Morphological and Lexical Contrastive Analysis of Turkish and English

By Dr. Irbrahim Abushihab

University of Jordan

Abstract - This study explores the differences and similarities between Turkish and English in the areas of morphology and lexical meaning. The discussion leads to different major conclusions. Personal endings(-im(I),-sin(you/singular),- dir(he,she,it),-iz(we),-siniz(you/plural),-ler(they) which stand for (Be) and (NP subject) in Turkish are attached to nouns and adjectives as the following examples: Ben Õğretmenim /ben əʊretmenım/ ((- im) attached to noun)

I + teacher +personal suffix stands for Be (-im) (I am a teacher)

Ben HastayIm /ben hæstæjəm/ ((- Im) attached to adjective)

I + sick+(y) buffer sound between two vowels+personal

suffix stands for Be(-im) (I am sick)

Ben (I) in both examples could be omitted without changing the meaning because of the personal endings as follows: Õğretmenim / əʊretmenım/ teacher +personal suffix (-im) stands for Be and the subject (I am a teacher) The personal endings stated above are attached to the word "değil" /deɣıl/(not) to make the present tense "Be" negative as the following example: Ben hasta değilim/ben hæstæ deɣılım/ I +sick +negative morpheme (değil)+personal suffix stands for Be (-im) (I am not sick.) Such conclusions are helpful in language teaching materials, syllabuses and test construction.

MORPHOLOGICAL AND LEXICAL CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF TURKISH AND ENGLISH

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of :

Morphological and Lexical Contrastive Analysis of Turkish and English

Dr. Irbrahim Abushihab

Abstract - This study explores the differences and similarities between Turkish and English in the areas of morphology and lexical meaning. The discussion leads to different major conclusions. Personal endings(-im(I),-sin(you/singular),-dir(he,she,it),-iz(we),-siniz(you/plural),-ler(they) which stand for (Be) and (NP subject) in Turkish are attached to nouns and adjectives as the following examples:

Ben Öğretmenim /ben ǝʊretmenım/ ((- im) attached to noun)
  I + teacher +personal suffix stands for Be (-im) (I am a teacher)

Ben Hastayım /ben hæstæjǝm/ ((- ım) attached to adjective)
  I + sick+(y) buffer sound between two vowels+personal suffix stands for Be(-im)
  (I am sick)

Ben (I) in both examples could be omitted without changing the meaning because of the personal endings as follows:

  Öğretmenim / ǝʊretmenım/
  teacher +personal suffix (-im) stands for Be and the subject
  (I am a teacher)

  The personal endings stated above are attached to the word "değil" /deɣıl/(not) to make the present tense "Be" negative as the following example:

Ben hasta değilim/ben hæstæ deɣılım/
  I +sick +negative morpheme (değil)+personal suffix stands for Be (-im)
  (I am not sick.)

Such conclusions are helpful in language teaching materials, syllabuses and test construction.

I. Introduction

Linguistic aspect of contrastive analysis (CA) is based on structural linguistics. In the 1950s and 1960s, behaviorism and structuralism were of great popularity and CA was formulated by Fries (1945) and developed by Lado(1957).It was regarded as the comparison of the structures of two languages or more and finding out the points of differences which are the main source of difficulty for language learner and they form the basis for the preparation of language texts.

After the Second World War, foreign language learning gained importance and CA became the landmark of teaching foreign languages. Larsen - Freeman and Long (1991: 52) state that "The most effective materials (for foreign language teaching) are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language."

Stockwell and Martin(1965)assure the main source for predicting the difficulties is the interference between native language and target language. They introduce a hierarchy of difficulty where the teacher or the linguist can predict of the difficulty of a given aspect of the target language.

Brown claims that "the principal barrier to the second language system is the interference of the first language system with the second language system, and that a scientific, structural analysis of the two languages in question would yield a taxonomy of a linguistic contrast between them in which in turn would enable the linguist to predict the difficulties a leaner would encounter." (2000:208).

It must be noted that contrastive analysis hypothesis exists in a strong and a weak versions. These two versions are equally related to the notion of L1 interference. The strong version claims that all the errors in L2 can be prepared by identifying the differences between the learner's native language and the language being learned, but the weak one claims to have the power to diagnose errors in L2. James (1980: 63) adds that "the job of diagnosis belong to the field of error analysis." Wardhaugh (1970: 123) states that according to the strong version, all L2 errors that will occur can be predicted through the differences between L1 and L2 and weak version claims that only some of the errors can be identified through these differences.

This paper basically attempts to compare Turkish and English with the aim of describing the similarities and differences between them in the areas of morphology and lexical meaning.

II. Sound Inventories of Turkish and English

English and Turkish have 20 consonants in common. Almost every consonant that exists in Turkish also exists in English. English has a total number of 24 consonants; whereas Turkish has 21. Tables 1 and 2 display the phonetic nature of consonants in both languages.

