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## Foreword

Welcome to the new issue of *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, Volume 9 – Issue 2, October 2013*.

As the editorial team, we once again would like to extend our personal gratitude to those without whose valuable help and support, it would become impossible to complete this issue. Each day our team is making tremendous effort to reach the perfect in our services for our authors and readers.

In this new issue we have included eight research papers, each of which is considered highly prestigious study. Arslan, in his article entitled “An integrated approach to enhancing prospective English language teachers’ writing skills,” investigates to what extent the writing course contributes to the acquisition of basic conventions of written discourse in English when prospective teachers of English are involved in an extensive writing practice. In doing so, he uses an analytic assessment rubric to evaluate participants’ pre-study and post-study essays and a pre-study and a post-study self-perception questionnaire. The results of his study reveal that exposing pre-service teachers of English to various genres by means of an extensive writing practice contributes to their writing competency.

In her article “L2 motivation in foreign language learning,” Sung tests Dörnyei’s L2 Motivation Self System and the seven motivational constructs in Chinese as a foreign language classrooms by investigating whether the constructs found in this study differ based on the following differences: (a) gender, (b) grade level, and (c) starting age of learning a foreign language. As a result, she found four motivational constructs: instrumentality-dominant, attitudes toward the L2 speaker/community-dominant, learners’ perception of their parents’ proficiency in Chinese, and milieu.

Acknowledging that the use of literary texts in language classes does not find enough space in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) settings, Kumral has conducted a study on “Semiotic analysis of textual communication in *Snow* by Julia Alvarez” in which he discusses the effectiveness of using semiotic analysis in exposing learners to literary texts and hence, in improving language teaching programs. He argues that the reader not only develops the interpretative skills by acquiring the accepted strategies of semiotic analysis, but also enhances awareness of life, for literary studies help develop a thorough perception of life.

Another interesting article by Osam, Marfo and Agyekum is on “The morphophonology of the Akan reduplicated verb-form” in which they discuss the interaction between constituent formation and alteration of sounds (i.e., morphophonology) in Akan reduplicated verb-forms.

In the article “The effect of dialog journal writing on EFL learners’ grammar knowledge” Rokni and Seifi investigate the impact of dialog journal writing on learners’ grammar development and their confidence and the results of their study reveal that journal writing has a significant positive effect on students’ grammar knowledge and enhance their confidence in writing.

In another article titled “The status of /r/ in the pronunciation of Turkish PhD candidates and its rehabilitation by computer and audacity programs”, Demirezen explores the general situation of /r/ phoneme and special existence of retroflex-r of North American English in the pronunciation of PhD candidates, who took an oral exam. In this research, he investigates the existence of /r/ phoneme by using the Error Hunt Approach and a diagnostic test in listening comprehension, and presents a 50-minute lesson plan as a remedial rehabilitation refinement by Audio-articulation Model by computer and audacity program.

In their research on language assessment, Akpınar and Cakildere conducted a study on “Washback effects of high-stakes language tests of Turkey (KPDS and ÜDS) on productive and receptive skills of academic personnel”. Using a self-report questionnaire for data collection and conducting required statistical analyses, they found that there are significant differences between reading and writing; reading and listening, but reading and speaking provided insignificant results.

Lastly, Bayraktar explores linguistic potential of Turkish colour terms in onomastique and their function in giving proper names in Turkish. She documents 17 different colour terms with varying frequency, and semantic and conceptual fields. Bayraktar’s study shows how functional colour terms are in coining new words Turkish.

Last but not least we are happy to work with those who would like to publish their papers in our journal. Therefore, I am pleased to announce a “call for papers” for our future issues.

On behalf of the editorial board,

Best regards,

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Arif SARIÇOBAN

Editor-in-Chief



## An integrated approach to enhancing prospective English language teachers' writing skills

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### Abstract

This study reports on the experience of a group of pre-service teachers of English in a compulsory writing course in the preparatory program of an English language teaching department in the Turkish context. This study specifically attempts to investigate to what extent the writing course contributes to the acquisition of basic conventions of written discourse in English when prospective teachers of English are involved in an extensive writing practice which is based upon integration of product, process and genre based approaches to writing. The study lasted for a period of 28 weeks with fifty-nine pre-service teachers of English who participated in the study. The participants studied the basic genre types which included expository writing such as classification, process, argumentation, opinion, cause and effect, compare and contrast, and narrative paragraphs and essays. The participants specifically received instruction as to the basic constituents of paragraph and essays writing; namely, organization, process, unity, coherence, word choice, language use, grammar, and mechanics which were further put into 49 observable competencies. Data were collected through an analytic assessment rubric applied to participants' pre-study and post-study essays. In addition, participants were distributed a pre-study and a post-study self-perception questionnaire in order to evaluate any possible improvements in their writing competence. The results of the study suggest that exposing pre-service teachers of English to various genres by involving them in an extensive writing practice adds to their writing competency positively in learning the process of writing practice, organizing the text, including relevant content in the text, using language appropriately, producing correct grammar, coming up with relevant vocabulary, and following correct mechanical conventions.

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*Keywords:* Writing skill; pre-service English teachers; English language teaching

## 1. Introduction

Producing an effective piece of written work in English may be relatively a weak language skill on the part of prospective teachers of English in Turkey when compared with the acquisition of grammar and vocabulary knowledge in English (Aydın & Başöz, 2010). One of the major reasons for failing to produce an effective piece of written work in English may be closely related to student teachers' background education. Since central foreign language university entrance exams in Turkey focus on testing grammar, vocabulary, translation and reading skill, especially writing skills may get ignored in English language teaching programs in state schools in Turkey as 'a backwash effect' of this exam (Hughes, 2003). Hence, high school graduates who are aiming at majoring in English at tertiary level ELT program are likely to commence English departments with major weaknesses in writing in English. However, competency in writing is a requirement for prospective language teachers for their academic and future professional lives as English language teachers and this particular study aims to

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investigate and also seek ways to improve prospective English language teachers' writing in English through an intensive writing program based on integration of product, process and genre approaches.

### *1.1. Literature review*

Basically three common views have shaped the nature of writing in English: writing which is viewed as product, as process or as genre or writing with “focus on form, focus on the writer, and focus on the reader” (Tribble, 1996, p. 5), respectively. Emergence of a new way of teaching writing does not necessarily mean ignorance or disappearance of the early ones (Kroll, 2001). In fact, writing simply defined as “clear, fluent, and effective communication of ideas” (Raimes, 1983, p. 6) or composing “a coherent, fluent, extended piece of writing” (Nunan, 1999, p. 271) requires “learning a new set of cognitive and social relations” and entails writers to consider such “questions of social role, power, and the appropriate use of language” (Tribble, 1996, pp. 12-14). Writing practices that merely focus on production of grammatically well-formed texts may not reflect the exact nature of writing as a communicative event. It has also to be kept in mind that producing an effective piece of writing takes time and goes through several stages. To this end all these varying views can be integrated in a writing course, complementing each other rather than replacing each one.

A closer look at the basic features which are contained in these varying views can illuminate how the nature of writing practice can change. In a product-based view of writing, due emphasis is given to correctness in the finished product and the main focus is on the end product with correct language and mechanics. Therefore writing practice with such a view will attempt to “instill notions of correctness and conformity” (Tribble, 1996, p. 37). In such an approach, writing skill requires knowledge of the target language structures or learner's grammatical knowledge and students also develop their writing through the study of texts offered by the writing teacher through controlled or guided writing activities and transfer these patterns to their written work (Hyland, 2003). Additionally, product-based approach puts special emphasis on the end product with special emphasis to correctness in writing; namely, using verbs, articles, prepositions, pronouns, tenses, simple and complex grammatical structures correctly, as well as using spelling, punctuation, and capitalization correctly (Tribble, 1996; Badger & White, 2000; Hyland, 2003). However, such a view ignores reader(s), the process of writing, coherent or relevant content in the text, and also writers' personal knowledge as well as text's social context (Badger & White, 2000), all of which receive due attention in a process view or a genre-based view.

A process approach to writing attempts to make up the limitations inherent in a product-based approach, focusing “on the writer as an independent producer of texts” and puts emphasis “on a cycle of writing activities which move learners from the generation of ideas and the collection of data to the publication of a finished text” (Tribble, 1996, p. 37; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Harmer, 2004). In a process approach emphasis is on the ‘process’ rather than the ‘product’ (Matsuda, 2003) and writing seen as process is not fixed to a limited time but takes time and involves brainstorming, getting ideas, getting started, narrowing a topic, making an outline/plan of writing drafts, receiving and giving feedback, revising, and editing until the text is complete or published (Tribble, 1996; Hyland, 2003; Harmer, 2004). There is also a need to focus on “the ways in which writers and texts need to interact with readers” (Tribble, 1996, p. 37) and the purpose and social context of writing need to be considered when writing (Badger & White, 2000), which a process approach to writing may ignore but a genre based view considers.

A genre based approach follows the conventions of genre as the writer produces the text for a specific reader(s) in order to achieve a purpose to communicate her message (Swales, 1990). In a

genre based writing, focus is on ‘discourse’ and ‘context’ of language in a text and writing is viewed “as an essentially social activity in which texts are written to do things, the assumption being that if the reader cannot recognize the purpose of a text, communication will not be successful” (Tribble, 1996, p. 37). Therefore, the focus in genre approaches to writing is on the ‘reader’. Tribble (1996, p. 46) argues that “... approaches which focus on the reader emphasize the constraints of form and content that have to be recognized when a writer attempts to match a text to a social purpose, and have come to be associated with the notion of genre.” According to Swales (1990, p. 58) “[a] genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes.” In genre approaches to writing students improve their writing skill through sample texts as they analyze common genre and then produce similar texts by following the conventions of specific text types (Hyland, 2003). Effective writing encompasses consideration of the purpose (the reason for writing) of writing and also the audience (the reader (s) for this piece of writing as genre-based writing requires student writers to ask questions as to why they are writing and also who will read their writing). Furthermore, effective writing entails effective organization of texts in line with a specific genre; namely, organization of paragraphs and essays with relevant topic and support and also with cohesion and coherence (Harmer, 2004). The organization of a written text is therefore related to “the layout, or physical organization on the page, of conventional texts ... the ways in which texts are organized as a result of the social functions they fulfill ... relationships between clauses and clause complexes within written texts, irrespective of the purpose for which they were written” (Tribble, 1996, p. 23). As these elements are closely linked to organization, having a clear purpose for writing, writing with an awareness of the reader, focusing on the main idea throughout writing, presenting new ideas that make up of content (relevance, clarity, originality, logic, etc.) are also of high importance. Word choice is also linked to relevant content and requires using appropriate word forms and making accurate and powerful word choice. In addition, student writers need to use language appropriately as well: they need to consider sentence structures, sentence boundaries, and stylistic choices by avoiding sentence fragments, comma splices and fused sentences, but using subordination, sentence variety, parallelism, misused modifiers, dangling modifiers, subject-verb agreement, etc. correctly. Student writers also need to use relevant language style (e.g. formal, informal) and a variety of sentence types. A writing practice in a non-native setting can incorporate the basic elements contained in all these varying views so that student writers involved in such a practice learn to produce effective written texts.

Production of an effective piece of writing depends upon careful consideration of a number of basic constituents of writing; namely, content, organization, language use, vocabulary, grammar and mechanics which need to be integrated into writing basic paragraph and essay types (Harmer, 2004; Raimes, 1983). When student teachers are offered practice opportunities to write by considering such basic elements in their writing, they will not be able to produce only grammatically well-formed texts but they will also compose coherent written texts in line with social conventions. A pre-service English teacher is to develop skills in transferring these basic constituents into their writing since any one component that is missing in the text affects the total quality of writing. Student writers, therefore, need mastery in basic rhetoric; namely, such types of paragraphs and essays as exposition, examples, contrast, narration, description, process, cause and effect, comparison and contrast, argumentation, persuasion, classification, definition, etc. (Smalley, Ruetten & Kozyrev, 2001). Each type has its own genre which student writers need to be conversant with. Martin (1989) cited in Tribble (1996, p.48) uses the term “communicative purpose” and gives “REPORT (impersonal account of facts), DESCRIPTION (personal account of imagined or factual events and phenomena, which are largely unchallengeable), RECOUNT (stories about the writer’s own experiences), and PROCEDURE (objective accounts of processes taking place in the world around the writer which generalize

experience” (p. 48) as the core or factual genres (Hyland, 1996). Tribble (1996, p.85) also provides a list of rhetorical modes such as exposition, examples, process, cause and effect, comparison and contrast, definition, division and classification, description, narration, argumentation and persuasion student writers are expected to develop mastery in learning to relate “language system knowledge to context knowledge.” Assuming an ‘intellectual/rhetorical approach’, writing courses can be based upon imitation of basic conventions of specific texts (Tribble, 1996). However, Tribble (1996, p.85) points out that according to “the social/genre approach” students can be encouraged “to discover how their own specific discourse communities function and how this affects the way in which members of that community write” through analysis of academic journals, textbooks and students’ examinations which can be “analysed, imitated, and, as the learner becomes more proficient, may well be challenged and transformed.” Similarly, Hyland (1996) stresses the importance of genre study as “it incorporates discourse and contextual aspects of language use that may be neglected when attending to structures, functions, or processes alone” (p. 18). Textbooks, journals, magazines and newspapers offer a large sample of paragraphs and essays written in line with certain genres which student writers can study in regard to style (organisation and typical structure), purpose (context), content included and language used in each text type as Swales (1990, p. 58) states “[i]n addition to purpose, exemplars of genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience.” Integrating the features of both ‘intellectual/rhetorical approach’ and ‘social/genre approach’ (Tribble, 1996, p.84) into process and product approaches, student writers can be encouraged to produce well-formed texts considering the features of a specific genre, which takes place along a process after having analyzed a specific genre.

As part of the process of writing, written work is likely to be more effective provided that it receives feedback and assessment. Holistic and analytic assessment techniques can be used to this end. While holistic assessment can offer writers general ideas about their writing performance under general categories, analytic assessment can offer deeper insights into specifics of the basic categories based upon “... separate qualitative judgments on a limited number of properties or *criteria* ... usually *preset*, that is, they are nominated in advance. Each criterion is used for appraising each student’s work” (Sadler, 2009, p. 1). Analytic assessment is common among writing specialists since Weigle (2002, p. 114) states that this form of assessment offers “more detailed information about a test taker’s performance in different aspects of writing”. Specialists like Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel, & Hughey (1981) and Tribble (1996), and also Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (2011) developed and used analytic assessment scales. Jacobs, et al. (1981, p. 30) came up with five aspects of writing in the field of L2 writing: (Content (13-30 points), organization (7-20 points), vocabulary (7-20 points), language use (5-25 points) and mechanics (2-5 points) in terms of such band scales as ‘very poor, fair to poor, good to average and excellent to very good’. Tribble (1996:130-1) offered five major categories for the evaluation of a piece of written work; namely, “Task Fulfillment/Content 0-20; Organization 0-20; Vocabulary 0-20; Language 0-30; and Mechanics 0-10.” In terms of such band scales as ‘inadequate, very poor, fair to poor, good to average and excellent to very good’. The Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (2011) 6+1 Traits of Analytic Writing Assessment Scoring Guide (Rubric) included ‘ideas/content; organization; voice; word choice; sentence fluency; conventions; and presentation’ in terms of band scales such as ‘wow (exceeds expectations); strong (shows control and skill in this trait; many strengths present); competent (on balance, the strengths outweigh the weaknesses; a small amount of revision is needed); developing (strengths and need for revision are about equal; about half-way home); emerging (need for revision outweighs strengths; isolated moments hint at what the writer has in mind); not yet (a bare beginning; writer not yet showing any control). Adopting and applying an analytical assessment rubric can teach prospective

teachers of English the basic conventions of writing which they can also transfer to their future professional lives.

### *1.2. Research questions*

With a major focus on the interaction between the reader and the text and also on the process of writing, integrating product, process and genre approaches can serve towards production of an effective piece of written text. Thus, the study seeks to answer two research questions: 1) What are the basic constituents of an integrated writing program in an ELT department and 2) To what extent can student teachers acquire the basic constituents of writing through an integrated writing program?

