proceeded immediately by ‘that clause’. ‘Much’ and ‘many’ can be regarded as adjectives in the scope of this study since they are denoting quantity. All three groups are found to employ the patterns of ‘v-link INT adj *that*’ or sometimes ‘v-link INT adj *to inf*’ by using ‘so much’ or ‘so many’. Furthermore, the use of *so* plus adjective in the function of a subject at initial position in a sentence structure is also encountered a few times in learner corpora (e.g. *So many people use the Internet for work.*). The findings show that ‘so many’ (LOCNESS f = 40, KTUCLE f = 57, TICLE f = 48) is more frequently preferred over ‘so much’ (LOCNESS f = 19, KTUCLE f = 46, TICLE f = 21) in all corpora. However, it can be noted that EFL learners have difficulty in writing grammatically correct form of countable and uncountable nouns. They have an inclination to use ‘so much’ with countable things and ‘so many’ with vice versa. Even, in learner corpora, there are some misuses of plural and singular forms of nouns. Turkish EFL learners often tend to forget adding *-s* to regular nouns to make them plural. Most probably, this can be derived from the transfer of Turkish language, in which plural suffixes (*-ler* or *-lar*) are not added to nouns when used with certain indefinite adjectives (e.g. *birkaç, az, biraz, çok, birçok, her, herhangi bir, hiçbir*). The concordance lines below give examples to improper use of *many* and *much*:

- ...the house, independently, as there are not *so much* children to look after. And if there are (TICLE)
- ...it becomes like this every summer and we lost *so much* forests like this way every year. Finally (KTUCLE)
- ...in most of the research. As important, there are *so many* study on genetics. Moreover, it also (KTUCLE)
- ...society. A university in each city can provide *so much* things which are seem irrelevant about (KTUCLE)

- ...convenience to our life. Scientifically *so many* thing has changed that 50 years ago some (KTUCLE)
- ...women but also men are use cosmetic products. *So much* product should be test again before be our (KTUCLE)

4.4.2.3. Too

Too is the third most-frequent amplifier in current study. According to Table 18, LOCNESS and KTUCLE have the similar percentages in using *too* as a booster although KTUCLE is almost two times larger than LOCNESS in size. With the proportion of 12%, *too* is less frequent in TICLE when compared to other two corpora. There are some common pattern clusters of *too* shared by both native speakers and learners of English, which are ‘v-link INT adj’, v-link INT adj n’ and ‘v-link INT adj *for* n/pron’. In addition, there is a major type of pattern with *too* often encountered in all corpora: ‘v-link INT adj *to* inf’. The remaining patterns include booster intensification with modals and verbs on the left position.

Pattern 1: v-link INT adj

- As well as the pointlessness of fox hunting it is *too brutal* on the now endangered wild fox (LOCNESS)
- ...even though the distance between two houses was *too distant*, their neighbour, in village they (KTUCLE)
- ...want to study for the exam, if the questions are too difficult, it they can only be answered by (TICLE)

Pattern 2: INT adj n

- ...flaws, but his lack of respect for others and *too much* pride in himself lead Hamlet to his (LOCNESS)
- For instance, in middle school, I have *too much* homework and school projects. I couldn’t (KTUCLE)
- ... will help me; Professors deserve it because of too *many assignments*, poor teaching, and unfair (TICLE)

Pattern 3: v-link INT adj *for* n/pron

- ...initiative. Taking Richard away now would be *too traumatic* for him, or for that matter any four (LOCNESS)
- ...to move finger. Moreover, especially it is *too important* for women because internet provides (KTUCLE)
- ...in order to have much money it means that you are *too ambitious* for money. Money ambitious is not a (TICLE)

Pattern 4: v-link INT adj *to* inf

- ...in the ring as is sometimes the tragic case. It is *too easy* to allow emotion to control the argument (LOCNESS)
- ... can work outside at the same time. Of course, it is *too hard* to overcome this situation (KTUCLE)

- ...and he learns that this illness is very bad and *too difficult* to cure. Should the doctor decide to (TICLE)

The pattern 2 ‘INT adj n’ is widely used booster pattern in both native and learner corpora. Actually, boosters intensifying scalar words frequently collocate with ‘much’ and ‘many’. The findings confirm that in three corpora, ‘much’ is found the first frequent collocation of *too* (LOCNESS f = 23, KTUCLE f = 182, TICLE f = 29). As encountered in the collocations of ‘so many’ and ‘so much’, non-native learners are observed to have problems in countable/uncountable nouns placed in the collocation of ‘too much’ and ‘too many’.

- ...were used to save the world. But there are *too much* animals killed by experiments and I could (KTUCLE)
- As it is known, it youth period people have got *too much* problems and they seek away to solve their (TICLE)

Additionally, the pattern ‘v-link INT adj *to* inf’ is found among the most common types of adjective intensification with the head of booster *too* in all groups of corpora. Another version of this pattern is ‘v-link INT adj *to* be v-ed’ which is less frequently observed in learner corpora. In TICLE, there is just one concordance line containing this type of usage pattern; however in KTUCLE, no such occurrence has been discovered. In LOCNESS, there are five occurrences in this passive form. This result may be stem from the learners’ inadequate grammatical and lexical knowledge of L2 which leads them to rely much on some certain intensifier patterns in written production.