Author : Assist. Prof., Head of English Department, Alzaytoonah Private University of Jordan. E-mail : Ibrashihab@yahoo.com

Table 1: English consonant phonemes (Adapted from Roach, 2000, see Appendix No. 1).

Place of articulation

		Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar (Post-alveolar)	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Manner of articulation	Plosive	p　b			t　d			k　g	
	Fricative		f　v	θ　ð	s　z	ʃ　ʒ			h
	Affricate					tʃ　dʒ			
	Nasal	m			n			ŋ	
	Lateral				l				
	approximant	w				r	j		

Turkish consonants differ from those of English in terms of their place of articulation, as table 2 displays

Table 2 : Turkish consonant phonemes (Adapted from Göksel and Kerslake, 2006:3-6;see Appendix No.3)

Place of articulation

		Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Palato-alveolar	Alveo-palatal	Palatal	Glottal
Stops	Vl	p		t			k	
	Vd	b		d			g	
Fricatives	Vl		f		s	ʃ	ɣ	h
	Vd		v		z	ʒ		
Affricates	Vl				tʃ			
	Vd				dʒ			
Nasals		m			n			
Laterals					r	1		
Approximants					j			

English has 12 vowel phonemes with three degrees of tongue height such as high, mid and low as illustrated in Table 3:

Table 3 : English vowels (Adapted from Roach,2000 ;see Appendix 2).

	Front	Central	back
High	i:		u:
	ɪ		ʊ
Mid	e		ɔ:
		ə　ɜ:	ɑ:
low	æ	ʌ	ɒ

Turkish, on the other hand, has 8 vowels with two positions of tongue height; high and low as it is shown in table 4.

Table 4 : Turkish vowel phonemes (Adapted from Göksel and Kerslake, 2006:9; see Appendix 3)

	High		Non-high(mid and low)	
	Rounded	Unrounded	Rounded	Unrounded
Front	ü	i	ö	e
Back	u	ı	o	a

III. Vowel Harmony in Turkish

Vowel harmony is a phonological process which determine what vowel will appear in all but the first syllable of a word .If the vowels in the root are formed in the back of the mouth ɑ/ æ /, undotted i /ə/, o/ ɔ: / , u / ʊ / as in araba / æræbæ/ (car), we add – lar (plural suffix) to make araba<u>lar</u> (cars). If the vowels are made in the front of the mouth (e /e /, i / ɪ /, ö / əʊ / , ü / y /), we add – ler to ev / ev/ (house) to make ev<u>ler</u> (houses). Likewise banka<u>lar</u>/ bænkælær/ (banks) but otobüs<u>ler</u> / ɔ:tɔ:bysler / (buses). Turkish language is an agglutinative language, which means that it attaches its grammatical information to the end of a root-word according to the vowel harmony rule.

A suffix is sometimes preceded by a buffer letter such as "y" for smooth pronunciation. It is used between two vowels as follows:

Gitmeyiz /gɪtmejɪz/

Go + negative suffix (-me) + buffer sound (-y) + personal suffix stands for (we)(-iz)

(We do not go.)

As a result of vowel harmony, only the following sequences are permissible in native Turkish words:

Back Vowels	'a' can only be followed by 'a' or 'ı' 'ı' can only be followed by 'a' or 'ı' 'o' can only be followed by 'a' or 'u' 'u' can only be followed by 'a' or 'u'
Front Vowels	'e' can only be followed by 'e' or 'i' 'i' can only be followed by 'e' or 'i' 'ö' can only be followed by 'e' or 'ü' 'ü' can only be followed by 'e' or 'ü' (Göksel and Kerslake,2006:21)

IV. Morphological Contrastive Analysis

Turkish is classified as a head-final language with an SOV word order in main and embedded clauses. Since Turkish morphology is agglutinative, Turkish verbs are inflected for person, number, and tense (Haznedar, 2003). Dressler states that Turkish language is an agglutinative language which has the inflectional in both noun and verb (2003). Unlike Turkish, the word order of English sentence can be described as SVO.

A morpheme is a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical functions. The following example consists of one element "speak" and a number of other elements which are called morphemes (-s, -er ,-ed ,-ing):
Speak, Spoke, Speaking, Speaker

There are two types of morphemes: free morphemes which can occur by themselves as a single word (speak); whereas, bound morphemes which cannot stand by themselves, always attached to another form (-s, -er,-ed,-ing).These free and bound morphemes can be seen in detail in Table 1(Yule, 2001).

Table 1: Different categories of morphemes

Free morphemes	Bound morphemes
Lexical	Derivational
Functional	Inflectional

In the free morpheme category, lexical morphemes carry the content of the message as boy, man, house, etc. On the other hand, functional morphemes are functional words in the language such as conjunction, preposition, articles and pronouns. The set of bound morphemes is divided into two: derivational morphemes which are used to make new words in the language and new words of a different grammatical categories such as –ness which changes the adjective to the noun "happiness". The other type is inflectional morphemes which are used to show aspects of the grammatical function of a word such as singular-plural (s),past tense (-ed), comparative (-er) or possessive ('s) form.