## **2. Method**

### *2.1. Research setting and participants*

The study setting is an English language preparatory program in an English Language Teaching Department in Turkey. A convenience sampling method was used to select the participants of the study since fifty-nine prospective teachers of English (41 females and 18 males) were enrolled in the course and all were selected for research purposes. The participants had similar characteristics: they had similar background in English as all came to the department through a central university entrance exam and also all failed in the English proficiency exam administered by the ELT department and they were to attend a compulsory English language program for a period of 28 weeks. The preparatory program focused on the development of four language skills such as reading, speaking, listening and writing as well as grammar and vocabulary. As part of the compulsory English program, the writing course had a four hour schedule each week. The course aimed at teaching expository writing with special focus on expository paragraph and essay types, mainly classification, process, argumentation, opinion, cause and effect, compare, contrast and narration as well as such basic constituents of writing skill as organization, process, unity, coherence, word choice, language use, grammar, and mechanics.

### *2.2. Instruments*

One-group pretest-posttest quasi-experimental research design was applied in the study in order to reveal whether the integrated product-process-genre based writing instruction contributed to the development of student teachers' writing skill. Data were collected through a self-assessment questionnaire and also through an analytical assessment rubric applied to participants' essays prior to and also after the program.

In the study two main data collection instruments were used: an analytic assessment scale which was applied to participants' pre-study and post-study essays and a questionnaire which was administered at the beginning and also at the end of the program. Both the pre-study and post-study questionnaires and analytic assessment of essays aimed to investigate the participants' development of writing skill in terms of the basic constituents of writing. The self-assessment questionnaire and the analytic assessment scale were based upon the specific constituents of writing developed from the studies of Tribble (1996), Jacobs, et al. (1981), and Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (2011).

The analytic assessment scale was adapted from the works of Tribble (1996), Jacobs, et al. (1981) and Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (2011) and included "Content/Ideas, Organization, Vocabulary/ Word Choice, Language Use, and Mechanics/Conventions" as general categories. Essays which were produced by the participants were assessed using an Analytic Assessment Scale for

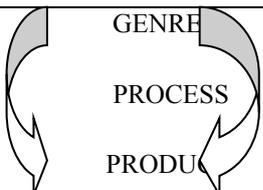
Written Work (see Appendix A) that displays all the basic constituents and the related scoring for each category.

As another data collection instrument, the questionnaire included 49 items of elements of writing under the basic constituents of writing such as ‘Organization, Content/Ideas, Vocabulary/Word choice, Language Use (Style-Syntax), Grammar, and Conventions (Mechanics) as can be seen in Appendix B. The questionnaire was piloted with a group of 19 freshman students who had passed the screening exam and were exempt from the compulsory preparatory program. The alpha co-efficiency of the pilot questionnaire was .968 (Number of Items 46). The number of items increased from 46 to 49 in the main study. The pre and post questionnaires were distributed to the same 59 students. Alpha reliability test showed that the questionnaire distributed as the pre and post study was highly reliable since the pre-questionnaire had Cronbach's Alpha value of .944 (Number of items: 49) and the post-questionnaire had Cronbach's Alpha co-efficiency of .946 (Number of items: 49). Items in questionnaire were developed in line with the related literature and were later checked by ELT writing specialists for validity purposes.

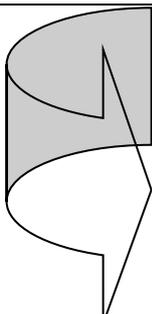
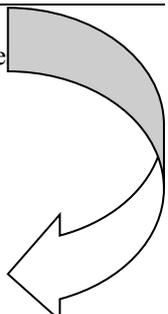
### *2.3. Procedure*

The study adopted a process approach to producing written texts, integrated with genre and product approaches. This study was also based upon integration of both ‘the intellectual/rhetorical approach’ and ‘the social/genre approach’ (Tribble, 1996) as the specific texts were not imitated only but analyzed in order to produce similar texts in line with social conventions. The participants first learned the basic constituents of paragraph writing for a period of 14 weeks (the fall term) and then the second term (spring term) courses focused on essay writing for another 14 weeks. The courses started with an analysis of authentic texts written in line with specific genres, followed by teaching the participants basic conventions of that piece of genre and then asking them to produce similar texts on their own. The first stage of the study included analysis of different paragraphs and essays such as giving instructions, description of operations or technical processes, narration of events, argumentative writing or opinion essays taken from textbooks, newspapers and magazines. First, the course instructor offered sample paragraphs and essays which were analyzed by the participants in the classroom. Further, the participants were encouraged to get and study similar paragraphs and essays on their own, some of which were presented by the participants in the classroom as well. Having learned the basic conventions of a specific type of paragraph or essay such as classification, process, argumentation, opinion, cause and effect, compare, contrast and narration as well as such basic constituents of writing skill as organization, process, unity, coherence, word choice, language use, grammar, and mechanics through classroom instruction and analysis of sample texts, the participants were asked to produce their own texts. Writing a text took place along a process as they had to write several drafts until the text was composed in line with the basic elements of writing. Each draft was reviewed by the course instructor and also by another peer. It was compulsory to pair up with another peer and each participant was to give and get feedback from each other. Peer feedback was based upon a rubric (see Appendix A) developed and used by the course instructor to evaluate student writers’ written text. The course instructor informed the participants of the basic conventions of genres and asked them to consider these while giving feedback. In some cases each text had to be written and revised several times based upon teacher and peer feedback. Table 1 shows the basic elements writing courses included in the study and Table 2 displays the basic stages the study was based upon.

**Table 1.** Basic constituents of an integrated approach to writing

	GENRE	↔	Purpose-Reader-Context-Discourse-Social Conventions-Style
	PROCESS	↔	Drafts-Feedback-Revision-Editing-Publishing
	PRODUCT	↔	Content-Organization-Language Use-Vocabulary-Grammar-Mechanics

**Table 2.** Basic stages of an integrated approach to writing

	<p>Stage 1-Pre-writing Stage: Modelling (GENRE STUDY) Analysis of sample genres collected from textbooks, newspapers and magazine</p>	
	<p>Stage 2-Writing Stage: (WRITING PROCESS) Writing drafts-teacher and peer feedback-revision-editing according to basic conventions of specific genres</p>	
	<p>Stage 3-Post-writing Stage (PRODUCT) Publishing texts according to basic conventions of genres</p>	

#### 2.4. Data analysis

All quantitative data obtained through an analytic assessment scale were compared and contrasted using statistical analyses. There was no normal distribution for any of the items ( $p < 0.05$ ) and data were analyzed using 2 independent Mann-Whitney-U test and also Wilcoxon sign test (two related samples) as non-parametric tests. On the other hand, questionnaire data were evaluated descriptively in order to see participants' views of the effect of writing practices.

### 3. Results and discussion

The participants of this particular study attended the writing courses without much prior skill in writing in English due to heavy emphasis of state level English courses on English grammar and vocabulary rather than on productive skills. However, producing an effective piece of written work in English was not far from reality. It took time and was realized along a process; however, all pre-service students were able to achieve a certain writing competency when they were offered chances to write in and outside the classroom. 59 participants who took part in the study compared their writing competency before and after the study and the majority reported poor writing competency before the study while they significantly improved their writing competency at the end of the study: only 10.2 % had reported “good” writing competence before the study but this increased to 61.0 % “good” and 10.2 % “very good” competence after the study while no participant reported ‘poor’ or ‘very poor’ writing skill at the end of the study (see Table 3).

**Table 3.** Self-evaluation of writing competency: pre-study and post-study

	F		%	
	Pre-study	Post-study	Pre-study	Post-study
Very Good	0	6	0	10.2
Good	6	36	10.2	61.0
Average	22	17	37.3	28.8
Weak	21	0	35.6	0
Very poor	10	0	16.9	0
Total	59	59	100.0	100.0

It is important to consider that the writing process may start with a broad topic and end up with publishing or sharing a written work based upon the agreed conventions of writing. The quality of a written work depends upon the time and effort writers put into their written work and also on the realization of the basic conventions of writing along the writing process. When the participants' pre-study and post-study essays were evaluated by writing specialists as to the general components of writing such as organization, content, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics, it was seen that the participants were able to improve their writing concerning all of these components as the results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test show in Table 4.

**Table 4.** Essay evaluation: pre-study and post-study- Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test

	Mean (x) value		Z Asymp.Sig. (2-tailed) (P)	
	Pre-study	Post-tudy		
Organisation	10.05	15.64	-5.485 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Content	14.27	21.44	-5.779 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Vocabulary	9.59	15.98	-6.504 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Grammar	8.74	15.16	-6.289 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Mechanics	5.01	8.33	-6.283 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Total	47.61	76.59	-6.620 <sup>a</sup>	.000

Further, the participants were asked to evaluate the basic constituents of each basic category. The participants reported significant changes as to the specific constituents related to the process of writing. As Table 5 displays the participants were significantly better in brainstorming, narrowing a topic, making an outline of writing, writing the first draft, getting feedback, revising, preparing the final draft, and editing as the basic stages of writing process.

**Table 5.** Constituents of process- Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test

	Z Asymp.Sig.	(2-tailed) (P)
Brainstorming	-6.749 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Narrowing a topic	-6.579 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Making an outline of writing	-5.800 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Writing the first draft	-6.078 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Getting feedback	-6.360 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Revising	-6.402 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Preparing the final draft	-6.408 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Editing	-6.123 <sup>a</sup>	.000

In terms of 'content' the participants also improved their writing. There was a significant change in having a clear purpose for writing, writing with an awareness of the reader, focusing on the main idea, and presenting ideas creatively as the specific constituents of 'content' of their writing (see Table 6).

**Table 6.** Constituents of content- Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test

	Z Asymp.Sig.	(2-tailed) (P)
Having a clear purpose for writing	-5.825 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Awareness of the reader	-5.651 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Focusing on the main idea	-5.718 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Presenting creatively ideas	-5.763 <sup>a</sup>	.000

As to ‘organization’ the participants were better at organizing their writing including all the related constituents as can be seen in Table 7. The participants all learned how to organize a text with effective titles, an introduction, support and conclusion for different paragraph and essay types. They were also able to produce coherent texts by presenting unified ideas, connecting ideas logically, providing support with relevant details, and using reminders effectively.

**Table 7.** Constituents of organisation- Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test

	Z Asymp.Sig.	(2-tailed) (P)
Organizing writing	-6.576 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Effective titles	-3.765 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Paragraph topic sentence	-6.415 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Paragraph support sentences	-6.494 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Paragraph conclusion	-6.412 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Thesis statement for an essay	-6.581 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Introduction for an essay	-6.691 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Essay conclusion	-6.747 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Presenting unified ideas	-6.367 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Presenting ideas logically connected	-5.653 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Supporting with relevant details	-6.260 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Presenting ideas coherently	-6.412 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Using transitions effectively	-5.212 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Using reminders effectively	-5.650 <sup>a</sup>	.000

The participants also reported significant improvement in their use of correct, accurate and powerful vocabulary as is seen in Table 8.

**Table 8.** Constituents of vocabulary- Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test

	Z Asymp.Sig.	(2-tailed) (P)
Using correct word form	-4.825 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Making accurate word choice	-5.025 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Making powerful word choice	-4.467 <sup>a</sup>	.000

In terms of language use the participants also improved their writing skills significantly. As can be seen in Table 9, the participants reported that by the end of the study they were able to use relevant language style and produce sentences of various types by writing complex and compound sentences as well as simple sentences. Concerning language use the participants also learnt how to use parallel structures and avoid sentence fragments, run-on sentences and dangling expressions.

**Table 9.** Constituents of language use- Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

	Z Asymp.Sig.	(2-tailed) (P)
Using relevant language style	-5.322 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Using a variety of sentence types	-5.706 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Writing simple sentences	-4.863 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Using parallel structures	-5.580 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Avoiding sentence fragments	-5.851 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Avoiding run-on sentences	-5.523 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Avoiding dangling expressions	-5.607 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Writing compound sentences	-3.961 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Writing complex sentences	-4.228 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Avoiding comma splices	-4.517 <sup>a</sup>	.000

The study results also show a significant difference between the pre-study and post-study results of the participants in terms of specific constituents of ‘grammar’ such as using verbs, articles, prepositions, pronouns, tenses and simple and complex structures, as is displayed in Table 10.

**Table 10.** Constituents of grammar- Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test

	Z Asymp.Sig	(2-tailed) (P)
Using verbs	-2.933 <sup>a</sup>	.003
Using articles	-3.117 <sup>a</sup>	.002
Using prepositions	-3.610 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Using pronouns	-4.213 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Using tenses	-3.144 <sup>a</sup>	.002
Using simple structures	-4.222 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Using complex structures	-4.094 <sup>a</sup>	.000

Concerning ‘mechanics’ the participants reported significant changes in correct punctuation, spelling and use of correct punctuation as well (see Table 11).

**Table 11.** Constituents of mechanics- Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test

	Z Asymp.Sig.	(2-tailed) (P)
Correct Punctuation	-4.841 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Correct Spelling	-3.899 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Correct Capitalization	-3.145 <sup>a</sup>	.002

The study findings may indicate that pre-service teachers of English in non-native teaching settings of English needed support in learning how to teach writing before they commenced their professional lives (Nguyen & Hudson, 2010). This study may also show that non-native student teachers of English can learn how to write in English through an integrated approach to writing. To this end, all the varying views needed to be included in this particular writing course. It should be borne in mind that product-based approaches may contribute to student writers in producing correct grammatical sentences and mechanics of writing by analyzing and imitating sample texts; however, they need to keep in mind that “the examples they read are examples rather than models to be slavishly followed” (Harmer, 2004, p. 29). Harmer (2007) therefore pinpoints that student writers need “knowledge of the

topic, the conventions and style of the genre, and the context in which their writing will be read, as well as by whom” (p. 327). The genre approach included in this particular study had such a purpose and proved to be strong in introducing writers to different discourses through authentic texts. The genre approach may sound strong in considering the social contexts in which different discourses occur; whereas, it may fail to reflect the true nature of writing as writing is a process. With a purpose to alleviate such a possible limitation of genre-based writing, a process approach was also incorporated in the study by engaging the learners actively in the writing process from the beginning to the end similar to Matsuda’s study (2003) with an emphasis on “teaching writing not as product but as process; helping students discover their own voice; allowing students to choose their own topic; providing teacher and peer feedback; encouraging revision and using student writing as the primary text of the course” (p. 67). Our study showed very positive results as the participants were able to improve their writing competency significantly, which was largely due to the process-based view integrated in the study. Several other studies have also shown the positive contribution of a process-based writing. Atay & Kurt (2006, p. 112) advocate a process-based view of writing and defend that students should be given chances “to express their ideas and knowledge in writing from the early stages of education on” to build up their self-confidence. In another process-based study conducted by Akyel and Kamişlı (1997) in Turkey students were able to increase their composition grades significantly by devoting time to pre-writing, planning, pausing and reorganization as a result of a 1.5 semester process-oriented instruction. Archibald’s (2001) study also showed that students improved in discourse organization and argument as a result of an eight week writing program. A process-based writing program can produce more fruitful results if integrated with a genre view of writing. In addition to a process-based orientation this particular study also adopted a genre-based view of writing, since student writers needed to learn basic genre types in order to write better paragraphs and essay. Cumming (2001, p. 8) proposes that writing instruction “should include not only modeling of text forms but also modeling of composing processes and of the socio-cultural purposes and functions that writing in the second language serves.” Flowerdew (2000, p. 375) highlighted the importance of genre study as part of a process of writing since “knowledge of a genre is not an end in itself, but should be regarded as the starting point for helping students to acquire competence in a particular genre.” Similarly, study of basic genres formed the basis of our study along the process of writing, helping the participants to analyze and understand how specific texts are organized, how relevant content is included in the text and also what specific language is used. In a study similar to this study, Weber (2001, p. 20) concluded that genre work can be helpful for student writers “to explore at least some structural characteristics of academic essays and their possible lexical correlates.” All in all, all these varying views seem to contribute to student writers’ competency to a large extent, complementing each other instead of being alternatives as Badger & White (2000, pp. 157-8) defend:

writing involves knowledge about language (as in product and genre approaches), knowledge of the context in which writing happens and especially the purpose for the writing (as in genre approaches), and skills in using language (as in process approaches),  
writing development happens by drawing out the learners’ potential (as in process approaches) and by providing input to which the learners respond (as in product and genre approaches).