Pattern 5: v-link INT adj *to* be v-ed’

- ...believes that the responsibility of freedom is *too great* to be faced alone, advocates the (LOCNESS)
- ... up to £9 million on any normal lottery draw) was *too much* to be given to just one party. The recent (LOCNESS)
- I put myself into a patient’s shoes who is *too ill* to be cured and the parents decide on euthanasia (TICLE)

There are some common verbs collocates with INT + adj on the left position in the pattern of ‘v INT adj’. Most frequent common verbs used with adjective intensification are *become, get, have, take, give, seem*, etc. in all three corpora. Even, EFL learners have been found to use different verbs such as *waste, use, spend, need, earn, want, cost, pay* in a context where the subject is about ‘money’. However, this cannot be regarded as an indicator of a profound knowledge in L2. The native speakers, on the other side, have an inclination to use a variety of different adverbs with booster *too* such as *all, far, almost, already, much*, which is not seen in learner corpora (e.g. *far too many, all too much* etc.) This is certainly a skill peculiar to the native speakers who are good at collocating different words to intensify their message.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

As previously mentioned, the present corpus-based research carried out an investigation to reveal semantic prosodic awareness of Turkish EFL learners at tertiary level on the use of English intensifiers in expository argumentation. For this purpose, the methodology of the research mainly adopted the approach of Granger's (1998) Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis by nature and compared one native corpus with two native corpora in order to reveal typical patterns of native speakers and EFL learners concerning the usage of intensifiers in written production. Although intensifier was used as an umbrella term, the aim of the study was to investigate the overall frequency distribution of amplifiers in combination with adjectives as well as their patterning and semantic prosodic features. Based on the intensifier classification of Quirk et al. (1985), the analysis was conducted in two subcategories as maximizers and boosters. The high frequent maximizers and boosters with their adjective collocations were analyzed in depth. Adjective intensification was intentionally entailed for the analysis because in practice such degree adverbs strongly collocate with adjectives (Kennedy, 2010: 240). The target maximizers were *absolutely*, *completely*, *entirely*, *fully*, *perfectly*, *totally*, and *utterly* while the boosters were *so*, *too*, and *very*.

The reference corpus of the study is LOCNESS (Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays) that is consisted of 361,054 words compiled from the essays of native speakers. The local learner corpus is KTUCLE with 709,749 tokens composed of the essays written by tertiary level EFL students at Karadeniz Technical University. As the second learner corpus, TICLE (Turkish International Corpus of Learner English) contains 223,449 words extracted from argumentative essays by Turkish adult EFL learners. These three corpora were compared with the use of a concordance tool called Sketch Engine. On this online concordancer, the raw frequencies of each target amplifier and their normalized values were measured automatically. Since three corpora under investigation differ in size, normalized frequency and Log-likelihood scores are of high importance to make a comparison between the usage frequencies and overuse and underuse levels.

The starting point of the current study was to investigate the semantic prosodic awareness of Turkish EFL learners on the use of intensifiers in their written essays. With this in mind, the analysis of the study was divided into three main sections in search for overall frequency distribution of amplifiers in native and non-native corpora, their overuse and underuse levels, and semantic prosodic nature of amplifiers and their usage patterns as well. Initially, the overall distribution of amplifiers plus adjectives both in native corpus and non-native corpora were retrieved to make inference on their usage. It is clearly seen that boosters outnumbered maximizers

to a great extent. In this regard, Quirk et al. (1985) stated that “while maximizers are a restricted set, the class of boosters is more open-ended” (as cited in Baker, 2010: 113). The total number of boosters is 2926, and maximizers are 164. The raw frequency of maximizers in the reference corpus is 62, while in KTUCLE, at least two times larger than LOCNESS and even the largest of all, the frequency of maximizers is 75. TICLE, as the smallest learner corpus in the study, has only 27 maximizers in total. When normalized per million with the following formula (Standardized Frequency = Raw Frequency x 1.000.000 / Corpora Content), LOCNESS is found to have a standard frequency of 17,17 while KTUCLE has 10,56. It can be inferred that the usage of maximizer collocations by non-native participants in KTUCLE is slightly less than native speakers. However, it was observed that only three of the maximizers such as *absolutely*, *completely* and *totally* are commonly used by EFL learners, while they underuse *perfectly*, and never have a tendency to use *utterly*. The results of the frequency analysis demonstrate that Turkish non-native learners of English at tertiary level use rather limited range of maximizers some of which such as *completely* and *totally* are most often used by native speakers. The excessive reliance of EFL learners on certain types of maximizers may be resulted from their restricted command of vocabulary and language proficiency level. Another possible explanation can be that the students are quite familiar with the frequent maximizers and pre-fabricated or prefixed collocations such as ‘totally wrong’, ‘absolutely necessary’, and ‘completely different’ that may possibly appear much in English learning materials, books and academic writing. The remaining maximizers such as *entirely*, *fully*, *perfectly*, and *utterly* are not preferred by non-native learners, and surprisingly most of them are not also widely used by native speakers instead of *perfectly*.

Boosters, on the contrary, are highly exploited by tertiary level Turkish EFL learners. The findings revealed that KTUCLE has the highest frequency of the boosters *very*, *so* and *too*, while TICLE and LOCNESS are quite similar in terms of their percentages. *Very* is the most frequent booster in three corpora. *Very* is heavily overused by non-native speakers “in overall occurrences as well as adj-int function” (Lorenz, 1999: 30). It gets confirmed through the higher use of *very* that “learners prefer using ‘all-round amplifiers’ or ‘safe-bets’ strategies, especially *very*, to minimize errors” (Xiaohua and Haihua, 2007: 759). That is to say, on account of having limited phraseological skills, foreign language learners refrain from using complex or unfamiliar phrases so as to avoid making mistakes in language production. *Very* is an intensifier than can be easily employed by EFL learners in various usage patterns without any semantic prosodic concern.

In order to distinguish typical collocation patterns of booster intensification, which are apparently high in number, the top ten most frequent common boosters in all groups of corpora were analyzed. For each booster, the reference corpus was compared separately with KTUCLE and TICLE based on Log-likelihood scores to identify overuse and underuse levels of EFL learners. ‘Very important’ is found to be the highest overused collocation both in KTUCLE and TICLE

when compared to the LOCNESS. The common underused booster + adjective intensification patterns in KTUCLE and TICLE are ‘very few’ and ‘very strong’.