In Turkish, the parts of a word combine in a particular order. Inflectional morphemes are always used in the word final position whereas derivational suffixes precede inflectional suffixes. But there may be possibilities in which more than one inflectional and/or derivational suffix can be used in a word. A change in the order of the morphemes leads to ungrammatical forms (Yavuz and Turan, 2000).

Example:
hasta /hæstæ/ (ill,adj.)
hasta<u>lan</u> /hæstælæn/(to get sick,v.)
hastalandı /hæstælændə/
ill+verb suffix(-lan) +past suffix(-dı)(got sick)
hastalandım /hæstælændəm/
hasta(sick/noun stem) +-Lan(derivational morpheme /verb suffix)+-dı (past tense marker)+ -m (1st person marker stands for BE). (I was sick)

At first, the morpheme –lan as a derivational morpheme, is attached to the noun stem (hasta).As a result, we produce verb (hastalanmak /to get sick) and then past tense marker –dı and first person singular marker –m come respectively.
Note : (-mak) that is attached to the verb in Turkish stands for (to)

The vast majority of derivation in Turkish is formed through suffixation. Prefixation is used in a very limited extent for reduplication and in a few loan words. Reduplication is the repetition of a word or part of a word as the fallowing examples:

uzun / ʊzʊn/ (long) upuzun / ʊpʊzʊn/(very long)
eski /eskı/ (old) epeski /epeskı/(very old)

yavaş yavaş /jævæʃ jævæʃ/ (slowly)
rahat rahat /ræhæt ræhæt/ (comfortably ,easily)

Apart from the reduplication prefixes discussed above, the Turkish prefixes are used in a few loan words as the following examples :

<u>gayri</u>müslim /gæjrımyslım / (non-muslim)
<u>post</u>modern /pɔ:stmɔ:dern/ (postmodern)

The derivational suffix attaches to a stem to produce a new word connected in meaning to that stem .The suffix -ılk /-əlk/ can derive nouns from nouns as the following:

Kral (n.) / kræl / (King) krallık (n.) /krælək/ (kingdome)

These are a number of different sets of Turkish personal possessive endings, depending on the use. When the personal pronoun is the possessor of the noun, the following are used:

1. (ı) m (my) kitab<u>ım</u> /kıtæbəm/ (my book).
2. (ı) n (your) kitab<u>ın</u> /kıtæbən/ (your book).
3. (s)ı (her/ his/ its) kitab<u>ı</u> /kıtæbə/ (his / her book) if the noun ends with a vowel, (s) is added as çanta /tʃæntæ/ (çanta<u>sı</u>) /tʃæntæsə/
4. (ı) m<u>ız</u> (our) kitab<u>ımız</u> /kıtæbəməz/ (our books)
5. (ı) n<u>ız</u> (your/plural) kitab<u>ınız</u> /kıtæbənəz/ (your books).
6. Ler<u>ı</u> (their) kitab<u>ları</u> /kıtæblærə/ (their books).

It must be noted that the plural form of "our" (-mız) is used for the polite singular, as in English language and most other European languages. These possessive endings follow the plural noun, so Çocuklar<u>ım</u> /tʃɔ:dʒʊklærəm (my(**-ım**)children),

ÇocuklarImIz /tʃɔ:dʒʊklærəməz/ (our(-ImIz) children) could be used both for singular. The latter is used for polite singular.

It must also be noted that the personal suffixes (. im, . sin, . dir, . iz, . siniz, . ler) in non - verbal Turkish sentences stand for "Be" and link the subject with the predicate. They are attached to nouns or adjectives as follows:

A.   *Turkish personal endings attached to nouns:*

1. -(y) im (I am) (Ben) Ŏğretmenim /ben əʊretmenɪm/ (I am a teacher).
2. -sin (you are) (Sen) Ŏğretmensin /sen əʊretmensɪn/ (you are a teacher). (singular)
3. -dir (he, she, it) is (O) Ŏğretmendir / ɔ: əʊretmendɪr/ (He/ she is a teacher).
4. -(y) iz (We are) (Biz) Ŏğretmeniz /bɪz əʊretmenɪz/ (we are teachers).
5. siniz (you are) (Siz) Ŏğretmensiniz /sɪz əʊretmensɪnɪz/ (you are teachers).(plural)
6. Ler (they are) (Onlar) Ŏğretmenler/ ɔ:nlær əʊretmenler/ (They are teachers).

B.   *Turkish personal endings attached to adjectives:*

1. (Ben) hastayIm /(ben) hæstæjəm/ (I am sick)
2. (Sen) hastasIn /(sen) hæstæsən/ (you are sick) (singular).
3. (O) hastadIr / (ɔ:) hæstædər/ (He/ she is sick).
4. (Biz) hastayIz /(bɪz) hæstæjəz/ (we are sick).
5. (Siz) hastasInIz/(sɪz) hæstæsənəz/ (you are sick) (plural)
6. (Onlar) hastalar /(ɔ:nlær)hæstælær/ (They are sick).