This particular study attempted to highlight and utilize all the benefits of these approaches to the teaching of writing. The courses started with analysis of authentic texts written in line with a specific genre, followed by teaching the participants basic conventions in producing a certain piece of text and then asking them to produce similar texts on their own, which required several drafts, revision, and editing in and outside the classroom. Such an integrated approach was effective in introducing the participants to the basic conventions of writing, in involving them actively in the writing process, and

also in helping them to produce well-organized texts with relevant content, language use, and powerful vocabulary in line with specific genres.

#### 4. Conclusions

Learning to compose an effective piece of writing can be rather difficult unless students are given instruction as to what effective writing involves and also offered practice chances to apply the basic conventions of writing. Any writing program which is merely based upon a certain view may not reflect the true nature of writing. Hence, a writing program that views writing as a production of a piece of text that is realized along a process and that reflects the social conventions expected from a specific genre is likely to secure better success. In this particular study student writers, prospective teachers of English, showed major improvements in all the basic components of writing, producing similar texts on their own as a result of the study of a variety of genres along a process. A major focus on specific genre types may therefore teach student writers how to write in line with the basic conventions of writing. In fact, a prospective teacher of English as well as any student writer can compose socially recognized, coherent and well organized texts through an intensive writing program that attempts to integrate product, process and genre approaches. After graduation these prospective teachers are likely to transfer such competency to their academic and professional lives ready to produce written texts in academic courses and also ready to teach their possible students how to write effective texts as well. In addition, all teachers of English, teacher trainers and materials writers can also consider the basic elements of integrated approach to writing in the language classroom, in teaching how to teach writing, and also in producing writing materials, respectively.

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**Appendix A. Analytic assessment scale for written work: Adapted from Tribble (1996), Jacobs, et al. (1981), Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (2011)**

Area	Criteria	Score
Content/ Ideas	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: Excellent to very good treatment of the subject or topic; topic narrow enough; considerable variety of ideas; independent and thorough interpretation of the topic; content relevant to the topic; accurate details; original ideas; clear purpose for writing.	30 -24
	GOOD TO AVERAGE: Adequate treatment of topic; some variety of ideas or argument; some independence of interpretation of the topic; most content relevant to the topic; reasonably accurate detail.	23 -18
	FAIR TO POOR: Treatment of the topic is hardly adequate; little variety of ideas; some irrelevant content; lacking detail.	17 -10
	VERY POOR: Inadequate treatment of the topic; very broad topic; no purpose for	9-

	writing; no variety of ideas or argument; content irrelevant; almost no useful detail.	6
	INADEQUATE: Fails to address the task with any effectiveness. NOT ENOUGH FOR ASSESSMENT	5-0
Organization	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: Fluent expression, ideas clearly stated and supported; appropriately organized paragraph(s) or sections; effective introduction, strong support and effective conclusion; logically sequenced (coherence); connectives appropriately used (cohesion).	20 -17
	GOOD TO AVERAGE: Uneven expression, but main ideas stand out; paragraphing or section organization evident; logically sequenced (coherence); some connectives used (cohesion).	16 -12
	FAIR TO POOR: Very uneven expression, ideas difficult to follow; organization does not help reader; logical sequence difficult to follow (coherence); connectives largely absent (cohesion).	11 -8
	VERY POOR: Lacks fluent expression; ideas very difficult to follow; little sense of organization; ineffective introduction, weak support and poor conclusion; no sense of logical sequence (coherence); connectives not used (cohesion).	7-5
	INADEQUATE: Fails to address this aspect of the task with any effectiveness. NOT ENOUGH FOR ASSESSMENT	4-0
Vocabulary/ Word Choice	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: Wide range of vocabulary; accurate word/idiom choice and usage; appropriate selection to match register.	20 -17
	GOOD TO AVERAGE: Adequate range of vocabulary; occasional mistakes in word/idiom choice and usage; register not always appropriate.	16 -12
	FAIR TO POOR: Limited range of vocabulary; a noticeable number of mistakes in word/idiom choice and usage; register not always appropriate.	11 -8
	VERY POOR: No range of vocabulary; uncomfortably frequent word/idiom choice and usage; no apparent sense of register.	7-5
	INADEQUATE: Fails to address this aspect of the task with any effectiveness. NOT ENOUGH FOR ASSESSMENT	4-0
Language Use	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: Confident handling of appropriate structures, sentences well-built and structures strong and varied; hardly any errors of agreement, tense, number, word order, articles, pronouns, prepositions; meaning never obscured.	20 -17
	GOOD TO AVERAGE: Acceptable grammar- but problems with more complex structures; mostly appropriate structures; some errors on agreement, tense, number, word order, articles.	16 -12
	FAIR TO POOR: Insufficient range of structures with control only shown in simple constructions; frequent errors on agreement, tense, number, word order, articles, pronouns, prepositions; meaning sometimes obscured.	11 -8
	VERY POOR: Major problems with structures- even simple ones; sentences and structures poor, incomplete or awkward; frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions; meaning often obscured.	7-5
	INADEQUATE: Fails to address this aspect of the task with any effectiveness. NOT ENOUGH FOR ASSESSMENT	4-0
Mechanics/ Conventions	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: Demonstrates full command of writing conventions such as spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and layout.	10 -8
	GOOD TO AVERAGE: Occasional errors in spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and layout.	7-5
	FAIR TO POOR: Frequent errors in spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and layout.	4-2
	VERY POOR: Very poor mastery of conventions; full of errors of spelling, punctuation, and capitalization; layout is distracting. Fails to address this aspect of the task with any effectiveness. NOT ENOUGH FOR ASSESSMENT	1-0

**Appendix B. Questionnaire on basic constituents of writing**

The purpose of this questionnaire is to evaluate your writing skill in English.  
Would you please tick (✓) the best option that fits you for each item below?

**1. Gender:**

Male  Female

**2. How would you evaluate your personal competence in writing in English?**

	Very Good	Good	Average	Poor	Very Poor
Writing skill	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**3. How would you evaluate your personal competence in writing in English in the following components of writing skill?**

	Very Good	Good	Unsure	Poor	Very Poor
<b>A) Process:</b>					
1) Brainstorming	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2) Narrowing a topic	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3) Making an outline/plan of writing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4) Writing the first draft	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5) Receiving and giving feedback	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6) Revising	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7) Preparing the final draft	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8) Editing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>B) Content:</b>					
9) Having a clear purpose for writing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10) Writing with an awareness of the reader	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11) Focusing on the main idea throughout writing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12) Presenting creatively/new ideas	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>C) Organization:</b>					
13) Organizing writing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14) Writing effective titles;	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15) Writing an effective topic sentence for a paragraph	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16) Writing effective support sentences in a paragraph	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17) Writing effective conclusion for a paragraph	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
18) Writing an effective thesis statement for an essay	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
19) Writing an effective introduction for an essay	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
20) Writing an effective essay conclusion	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
21) Presenting unified ideas (unity)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22) Presenting ideas logically connected	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
23) Supporting the topic with relevant details	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24) Presenting ideas coherently	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
25) Using transitions effectively	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
26) Using reminders effectively	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>D) Word Choice:</b>					

27) Using correct word forms	0	0	0	0	0
28) Making accurate word choice	0	0	0	0	0
29) Making powerful word choice	0	0	0	0	0
<b>E) Language Use</b>					
30) Using relevant language style (e.g. formal, informal)	0	0	0	0	0
31) Using a variety of sentence types	0	0	0	0	0
32) Writing simple sentences	0	0	0	0	0
33) Writing compound sentences by using <i>and, but, so, nor, for, or</i>	0	0	0	0	0
34) Writing complex sentences using <i>therefore, hence, however, etc.</i>	0	0	0	0	0
35) Using parallel structures	0	0	0	0	0
36) Avoiding sentence fragments	0	0	0	0	0
37) Avoiding run-on sentences	0	0	0	0	0
38) Avoiding dangling expressions	0	0	0	0	0
39) Avoiding comma splices	0	0	0	0	0
<b>F) Grammar:</b>					
40) Using verbs correctly	0	0	0	0	0
41) Using articles correctly	0	0	0	0	0
42) Using prepositions correctly	0	0	0	0	0
43) Using pronouns correctly	0	0	0	0	0
44) Using tenses correctly	0	0	0	0	0
45) Using simple grammatical structures correctly	0	0	0	0	0
46) Using complex grammatical structures correctly	0	0	0	0	0
<b>G) Mechanics:</b>					
47) Using spelling correctly	0	0	0	0	0
48) Using punctuation correctly	0	0	0	0	0
49) Using capitalization correctly	0	0	0	0	0

## İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının İngilizce yazma becerilerinin geliştirilmesinde bir karma yaklaşım uygulaması

### Öz

İngilizce yazma becerisi edinimi İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının hem lisans hem de mezuniyetleri sonrası mesleki yaşantılarında önemli bir yer tutmaktadır. İyi bir yazma becerisi bir metnin kurgusunu, içeriğini, dil kullanımını, kelime seçimini ve noktalama işaretlerinin etkin kullanımını içeren belirli unsurların edinimini gerekli kılmaktadır. İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının bu unsurları edinebilmeleri farklı yaklaşımlardan oluşan karma bir İngilizce programının izlenmesi ve bu doğrultuda yoğun bir yazma uygulaması ile mümkün olabilecektir. Bu çalışmada bir grup İngilizce öğretmen adayının üretim (product), süreç (process) ve türsel (genre) odaklı yazma yaklaşımları ile oluşturulan bir yazma programı sonucu yazma yetilerinin ne kadar geliştiği incelenmektedir. Bir üniversitenin İngiliz Dili Eğitimi İngilizce hazırlık programının zorunlu İngilizce Yazma dersinde 59 öğretmen adayı 28 hafta boyunca süreç, tartışma, sebep, sonuç, karşılaştırma, zıtlık, anlatı (öykü) odaklı yazma türlerinin nasıl yazılacağı konusunda uygulamalı ders almışlardır. Katılımcılar özellikle bu türlerde nasıl yazılacağı ile ilgili kurgu, süreç, bütünlük, içerik, dil kullanımı, kelime seçimi, doğru yapı ve noktalama işaretlerinin kullanımı ile ilgili ayrıntılı çalışma yapmışlardır. Katılımcıların başlangıç ve sonuç makaleleri belirlenen bu unsurlar açısından değerlendirilmiş ve ayrıca katılımcılardan çalışmaya başlamadan önce ve çalışma sonrası kendi yazma becerilerini belirlenen alt unsurlar açısından değerlendirmeleri istenmiştir. Çalışma sonuçları uygulanan programla öğretmen adaylarının yazmanın temel unsurlarından olan metnin doğru kurgusu, uygun içeriğin oluşturulması, dilin uygun kullanımı, doğru dilbilgisi kurallarının uygulanması, etkin kelime seçimi ve doğru noktalama işaretlerinin kullanımı gibi unsurlarda belirgin bir yeterliliğe ulaştıklarını göstermiştir. Bu çalışma ayrıca yazma becerisinde belirgin bir yeterliliğe ulaşan katılımcıların hem daha sonraki yıllarda akademik yaşantılarında yazma konusunda daha başarılı olacaklarını hem de yazma becerisinin ana unsurlarının neler olduğu ve nasıl öğretileceği konusunda belirgin bir bilgi ve beceri edineceklerini göstermiştir. Bu çalışma yazmayı bir süreç olarak kabul eden ve belirli bir topluluğun beklentileri doğrultusunda metin oluşturmayı hedefleyen karma yaklaşım odaklı yazma programı ile İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının İngilizce paragraf ve makale yazmanın temel unsurlarını edinmede başarı gösterebileceklerini ortaya koymuştur. Tek bir yaklaşım yerine yazma üretimini süreçsel ve türsel yaklaşımlardan yararlanarak oluşturmayı temel edinen karma yazma programları bu çalışmaya benzer şekilde İngilizce yazma öğretimi programlarında uygulanabilir.

*Anahtar sözcükler:* İngiliz dili eğitimi; İngilizce öğretmen adayları; yazma becerisi

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## L2 motivation in foreign language learning

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### Abstract

This study, which involved 130 US fourth to ninth graders enrolled in Chinese as a foreign language classrooms, intended to test Dörnyei's L2 Motivation Self System and the seven motivational constructs identified in his previous study, and investigate whether the constructs found in this study differ based on the following differences: (a) gender, (b) grade level, and (c) starting age of learning a foreign language. This study found four motivational constructs: instrumentality-dominant, attitudes toward the L2 speaker/community-dominant, learners' perception of their parents' proficiency in Chinese, and milieu. In addition, this study found a significant interactive effect between grade level and starting age of learning a foreign language. The younger learners in the foreign language late starter group perceived their parents as having higher proficiency in Chinese than how the older learners in the late starter group perceived their parents.

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*Keywords:* L2 motivation; L2 Motivation Self System; age differences; foreign language learning; Chinese

## 1. Introduction

Among the many individual learner factors, motivation is acknowledged as one of the determinant factors in L2 attainment. As Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) stated, "Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals, and neither are appropriate curricular and good teaching enough to ensure student achievement" (p. 203). After conducting several empirical studies, Dörnyei (2005) proposed a L2 motivation paradigm, the L2 Motivational Self System. This new paradigm is adopted in the current study to explain the L2 motivation of fourth to ninth graders who were enrolled in Chinese as a foreign language courses in a charter school in the United States.

The L2 Motivational Self System, which integrates several prominent theoretical language learning constructs, such as Gardner's (1985) model and Higgins's (1987) self-discrepancy theory, consists of three main components: Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self, and L2 Learning Experience (Kormos & Csizér, 2008). Ideal L2 Self, which is seen as integrativeness/integrative motivation with the Ideal L2 Self, refers to the learner's wish to master the L2 as his or her ideal self-image and is the primary constituent of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh 2006). The second component, Ought-to L2 Self, refers to the "attributes that one believes one ought to possess" (Dörnyei et al., 2006, p. 17). L2 Learning Experience is related to the learners' learning environment and experience.

In a large-scale motivational study conducted by Dörnyei et al. (2006) in Hungary from 1993 to 2004, Dörnyei designed a questionnaire in which seven main motivational components were conceptualized and later validated by the study results. The researchers then used the seven components

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and the relationships among them to explain the L2 Motivational Self System. The definitions of the seven components explained by Dörnyei et al. (2006) are listed below:

- (1) Integrativeness refers to the learner's desire to integrate into the target language culture.
- (2) Instrumentality refers to the learner's belief in the usefulness of gaining L2 proficiency.
- (3) Attitudes toward the L2 speakers/community refers to the learner's attitudes toward contact with L2 speakers and visiting the L2 country.
- (4) Milieu refers to the perception of the learner's significant others such as family and friends toward the target language.
- (5) Linguistic self-confidence refers to the learner's confidence level in L2 learning.
- (6) Cultural interest refers to the learner's appreciation of the L2 cultural products.
- (7) Ethnolinguistic vitality refers to the learner's perception of the L2 community such as status and demographic factors.

Dörnyei et al. (2006) stressed that their study did not investigate "situation-specific", but "stable and generalized" L2 motivation of ages 13 and 14 Hungarian learners toward five target languages (p. 89). The researchers also stated that the seven motivational components found in their study are "amongst the most common dimensions investigated in past L2 motivation research" (Dörnyei et al., 2006, p. 10). It seems that the researchers believed the seven motivational components could be generally applied to at least Hungarian, if not all language learners. In a later study, Kormos and Csizér (2008) empirically tested the seven motivational constructs in the Hungarian context with learners of three different age groups: secondary, university, and adult learners. The results showed that a few components such as ethnolinguistic vitality, instrumentality and linguistic self-confidence, had to be excluded from the analysis because too few items loaded onto these components. The researchers expressed their surprise that instrumentality did not load adequately as expected, which shows the newly developed motivational constructs needs further empirical testing and verification. However, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, no further quantitative study in a Hungarian or other learning context has been done to verify the level of generality of the seven motivational constructs. That is the purpose of the current study.

## **2. L2 motivation and gender differences**

Gender is one of the variables commonly researched in relation to language learning. Most studies which investigated the relationship between gender and L2 motivation suggested that there are differences between males and females in L2 motivation. For example, Williams, Burden, and Lanvers (2002) found that female British schoolchildren aged seven to nine had a higher level of L2 motivation than males. Sung and Padilla's (1998) study on elementary and secondary learners of Chinese, Japanese, and Korean also reported female learners having significantly higher motivation to learn the languages than male learners. Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) study on Hungarian schoolchildren showed a consistent tendency for females to score significantly higher on various motivational variables than males. Ghazvini and Khajehpour's (2011) study showed that high school Iranian female learners were more positive toward learning English than male learners.