So is the second highest booster in three corpora. Lorenz (1999: 70) stated that when there is no basis of comparison, the boosting function of *so* becomes more apparent. As occurs with *very*, ‘so important’ is also overused by the participants in two learner corpora. Not surprisingly, ‘so many’ and ‘so much’ are the widely-preferred booster collocation in two learner corpora; however, they are also widely used by native speakers. Lastly, *too* is the least frequent booster among three corpora. According to Lorenz (1999: 70), while modifying an adjective, *too* certainly has a function to scale upwards unless used in negation, and he added that “in this boosting function, and in its virtually unrestricted collocability, it resembles *very*, the booster *par excellence*.” ‘Too much’ is the common overuse pattern in KTUCLE and TICLE. ‘Too many’ is also highly preferred by the participants in two corpora, but no considerable difference was found between non-native corpora and native corpus.

Semantic prosody, as the core of the study, was analyzed based on Stubbs’ (1996) classification as positive, negative, and neutral. The target amplifiers in combination with adjectives in native and non-native corpora were all examined in terms of their semantic prosodic profiles. The results showed that *completely* and *totally* are the most common maximizers preferred by EFL learners. Since these two near-synonymous maximizers have an underlying negative association in meaning, they can be used in a similar manner. However, EFL learners are not fully conscious of the bad semantic prosodic nature of *completely*. Besides, they have a tendency to use *totally* with adjectives bearing positive meaning. This can be attributed to their inadequate competence in pragmatics. Another striking result is that EFL learners are more likely to use familiar types of maximizers for adjective intensification such as *completely*, *absolutely*, and *totally*, and they underuse other intensifiers such as *perfectly* and *utterly*. According to Wang (2017: 125), “L1 transfer plays an obvious role in causing the overuse, underuse and misuse of certain intensifiers.” Additionally, boosters *very*, *so* and *too* can be freely and interchangeably used for negative, positive and neutral attitudes. That is why, Turkish EFL learners tend to use boosters much predominantly in writing than maximizers.

As a special focus of the research, the usage patterning of amplifiers were examined based on the patterning labels of Hunston and Francis (2000). Adopted from Wang (2017), the labelling of adjective intensification was abbreviated as ‘INT-adj’. The most common usage patterns of amplifiers in three corpora are ‘v-link INT adj’, ‘INT adj n’, and ‘v-link not INT adj’ which are basic patterns constructed in writing. The non-native speakers use negative maximizer patterns including *not* more than natives, because the learners may lack of semantic prosodic awareness to use intensifiers in negative pattern for expressing attitudes. However, native speakers use various negation forms (e.g. *no*, *nobody*, *no one*, *no longer*, *nothing*, *never*, *neither*, *nor*). The EFL learners

also underuse some usage patterns such as ‘v-link TOO adj *to be* v-ed’ which is peculiar to native use. In addition, EFL learners were found to be lack of variety in using different items such as *far, all, almost* with intensifiers as native speakers do. There are also a great many link verbs preceding adjective intensification in the control corpus. It was also observed that ‘many’ and ‘much’ are predominantly used with *so* and *too*, but Turkish EFL learners have a difficulty in distinguishing countable and uncountable nouns while using with intensification. This can be resulted from the transfer of Turkish language, in which plural suffixes are not added to nouns when used with certain indefinite adjectives. It can be concluded that all these features may stem from the learners’ inadequate grammatical and lexical knowledge of L2.

From a pedagogical point of view, the study draws the implication that grammatical competence is not enough to be competent in a foreign language. Instead, foreign language students should be competent in pragmatic skills to master the vocabulary in target language. Near-synonymous words like intensifiers have potential to be a challenge for foreign language learners due to the nuances they bear in meaning. Thus, they should pay much attention to their semantic prosodic nature to have a proficiency in using such adverbials. The curriculum may not include explicit teaching of intensifiers, but some pragmatic classroom activities can be designed for foreign language learners to raise their level of awareness of semantic prosody.

Concerning the limitations, it can be stated the present study solely focuses on adjective intensification (INT-adj) which is supposed to be more abundant in language use. The degree adverbials intensifying verbs, adverbs, nouns, or prepositional phrases are beyond the scope of this research. Besides, a narrow-downed category of intensifiers with a limited number is predetermined for the analysis. The scope of the research, otherwise, would be more complex and wider to be analyzed. However, according to Lorenz (1998: 53-54), to scale the quality of intensification “it would not have been sufficient to search and retrieve a set of previously identified intensifiers.” It is necessary to make an analysis of intensification as comprehensive as possible “rather than checking the corpora for a pre-defined finite set.” Furthermore, the research embarks on the interlanguage problems of non-native learners, analyzing how frequently they overuse or/and underuse intensifiers in written English. The misuse of intensifiers by Turkish EFL learners is not examined in depth because “the strength of learner corpus analysis lies in the detection of patterns, not errors” (Lorenz, 1998: 9).

For further studies, a similar research may be conducted through two or more learner corpora including participants from different language proficiency levels. In this way, the interlanguage development features of EFL learners in using intensifiers can be compared and identified to what extent they progress in terms of semantic prosodic behavior. Secondly, a corpus-based comparative study can be carried out on female or male EFL learners focusing on gender preference in employing intensification in academic writing. The usage of intensifiers by native speakers and

non-native learners in conversational settings can also be investigated to uncover which types of intensifiers are more preferred in spoken discourse.



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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Concordances from Sketch Engine showing maximizers in LOCNESS

completely 43 > 15 (41.55 per million)