We can omit the NP (subjects) Ben (I), Sen (you, singular), O (he, she), Biz (we), Siz (you, plural), Onlar (they) without changing the meaning because the personal endings standing for (Be) and (NPS.) (. im, . sin, . dir (. dɪr) . niz, . siniz, . ler (. lar) carry the same meanings.

The Turkish nominal sentences (non-verbal sentences) are negated by using the word "değil" /deɣɪl/ (not) which is used as a separate word after the predicate(nouns and adjectives). The personal suffixes (-im, -sin, Ø ,-iz, -imiz ,-ler) are attached to "değil" to make the present tense of "Be" negative as the following examples:

a. *"değil" is used after adjectives:*

1. Ben hasta değilim /ben hæstæ deɣɪlɪm /(I am not sick).
2. Sen hasta değilsin/sen hæstæ deɣɪlsɪn/(you are not sick).
3. hasta değildir / ɔ: hæstæ deɣɪldɪr/(he / she is not sick).

4. Biz hasta değiliz / bɪz hæstæ deɣɪlɪz/(we are not sick).
5. Siz (plural) hasta değilisiniz / sɪz hæstæ deɣɪlɪsɪnɪz/ (you are not sick).
6. Onlar hasta değiller / ɔ:nlær hæstæ deɣɪler/(They are not sick)

b. *It is also used after nouns as follows:*

1. Ben Ŏğretmen değilim / ben əʊretmen deɣɪlɪm / (I am not a teacher).
2. Sen Ŏğretmen değilsin /sen əʊretmen deɣɪlsɪn/ (you are not a teacher).
3. Ŏğretmen değil / ɔ: əʊretmen deɣɪl /(he/she is not a teacher)
4. Biz Ŏğretmen değiliz / bɪz əʊretmen deɣɪlɪz/(we are not teachers).
5. Siz Ŏğretmen değilisiniz / sɪz əʊretmen deɣɪlɪsɪnɪz/ (you(plural) are not teachers).
6. Onlar Ŏğretmen değiller / ɔ:nlær əʊretmen deɣɪler/ (they are not teachers)

The following endings (-m,-n, Ø,-uk,-nuz,-lar)are used to indicate the subject of a verb in some of tenses such as the past tense taking into consideration the past suffix(-di) and its eight allomorphs (-di ,-dı ,-du,-dü,-tı ,-ti ,-tu,-tü).They are based on the vowel harmony rule. The suffix vowel and stem vowel have to share the same specification for both backness and rounding as follows:

1. -m (I) unutum /ʊnʊtʊm/ (I forgot)
2. -n (you) unutun /ʊnʊtʊn/ (you/singular/ forgot).
3. -. Ø (he, she, it) unutu /ʊnʊtʊ/ (he/ she forgot).
4. -k (we) unutuk /ʊnʊtʊk/ (we forgot).
5. -nuz (you) unutunuz /ʊnʊtʊnʊz/   (you/ plural/ forgot).
6. Ler (they) unutular /ʊnʊtʊlær/ (they forgot).

It must be seen that the auxiliary suffixes in Turkish follow the vowel harmony rule, meaning that a word usually has all vowels of a single class as stated above.

V. Contrastive Analysis of Turkish and English Plural Morphemes

Some errors in English made by the Turkish learner of English are due to the differences between Turkish and English in terms of singularity and plurality.

a)   *Plural morpheme (- LER) in Turkish Form:*

This morpheme (- LER) has two allomorphs (-ler), (- lar) .They are based on the vowel harmony rule stated above. The suffix vowel and the stem vowel have to share the same specification for both backness and rounding. Accordingly,(- ler) is used after the nouns having front vowels in their last syllables (e, i, ö, ü) but (-lar) is used after the nouns having back vowels in their last syllables (a, ı, o, u). The allomorphs (-lar,-ler) are

semantically similar and which are in complementary distribution belong to the same morpheme (-LER) as the following examples:

Ev /ev/ (house) ev<u>ler</u> /evler/ (houses)

Silgi /sɪlgɪ/ (eraser) silgi<u>ler</u>/sɪlgɪler/ (erasers)

Köy /kəʊj/ (village) köy<u>ler</u> /kəʊjler /(villages)

Top /tɔ:p/(ball) top<u>lar</u> /tɔ:plær/ (balls)

Oda / ɔ:dæ/ (room) oda<u>lar</u> / ɔ:dæl/ær/ (rooms)

Kapı /kæpə/ (door) kapı<u>lar</u>/ kæpəlær/ (doors)

b) Plural morpheme (- z) in English:

This morpheme (- z) has three allomorphs (- s,-z, - iz) according to the sound preceded as follows:

/. s/ after countable nouns ending in voiceless consonants other than sibilant and affricates.