In terms of motivation types, Ghazvini and Khajehpour (2011) reported that the female learners in their study were more integratively motivated while the male learners were more instrumentally motivated. A similar result in terms of gender and motivation types was found in Japanese college learners of English in Mori and Gobel's (2006) study. The female learners were more integratively motivated in learning English than the male learners.

Despite the frequently found study results which indicate female superiority in L2 motivation and gender differences in motivation types, a few studies showed opposite results. In Polat's (2011) study on middle and high school Kurdish learners of Turkish, the researcher reported that the male participants scored significantly higher on two motivational orientations, identification and integrated orientations, which were defined by Polat (2011) as demonstrating "more autonomy in determining and manipulating their own actions" (p. 21). In the study of Kuwaiti learners' attitudes toward learning English, Al-Bustan and Al-Bustan (2009) reported a relationship between the negative past high school English learning with the negative attitude of female students towards learning English. Interestingly, such negative attitudes were not found within the male sample population in the study.

Gender differences in L2 motivation is a complex phenomenon. Researchers used the learner's immediate learning and social environment to explain these differences. For example, Kobayashi (2002) explained that Japanese female learners' high motivation in learning English was affected by Japanese society, which perceives learning English as a woman-dominant choice at schools and a tool to help women depart from a society which marginalizes them. In his large-scale nationwide study on the motivation of learners of English in Japan, Ryan (2009) confirmed the social factor identified by Kobayashi (2002). Ryan's (2009) study results illustrated that a reason female Japanese learners are positive in learning English is due to the belief that using English to express oneself illustrates more freedom than using Japanese, a language which has restrictive features for female speakers. A similar social factor on people's perception of languages which might cause gender difference in motivation was found in Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) and Williams et al.'s (2002) studies. The researchers in both studies explained that a reason the male schoolchildren in their studies scored lower than the females on the motivation toward learning French was due to the general societal perception that French was seen as a feminine language.

If the cause of gender differences in L2 motivation is not mainly neurobiological, but socially constructed as implied in the literature, it would be worthwhile to investigate whether there is a gender difference in L2 motivation toward learning Chinese, a target language not commonly investigated in relation to gender and L2 motivation in the United States learning context. If the finding is significant, it will give directions to future studies on examining the possible social factors influencing the gender differences in L2 motivation toward Chinese language learning.

### **3. L2 motivation and age differences**

Another factor which might influence learners' L2 motivation levels is age. Although only a few studies examined the relationship between age and L2 motivation, the results of most of the studies seem to indicate that motivation declined with age. In Williams et al.'s (2002) study, seventh graders scored significantly higher on the need for the language, integrative orientation, positive attitude toward their teachers, and perceived self-ability and success than ninth graders. Sung and Padilla (1998) found similar results in their study which showed that elementary students were more motivated than secondary students toward learning Chinese, Japanese, and Korean. Baker and MacIntyre (2000) also reported that the younger learners in their study were more motivated than the older learners. In Sung's (2010) study of college learners of Chinese, age was found to be a factor influencing the learners, with younger learners being more positive toward Chinese language learning due to friends' opinions about the classes and professors at school and the desire to study in a Chinese-speaking country.

On the other hand, a few studies on age and L2 motivation reported contradictory results. For example, Wong (2008) found that Chinese immigrant learners of English older than 20 in Hong Kong displayed higher motivation to learn English than those younger than 15. Kormos and Csizér (2008) compared three different age groups of Hungarian learners of English and concluded that the youngest

group, the secondary school students, had a lower motivation level than the university students and adult learners. The researchers of the aforementioned studies offered possible reasons for their findings on age differences in L2 motivation. For example, Williams et al. (2002) suspected that the reason they found younger learners to be more motivational may be that there was a general tendency for motivation in school-based learning to decrease when learners started secondary school. Kormos and Csizér (2008) interpreted the finding of the secondary learners having lower motivation than older learners as a result of the compulsory nature of learning English in school where the learners were required to choose a language available to learn and continue learning the language until the secondary school years end. Wong (2008) believed that the older Chinese immigrant learners had a higher motivation than younger ones as the older ones needed to pass a public university entrance examination which had English as a test subject. All of these reasons seem to be context-specific, which means research is needed to study learning populations distinctive from the ones mentioned in the literature to verify how generalizable the study results are.

Another aspect regarding age difference in language learning often discussed is the critical period hypothesis, which claims that there is a critical period to acquire a language, after which language learning becomes more difficult. A few studies found that children seem to learn languages better than adults (Polat, 2011). If age, in terms of when one starts learning a language, is a factor influencing L2 acquisition, then it is reasonable to assume that the same factor might influence learners' L2 motivation. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there are no studies about the relationship between L2 motivation and the age learners start to learn the L2; hence, the current study included this factor to test the researcher's hypothesis.

#### **4. Research questions**

The studies in the literature section have shown that there is limited understanding and inconsistent results about the seven motivational constructs originally found in Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) study. The constructs need more empirical testing. The current study intended to fill this gap. Moreover, the current literature seems to suggest that gender and age differences in L2 motivation tend to be socially constructed; that is, the specific learning and social environments the learners are in have certain effects on their L2 motivation levels and types of motivation. If this is true, the results of the previous studies cannot be generalized. Investigating gender and age differences in L2 motivation in different learning and social contexts is necessary in order to gain a broader understanding of various learner groups' L2 motivation. The current study had a focus on the group of US learners of Chinese as a foreign language ranged between fourth and ninth grades, which is a learner population infrequently examined. This study attempted to answer the following research questions:

- (1) What motivational constructs toward learning Chinese do US learners between fourth and ninth grades have?
- (2) Do US fourth to ninth graders' L2 motivational constructs toward learning Chinese as a foreign language differ based on the following differences: (a) gender, (b) grade level, and (c) starting age of learning a foreign language?

#### **5. Method**

##### *5.1. Participants*

All 134 fourth to ninth graders in the Chinese classes in a charter school in the United States and their parents were informed about the purpose of the study and asked for the learners' willingness and parents' agreement to participate in the study. Four learners decided not to participate, hence, the present

study involved 130 learners. This study used a non-probability sample, which was the population to whom the researcher had easy access. There were 73 males and 57 females in the study.

## 5.2. *Questionnaire*

In order to test the motivational constructs found by Dörnyei et al. (2006), this study adopted the questionnaire, Language Disposition Questionnaire, from the researchers with minor wording revisions to fit the Chinese language learning context in the US. Items 1 to 21 concerned the learners' reasons for learning the target language, their attitudes towards the L2 and the L2 community, their contact with the L2 and its speakers, the amount of effort willingly invested to learn the target language, and their perception of their parents' language proficiency in Chinese. Items 22 to 29 were related to the learners' general views regarding their learning milieu and linguistic self-confidence. The 29 questionnaire items were placed on a five-point Likert scale. The participants had five choices for items 1-21: 5 being "very much", 4 being "quite a lot", 3 being "so-so", 2 being "not really", and 1 being "not at all". The five choices for items 22-29 are: 5 being "absolutely true", 4 being "mostly true", 3 being "partly true partly untrue", 2 being "not really true", and 1 being "not at all". The last section of the questionnaire contained seven items about the learners' background such as gender, and previous language learning experience.

## 5.3. *Data analysis*

The questionnaire data was analyzed through SPSS statistical software. For the first research question, "What motivational constructs toward learning Chinese do US learners between fourth and ninth grades have?", the use of factor analysis was necessary to see whether the participants in this study had similar motivational constructs as the ones found in Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) study. A total of two factor analysis tests were run as in Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) study. The first one involved questionnaire items 1-21 concerning the L2 and L2 communities. The second one included items 22-29 concerning the learners' views related to the learning milieu and their linguistic self-confidence. Similar to the analysis done in Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) study, items 8 and 9, which concern learners' perception of their parents' proficiency levels in Chinese were added to the factor analysis. The reason to add these two items, as Dörnyei et al. (2006) explained, was that the parents' proficiency may be related to the milieu factor. The only difference between the current and the previous studies was that Dörnyei et al. (2006) used the mean of items 8 and 9 while the present study simply added both items to the factor analysis. The reason of adding both items instead of the mean of the items is the assumption that each parent might have individual influence on the learner; hence, averaging the parents' proficiency would not be reasonable. The sample size to run factor analysis in this study was justifiable, which exceeded the recommended minimum of 100 subjects by Gorsuch (1983) in order to yield reliable results. In addition, Chronbach's alpha of each test was calculated by SPSS in order to determine the internal consistency of the items and factors in the questionnaire. Moreover, reliability tests were run for the questionnaire and each single factor.

In order to answer the second research question, "Do US fourth to ninth graders' L2 motivational constructs toward learning Chinese as a foreign language differ based on the following differences: (a) gender, (b) grade level, and (c) starting age of learning a foreign language?", MANOVA was run. In this study, the dependent variables were the motivational constructs found in the factor analysis tests. The independent variables were gender, age, and starting age of learning a foreign language. The test run had a minimum conventional level of significance,  $p = .05$ . In addition, the null hypothesis was assumed.

The participants were divided in groups in the following ways. The gender factor consisted of a male and a female group. The grade level factor consisted of a group of fourth to sixth graders and a group of

seventh to ninth graders. The factor, starting age of learning a foreign language, had a group of participants who started learning a foreign language at age eight or younger and a group of participants who started learning a foreign language at age nine or older. Table 1 illustrates the descriptive statistics of the divided groups for each factor.

**Table 1.** Descriptive statistics of the groups in the MANOVA test

Learner Factors	Categories	N	%
Gender	male	73	56%
	female	57	44%
Grade Level	fourth to sixth graders	73	56%
	seventh to ninth graders	57	44%
Starting Age of Learning a Foreign Language	age eight or younger	72	55%
	age nine or older	58	45%

## 6. Results

### 5.4. Factor analysis

The analysis of the internal consistency reliability of the 29 questionnaire items showed that the Cronbach's alpha was .75 with  $F(129, 28) = 132.583$ ,  $p < .000$  indicating that there was an acceptable internal consistency of the items being assessed. The results of the first factor analysis showed that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.77, which supported the factorability of these data. The significance level of Bartlett test of sphericity = .000 indicated that these data were thus approximately multivariate normal and acceptable for factor analysis. The output of the first factor analysis on items 1-21 revealed six components with eigenvalues exceeding one. After applying Cattell's (1966) scree test as did Dörnyei et al. (2006), the screeplot revealed that two components were on the steep portion of the graph. These two components were retained for further investigation. A Varimax rotation was performed in order to aid in the interpretation of the two components. The rotated result showed that 11 items moderately or strongly loaded on one of the two components. The subsequent two-component solution explained 33.5% of the variance, with Component 1 contributing 24.2% and Component 2 contributing 9.3%. Following the factor analysis, the analysis of internal consistency reliability was conducted. Table 2 illustrates that the Cronbach's alpha in Component 1 is .81 and in Component 2 is .66 indicating fair to reliable degree of reliability.

**Table 2.** Principal components analysis with Varimax rotation of two-factor solution for questionnaire items 1-21

	Factor loading	M(SD)
<b>Component 1: Instrumentality-dominant</b>		
<b>Cronbach's alpha = .81</b>		
6. How much do you think knowing Chinese language would help you when traveling abroad in the future?	.774	4.18(0.93)
7. How much do you think knowing Chinese language would help your future career?	.749	3.40(1.17)

2. How much do you think knowing Chinese language would help you to become a more knowledgeable person?	.736	3.97(0.97)
1. How much do you like Chinese language?	.554	3.63(1.09)
3. How important do you think Chinese language is in the world these days?	.547	3.92(0.92)
5. How much effort are you prepared to expend in learning Chinese language?	.431	3.82(0.97)
<b>Component 2: Attitudes towards the L2 speakers/community-dominant</b>		
<b>Cronbach's alpha = .66</b>		
14. How much do you like meeting Chinese people?	.736	4.12(0.91)
10. How much would you like to travel to China?	.687	3.16(1.06)
17. How much do you like the people who live in China?	.636	3.99(0.99)
11. How much would you like to travel to China?	.595	4.13(1.11)
21. How much do you like Chinese pop music?	.527	2.02(1.70)

As shown in Table 2, Component 1, which included six items, was loaded heavily on the instrumentality motive (items 6, 7, 2, 3); therefore, it is called the instrumentality-dominant factor. The four instrumentality items found in this study are identical with the instrumentality items found in the English and German target languages in Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) study. One (item 1) of the remaining two items in the component is related to integrativeness while the other (item 5) is related to learning effort.

Component 2 consisted of three items (items 14, 17, 11) related to attitudes towards the L2 speakers/community, one item (item 10) related to integrativeness, and one item (item 21) related to cultural interest, therefore, this component is called attitudes towards the L2 speakers/community-dominant factor.

The results of the second factor analysis showed that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.54, which indicated that the factor analysis test was appropriate. The significance level of Bartlett test of sphericity = .000 indicated that these data were thus approximately multivariate normal and acceptable for factor analysis. The output of the second factor analysis (items 8-9 and 22-29) revealed four components with eigenvalues exceeding one. An inspection of the screeplot revealed that two components were on the steep portion of the graph. Therefore, these two components were retained. The Varimax rotation result showed that nine items moderately or strongly loaded on one of the two components. The subsequent two-component solution explained 36% of the variance, with Component 1 contributing 18.6%, and Component 2 contributing 17.4%. Table 3 illustrates that the Cronbach's alpha in Component 1 is .74, which is considered reliable. However, the Cronbach's alpha in Component 2 is .46 indicating unreliability. This result suggests that revising the items in the second factor analysis should be considered to increase its reliability.

**Table 3.** Principal components analysis with Varimax rotation of two-factor solution for questionnaire items 8-9 and 22-29

	Factor loading	M(SD)
<b>Component 1 Learners' perception of their parents' proficiency in Chinese</b> <b>Cronbach's alpha = .74</b>		
8. How well does your mother speak Chinese?	.876	1.36(0.85)
9. How well does your father speak Chinese?	.868	1.40(0.88)
<b>Component 2 Milieu</b> <b>Cronbach's alpha = .46</b>		
25. I don't think that foreign languages are important school subjects.	.729	2.00(1.21)
28. Learning foreign languages makes me fear that I will feel less American because of it.	.679	1.50(1.02)
27. My parents do not consider foreign languages important school subjects.	.603	1.68(1.14)

As shown in Table 3, Component 1 considered two items (items 8-9) related to the participants' perception of their parents' proficiency in Chinese. In Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) study, parents' proficiency was not loaded on any factors, but the present study had a contradictory finding.

Component 2, named milieu, consisted of three items (items 25, 28, 27) related to the views of the participants and their parents toward learning foreign languages. In Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) study, the items (items 25, 27, 24, 28) found in the milieu factor were very similar to the current finding (items 25, 28, 27). However, the low Cronbach's alpha shown in the present study indicates that the items related to milieu and linguistic self-confidence run in the second factor analysis may not be suitable for the Chinese language learning context in the present study. More research will be needed to find better ways to ask this target population to find more accurate L2 motive constructs.

### 5.5. MANOVA

The results of the MANOVA test indicated that there was no main effect on each of the three independent variables: gender, grade level, and starting age of learning a foreign language; that is, the participants' gender, their grade level, or the age they started learning a foreign language, had little or no influence on the four L2 motivational constructs. However, the results demonstrated that there was a significant interactive effect between grade level and starting age of learning a foreign language,  $F(4, 119) = 2.537, p < .05, \eta^2 = .079$ ; Power = .704. The value of the  $\eta^2$  indicated that there was a medium association between the interactive effect of the two factors and L2 motivation. The observed power was fairly strong. The null hypothesis was rejected and one can conclude that the interaction of learners' grade level and starting age of learning a foreign language mediated the motivational constructs.

The between-subjects effects table shown in Table 4 indicated that there was an interactive effect between grade level and starting age of learning a foreign language on the motivational component, learners' perception of their parents' proficiency in Chinese. For the between-subjects test, the partial eta squared ( $\eta^2$ ) was close to medium and the observed power was fairly strong.