<p>1 for rail transport, and as their problems are 2 or if he changes his experiment only slightly a 3 hundreds of useful tasks which our brains are 4 <u>behind</u> his back. He tries to make out that he is 5 of universal guilt because no one can be 6 <u>Candide</u> is a humorous tale of a young man who is 7 statutes and written law in Britain as well as a 8 culture of individual members which may seem 9 Harvard is known for its rowing team and that is 10 : no taxes. This idea is 11 <u>entire</u> world. It also introduced what seemed a 12 <u>of</u> recycled material. The finished product is 13 ,but under close scrutiny it ends up being 14 a lot for the better, but not everything is 15 are these stereotypes wrong but they are also</p>	<p><u>completely</u> <i>different</i> in most respects, it must be clear <u>completely</u> <i>new</i> killer strain of this plant could be found. <u>completely</u> <i>indifferent</i> to. But we ought to ask ourselves " <u>completely</u> <i>indifferent</i> to everything but is shaken into a <u>completely</u> <i>innocent</i>. Camus raises the idea that even Jesus <u>completely</u> <i>innocent</i> and is in search of his ideal. However <u>completely</u> <i>different</i> approach to its treatment in court. <u>completely</u> <i>abhorrent</i> to some or all of the other members. <u>completely</u> <i>ethical</i>. Why can't Marquette get involved in <u>completely</u> <i>erroneous</i>. Money perhaps, is a necessary evil <u>completely</u> <i>impossible</i> concept which no human is capable of <u>completely</u> <i>recyclable</i> and this material can be used in a <u>completely</u> <i>false</i>. They have done studies in states where <u>completely</u> <i>equal</i>. Men are just like women, some of them may <u>completely</u> <i>unjustified</i>. Today, Prejudice must be hidden</p>
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absolutely 10 > 5 (13.85 per million)

<p>1 that many people are quite opposed to is the 2 still prepared to play the role of arbiter when 3 <u>account</u>. As far as the health risk goes, they are 4 <u>most</u> painful episode in American History. It is 5 the end of the 1994 college football season was</p>	<p><u>absolutely</u> <i>huge</i> salaries that top rank boxers receive. The <u>absolutely</u> <i>necessary</i>. According to him he was the head of <u>absolutely</u> <i>wrong</i>. In the case of the pharmacist from <u>absolutely</u> <i>unacceptable</i> to me and to millions of Americans, <u>absolutely</u> <i>ridiculous</i>. I think that this season alone</p>
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totally 27 > 12 (33.24 per million)

<p>1 <u>though</u>. It has reached the stage where we are 2 damage to the brain, leaving most sufferers 3 the scientists involved, by they are by no means 4 <u>of</u> 'making the best of it'. Caligula is not a 5 <u>to</u> losing his purity. This final gesture is 6 don't need and believe in them, then the Gods are 7 and unemployment, these demands were 8 as possible that the very notion of optimism is 9 of logic while the mind and the spirit were in a 10 <u>own</u> garden'. The idea of Optimism as a system is 11 single currency for instance would probably be 12 would become law in the UK, which perhaps is</p>	<p><u>totally</u> <i>dependant</i> upon transport. Without it we could <u>totally</u> <i>dependant</i> on others. It is also the case, <u>totally</u> <i>blameless</i>. I suggest the alternative opinion <u>totally</u> <i>abhorrent</i> character in this play. Camus gives <u>totally</u> <i>futile</i> and emphasizes the fact that Hugo was of <u>totally</u> <i>powerless</i>. Religion is responsible, along <u>totally</u> <i>unrealistic</i>. The <u>patronat</u> began to get annoyed <u>totally</u> <i>absurd</i>. <u>Candide</u> even goes as far as to suggest <u>totally</u> <i>different</i> realm. This remarkable theory meant <u>totally</u> <i>unacceptable</i> and this is seen throughout <u>totally</u> <i>unacceptable</i> for the average person at present <u>totally</u> <i>alien</i> to our system of law as it was never agreed</p>
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entirely 18 > 8 (22.16 per million)

<p>1 Another positive point is that the Lottery is 2 that the human brain is no longer useful is not 3 a worst case scenario, Britain becoming almost 4 <u>then</u> so be it. However I would not say that this is 5 and insurance companies' argument is 6 <u>are</u> trying to increase enrollment. This is 7 only should we study it should be given as an 8 , we are able to examine and be witness to an</p>	<p><u>entirely</u> <i>voluntary</i>: those who disapprove need to pay. <u>entirely</u> <i>true</i> (!) Computers cannot deal with human <u>entirely</u> <i>dependent</i> on processed food and imports to <u>entirely</u> <i>true</i> and so in some ways I would say that he is of <u>entirely</u> <i>unfounded</i>. They have nothing to stand on. The <u>entirely</u> <i>ethical</i> and in most cases necessary to continue <u>entirely</u> <i>seperate</i> discipline. Joseph <u>Zaitchik</u>, editor <u>entirely</u> <i>contradictory</i> and sometimes derogatory view</p>
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fully 38 > 7 (19.39 per million)

1 's egg, that person should be consenting and
2 the case, then the human brain will never become
3 not be willing to purchase beef until they are
4 he was unable to change the constitution into a
5 many people would not want to give this up . A
6 of our xenophobia and ever wishing to be
7 . It has helped people everywhere become more

fully *aware* of the moral consequences. Despite this,
fully *redundant*. There has
fully *reassured* that it is safe to consume. The
fully *presidential* one he did manage to include two
fully *integrated* market with Britain as a full member
fully *integrated* with Europe. Even now the channel
fully *human* , able to empathize with their fellow

perfectly 18 > 14 (38.78 per million)

1 . In areas such as Mexico City, the pollution is
2 of controlling foxes and do not see why these
3 much room they have etc. etc. However it is still
4 the fight is, in some, fair. But it is still
5 to disease. These tomatoes are probably
6 , perhaps correctly, that British beef is
7 quite the opposite. His desires may be seen as
8 , but to other characters in the play it is
9 imposing laws on us. Although this feeling is
10 form their own University system. Seemingly a
11 life and sends him home six weeks later, a
12 these diseases are life threatening. Aids is a
13 to replace Jocelyn Elders. The media took a
14 comfort them; saying feeling the way they do is

perfectly *visible* as a mass smog cloud can be seen
perfectly *comparable* alternatives cannot be used
perfectly *legal* for a group of people to chase a fox with a
perfectly *legal* for an infinite number of dogs to attack a
perfectly *safe* , but if they, or some other *genically*
perfectly *safe* to eat. However, people are genuinely
perfectly *understandable* but the methods he uses can to a
perfectly *acceptable*. *Hélicon* agrees to help him in his
perfectly *natural* , it will not long outlast the
perfectly *logical* thing to do, it is really a step towards a
perfectly *healthy* boy. Animal testing accounts for a
perfectly *good* example of these diseases. Without an
perfectly *good* candidate, who probably would have made an
perfectly *natural*. Jazz by Toni Morrison operates on this

utterly 2 > 1 (2.77 per million)

1 in optimism is, and how in fact the world appears **utterly** *devoid* of divine influence.