/. z/ after countable nouns ending in vowels and voiced consonants other than sibilant and affricates.

/. iz/ after countable nouns ending in sibilants and affricates.

Examples:

map	maps	/. s/
cat	cats	/. s/
hero	heroes	/. z/
eraser	erasers	/. z/
bridge	bridges	/. iz/
church	churches	/. iz/

Plural morpheme in Turkish is /. ler/ which has two allomorphs /. ler/ and /. lar/. And the plural morpheme in English is /. z/ which has three allomorphs /. s/, /. z/, /. iz/, so English and Turkish are alike in terms of morphemes and allomorphs; however, they are different in the following areas: All the nouns in Turkish are pluralized by means of the morpheme /. ler/ but only the countable nouns in English are pluralized by means of the morpheme /. z/.

Examples:

a. sular kirlidir /sʊlær kɪrlɪdɪr/

water+plural suffix (-lar)+dirty+Be suffix -dir (present)

It means wrongly in English (waters are dirty) but the correct structure in English is (water is dirty).

b. Kar<u>lar</u> erriyor /kærlær erɪjɔ:r/ (snows are melting)

snow +plural suffix(-lar) +melt +-ing suffix (-iyor)

but the correct structure in English is (snow is melting).

In Turkish, numerals are normally followed by nominal in singular although there are certain compounds with the pattern "numeral + nominal + plural suffix /- ler/".

Example:

iki kalem /ıkı kælem/ (two pencil) not iki kalem<u>ler</u> /ıkı kælemler/ (two pencils) .Proper nouns and book

titles are pluralized after numerals e.g. kirk harami<u>ler</u> /kırk hæræmıler/ (forty thieves); however, in English, numerals are followed by nominal in plural. e.g. 'two books'.

Normally, there are not irregular nouns in Turkish in terms of plurality, but regular and irregular plural formation take place in English e.g. book vs books; child vs children, but not childs.

The demonstrative adjectives preceding plural noun in English are plural, e.g. these pencils; however, in Turkish plural nouns are preceded by singular demonstrative adjectives, e.g. bu kalem<u>ler</u> /bʊ kælemler/ (this books), in place of (these books) in English.

VI. Lexical Contrastive Analysis

Words are essential for communication. Learners of English ought to manipulate correct and appropriate words in their production for communication. To show how to eliminate the difficulties they face in this process, contrastive analysis at word level will be dealt.

Form:

The form of words consists of sound segment and stress.

Examples:

Telephone (v.)/ t, e, L, e, f, o, n/: seven sound segment (English).

Telefon et (v.) /t, e, l, e, f, o, n, e, t/: nine sound segment (Turkish).

Meaning:

We can say meanings are the same in all languages; that languages differ only in the form used for the meanings. Lyons (1968: 433) states that the language of a particular society is an integral part of its culture; the lexical distinction drawn by each language will tend to reflect the culturally important features of objects, intuitions, and activities in the society in which the language operates. It can easily be said that some meanings found in one culture may not exist in another as "baklava" /bæklævæ/ in Turkish which means sweet pastry generally cut into diamond shaped pieces and various meanings of a word in English can appear according to the context; e.g. 26 meanings of the word "get" has been listed in the Longman Dictionary of contemporary English. And thus, the difficulty coming from the differences between L1 and L2 may cause learning problems.

Distribution is defined as one word in a language which may belong to more than one word class e.g. the word "water" in English can be used as (a) a verb as in "to water the garden" (b) a noun as in "a glass of water" and (c) an adjective as in a "water meter." Words may be restricted geographically and socially. Lado (1957: 82) "assures that similarities and differences from the native language in form, meaning and

distribution will result in ease or difficult in acquiring the vocabulary of a foreign language." If we want to compare the foreign language vocabulary with that of the native language effectively, we will take into consideration words which are:

1. Similar in form and meaning (true cognates): The cognates are words which are similar in form, meaning and distribution in both English and Turkish such as <u>civil</u> in English and <u>sivil</u> /sɪvɪl/ in Turkish. In the case of true cognates, the meaning of the English word is the same as the Turkish word. Meaning is no problem but pronunciation is a problem and practice on pronunciation will be necessary.

2. Similar in form but different in meanings in English and Turkish (false cognates) <u>Boy</u> in English and Turkish has different meanings, but same form. <u>Boy</u> in English has the meaning of <u>male child</u>, but in Turkish it has the meaning of <u>size</u>. These cognates are especially difficult to teach because the student must avoid the meaning in Turkish and learn a new one in English. Such words must be practiced with the new meaning.