**Table 4.** Multivariate analysis of variance: Between-subjects interactive effects

Between-subjects Interactive Effects	F	df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Grade Level x Starting Age of Learning a Foreign Language	6.627	1	.01	.052	.724
Motivational Component: Parents' Proficiency in Chinese					

The descriptive data shown in Table 5 indicated that the major contrast is within the group of learners who started learning a foreign language at age 9 or older. The learners in this group who were fourth to sixth graders perceived their parents to have higher proficiency in Chinese than the seventh to ninth graders' perception of their parents' Chinese proficiency.

**Table 5.** Between-subjects interactive effects on learners' perception of parents' proficiency in Chinese

Starting Age of Learning a Foreign Language	Grade Level	Mean	SD
age 8 or younger	4th-6th	1.3725	.52767
age 8 or younger	7th-9th	1.5000	1.24499
age 9 or older	4th-6th	1.7500	1.02062
age 9 or older	7th-9th	1.0972	.31212

## 6. Discussion

In response to the first research question, "What motivational constructs toward learning Chinese do US learners between fourth and ninth grades have?", the present study found four constructs: Instrumentality-dominant, attitudes toward the L2 speakers/community-dominant, learners' perception of their parents' proficiency in Chinese, and milieu. The instrumentality-dominant construct consisted of two items categorized as other types of motives: integrativeness and learning effort. The second construct, attitudes towards the L2 speakers/community-dominant also consisted of an integrative item. It seems integrativeness was interwoven with other types of motives. This finding can be explained by applying Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivation Self System. The central theme of the system, the Ideal L2 Self, which has been described as integrativeness/integrative motivation, has two immediate antecedents: instrumentality and attitudes towards the L2 speakers/community. Dörnyei et al. (2006) explained that the Ideal L2 Self is an image of a competent or native speaker of the target language; hence, the more positive a learner is toward the L2 speakers/community, the more attractive the learner's Ideal L2 Self is. With respect to the relationship to instrumentality, the researchers believed that professional successfulness would enhance the image of the Ideal L2 Self; therefore, the higher a learner is on his or her instrumental motive, the more desirable the learner's Ideal L2 Self is. Dörnyei et al. (2006) stated, "We would argue that instrumentality and the attitudes towards the L2 speakers constitute two complementary aspects of the Ideal Language Self: Its general agreeableness and its achievement-related effectiveness/competence" (p. 93). This explained why integrativeness emerged in the instrumentality-dominant and attitudes towards the L2 speakers/community-dominant constructs. The third construct, learners' perception of their parents' proficiency in Chinese found in the present study, was not found in Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) study. This finding could be attributed to the different social contexts in the two studies in terms of how people judge one's language proficiency without using a

proficiency test and how much influence parents have on their children's study in a particular society. Dörnyei et al. (2006) explained that in certain cultures family expectations are strong motives. It could be that the family expectations in the current study were stronger than the ones in the Hungarian study. The fourth construct in the present study, milieu, consisted of similar items to the ones in Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) study. However, the low reliability in this construct requires more examination on these items when used in a Chinese language learning context.

In sum, Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivation Self System and the seven motivational constructs were only partially supported by the results of the present study. The three motives: Vitality of L2 community, self-confidence, and cultural interest, were not found in the factor analysis tests in this study. This means the items in the Language Disposition Questionnaire are not general enough for all language learning contexts and need to be revised to better fit the US context of Chinese language learning. In addition, Dörnyei et al. (2006) stated that the questionnaire did not include items addressing the Ought to L2 Self and L2 Learning Experience mentioned in Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivation Self System, which means more questionnaire items will need to be developed to test the system proposed by Dörnyei (2005). In conclusion, Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivation Self System needs to be re-visited and tested in order to make it a more thorough system which consists of all motivational constructs one can find in a given language learning context.

In responding to the second research question, "Do US fourth to ninth graders' L2 motivational constructs toward learning Chinese as a foreign language differ based on the following differences: (a) gender, (b) grade level, and (c) starting age of learning a foreign language?", the current study found no motivational difference based on the three variables; however, there was a significant interactive effect of learners' grade level and starting age of learning a foreign language on the motivational construct, learners' perception of parents' proficiency in Chinese. Furthermore, the major difference found was that the younger learners (4th to 6th grades) in the foreign language late starter group (started at age 9 or later) perceived their parents to have higher proficiency in Chinese than how the older learners (7th to 9th grades) in the late starter group perceived their parents.

The researcher suspects that the difference might not be the actual Chinese proficiency level of the parents, but how different groups of learners perceive language proficiency of their parents differently. First, the mean of the parents' proficiency factor for older learners is 1.09, which was very close to 1, "not at all" on the Likert scale, while the younger group has the mean of 1.75, which was close to 2, "not really" on the Likert scale. These two answers do not appear to be very different. Both tend to indicate that the parents do not know Chinese, but the wordings of the answers might have shown that people who choose 2 might be more optimistic than people who choose 1. As discussed in the L2 Motivation and Age Differences section, Williams et al.'s (2002) study found that younger learners tended to be more positive about their perceived self-ability and success, which could have been extended to their family members, such as their parents, as this study shows. In addition, the younger learners (4th to 6th grades) who started learning a foreign language at or after age 9 means that they started this new experience of language learning fairly recently. If being positive and optimistic are characteristics of the younger learners, such characteristics could apply in a new language learning experience. If the assumption is true, it seems that optimism could be the reason the younger learners in the foreign language late starter group had a significantly different responses on their perceived parents' proficiency in Chinese than the older group.

## **7. Conclusions**

The present study showed several directions future research on L2 motivation and its factors can take. First, this study confirmed the central theme, the L2 Ideal Self (formerly interpreted as

integrativeness) and its immediate antecedents, instrumentality and attitudes toward L2 speakers, identified in Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivation Self System. However, the other factors identified in Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) study were not found in this study, which might indicate that the questionnaire instrument adopted from Dörnyei et al. (2006) was not suitable to the participants in this study and that the L2 Motivation Self System did not include all possible factors that explain the learning context in the present study. Future research will be needed to confirm these assumptions. Second, contradictory to most studies, this study did not find any L2 motivation difference based on gender or age. As this study did not have a design which allowed the participants to give insights in the learning contexts for explaining the findings, future research will be needed to explore the reasons for the lack of difference based on gender, grade level, and starting age of learning a foreign language. Third, this study found a significant interactive effect of learners' grade level and starting age of learning a foreign language on learners' perception of parents' proficiency in Chinese. Based on the current literature, the researcher suspects that the younger learners' characteristic of optimism could be the reason the younger learners who started learning a foreign language late perceived their parents to have higher proficiency in Chinese than the older group. This assumption needs more empirical testing for proof.

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### Yabancı dil öğrenmede ikinci dil motivasyonu

#### Öz

Amerika'da Çincenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği sınıflara devam eden ve seviyeleri 4-9. sınıf arasında değişen 130 öğrencinin katıldığı bu çalışma, Dörnyei'nin İkinci Dil Öğrenme Motivasyonu Benlik Sistemini ve daha önceki çalışmasında belirlediği güdüsel yedi yapıyı test etmeyi ve de çalışma neticesinde saptanan yapıların a) cinsiyet, b) sınıf ve c) yabancı dil öğrenmeye başlama yaşı açısından değişiklik gösterip göstermediğini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çalışma, güdüsel dört yapı saptamıştır: araçsal ağırlıklı, ikinci dil konuşan kişilere ya da topluma karşı tutumlara dayanan, öğrencilerin ebeveynlerinin Çincedeki yeterlilikleri ile ilgili düşünceleri ve sosyal çevre. Bununla birlikte, sınıf düzeyi ile yabancı dil öğrenmeye başlama yaşı arasında manidar bir etkileşim olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Nitekim, yabancı dil öğrenmeye geç başlayan gruptaki yaşı küçük olan öğrenciler, yaşı büyük öğrencilere kıyasla, ebeveynlerinin Çincedeki yeterliliklerinin daha yüksek olduğu kanısındadırlar.

*Anahtar sözcükler:* İkinci Dil Öğrenme Motivasyonu; İkinci Dil Öğrenme Motivasyonu Benlik Sistemi; Yaş Farklılıkları; Yabancı Dil Öğrenme; Çince.

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## Semiotic analysis of textual communication in *Snow* by Julia Alvarez

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### Abstract

The use of literary texts in language classes does not find enough space within the scope of English language teaching programs in *English as a Foreign Language* (EFL) settings, where direct exposure to second language (L2) is considerably limited due to pseudo communicative language teaching environment. Literary texts provide ample opportunity for the learner to study the target language in a natural way with all the necessary corpora rich in powerful textual communication where linguistic, pragmatic and literary studies are presented in the same medium concurrently. The whole idea behind this article is not to substitute criticism for literature, but to make it the object of study in an inter-textual system of relations by connecting one text to the already existing ones created in the same literary tradition. The relation between semiotic analysis and textual communication with reference to the seven standards of textuality is provided within a mellifluous blend for the sake of comprehensive understanding of the semiotic analysis of textual communication in the story. Textual analysis of the story by considering all the standards of textuality is displayed with all the necessary input in order for the learner to move on to semiotic analysis of textual communication in the short story. Semiotic analysis of the story is presented in line with the accepted strategies of the reading activity developed in consecutive steps. Having provided with the phases of the approach the reader is expected to develop a comprehensive view of how to become autonomous learner responsible for his own learning. The reader not only develops the interpretative skills by acquiring the accepted strategies of semiotic analysis, but also enhances awareness of life, for literary studies help develop a thorough perception of life by going through the private psychological experience of the protagonist. The reader is expected to appreciate and acquire the sort of wisdom lying behind the moral lesson of the story to understand life better, and in turn to appreciate the unalienable human rights that guarantee freedom of the mankind in this world.

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*Keywords:* standards of textuality; semiotic analysis; literary studies; critical reading

### 1. Introduction

Semiotic reading as a comprehensive approach to the reading of literary texts consists of three stages that follow one another in a complementary sequence (Scholes, 1982/1985). First the reader simply reads to understand what is communicated literarily. This sort of reading requires first-order signification process, or mimesis, as the verbal signs mean what they say, referring to what they signify in the natural domain. The surface meaning that is reached by deconstructing the syntax and the grammatical patterns formed with the verbal signs, namely words, is the sense of the whole text (Sless, 1986). The deeper layer of meaning lying behind the text is the value that can only be reached by interpreting what is said literally. The effort required for the value, the theme of the text, is the most challenging part of the whole process since it requires intellectual awareness of the cultural background of the text. This interpretative reading skill calls for second-order signification process, or semiosis, as the verbal signs gain symbolic dimension referring to what they possibly mean in the cultural domain other than what they literally say in the natural domain (Barthes, 1994). According to

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Queiroz and Merrell (2006, p. 60) semiosis is “a triadic (*sign, object and interpretant*) [italics added], context-dependent (situated), interpreter-dependent [...] dynamic process. It is a social-cognitive process, not merely static symbolic system.”

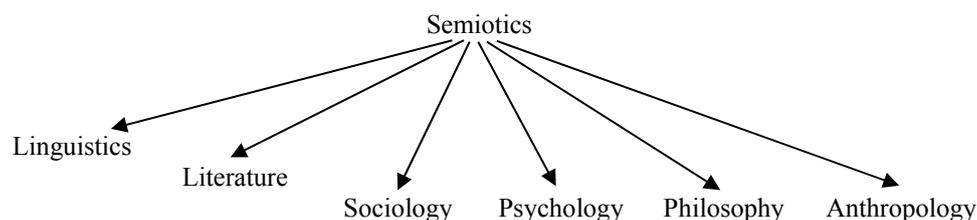
The reader is to consider all the context features, textual or non-textual, when he tries to reconstruct a text around his own values by creating his symbolic system (Derrida, 1997). Interpretation is, in fact, the process of creating a new text that is based on the reader’s understanding of the text. Semiotics, therefore, puts premium on the effective reading of the literary texts because the reader is not simply a passive agent already conditioned to accept whatever he receives through the text (Eco, 1985). In the process of textual communication a text is often interpreted against the background of codes that are different from those used by the author (Eco, 1985). Finally, feeling confident in his efforts to create a new text around the values, he makes an intellectual move by reading against the author in order to present a counter argument in response to the original text. This third higher order signification process is absolutely reader-centred as the reader raises his own critique to present a coherent counter argument. In the reading process, all the standards of textuality play key roles in reaching the sense; therefore, comprehension is based on how well the reader can do discourse analysis considering all the pragmatic functions of a given text. Doing discourse analysis certainly involves cognitive processes considering all aspects of language function in the interpretation of the text (Brown & Yule, 1985). Cultural background of the text and the intellectual competence of the reader play the most important key role in the act of criticism, because “semiotics studies all cultural processes as processes of communication” (Eco, 1979, p. 8).

### *1.1. Semiotics and language teaching*

Semiotics, if broadly defined, is the interdisciplinary study of communication, comprising all sorts of communication. Language is a virtual communication system composed of verbal signs, namely words, already stored in long term memory of the members speaking the language concerned. When words are considered as verbal signs with their arbitrarily assigned meanings used for any purpose of communication in any setting, semiotics becomes the main focus of the whole issue, concerning itself with all the domains of language use ranging from semantics to pragmatics, literary studies, social and scientific studies, and the like. Even one word in any social setting with all its context features already in place can be treated as a sentence communicating across whatsoever intended to convey the verbal message.

Semiotics concerns itself with all domains of language use and semiotics and language teaching are so much related to each other that it is impossible to put them apart whenever it is used as an internalised system for communication. Language teachers may not be aware of the fact that they act in accordance with the principles of semiotics when they use second/foreign language (L2) and try to teach it in their settings. All the words with their lexical meanings are verbal signs that have their forms conveying the assigned sense as they have no one-to-one correspondence between the form (sound-image) and the content (idea), or else signifier and the signified respectively. Any word by itself is a sign represented by symbols (alphabetic signs) that come together to form the semantic unit already stored in the collective mind of the interlocutors as mental representations of ideas creating the verbal medium for any communication to take place whenever and wherever possible. If one ever calls to mind how diversified and complicated language use is, considering different pronunciations of the same word uttered with specific stress patterns, semiotics reflects this fact by providing a wide

spectrum to survey all the related fields of scientific study of language and human communication (Figure 1).

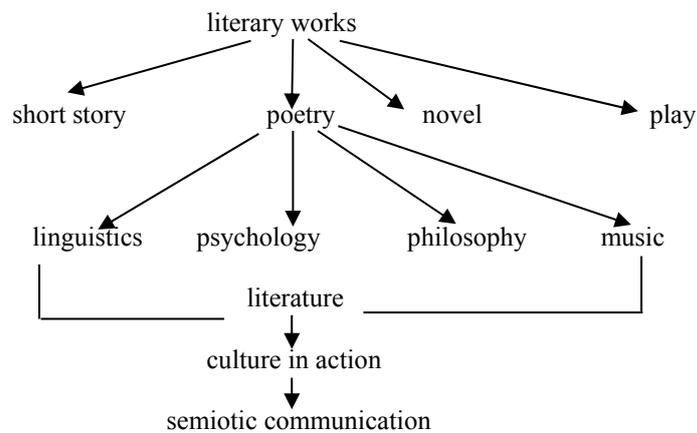


**Figure 1.** Semiotics and related fields of study

Phonetics, phonology, lexicology, semantics, pragmatics, psychology, philosophy, anthropology, sociology and the study of telecommunications constitute a wide range of fields of study for language teachers to consider when they are involved in the teaching of a language for any purpose. Language teaching requires one to consider two different fields of study: linguistics and psychology. TEFL is a field-specific jargon that stands for the teaching profession based on linguistic knowledge of English, psychology of human communication and linguistic behaviours that learners display in different settings. EFL pedagogy and semiotics share quite a wide range of phenomena, from acculturation to language acquisition, from L1 and L2 connection to the significance of language learning settings and specific language teaching methods (Erton, 2006; Sert, 2006; Şenel, 2007). Language as a social resource provides a medium for verbal interaction and communication; however, semiotics not only takes language as its province but also considers all other sign systems of communication: verbal, non-verbal, visual and also multi-modal.