Appendix 2: Concordances from Sketch Engine showing maximizers in KTUCLE

completely 89 > 30 (42.27 per million)

1 production and sales of cigarette is not **completely good** idea. Single person should not be allowed
2 an old saying, it is hard to make living and it is **completely true**. "When a man wants to murder a tiger he
3 in the development of cosmetics for example is a **completely different** thing. It is most certainly not fair
4 , therefore it is a big true that internet is **completely helpful**. How many hours all day did you spend in
5 Don't forget! Nothing on the Internet is **completely clear** away. So Facebook is a danger against our
6 **reason** of cancer. Nowadays, this treatment is **completely possible**. Apart from these, we should not
7 **centers** from day to day. The animals are **completely innocent**, and have to possibly die just for
8 it can be influenced and famous turns into a **completely different** work this effect. Therefore, I think
9 . There are many reasons why this is a **completely valid** point. I have shown you many facts, and
10 Don't forget! Nothing on the Internet is **completely clear** away. So Facebook is a danger against our
11 which we placed at the center of our lives is **completely useful** but we actively use it in every part of
12 **one** is questions which asked. Because, it is **completely different** from education of university. These
13 **one** is questions which asked. Because, it is **completely different** from education of university. These
14 which we placed at the center of our lives is **completely useful** but we actively use it in every part of
15 believe that killing animal for testing is **completely wrong** and crucial. Nobody can take the animal
16 **to** be addiction day by day . This behavior is **completely wrong** because the cell phones spread out its
17 . To sum up, cell phones are definitely and **completely useful** for humans. I cannot image myself
18 , it is possible to notice that the case is **completely different** from you think. In order to finalize
19 **computer. ipad** etc. I am so sorry, but they are **completely dependent** people. Also, many research show the
20 and we assume they know everything but this is **completely wrong**. They do not know everything; they know
21 establishing a world and a society which lives **completely coherent** and do not tend to arguments. Atomic
22 **acting** accordingly." I am not saying they are **completely wrong**, but they are not completely right either
23 **is** not in terms of the country. The university is **completely good** something in many ways because the
24 and you can communicate with people in a **completely different** environment and you cannot be
25 **by geography**. Namely, university should have **completely independent** and all universities in the world
26 wrong, i am right, just believe me', 'You are **completely wrong**', 'That's not the point' well.. are you
27 **etc**. I definitely think that technology is not a **completely good** thing. Because this dehumanize and affect
28 this example that technology is not a **completely good** thing. Secondly, a lot of people are
29 supposes make good things but this is **completely wrong** the when government criticize become the
30 sum up Establishing University in every town is **completely misguided**. Actually our country wants good

absolutely 79 > 24 (33.81 per million)

1 for downloader such as arrest or money. This is **absolutely wrong**. Firstly, Purchasing original Cd's is not
2 'If you laugh so much, you will cry so much'. It is **absolutely false**. If a person laugh so much, he is so good, so
3 as you get older. They are skills that are **absolutely essential** in community organizations, in
4 , he says 'Death cannot be lived'. I think he is **absolutely right**. Because when a convicted is killed this
5 want to earn Money from smokers. This is **absolutely wrong**. Hence, the sale of cigarettes should be
6 day to have nicotine necessity. This opinion is **absolutely wrong**, and also has created lots of discussion
7 or money. This reaction of the government is **absolutely wrong**. People who download music and movie
8 reason everyone is equal. The quality of life is **absolutely express** to go to school in a civil manner. If the
9 I bought a new one for him/her." but this is **absolutely wrong**. They can call up school principal or
10 . Aff we do not look the opposing side, we can **absolutely aware** of the facts about the using of animals in
11 . Can you imagine a world without internet? I **absolutely can't** because today internet became
12 . But a student who is in high or primary school, **absolutely can't** access these databases. Providers of
13 for the sake of medical technologies. It seems **absolutely barbaric** to me since all animals have a sense of
14 the truth. Health comes first! It is **absolutely right** but we lose our health in the cause of the
15 to be biologically stronger but this idea is **absolutely wrong**. Women body is very strong in
16 is very dangereous, testing animals is **absolutely necessary**. There are three ways to advocate
17 topic and in my opinion, daily homeworks are **absolutely necessary** for students in terms of
18 not live without her/him; these thoughts are **absolutely wrong**. Actually, the love is nothing except for
19 expertise for the wellbeing of society. It is **absolutely important** to have expertise people in our life
20 things such as watching some channels which are **absolutely unnecessary** on TV or entering some harmful
21 in order to a good educated. These idea are **absolutely wrong** because a person doesn't developed
22 like this on the other hand, in my opinion, it is **absolutely wrong**. Whatever happens, universities are
23 life. In conclusion, I think daily homework is **absolutely necessary** thing for students. If teachers do
24 revolutions that show this form of revolt is **absolutely efficacious**. First of all, non - violent

totally 41 > 15 (21.13 per million)

1 and also it makes to blind animal eyes. This is **totally bad** and cruelly a conduct. We shouldn't use
2 to take aspirin each day but for cats aspirin is **totally poison**. At least, I firmly believe that using
3 say that " human being is first!" but this is **totally wrong**. I think that it's name is double standard
4 social effects of terrorism. Social life get **totally distrubute**. Fear anxiety unhappiness due to
5 be done. Some others claim that animal testing **totally wrong**. So, which side are you defending? People
6 than before. It does not mean that internet **totally useful** for people, no doubt about that there is
7 to find cure for human diseases but it is **totally wrong**. Although, there are many similarities
8 games without blinking. Thus, technology is **totally harmful** for your health. Furthermore, I
9 say it improves language but my opinion is **totally opposite** to them. Therefore, technology ruins
10 and healthy way to use animals on testing. It is **totally true** that animal testing is beneficial for