3. Different in form representing meanings which are strange to Turkish learners (strange meanings). "First floor" in English is literally translated 'birinci döşeme"/bɪrɪndʒɪ dəʊʃeme/ which is meaningless because "döşeme" means floor (the part of a room on which one stands) in Turkish, but the correct equivalent meaning in Turkish is 'birinci kat' /bɪrɪndʒɪ kæt/ which means "the first storey". Another example is 'catch a cold" which is active in form but the

equivalent meaning in Turkish is"soğuğa yakalanmak"/sɔ:ɣʊɣæ yækælænmæk/ which is passive (. al passive suffix) in form. Such words are strange to the Turkish students who need ample practice from the beginning.

4. Similar in primary meaning, but different in connotation (different connotation) so the difficulty appears. In "Thank you love" in English and "Teşekkür ederim canIm"/teʃekyr ederɪm dʒænəm/ in Turkish, <u>love</u> and <u>canIm</u> are different in connotation. <u>Love</u> implies the assurance of love but <u>canIm</u> implies respect (my dear).

5. Similar in meaning but with restrictions in geographical distribution. They may cause difficulty as follows:

American English	British English
Fall	Autumn
Gas, gasoline	Petrol
Railroad	Railway

<u>Railroad</u> and <u>railway</u> are two English words which are equivalent to one Turkish word "Demiryolu"/demɪrjɔ:lʊ/so the Turkish learners will face problems in learning such English words.

With the above classification of problem concerning words, a sample contrastive analysis of the vocabulary (Lexical contrastive analysis) of English and Turkish in terms of "form" and "meaning" will be stated as follows:

Form :

a. The words that are different in form

<u>English</u>	<u>Turkish</u>
– <u>First floor</u> literally translated (birinci döşeme) "/bɪrɪndʒɪ dəʊʃeme/	<u>Birinci Kat</u> /bɪrɪndʒɪ kæt/
– To telephone (simple verb)	Telefon etmek (compound verb)

b. The words that are similar in form

<u>English</u>	<u>Turkish</u>
– Sympathy (n.) (seven phonemes)	Sempati (n.) /sempætɪ /(seven phonemes)
– Telephone (n.) seven phonemes	Telefon (n.) /telefɔ:n / (seven phonemes)

Meaning:

a. Those that are similar in meaning:

<u>English</u>	<u>Turkish</u>
– Telephone (n.)	Telefon (n.)/telefɔ:n /
– First floor (n.)	Birinci kat (n.) /bɪrɪndʒɪ kæt/

30

b. Those that are different in meaning

English	Turkish
– Sympathy (n.) (feeling pity, favor or support).	Sempati (n.) /sempæti /(liking, or giving affection).

Although they have the same form, they differ in meaning, so this is a difficult area for Turkish learners.

VII. General Pedagogical Implications

Contrastive Analysis was the result of the need to teach a L2 in the most efficient way. As Lado makes clear in Ellis(1985:23)"the teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real problems are and can provide for teaching them. The origins of Contrastive Analysis, therefore, were pedagogic." The underlying assumption of CA is that second Language learners tend to transfer their native language to the target language. In the light of this assumption, linguists started identifying the areas of difficulties to second language learners. This was carried out by comparing and contrasting the structure of the learner's native language with the target language. Accordingly, instructional materials and methods of teaching were prepared by taking CA into consideration to prevent learners from committing errors as much as possible.

Contrastive Analysis was developed and practiced in the 1950s and 1960s and it is based on the following assumptions:

a. The main difficulties in learning a foreign language are due to interference from the first language.
b. Such difficulties coming from interference can be predicted by contrastive analysis.
c. Teaching materials can make use of CA to reduce the effects of interference (Richard, et, al, 1992).

Consequently, CA is inevitable parts of language learning and teaching. Teachers should regard them as signals of progress and diagnosis of problems when they get the areas of similarities and differences between two languages or more. In this respect, teachers, syllabus designers and test developers should make use of CA studies to acquire new insights.

Turkish is an inflectionally rich language in which the past tense and plural morphology is totally rule-governed. In English, there are many examples of irregular inflection such as past form of verbs and plural forms of nouns. The majority of English verbs have a simple past tense form that can be described as the addition of one of three allomorphs of the "–ed" (–d, –t, –ed) suffix to a base stem. A significant minority take a so-called "irregular" form which may or may not be systematically related to the stem form or to the forms of other words. This distinction is helpful for teaching English for Turkish learners because irregular inflection is closed and unpredictable.

The other feature of inflectional morphology which needs to be looked more closely while teaching English for Turkish learners is the usage of copula Be and auxiliary Be. Brown states that "I separated out the several allomorphs and distinguished copulas from auxiliaries. It was clear fairly that the copula-auxiliary distinction was a functional one and that auxiliary use in obligatory contexts developed more slowly than copula use." (1973: 306). Teachers of English for Turkish learners will focus on the distinction between the use of copula Be and auxiliary form. "children acquire Be as a main verb before they acquire Be as an auxiliary verb. So, children produce sentences that have a copula verb (e.g. He is hungry) before they produce sentences that include an auxiliary plus a main verb (e.g. He was working)" (O'Grady et al, 1997, 493).