### *1.2. The use of literature in language teaching*

Language as a virtual sign system of communication is not adequate to help explain intricate human thought processes no matter how sophisticated intellectual system of communication it may ever be. Private psychological experience of human beings can only be communicated by literary devices, figures of speech and symbolic use of language used in literary works. Literature provides a long established tradition of immense sources allowing teachers ample opportunity to design effective teaching materials. Even in language learning classes, linguistic competence and performance, no matter how properly developed, cannot help understand what goes on in the inner psyche of characters. Tapping deeper sources of human consciousness requires deeper understanding of private psychological experience of the characters in order to develop a deep awareness of life. Literature, regarding the language use in all the works of art already in print, takes a deeper look into all sorts of communication between and among people probing deeper into private thought processes rankling in the mind of the speakers and working silently behind the outward speech acts (Figure 2).



**Figure 2.** Literary works and semiotic communication

Language learning experience offers ample opportunity to make choices just as characters make their moral choices to help widen and sharpen their awareness of life. Wide range of vocabulary use in literary texts helps develop deeper understanding of human relations in social contexts. Learners as individuals with their distinctive personalities are also members of their speech community sharing the same cultural heritage and taking responsibility for their social roles. “We are, says Schärer (1985, p. 12), in danger of losing—in fact we may have already lost—an important element quite beyond the presentation of a specific cultural heritage. It is the *dimension of depth* that must be emphasized over the *fictional pseudo facts* of communicative methodology, which make little connection with the underlying emotions and needs of the students.” This dimension of depth is to be tapped for the sake of pedagogical effectiveness of teaching. Literature provides a long established tradition of immense sources allowing teachers ample opportunity to design effective teaching materials focusing not only vocabulary teaching but also how these linguistic signs take effect in social interactions, daily conversations, business transactions, communications and private psychological experiences of learners.

Even in language learning classes, linguistic competence and performance, no matter how properly developed, cannot help understand what goes on in the inner psyche of characters. Literary competence is directly associated with the proper use of vocabulary and how those linguistic signs gain symbolic dimension to mean more than what they literally say in the text. Learners develop this sort of competence as they move from sense to value and to the critique of the text if they can properly raise counter arguments and develop their own centre against that of the author. Sense is the literal meaning reached through the first order signification process in the natural domain, while value is the theme of the text reached in the aftermath of the second order signification process in the cultural domain as they move from the said to the unsaid. *Critique*, saying something against the author, is developed around learners’ own standpoint while they move from particular to universal through semiotic higher order signification process in the symbolic domain. If literary competence is developed in an incessant fashion by means of in depth study of limited number of literary texts rather than superficial study of many texts, learners will have the opportunity to develop a dimension of depth in order to sharpen their awareness of life for deeper understanding of human experience on earth (Kumral, 2006). Snow, as simple as it looks, becomes the symbol of irreplaceable beauty since

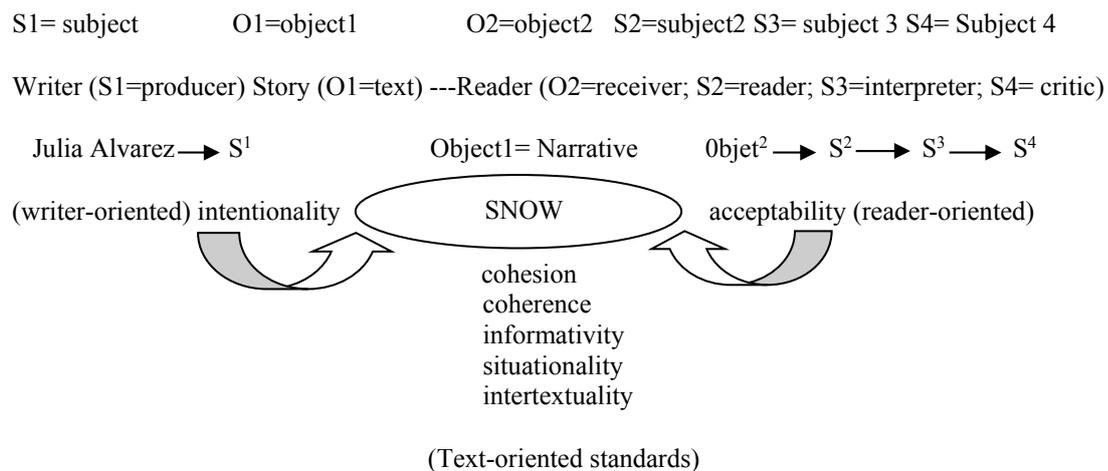
each member signifies a different individual that deserves unalienable human rights endowed at birth to live and pursue their own happiness on earth just like anyone in any society represented by snowflakes. The consistent use of literary works helps develop a deeper understanding of human consciousness without imposing an interpreter's role upon learners. Regarding the practical use of literary texts in EFL classes the following points prove to be of high interests to language teachers because they

- provide useful materials for in-class discussions to increase communication in L2 if they can be developed into more communicative teaching materials
- help develop both linguistic and literary competence, which enhances acquisition of L2 as an internalised system of communication
- promote intuitive knowledge of L2 through authentic language use
- increase exposure to L2 in EFL classes where direct exposure is considerably limited, which in turn paves the way for more mastery over the language in the process of time
- foster cultural awareness of L2 as learners enjoy greater opportunity for meeting culture-specific input within the scope of works studied at the time
- help increase effectiveness of corpus teaching as wide range of vocabulary use increases in time with due effort

In this article, a step by step schema is proposed. First the reader will follow a consistent approach to the analysis of the text for the proper textual communication, and then move on to the semiotic reading of the story presented in three consecutive stages: (1) reading within the text for the sense, (2) reading upon the text for the value, and (3) reading against the text for the critique. All the numbers placed in parentheses refer to the numbers of the end notes given at the end of the article before the 'references' section.

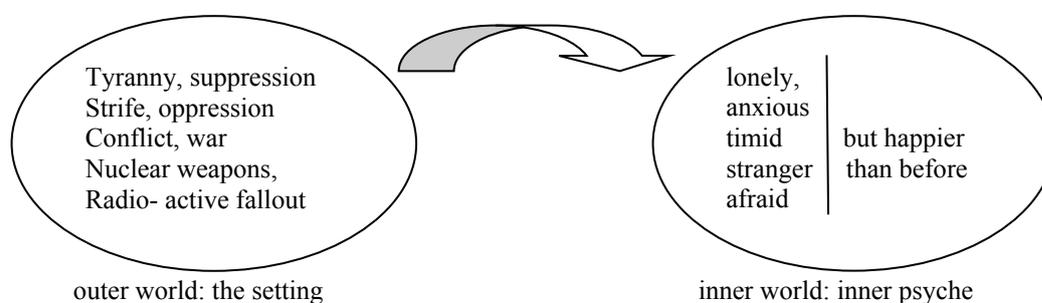
## 2. Semiotics of textuality: So much snowed under

There seems to be so much to do in order to understand what goes on in the mind of the writer while writing all about the issue as precisely as possible, and also in the mind of the reader while reading, since both writing and reading are complex and complicated intellectual activities. Communication occurs if *intentionality*—the attitude of the text producer—can be inferred from the text, understood and accepted by the reader. When Julia Alvarez put pen to this short story (1), she had that sort of 'intentional' activity in the back of her mind. If what the author (text producer) tries to communicate does not mean anything to the reader (the addressee) at all, the text is then meaningless or non-communicative no matter how syntactically well-formed it is. Figure 3 displays the relationship between the writer and the reader roles considering the standards of textuality in the context of textual analysis of the story.



**Figure 3.** Schematic display of textual communication of the story *SNOW* on discourse plane

The attitude of the text-receiver, namely the prospective reader, towards the text is known as acceptability. If it really makes sense without violating the world knowledge of the reader, it is this characteristic of the text that makes it acceptable on the part of the reader, who takes active reader roles moving from simply being a passive agent as the receiver to the reader, interpreter and critic able to raise counter argument forming a new centre, a semiotic vantage point, for a thorough synthesis of all the points discussed in the semiotic reading process. As far as the information the text conveys is concerned, informativity is an important or rather crucial standard, making reading meaningful and interesting enough on the part of the prospective readers by providing necessary information about the fierce political conflict behind the war that could break out any minute. The sort of information needed for the clarity of the text is adequate for the reader to follow through in order to reach a thorough understanding of the intended message. Political condition of the country of the protagonist, military and political turmoil causing terror because of the probable war between Cuba and her new country provide background information for the reader to understand the extreme terror in her tiny heart as her inner psyche is depicted with the visual reminders of nuclear war and snow covering everything beneath as the symbol of death, cold strife and human heart without love. Figure 4 illustrates the emotional impact of the outer world upon the protagonist, Yolanda.



**Figure 4.** Textual standard of informativity regarding the outer and the inner worlds in the story

The intended message given in the story concerned must be relevant to a situation of occurrence, often referred to as situationality, which is when and where it all happens just the same way as it is recounted in the text, or rather presented, which enables the reader to figure out the context of the story and accordingly comprehend the theme developed around all the relevant vocabulary describing the possible and probable results of the imminent nuclear war. What makes the story, or any literary text, meaningful has to do with all the relevant data regarding the given situation since the intended use of the text becomes clear through the situation aggravating the psychological anxiety and terror people have been under. If the reader can see a sort of connection between what the author says regarding the setting of the story both in time and in place, the text is then said to be comprehensible and relevant to what truthfully happens in man's world. The outer world represented by two different settings is given in contrast to the inner world of the protagonist to complete the whole picture in the mind of the reader. Dominican Republic is given as a macrocosm governed under the totalitarian regime developed around purely modernist thoughts for the sake of man's own happiness on earth, which creates a highly paradoxical situation, for the narrator finds bliss in a God-centred universe (a catholic school), depicting a religious microcosm, rather than in a man-centred modern society—her own country—where she is supposed to be leading a life not larger than a life under the tyranny of Trujillo.

**Setting in time:** winter as the months grow cold and she follows her breath on her way to school. She watches the snowflakes falling and dusting the cars below. She likens the flakes to dusty fallout of the atomic bomb Sister Zoo depicted with flurry chalk marks she dotted on the board for the dusty fallout while teaching all the relevant vocabulary to the wide-eyed classroom.

**Setting in place:** A nearby Catholic school in New York run by Sisters of charity Yolanda describes them as she enjoys herself seeing them in peculiar garments and describing their physical look and warm attitude towards the children particularly Yolanda, the immigrant representing total ignorance as she is the one who understands that the holocaust is in the air.

Dominic Republic (macrocosm) → immigration → New York → personal choice → a nearby Catholic School (microcosm)

**Characters:** Yolanda as the central character, and also the narrator narrating the whole event through innocent eyes using first person limited narration technique. Flat characters are represented by all the other mentioned people.

**Yolanda** is the youngest of the family who narrates the story during the days of Cuban war crisis.

**Sister Zoo** is a 4<sup>th</sup> Grade teacher who describes the holocaust by depicting what is likely to happen in the aftermath of the explosion of the atomic bomb.

**President Kennedy** looks worried while giving a talk on TV and explaining the delicate situation while Russia is placing nuclear missiles in Cuba supposedly trained on New York.

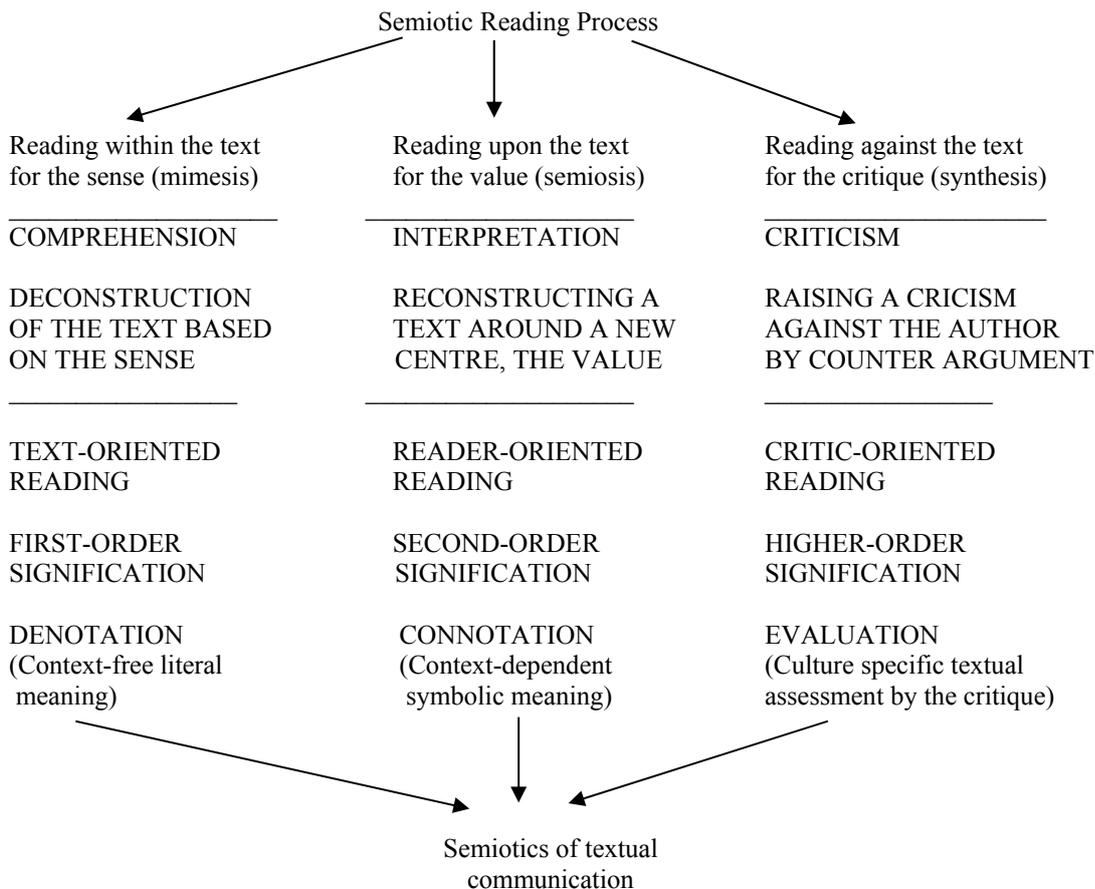
**Trujillo** is the president of Dominican Republic ruling the country under his everlasting tyranny. He appears to be a powerful figure exercising tyranny under his absolute authority.

A literary text follows a particular literary tradition formed diachronically through previously encountered texts of the same genre representing typical characteristic patterns. A specific tradition requires knowledge with reference to all the works already in print. Intertextuality as a standard of textuality refers to all the related texts that create a formidable background for the reader to understand and interpret the text better. Familiarity with the previously published texts, or rather works, helps probe deeper into the text for a sound interpretation of what is being read. If the reader has read enough before and knows about the probable war between the countries concerned, he will come up

with a sound interpretation of the story. The Fog of War, a documentary movie released in 1993 by Errol Morris, for instance, gives some accounts of the highly critical moments of 1960s supplying enough information as to the background of the story. Rita Dove's poem entitled Parsley provides information about the dictator. In this study semiotic reading of the story and the textual analysis of the text will be provided for the reader to have a comprehensive view of semiotic analysis of textual communication within the scope of the narrative. The Story (2) is about a girl fleeing the tyrant Trujillo (3), ruling Dominican Republic at the time, with her family to enjoy more freedom in New York in pursuit of their happiness.

### 3. Semiotic reading and semiotics of textual communication

Readers take all of these characteristics of texts for granted; however, the text at hand cannot be understood properly if it does not meet the standards mentioned earlier. It is these standards that make a text meaningful and communicative in the first place. If the text does not make any sense, then the reader cannot make head or tail of what the text is intended to communicate across; then the text is treated as a non-communicative one since it needs “the interaction of text-presented knowledge with the reader's stored knowledge of the world” (Beaugrande & Dressler, 1982, p. 6), because “meaning cannot exist on its own” unless it is presented “with a specific form of language content” in a verbal medium (Kurtul, 2013, p. 81). Figure 5 below shows the relationship between semiotic reading and textual communication.