11 , on the other hand, the others say it is **totally** *useful* for us. In my opinion cell phone is really
12 *having* a part of social media be useful. You are **totally** *right* , but my opinion will be effective for you
13 *sense* to students. This opinion is **totally** *wrong* and also dangerous. Daily homework is
14 . Yes, we use very a lot yet we are not **totally** *dependable*. In my opinion, if we have not the
15 *not* be said that smoking is good in no sense. It is **totally** *bad* thing and it is have no any good part.

entirely 25 > 5 (7.04 per million)

1 *life*. I strongly believe that global warming is **entirely** *man-made* threat for world. People's continual
2 *going* to the Western lifestyle. In fact this is **entirely** *wrong* .Every human in Turkey who marriage are
3 technology that we have today will probably be **entirely** *obsolete*. Twenty years ago, the world had no
4 *it*' That's preposterous. I freely that I am **entirely** *dependent* on technology. I think that the
5 *Karabulut* and because the event did not **entirely** *clear* , her father and others made silent

fully 12 > 2 (2.82 per million)

1 *health* is very important for people. To be a **fully** *individual* , all of us must be careful for our
2 fashionable clothes but most of them consist of **fully** *useless* things. Do you know why these people

perfectly 11 > 2 (2.82 per million)

1 , it is never acceptable to test medicine on **perfectly** *healy* animals. Even *if* treatments are for use
2 are not tested on animals and the products are **perfectly** *safe*. now , tell ways of using instead of animal

Appendix 3: Concordance from Sketch Engine showing maximizers in TICLE

completely 39 > 11 (49.23 per million)

1 do not have Santa Claus in our culture . Ok ,he is **completely** *right* but he completely forgot that they are
2 value so what are we going to do then? This is not **completely** *true* , at this point we should consider
3 renewed. In stated of based on rote learning and **completely** *theoretical* , the education system should be
4 . "Untill we can control nuclear power to make it **completely** *safe* " The scientists say , "It can't be the
5 time of death. A foetus is a unique for being **completely** *human* in all of his or her characteristics and it
6 is so difficult for her to depart from it. It is a **completely** *unpleasant* situation for her to end her baby's
7 people. In my country, men and women are not **completely** *equal* and I believe that men are more superior
8 when they go out with more than one woman, it is **completely** *opposite* for woman. They are mercilessly
9 after a while. Their point of view about life is **completely** *different*. As their way of living is different.
10 , it is is understood a kind of energy that is **completely** *special*. but having basis qualities. This
11 . This approach seems profitable, but it is not **completely** *adequate*. supporting this approach means that

absolutely 15 > 3 (13.43 per million)

1 , suffering of any person from that illness is **absolutely** *meaningless*. In such conditions a group of
2 , a life is gone away and you want to go back. **Absolutely** *impossible!* So, how are you going to keep this
3 the conception of " ABORTION". They may feel it **absolutely** *compulsory* to let the infant off to get rid of

totally 12 > 6 (26.85 per million)

1 something; no limitation; but the reality is **totally** *different* and if you are both personally silent
2 from the problems of the life' maybe this is not **totally** *true*. but not totally wrong. And again what does
3 the life' maybe this is not totally true, but not **totally** *wrong*. And again what does university mean ;let
4 . some says not. But to say that they have **totally** *little* value in our lives will be a very faulty
5 On the other hand, they can't be equal as they're **totally** *different*. First of all, their roles are
6 - to a great extent - are theoretical. are not **totally** *unvaluable* as some people suggest. Some sorts

entirely 5 > 1 (4.48 per million)

1 are not based on any important question, and are **entirely** *unnecessary*. There are some building blocks

fully 9 > 6 (26.85 per million)

1 the question by assuming that the unborn is not **fully** *human*. For if the unborn is fully human, then we
2 unborn is not fully human. For if the unborn is **fully** *human* , then we must weigh the relieving of the
3 , every day of the year, hundreds of thousands of **fully** *conscious* animals are scalded, or beaten, or
4 , everyday of the year, hundreds of **fully** *conscious* animals are scalded, beaten or
5 take too much time. Every day of the year, a lot of **fully** *conscious* animals are boiled, beaten or
6 . A person who can develop oneself becomes a **fully** *functraining* person for the society and it

Appendix 4: The Semantic Profiles of VERY + 1R adjectives in LOCNESS

POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		NEUTRAL	
important	25	few	15	little	11
good	14	difficult	12	small	5
strong	12	expensive	6	high	5
popular	7	low	6	similar	5
competitive	5	hard	6	likely	4
powerful	5	dangerous	5	long	4
real	5	controversial	3	big	3
significant	5	rare	3	large	3
successful	3	subtle	2	specific	3
interesting	3	boring	2	basic	3
positive	3	unpopular	2	own	3
young	3	weak	2	recent	2
happy	3	disturbing	1	first	2
large	3	thin	1	same	2
easy	3	capricious	1	common	2
impressionable	2	upset	1	different	2
sensitive	2	scary	1	masculine	1
clever	2	ignorant	1	soft	1
favourable	2	depressed	1	ethnocentric	1
proud	2	misguided	1	functional	1
influential	2	confused	1	impersonal	1
simple	2	unsure	1	authoritative	1
effective	2	painful	1	technical	1
true	2	doubtful	1	raw	1
interested	2	sceptical	1	direct	1
much	2	harsh	1	stereo-typical	1
magnanimous	1	violent	1	typical	1
credible	1	negative	1	grey	1
affective	1	complex	1	individual	1
idealistic	1	complicated	1	personal	1
useful	1	ugly	1	natural	1
self-concerned	1	unfair	1	wide	1
unique	1	uncomfortable	1	obvious	1
patient	1	unrealistic	1	ironic	1
resilient	1	angry	1	sound	1
helpful	1	sick	1		
careful	1	fierce	1		
viable	1	cramped	1		
profitable	1	unreliable	1		
beneficial	1	severe	1		
possible	1	damaging	1		
ready	1	contagious	1		
clear	1	wary	1		
safe	1	least	1		
fair	1	dependent	1		
great	1	busy	1		
respectable	1	stressful	1		
amusing	1	overpopulated	1		
rich	1	devastating	1		
logical	1	alarming	1		
new	1	melancholy	1		
aware	1	cruel	1		
realistic	1	heated	1		
substantial	1	timid	1		
special	1	apprehensive	1		

exciting	1	serious	1		
exclusive	1	debatable	1		
intense	1				
patriotic	1				
TOTAL	151	TOTAL	109	TOTAL	78