Lexical contrastive analysis previously stated show that the difficulty may result from the differences between Turkish and English as follows:

1. "Floor" is translated literally in Turkish as "döşeme" /dəʊʃeme/, (the part of a room on which one stands)but the compound word "first floor" stands for "birinci kat"/bırındʒı kæt/ (first storey) not "birinci döşeme""/bırındʒı dəʊʃeme/.

2. Telephone as a verb is simple word in English whereas the equivalent verb in Turkish is "telefon etmek" /telefɔ:n etmek/ which is a compound verb. The Turkish learners may produce wrongly such verbs "to make a telephone" instead of "to telephone".

3. "Boy" in English has the meaning of "male child". In contrast the same word "Boy" /bɔ:j/ in Turkish gives the meaning of "size", so the Turkish learners may use "boy" in the meaning of size not male child. Therefore, a learning problem appears.

Teachers of English who teach Turkish learners should place greater emphasis on the differences indicated above in order to eradicate the problems which may appear in learning the English plurality. According to the differences given above, since the learner tends to transfer his Turkish pattern to the English, the problems occur as follows:

1. Turkish learners may use <u>childs</u> instead of <u>children</u> since all the nouns in Turkish are pluralized by the means of the morpheme /- ler/ and its two allomorphs /-ler/ and /-lar/.

2. Turkish learners may use <u>waters</u> in place of <u>water</u> because the uncountable nouns can be pluralized in Turkish e.g. kar<u>lar</u> /kærlær/ (snows).-lar stands for plural suffix.
3. They may use "two book" instead of "two books" because Turkish employs singular nouns after numerals e.g. iki kalem /ɪkɪ kælem/ (two pencil) which is used wrongly in English.

We can say contrastive analysis helps in discovering the problems and difficulties which will occur during learning L2

VIII.   CONCLUSION

The paper attempts to compare Turkish and English in terms of describing the similarities and differences between them in terms of lexical meaning and morphology. The paper finds the following conclusions:

1. The personal possessive endings in Turkish are used as follows;-(ı)m(my) kitab<u>ım</u> /kıtæbəm/ (my book), -(ı)n (your) kitab<u>ın</u> /kıtæbən/ (your book), (s)ı (her/his/its) kitab<u>ı</u> /kıtæbə/ (his/ her book), -(ı)m<u>ız</u> (our) kitab<u>ımız</u> /kıtæbəməz/ (our books), -(i)n<u>ız</u> (your) kitab<u>ınız</u> /kıtæbənəz/ (your books), Ler<u>ı</u> (their) kitablar<u>ı</u> /kıtæblærə/ (their books).
2. The personal endings for the present tense of <u>Be</u> (-im,-sin,-dir,-iz,-siniz .-ler)are attached to noun as the following example:

(y) im (I am) (Ben) öğretmen<u>im</u> / ben əʊretmenım/ (personal suffix (-im) stands for Be). (I am a teacher)
3. The personal endings (Be) are also attached to adjectives in Turkish as the following example:

(Ben) hastay<u>ım</u> /ben hæstæjəm/ (I am sick).
4. The personal endings are attached to the word "değil" /deɣıl/ to make the present tense of "Be" negative as the following example:

Ben hasta değil<u>im</u> /ben hæstæ deɣılım / (I am not sick).

I +sick +negative morpheme (değil)+pronoun suffix stands for Be(-im)
5. Turkish plural morpheme (- LER) has two allomorphs (–ler) and (–lar) used according to the vowel harmony rule.
Examples:

Ev /ev/ (house) evl<u>er</u> /evler/ (houses).
Top/tɔ:p/ (ball) topl<u>ar</u> /tɔ:plær/ (balls).
6. Unlike English, uncountable nouns can be pluralized in Turkish as the following example:

Su /sʊ/ (water) su<u>lar</u> /sʊlær/ (waters)
7. In Turkish, numerals are normally followed by nominal in singular.
Example:

iki kalem / ɪkɪ kælem/"two pencil" in place of "two pencils" in English.

8. Unlike English, Turkish plural nouns are preceded by singular demonstrative adjectives as the following example:

bu kalemler /bʊ kælemler/ "this books" in place of "these books".