**Figure 5.** Semiotic reading and semiotics of textual communication

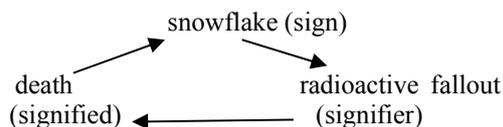
Comprehension does not require much effort as the reader deconstructs the text to reach the sense, and then *reconstructs* a new text with a new centre based on his interpretation if he has not already met any difficulty as to the semantic and syntactic unity of the text (Derrida, 1997). Syntactic unity (cohesion) and semantic unity of the text (coherence) are of great help to the reader in order for him to form a sound base so as to move from sense to value, the theme of the text. In the first order signification process, what verbal signs, namely words, refer to within the text is taken into consideration, as it is basically text-oriented reading. If the reader wishes to move further for the sake of developing literary competence in consecutive stages through systematic reading against the texts, *situationality* of the text can be of great help to them, as it gives a microcosm depicting the setting with its social environment in terms of both space and time. The reader tries to see how the value of the text stands firm by testing it in relation to those existing in a greater context comprising the whole universe. The reader moves from particular to universal while he moves from microcosm to macrocosm, putting the value out of context as if it could exist regardless of time, place, and speech community, foregrounding the idea that it can turn into a universal truth.

#### 4. Semiotic reading of *Snow*

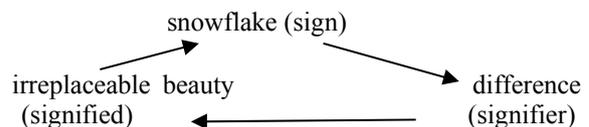
As a reader-centred intellectual activity, this process approach to the reading of literary texts foregrounds the significance of cognitive learning since the reader goes through a process of becoming a competent reader by following a well-planned schema based on comprehension, interpretation and evaluation in that order (Kumral, 2009).

##### 4.1. Reading for the sense of the text

A summary of the literary text is generally considered to be an effective way to indicate that the text is read and understood to the extent the reader is expected to.



**Figure 6.** Yolanda's signification processes



**Figure 7.** Sister Zoe's signification process

Yolanda, a primary school student, flees the tyrant Trujillo, ruling Dominican Republic at the time, and immigrates with her family to the United States in 1960. She goes to a Catholic school nearby, taught by sisters of Charity. She enjoys sitting in the first row while being taught by Sister Zoe, her grandmotherly fourth-grade teacher. One day Zoe explains what is happening in Cuba while Russian missiles are being assembled and trained supposedly on New York. She learns new vocabulary about nuclear war such as *nuclear bomb*, *radioactive fallout*, *bomb shelter*, and so on. Zoe draws a picture of a mushroom on the board with flurry chalk marks for the dusty fallout that will bring death. As time goes by, winter comes and Yolanda suddenly sees dots falling, random at first then lots and lots. She screams, "Bomb! Bomb!" Zoe turns around and goes to her side with a shocked look on her face. When she sees it snowing at the moment, she smiles and says, "It is snow, Yolanda. Snow!" Then Yolanda watches the white crystals, dusting the sidewalk and the parked cars below. She is lost in

thought, remembering what Sister Zoe said. “*Each flake is different, like a person, irreplaceable and beautiful.*”

#### 4.2. *Reading upon the text for the value: A semiotic interpretation*

The second step requires the reader to go beyond the text to find out what is communicated behind the words selected to help the reader to move from *the said* to *the unsaid* to reach the theme of the text. Interpretation is a highly challenging and demanding reading activity based on literary, linguistic and intellectual competence of the reader. The reader reconstructs a new text around his values to form and present a vantage point to survey the world and view it a fresh (Sless, 1986)

Yolanda makes her choice in accordance with her family’s combined opinion, which appears to be a great shift from a world of tyranny backed up by totalitarian regime to a world of democracy guaranteeing life, freedom of speech and pursuit of happiness by providing equal opportunity for everybody, as they believe that men are created equal and endowed with unalienable rights. The concept of equality in such a monolithic society transforms itself into inequality creating an immense gap between the governing and the governed as people fall prey to the political and economic interests of the mighty powers.

The whole story is simply a challenging escape from totalitarian regime to a more democratic one to enjoy more freedom secured by the Constitution exercised in courts proclaiming *Equal Justice under Law*, engraved on the porch of the Supreme Court. Here lies a paradox as Yolanda finds bliss in a school run by sisters of charity, a God-centred community ruled by chance denoting no perfect design, while she is supposed to have found it in a man-made universe as in Dominican Republic ruled by Trujillo, representing the authority supposed to be creating a benevolent universal design for man’s own happiness. No matter how all these distinctive characteristics make her a unique individual endowed with certain unalienable rights, she still feels the need not to be a square peg in a round hole. She takes her time to feel fit right in with the new society to reach the whole, becoming a drop in the ocean to be the ocean itself. She is protected after their struggle to escape from an uncaring and cruel monolithic society hostile to spiritual values to a modern society developed around spiritual values protected by constitutional laws. Yolanda, however, seems to have found a better way to live in peace in a world of chaos, finding divine protection in a catholic school, a sanctuary or a haven, so to speak, maintained by Divine Providence rather than threatened by Manly Retribution.

#### 4.3. *Reading against the text for the critique*

After the first two stages, the reader is expected to be ready to produce a text against the original text to present a counter argument from a different point of view while he efficiently and effectively develops literary competence in a continuous fashion.

Yolanda flees the tyrant ruling Dominican Republic to a country known as the cradle of liberty allowing every possible opportunity for everyone to be a man of free will. Killing one’s own freedom for the sake of other’s welfare and happiness was, and still is, the act of man’s vices disguised every which way. The whole world turns into a battle ground of the privileged few bound together in their effort to exercise their ubiquitous power in order to lead a life in the lap of luxury till they get caught up in death’s gin. *Wars* plotted decisively beforehand break out not due to cultural clashes or religious

concerns but rather for the never ending political and economic reasons of the mighty lords of war, as Orwell put it in his article published in 1946, by using political language carefully tailored for their purpose “to conceal the truth and obscure the thought” (Abrams, 1993, p. 2242). Constant use of political language through modern media of mass indoctrination, misuse of democracy, and equality for the sake of inequality have been established to help those in power to exercise their absolute authority over the governed and “to insert the power to punish more deeply into the social body” without considering beliefs, interests, political views, national identity, cultural backgrounds, ethnic origins, social status and the like (Foucault, 1979, p. 82). As Shakespeare puts it, *All the world is a stage* and a worldwide arena where the governed are to keep the mighty agents on top of the hierarchical totem pole by shedding their own blood for the honour of oppressor, sacrificing life for their grim satisfaction and in this way stirring up their intense desire for their own economic interests (Hopkins & Beard, 2011).

The reader may write his own story to foreground the paradox lying behind the story to criticize it, as Yolanda is supposed to have been enjoying her life in a man-centred universe rather than in a God-centred community where she becomes aware of differences that make all those people irreplaceable and beautiful. However, they are killed for their difference in every respect in this uncaring modern world where the oppressed fight a losing battle for their own freedom against the oppressor. Although these stories of people take place in a different setting in time and place, people soon realize that they all have the same plot, no matter how they live or what they believe. They display resigned wisdom with quiet poignancy and take each day as it comes.

## 5. Conclusions

Any kind of literary work— narrative, poetry or drama—is of great use to language teachers to help their students develop intuitive knowledge and interpretative skills in consecutive stages without assigning or imposing any interpreter’s role upon them. This article discusses why and how to expose learners to literary texts in order to increase pedagogical effectiveness of teaching programs through in depth study of literary texts in language classes. The reader has been presented with ample opportunity to understand how to do semiotic analysis of the literary text considering textual standards and literary devices by allowing them to follow the strategy in consecutive steps. The whole idea behind this study is based on two basic arguments: (1) Pseudo communicative language teaching methodology, as is often argued, does not help increase the depth of experience of life because it does not consider underlying emotions of the learner with due care, and (2) this depth of experience [of life] is the dimension of depth that should, or rather must underlie all human relations, as the learner should develop a concept of the ‘significant other’. In depth study of *Snow* helps develop this dimension of depth, as it solely foregrounds the significance of positive attitude towards the other in order to for the individual to be treated well in return. This positive attitude proves to be a powerful antidote to wipe out the negative impact of the deeply seated enmity disguised every which way under innocuous political acts of the mighty hands.

## Notes

[1] See Beaugrande and Dressler (1981); Brown and Yule (1985); Cook (1989); Leech (1983); Schiffren (1994); Salkie (1995); Van Dijk (1981); Yule (1997) for all the information concerning discourse analysis.

[2] The story, which appeared in the newspapers and magazines before the novel was first published in 1991, is narrated by Yolanda, the youngest of the Garcia girls. For further information, see Alvarez (1991, pp. 166-

167). See also Sirias (2001); Lyon (2005). The story can be reached easily on the internet as there is free access for readers.

[3] “On October 2, 1935 Rafael Trujillo (1891-1961) had 20.000 Tahitian blacks executed for the sole reason that they could not articulate the sound [r] in *Perejil*, Spanish word for parsley” (see Hunter et al. 2007, p. 144). Rita Dove, on reading her poem *Parsley* published in 1993, as the then Poet Laureate at the White House, said, “Those who could not pronounce it correctly—whoever said *pelelil* instead of *perejil* were executed. That he had them pronounce their own death sentence, this ultimate little twist was what haunted me. [...] I’ve tried to help us understand how Trujillo arrived at this word—not just to say that he was a horrible dictator, but to make us realize that evil can be creative” (see Haba, 1995, pp. 127-128).

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### Julia Alvaraz'ın *Kar* adlı öyküsünde metinsel iletişimin göstergebilimsel çözümlemesi

#### Öz

Sözde iletişimsel dil öğretim ortamları olduklarından dolayı hedef dille doğrudan ilişkide olma düzeyinin oldukça sınırlı olduğu İngilizcenin Yabancı Dil olarak öğretildiği sınıflarda edebi metinlerin kullanımı dil öğretim programlarında yeterince yer bulamamaktadır. Bu makalenin amacı dilbilim, edimbilim ve yazın çalışmalarının aynı ortamda birlikte sunulduğu iletişimce zengin metinler olan yazın çalışmaları hedef dilin doğal olarak öğrenilmesinde geniş fırsatlar sağladığı uygulamalı olarak gösterilmektir. Bu çalışmanın arkasındaki asıl düşünce ise, göstergebilimsel çözümleme ile metinsel iletişim arasındaki ilişkiyi gösterip, eleştiriyi yazın çalışmalarının yerine geçirmeksizin, söz konusu çalışmayı aynı yazınsal gelenek içinde üretilen metinlerle ilişkilendirerek, eleştiriyi metinler arası ilişkilerin sistemi içerisinde çalışmanın nesnesi haline getirmektir. Yedi metinsel standartı dikkate alarak yapılan göstergebilimsel çözümleme ile metinsel iletişim arasında var olan ilişki kısa öyküdeki metinsel iletişimin göstergebilimsel çözümüyle uyumlu bir bileşim içinde kapsamlı olarak verebilmektir. Metinsel standartlar gözetererek yapılan metinsel çözümlemeden sonra okuyucunun kısa öykünün göstergebilimsel çözümlemesine devam etmesi için gerekli bilginin sağlanmasıyla bu geçişin nasıl yapacağı gösterilecektir. Birbirini takip eden evreler halinde geliştirilen ve kabul gören okuma stratejileriyle uyum içerisinde öykünün göstergebilimsel çözümlemesi yapılacaktır. Yaklaşımın evrelerinin sunumuyla okuyucunun kendi öğreniminden sorumlu nasıl özerk birey olabileceği konusunda kapsamlı görüş edinmesinin yolu gösterilecektir. Okuyucu yalnızca yorum becerilerini göstergebilimin kabul gören çözümleme stratejilerini öğrenerek geliştirmekle kalmayıp, aynı zamanda yazın çalışmalarının derin yaşam algısının gelişmesini sağlaması kahramanın psikolojik deneyimini izleyerek kendi yaşam algısını genişletmesi fırsatını da elde edecektir. Okuyucunun yaşamı daha iyi anlamak için öykünün mesaj içeren dersinin arkasındaki akli takdir etmesi ve edinmesi ve bunun sonucu olarak dünyada insan özgürlüğünü garanti eden vazgeçilemez insan haklarının kıymetini de takdir etmesi gözetilmektedir.

*Anahtar sözcükler:* metinsel standartlar, göstergebilimsel çözümleme, İngilizce sınıflarında yazın çalışmaları kullanımı, eleştirel okuma

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## The morphophonology of the Akan reduplicated verb-form

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### Abstract

This paper discusses the interaction between constituent formation and alteration of sounds (i.e., morphophonology) in Akan reduplicated verb-forms. Specifically, we strive to look into two issues; the morphology of reduplicated verb stems and how the morphological manifestation(s) affect certain target sounds. With its morphology, we observe that reduplication of the Akan verb-stem is generally total and, through the Morphological Doubling Theory (Inkelas 2005; Inkelas and Zoll 2005), reduplication of Akan verb-stems is viewed as the double (or multiple) occurrence of a morphological constituent meeting a particular morpho-semantic description. That is to say, while there could be differences in structure between the reduplicant and the base, they are subject to a common phonology that determines a resulting shape of an output. With morphophonology, we observe that three issues are relevant in the discussion of the phonology of the reduplicated verbs in Akan. These are the application of vowel harmony, vowel shift in terms of height, and the realization of tonal semblance. Through thorough discussions, the paper finally explains that reduplication of verb-stems in Akan is morphophonologically driven.

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*Keywords:* Akan, morphophonology, reduplication, vowel harmony and height, tone

## 1. Introduction

Reduplication, which has generally been described as the systematic recurrence of a unit within a word for semantic or grammatical purposes (e.g. Marantz (1982), Rubino (2005)), has enjoyed much attention in the literature with regard to various lexical categories and how it pertains in different languages (see e.g. Tuvan (Raimy 2000; Harrison and Raimy 2004), Sanskrit (Steriade 1988) and, Squamish and Chichewa (Downing 2008)). On Akan in particular, Dolphyne (1988), Winkler and Obeng (2002), among others, have looked at reduplication in some respect in various categories. In this paper, we particularly look at the interaction between constituent formation and alteration of sounds in Akan reduplicated verb-forms, i.e. morphophonology of reduplicated verb-forms in Akan.

As noted by Moravcsik (1978) and in diverse languages, particularly in some Kashaya verbs (Oswalt 1961), which is also the case in Akan, reduplication of verbs is used to express repetitive or iterative and distributive ideas. In Akan, it also arguably indicates intensification in some instances of the verb and other categories. Thus the verb *bɔ* 'to hit', when reduplicated as *bɔbɔ*, indicates that the act of hitting is done more than once and not on one point or place as expressed in (1). Thus, in (1) we have a sense of not just a 'hit', but more than one of it and more rigorous as well, which actually underscore its translation as 'beat up'.

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1. Àtàá b̀̀.̀̀b̀̀-̀̀ K̀̀f̀̀i  
 PN hit.hit-PAST Kofi  
 ‘Ataa beat up Kofi.’

As (1) indicates, therefore, it is commonplace to realize a different sense of a verb-stem in its reduplicated form in Akan.

The rest of the paper is sectionalized as follows: In section 2, we focus on what pertains in categories of reduplicated Akan verb-stems. In this direction, we strive to have a detailed morphological account of the reduplicated verb-stems within the Morphological Doubling Theory (e.g. Inkelas and Zoll (2005)). In section 3, we identify and underscore two forms of verb-stems, i.e. reduplicated monosyllabic and polysyllabic verb stems, as a necessity in the quest of exploring how their individual morphological manifestations, some of which are explained in section 2, affect the realization of some target sounds (thus, phonology) in the reduplicated form. Finally, affirming the fact that reduplication of the Akan verb-stem is morphophonologically-driven, section 4 concludes the paper.

## 2. Morphology of Akan reduplicated verb-stems

It is generally noted that reduplication is a morphological process (see, for example, Singh (2003), Rubino (2005), Skinner (2008)) and, typologically, two types of reduplication have been distinguished, as in Rubino (2005). These are full and partial reduplication; where full is complete repetition of the stem and partial is repetition of only a part of the stem. We observe that reduplication in the Akan verb-stem is generally full (or total) in terms of segments and it is also left-directed; i.e. what is being repeated (hereafter, the reduplicant) comes before the stem (the base).