Appendix 5: The Semantic Profiles of VERY + 1R adjectives in KTUCLE

POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		NEUTRAL	
important	245	dangerous	35	different	22
useful	66	hard	25	big	20
good	33	harmful	24	short	14
easy	21	difficult	23	small	11
high	17	bad	19	little	10
much	11	expensive	12	serious	9
beneficial	11	sad	11	common	9
necessary	10	few	7	large	5
happy	9	heavy	5	huge	5
helpful	9	tired	4	long	5
simple	8	wrong	4	similar	4
popular	7	strange	3	normal	4
sensitive	7	thoughtless	3	early	3
significant	7	old	3	widespread	3
beautiful	7	remote	2	first	3
attractive	6	rare	2	hot	3
interesting	6	useless	2	general	2
effective	6	sorry	2	broad	2
strong	6	strict	2	personal	2
successful	6	angry	2	natural	2
essential	5	stressful	2	basic	1
careful	5	complex	2	present	1
young	5	painful	2	conservative	1
valuable	4	nervous	2	direct	1
interested	4	cruel	2	liberal	1
enjoyable	4	unhealthy	2	classic	1
clear	4	ill	2	technological	1
healthy	4	low	2	ordinary	1
unique	3	poor	2	near	1
reliable	3	busy	2	close	1
powerful	3	dramatic	2	deliberate	1
excited	2	loud	1		
modern	2	vulnerable	1		
substantial	2	inefficient	1		
awesome	2	noisy	1		
proud	2	uncomfortable	1		
portable	2	notorious	1		
noble	2	unusual	1		
exciting	2	unstable	1		
crucial	2	exhausting	1		
comfortable	2	bitter	1		
pleasant	2	asocial	1		
lucky	2	lazy	1		
cheap	2	unnecessary	1		
suitable	2	awful	1		
true	2	negative	1		
prestigious	1	selfish	1		
admirable	1	nonsense	1		
imperceptible	1	weak	1		
grateful	1	aggressive	1		
hard-working	1	risky	1		
virtuous	1	anti-social	1		
fascinating	1	deceptive	1		
ambitious	1	thin	1		
superficial	1	critical	1		

fashionable	1	irresponsible	1		
knowledgeable	1	tragic	1		
stout	1	shy	1		
extensive	1	minor	1		
harmless	1	sorrowful	1		
decisive	1	boring	1		
reprehensible	1	merciless	1		
sensible	1	dissuasive	1		
joyful	1				
handy	1				
civilized	1				
fond	1				
meaningful	1				
fantastic	1				
profitable	1				
alert	1				
accurate	1				
reasonable	1				
brave	1				
vital	1				
cheerful	1				
optimistic	1				
fundamental	1				
super	1				
quick	1				
necessary	1				
precious	1				
clever	1				
emotional	1				
great	1				
nice	1				
active	1				
funny	1				
available	1				
positive	1				
fast	1				
silent	1				
appropriate	1				
real	1				
social	1				
possible	1				
special	1				
TOTAL	623	TOTAL	244	TOTAL	149

Appendix 6: The Semantic Profiles of VERY + 1R adjectives in TICLE

POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		NEUTRAL	
important	44	difficult	17	big	15
good	16	bad	14	little	15
successful	10	hard	11	short	14
useful	9	ill	6	different	12
easy	9	serious	5	small	6
simple	8	dangerous	5	common	5
high	7	low	4	long	4
great	4	harmful	3	detailed	2
rich	4	old	3	close	2
much	4	lonely	2	widespread	2
interesting	3	strict	2	first	2
careful	3	useless	2	deep	1
popular	3	expensive	2	general	1
beautiful	3	cruel	2	obvious	1
effective	3	wrong	2	ordinary	1
young	3	embarrassing	1	large	1
handsome	2	distressing	1	early	1
helpful	2	faulty	1	cold	1
surprising	2	sad	1		
clever	2	negative	1		
practical	2	fat	1		
clear	2	nervous	1		
beneficial	2	hopeless	1		
invaluable	1	complex	1		
surprised	1	miserable	1		
rightful	1	dirty	1		
attractive	1	curious	1		
alluring	1	thin	1		
independent	1	disturbing	1		
intense	1	merciless	1		
prestigious	1	poor	1		
nice	1	few	1		
delicious	1	sick	1		
affektive	1	tired	1		
colourful	1	afraid	1		
ideal	1				
comfortable	1				
elegant	1				
exciting	1				
reasonable	1				
skilful	1				
experienced	1				
essential	1				
sweet	1				
fast	1				
cheap	1				
powerful	1				
emotional	1				
happy	1				
strong	1				
necessary	1				
many	1				
sensitive	1				
emotive	1				
TOTAL	178	TOTAL	100	TOTAL	86

Appendix 7: The Semantic Profiles of TOO + 1R adjectives in LOCNESS

POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		NEUTRAL	
much	23	late	5	wet	1
many	14	costly	2	utopic	1
easy	5	loud	2	premature	1
high	4	busy	2	minute	1
great	3	lazy	2	traditional	1
important	3	vague	2	brutal	1
adventurous	1	long	2	abstract	1
precise	1	old	2	radical	1
self-interested	1	bad	2	apparent	1
new	1	lethargic	1	cold	1
young	1	traumatic	1	little	1
strong	1	violent	1		
		low	1		
		difficult	1		
		big	1		
		large	1		
TOTAL	58	TOTAL	28	TOTAL	11