REFERENCES REFERENCES REFERENCIAS

1. Brown, R.: *A First Language*, Penguin Books, U.S.A, 1973.
2. Brown,H. Douglas: *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*, San Francisco State Univesity,Pearson Longman,2000.
3. Demircan, O.: *Türçke'nin Sesdizimi, Der Yayinlari*, Istanbul, 1996.
4. Dressler ,W.,U.:Morphological Typology and First Language Acquisition: Some Mutual Challenges. In G.Booij,E. Guevara. A. Ralli,S.Sgroi and S. Scalise(eds) , *Morphology and Linguistic Typology, On-Line Proceeding of the Fourth Mediterranean Morphology Meeting(MMM4)*,Catania 21-23 September,2003.
5. Ellis, R.: *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*, Oxford University Press, Oxford 1985.
6. Fries, C. C.: *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*, University of Michigan, Michigan, 1945.
7. Göksel,Aslı and Celia Kerslake :*Turkish:A Comprehensive Grammar,* Routledge,London,2006
8. Haznedar,B. :Missing Surface Inflection in Adult and Child L2 Acquisition. In *proceeding of the 6ᵗʰ Generative Approaches to Second Language Acquisition Conference* (GASLA, 2002, ed. Juana M. Liceras et al, 140-149. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Proceeding Project, 2003.
9. James, C.: *Contrastive Analysis*, Longman Group Ltd,. 1980.
10. Lado, R: *Linguistics Across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers*, University of Michigan, Michigan, 1957.
11. Larsen–Freeman, D and Long, M. H.: *An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition*, Longman, New York, 1991.
12. Lyons, J.: *Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics*, CUP, Cambridge, 1968.
13. O'Grady, W. et al: *Contemporary Linguistics*, St. Martin's Press, New York, *1997.*
14. Richards, J. et al, *Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*, Longman group, UK, 1992.
15. Roach, Peter: *English Phonetics and Phonology*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2000.
16. Stockwell, Robert, J. Bowen and J. Martin: *The Grammatical Structure of English and Spanish*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1965.
17. Wardhaugh, R.: The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, TESOL *Quarterly* 4:123-130, 1970.
Ü.,D.:

18. Yavuz.H.,Balcı and Turan   Turkish Phonology ,Morphology and Syntax, Anadolu University ,Eskişeher,2000.
19. Yule, George: *The Study of Language*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2001.

Appendix 1

The symbols of English consonants from the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA,1992)

IPA	examples
b	bad, lab
d	did, lady
f	find, if
g	give, flag
h	how, hello
j	yes, yellow
k	cat, back
l	leg, little
m	man, lemon
n	no, ten
ŋ	sing, finger
p	pet, map
r	red, try
s	sun, miss
ʃ	she, crash
t	tea, getting
tʃ	check, church
θ	think, both
ð	this, mother
v	voice, five
w	wet, window
z	zoo, lazy
ʒ	pleasure, vision
dʒ	just, large

Appendix 2

The symbols of English vowels from the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA,1992)

IPA	examples
ʌ	cup, luck
ɑ:	arm, father
æ	cat, black
e	met, bed
ə	away, cinema
ɜ:ʳ	turn, learn
ɪ	hit, sitting
i:	see, heat
ɒ	hot, rock
ɔ:	call, four
ʊ	put, could
u:	blue, food
aɪ	five, eye
aʊ	now, out
eɪ	say, eight
oʊ	go, home
ɔɪ	boy, join
eəʳ	where, air
ɪəʳ	near, here
ʊəʳ	pure, tourist

Appendix 3
THE TURKISH ALPHABET AND
WRITING CONVENTIONS
Adapted from Göksel and Kerslake (2006,p.xxii)

The list below provides a rough guide to the pronunciation of the 22 consonants and 8 vowels in Turkish.

34

Letter	Pronunciation
A, a	pronounced as *u* in 'c*u*p'
B, b	*b* as in '*b*it
C, c	*j* as in '*j*am'
Ç, ç	*ch* as in '*ch*ip'
D, d	*d* as in '*d*eep'
E, e	*e* as in 't*e*n'
F, f	*f* as in '*f*it' or 'full'
G, g	g as in '*g*et' or 'gull'
ğ	either lengthens the sound of the vowel preceding it or is silent between two vowels
H, h	*h* as in '*h*ope'; pronounced also in word medial and final positions and sometimes silent between two vowels
I, ı	pronounced as *a* in '*a*mong', '*a*lone'
İ, i	a shorter form of *ee* as in 'b*ee*t' or *i* as in 'b*i*t'
J, j	*s* as in 'lei*s*ure'
K, k	*k* as in '*k*ept', '*c*ure' and '*c*alf'
L, l	*l* as in '*l*amp', 'bu*ll* or '*l*urid'
M, m	*m* as in '*m*ilk'
N, n	*n* as in '*n*o'
O, o	*o* as in 'off'
Ö, ö	resembles the sound which is produced when *e* as in 'b*e*t' is pronounced with the lips rounded, as in the German sound 'ö'
P, p	*p* as in '*p*in'
R, r	produced with the tip of the tongue touching the alveolar
S, s	*s* as in 'hi*ss*'
Ş, ş	*sh* as in '*sh*eep'
T, t	*t* as in '*t*ime'
U, u	*u* as in 'c*u*te' or p*u*t'
Ü, ü	resembles the sound which is produced when *i* as in 'b*i*t' is pronounced with the lips rounded, as in the German sound 'ü
V, v	*v* as in '*v*ery'
Y, y	*y* as in '*y*ou'
Z, z	*z* as in '*z*ig*z*a