Appendix 8: The Semantic Profiles of TOO + 1R adjectives in KTUCLE

POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		NEUTRAL	
much	182	dependent	26	late	23
many	29	difficult	7	long	3
important	10	hard	4	early	3
sensitive	2	less	3	big	2
young	2	expensive	3	hot	2
strong	2	dangerous	3	little	2
easy	2	bad	3	close	1
sensible	1	complex	2	cold	1
intense	1	lazy	2	short	1
ready	1	tired	2	small	1
fast	1	few	2		
careful	1	scary	1		
simple	1	distant	1		
high	1	extreme	1		
useful	1	regretful	1		
		critical	1		
		blind	1		
		remote	1		
		serious	1		
		weak	1		
		sad	1		
TOTAL	237	TOTAL	67	TOTAL	39

Appendix 9: The Semantic Profiles of TOO + 1R adjectives in TICLE

POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		NEUTRAL	
much	29	difficult	6	late	5
many	7	expensive	2	systematic	1
young	4	hard	2	materialistic	1
ambitious	1	long	2	theoretical	1
smart	1	few	1	big	1
helpful	1	strict	1		
strong	1	busy	1		
simple	1	insufficient	1		
high	1	low	1		
interested	1	ill	1		
useful	1	complicated	1		
important	1				
TOTAL	49	TOTAL	19	TOTAL	9



Appendix 10: The Semantic Profiles of SO + 1R adjectives in LOCNESS

POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		NEUTRAL	
many	40	hard	7	little	5
much	19	rare	2	long	3
great	5	low	2	prevalent	1
simple	2	difficult	2	general	1
easy	2	preoccupied	1	different	1
important	2	embarrassing	1		
eager	1	undisciplined	1		
intent	1	sudden	1		
funny	1	addictive	1		
inexpensive	1	uncommon	1		
intense	1	heated	1		
full	1	tragic	1		
quick	1	unable	1		
advanced	1	unreliable	1		
proud	1	severe	1		
emotional	1	dependent	1		
positive	1	negative	1		
new	1	old	1		
useful	1	expensive	1		
powerful	1	bad	1		
righteous	1	wrong	1		
popular	1	jaded	1		
strong	1	rampant	1		
reliant	1	ambiguous	1		
immense	1				
TOTAL	89	TOTAL	33	TOTAL	11

Appendix 11: The Semantic Profiles of SO + 1R adjectives in KTUCLE

POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		NEUTRAL	
many	57	hard	9	normal	6
much	46	harmful	9	different	5
important	44	bad	8	close	2
happy	9	difficult	7	widespread	2
easy	8	heavy	4	big	2
useful	7	stressful	3	interbedded	1
beneficial	6	awful	3	routine	1
lucky	5	sad	3	ironic	1
strong	4	wrong	3	common	1
necessary	4	upset	2	dry	1
popular	3	depressed	2	little	1
most	3	disturbing	2	small	1
simple	3	poor	2	wide	1
young	3	busy	2	quiet	1
good	3	dangerous	2		
logical	2	dependent	2		
cute	2	lost	1		
famous	2	intolerant	1		
innocent	2	provocative	1		
remarkable	2	intolerable	1		
great	2	wicked	1		
smart	2	insensitive	1		
enjoyable	2	sharp	1		
reliable	2	unlucky	1		
beautiful	2	monotone	1		
cheap	2	alarming	1		
social	2	problematic	1		
healthy	2	pathetic	1		
successful	2	hazardous	1		
effective	2	rough	1		
true	2	slow	1		
advantageous	2	absurd	1		
swift	1	heartless	1		
soft	1	unacceptable	1		
skilful	1	rare	1		
non-violent	1	deceptive	1		
sociable	1	ridiculous	1		
quality	1	distant	1		
wonderful	1	exhausting	1		
progressed	1	addicted	1		
regular	1	risky	1		
glad	1	wild	1		
rich	1	selfish	1		
excited	1	violent	1		
rational	1	sorry	1		
sophisticated	1	less	1		
quick	1	cruel	1		
magnificent	1	nonsense	1		
clever	1	limited	1		
significant	1	boring	1		
clear	1	ill	1		
sympatric	1	expensive	1		
powerful	1				
certain	1				
modern	1				
full	1				

convenient	1				
funny	1				
preferable	1				
real	1				
TOTAL	267	TOTAL	99	TOTAL	26



Appendix 12: The Semantic Profiles of SO + 1R adjectives in TICLE

POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		NEUTRAL	
many	48	hard	6	different	4
much	21	weak	2	routine	1
important	15	tired	2	colourful	1
easy	9	cruel	2	natural	1
clear	4	bad	2	obvious	1
good	3	hurtful	1	ordinary	1
effective	2	odd	1	tight	1
necessary	2	irresponsible	1	little	1
fresh	1	selfish	1	big	1
brave	1	horrible	1	long	1
sweet	1	immoral	1		
ambitious	1	disabled	1		
vital	1	unhappy	1		
fast	1	disturbing	1		
essential	1	merciless	1		
free	1	helpless	1		
emotional	1	unnecessary	1		
new	1	busy	1		
strong	1	insufficient	1		
high	1	expensive	1		
striking	1	harmful	1		
useful	1	wrong	1		
		dangerous	1		
		low	1		
		ill	1		
		difficult	1		
TOTAL	118	TOTAL	35	TOTAL	13

CURRICULUM VITAE

Neslihan KELEŞ was born in Trabzon in 1986. She is originally from Artvin. Her high school education was between the years of 1997 and 2004 in Akçaabat Anatolian High School. She was graduated from the Department of English Language and Literature and got an English Language Teaching Certificate from the Faculty of Education at Karadeniz Technical University. After graduation, she was granted as Comenius Language Assistant by Turkish National Agency to work in a primary school in Italy for six months in 2009-2010 academic year. She has been studying for a master degree in applied linguistics at Karadeniz Technical University. She also has an undergraduate degree in International Relations from the Faculty of Open Education in Anadolu University. She has been currently working as chief human resources officer in Eastern Blacksea Development Agency in Trabzon since 2011.

She is married and mother of two daughters.