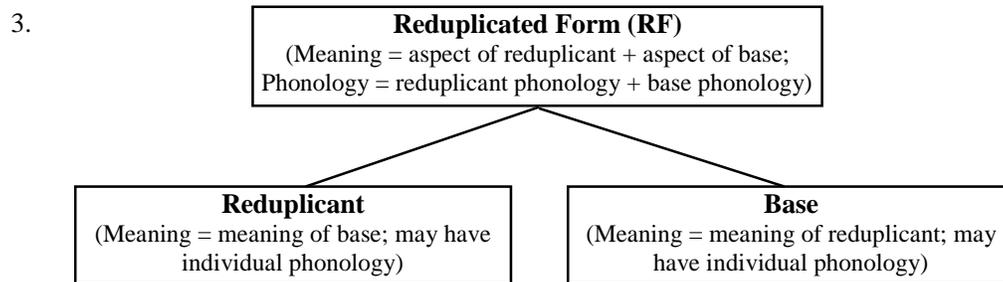
Looking at the issue of direction first, for ease of explaining succeeding points, we note that the left-direction of reduplication of Akan verb-stems is established on the fact that the phonetic form of the stem is maintained and made evident in the succeeding constituent, the base. This observation is further established by an aspect of the phonology of the language, specifically vowel harmony as a regressive rule (see section 3.1). Thus, in Akan, the structure of reduplicant-base, specifically described as ‘CONSTITUENT1<sub>reduplicant</sub>-CONSTITUENT2<sub>base</sub>’ structuring, is the case. This is exhibited in the reduplicated forms in (2) below, compared to the basic forms.

2.	Basic form (BF)	Reduplication (RF)	Re-reduplication
	b̀̀ <i>‘to hit’</i>	b̀̀-̀̀b̀̀	b̀̀b̀̀-̀̀b̀̀b̀̀
	t̀̀à <i>‘to pay’</i>	t̀̀à-̀̀t̀̀à	t̀̀àt̀̀à-̀̀t̀̀àt̀̀à
	h̀̀ỳ̀é <i>‘to wear’</i>	h̀̀ỳ̀é-̀̀h̀̀ỳ̀é	h̀̀ỳ̀éh̀̀ỳ̀é-̀̀h̀̀ỳ̀éh̀̀ỳ̀é
	s̀̀á <i>‘to dance’</i>	s̀̀é-̀̀s̀̀á	s̀̀és̀̀á-̀̀s̀̀és̀̀á
	h̀̀ỳ̀ìrà <i>‘to bless’</i>	h̀̀ỳ̀ìrà-̀̀h̀̀ỳ̀ìrà	h̀̀ỳ̀ìràh̀̀ỳ̀ìrà-̀̀h̀̀ỳ̀ìràh̀̀ỳ̀ìrà
	k̀̀ù̀m̀̀ <i>‘to kill’</i>	k̀̀ù̀m̀̀-̀̀k̀̀ù̀m̀̀	k̀̀ù̀m̀̀k̀̀ù̀m̀̀-̀̀k̀̀ù̀m̀̀k̀̀ù̀m̀̀

On the totality of reduplication of Akan verb-stems, as could also be witnessed from (2), it is evident that the whole verb-stem is reduplicated and, in this case, the base and the reduplicant are numerically identical. There are a few cases in which total reduplication is not the case, e.g. *h̀̀óró* ‘to wash’ and *d̀̀óré* ‘to be fat/ripped’ are respectively reduplicated as *h̀̀òh̀̀òrà* and *d̀̀òd̀̀òrè*. However, this

partial reduplication could be explained as phonologically conditioned; simply put, a final syllable with /r/ onset is often done away with. Thus, even in unduplicated form, they could also be pronounced as *hó* and *dó*.

Total reduplication seems to be well-established in the language in the sense that, as could also be seen in the last column of (2), reduplicated forms could further be reduplicated and there is total reduplication of the reduplicated verb-stem in this case. In other words, the totality of reduplication of Akan verb-stems is even evident in reduplicated reduplications. From this observation, reduplication of verb-stems in Akan could be described as double (or multiple) occurrence of a morphological constituent, as the Morphological Doubling Theory (Inkelas 2005; Inkelas and Zoll 2005, etc.) suggests. That is, a morphological construction calls for two independent input stems whose morpho-syntactic features are in agreement; i.e. the two stems meet a particular morpho-semantic description. Observing the Morphological Doubling Theory (MDT) further, we note that each input stem (noted as a daughter node) is subject to a co-phonology that determines its shape. However, the outputs of the two stem co-phonologies are combined and subjected to a third co-phonology at this combined stage (noted as the mother node) that produces a surface form. This and other postulations of MDT is structurally captured in (3), a recast from Inkelas (2005).



Observing MDT further, the diagram in (3) shows that there are often differences between the phonology of the base and that of the reduplicant. Instances of this are seen in most reduplicated verb-stems in Akan; e.g. *dò-dò* (from the basic form, *dó* ‘to weed’). Here, we observe differences in vowel(s) in the base and the reduplicant, indicating differences in phonology. Despite these variations, they share a common morpho-semantic description. Further, as MDT suggests, the reduplicant and the base are also subject to a common phonology that determines a resulting shape (or final morphological structure) of an output that feeds into the morpho-semantic significance. In other words, together, as the data in (4) show, the base and the reduplicant bring out a common morpho-semantic form in the output of a reduplicated verb. In Akan, the base (and for that matter reduplication) is indeed instrumental in the phonology of the reduplicant and the realization of the reduplicated verb-stem.

An interesting case in the reduplication of Akan verb-stems that is capable of adducing objection to MDT is where the reduplicated verb is put in the negative. We observe that the negative affix /n-/ reflects only in the reduplicant (or immediately seen as having been attached to the reduplicant); e.g. *tùàtùà* becomes *n-tùá-tùà*, not \**n-tùá-n-tùà*.<sup>1</sup> In other words, the negative morpheme, which is with the stem in the basic form (i.e. *n-tùá* ‘don’t pay’), does not show up in the base (in the reduplicated form) but, rather, in the reduplicant; hence *n-tùà*<sub>reduplicant</sub>-*tùà*. This realization in other data is exemplified in (4).



In the exploration of the structure of reduplicated Akan verb-stems, three morphologically-conditioned phonological alterations become relevant. These alterations have to do with the principle vowel harmony, the issue of vowel-shift with regard to height (which is described as ablaut in this paper) and tonal ramifications (specifically, tonal semblance). Through a thorough individual and/or connected discussion of these phenomena and related issues, we intend to show in this section that reduplication of verb-stems in Akan is morphophonologically driven.

In order to understand the phonological processes (effecting the segmental alterations) in reduplicated Akan verb-stems better, we distinguish between two basic verb-stems in Akan: monosyllabic and polysyllabic forms. Examples of the two are shown in (5).

5.	Monosyllabic		Polysyllabic			
	BF	RF	BF	RF		
	bó	‘to hit’	bòbò	tùà	‘to pay’	tùàtùà
	hyé	‘to wear’	hyèhyè	hyirà	‘to bless’	hyiràhyirà
	sá	‘to dance’	sèsà	gyìnà	‘to stop’	gyìnàgyìnà
	fé	‘to vomit’	féfé	pòtò	‘to mash’	pòtòpòtò
	kó	‘to fight’	kókó	fèkyèrè	‘to scrutinize’	fèkyèrèfèkyèrè

The monosyllabic-disyllabic distinction is necessary because, as will be discussed in the following sub-sections, some of the identified phonological processes manifest differently in the two types of verb-stems. Before that, even in the basic (unduplicated) form, one could also realize that tone is different in pattern between the monosyllabic and polysyllabic stems. That is to say, while monosyllabic stems are H-toned, polysyllabic stems are L-toned.<sup>3</sup>

### 3.1. Vowel harmony and vowel-shift in reduplicated verb-stems

The principle of vowel harmony (VH) in Akan has been discussed in the literature (e.g., Berry (1957), Dolphyne (1988), O’keefe (2003), Marfo and Yankson (2008)). Some aspects of it that are relevant to this paper are that VH in Akan is a regressive rule, and that it has to do with the advancement of the tongue root (i.e., ATR) in the articulation of vowels (Berry 1957; Clements 1981; Hulst and Weijer 1995; Marfo and Yankson 2008); i.e., the positions of the tongue root during the production of each of the ten phonetic vowels in Akan. Thus, in Akan, a vowel is either produced with an advanced tongue root (i.e. [+ATR]) or with a retracted tongue root ([–ATR]). The [+ATR] vowels are [i, e, o, u, ɔ] and the [–ATR] are [ɪ, ɛ, ɔ̄, ʊ, a]. Following this distinction, the VH principle generally requires that all vowels occurring in a (prosodic) word must come from one and only one of the sets. That is, vowels occurring in a word must share a common ATR specification. We note in passing, however, that there are a few words within which VH is violated, resulting in a two-span harmony.<sup>4</sup>

VH is set off in the Akan reduplicated verb-stem and it is satisfied accordingly; i.e. reduplication as a morphological phenomenon has provided a platform for the application of VH. Specifically, as noted earlier, reduplication is left-directed in Akan and, since VH is a regressive rule, it is enabled to take place from the base to the reduplicant in the ‘CONSTITUENT<sub>1reduplicant</sub>–CONSTITUENT<sub>2base</sub>’ structure. Considering MDT (as briefly discussed above), one could also say that this is not surprising; i.e. the reduplicant is only a doubling of the base (but the reduplicant and the base may be of different phonology, as MDT also suggests and will be exemplified soon).<sup>5</sup> Accordingly, as in (6), one could

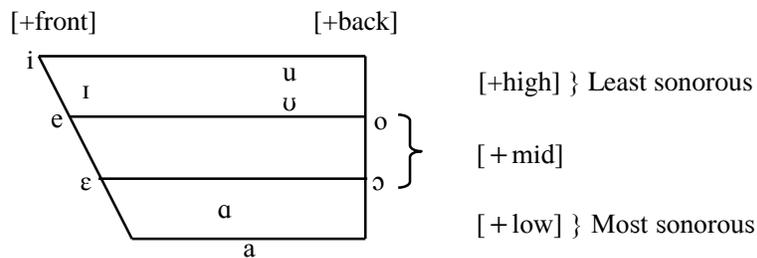


kyèrè	[tɛrɛ]	‘to show	kyèrèkyèrè	[tɛrɛtɛrɛ]
pòrì	[pori]	‘to stumble	pòrìpòrì	[poripori]

Considering the cases in (7a), the change of vowel in the reduplicant (and, ultimately, in the reduplication) has to do with the phonological sonority of the vowel in the base and this ultimately marks the difference in phonology between the base and the reduplicant.

Phonological sonority has variously been discussed as having to do with syllable structure. It has been dubbed universal in the sense that, across languages, it plays a very important role in determining what sequences of sounds are permissible (in a syllable) and this is based on the fact that speech sounds are related on a scale of loudness or intensity (see, for example, Selkirk (1984), and Ladefoged (1993)). Ladefoged (1993), in particular, defines sonority of a sound as its loudness as compared to that of other sounds with the same length, stress, and pitch. In the case of vowels, it is generally assumed that the lower a vowel, the more sonorous (or louder) it is (Selkirk 1984). Thus, as the diagram in (8) reflects, [a] is the most sonorous among the vowels in Akan and the set [i, u, ɪ, ʊ] is the least sonorous.<sup>6</sup>

#### 8. Akan vowel inventory (Dolphyne (1988))



With reference to (7a), we argue on the basis of the sonority hierarchy, ATR harmony, and labialization, that a vowel in the base of a monosyllabic verb-stem cannot be copied in the morphological double (i.e. in the reduplicant) as long as this vowel is not among the least sonorous vowel set (i.e. [i, u, ɪ, ʊ]) and, for that matter, a high vowel. This is because, as economy of speech would predict, least sonorous sounds (here, high vowels) are preferred. In other words, unlike the data given in (7a), where the vowel in the stem is least sonorous, the reduplicant and the base are identical, as shown in (9) below. This explains that ablaut, a vowel change (specifically, a vowel shift to high) due to the desire for a least sonorous vowel, is applicable here.

#### 9 Monosyllabic

BF			RF	
sí	[si]	‘to build’	sìsì	[sisi]
twé	[tɛɥ]	‘to pull’	twètswè	[tɛɥtɛɥ]
fóm	[fum]	‘to scramble for’	fòm fòm	[fumfum]
bú	[bu]	‘to break’	bùbù	[bubu]
kyé	[kye]	‘to catch’	kyèkyè	[tɛɥtɛɥ]

Extending the argument we have made in the reduplicated monosyllabic verb-stems to reduplicated polysyllabic stems, we conjecture that perhaps the reason why reduplicated polysyllabic stems usually have reduplicant-base vowel identity in corresponding syllables is that the vowels are not of the same

higher sonority level (i.e. /a/). This could be observed in the data given so far on the reduplicated polysyllabic stems. We note however that there are a few polysyllabic verb-stems within which all vowels are highly sonorous (i.e. all are /a/), as exemplified in (10), and these could immediately be described as constituting exceptional case.

10. All-sonorous polysyllabic stems

BF			RF	
pàà	[pata]	‘to pacify’	pàtàpàtà	[patapata]
kàsà	[kasa]	‘to talk’	kàsàkàsà	[kasakasa]
kàà	[kata]	‘to cover’	kàtàkàtà	[katakata]
hàà	[hata]	‘to dry’	hàtàhàtà	[hatahata]
bàà	[bata]	‘to adjoin’	bàtàbàtà	[atabata]
wàà	[wada]	‘to stay put’	wàtàwàtà	[wadawada]
wàsà	[wasa]	‘to smear’	wàsàwàsà	[wasawasa]
dwàà	[dzɔata]	‘to divide ...’	dwàtàdwàtà	[dzɔatadzɔata]
kwàà	[kwaha]	‘to douche’	kwàhàkwàhà	[kwahakwaha]
màà	[mantam]	‘to tie’	màtàtà	[mantammantam]

There could, however, be a phonological explanation for this all-sonorous polysyllabic stems in Akan. On a critical look, one realizes that the onset of the succeeding syllable (let us call it a transitional unit here) is always among the least sonorous consonant sets; i.e. it is always a fricative, an affricate or a stop in each one of them. The argument then for their occurrence in the language, which is very much informed by the principle of economy of speech, is that a sequence of the highly sonorous segment, /a/, is essentially and desirably broken by a least sonorous sound. By universal sonority-based phonotactics principle, therefore, the string is well-formed. In other words, a string of the highly sonorous vowel /a/ has been thwarted with intervening least sonorous consonants.

### 3.2. Tone in reduplicated verb-stems

In the immediately preceding section, we pointed out that monosyllabic stems are distinguished from polysyllabic ones by tone pattern; i.e., in isolation, monosyllabic verb-stems are usually said with H tone and polysyllabic ones are said with L tone. This is particularly shown in (5), repeated as (11).

11. Monosyllabic			Polysyllabic		
BF		RF	BF		RF
<i>bɔ</i>	‘to hit’	bòbò	<i>tùà</i>	‘to pay’	tùàtùà
<i>hyé</i>	‘to wear’	hyèhyè	<i>hyirà</i>	‘to bless’	hyiràhyirà
<i>sá</i>	‘to dance’	sèsà	<i>gyìnà</i>	‘to stop’	gyìnègyìnà
<i>fě</i>	‘to vomit’	féfé	<i>pòtò</i>	‘to mash’	pòtòpòtò
<i>kó</i>	‘to fight’	kókó	<i>fěkyèrè</i>	‘to scrutinize’	fěkyèrèfěkyèrè

In the reduplicated forms (i.e. in a morphologically-conditioned environment), however, we observe that both monosyllabic verb-stems and polysyllabic ones are said on L tone. The question then is: Does the reduplication have anything to do with its tonology? In other words, does the lengthening of a base (which has indeed resulted from reduplication) impact tonal representation? Considering the

reconciliation here between the monosyllabic stems and the polysyllabic ones in the use of the L tone in the reduplicated forms (see (11)), we assume a general sensitivity of tone to reduplication. That is to say, the representation of tone in reduplicated verb-stems is generally morphological length-controlled and that tone interacts with morphological length in reduplication. This analysis could be well-supported even in the basic form (BF) by the fact that, while a verb-stem with one-syllable morpheme is readily pitched for H tone, those with more than one (including the morphologically doubled, reduplicated forms) are said with the default L tone.

Winkler and Obeng (2002) seem to suggest an alternative analysis to the L tone realization in reduplicated forms (not particularly on verbal ones). Comparing reduplication in Limonese Creole and Akan, they note that the tonal prosodic features found in their data include key lowering, downdrifting, and downstepping (downtrends);<sup>7</sup> suggesting that these processes have been triggered by reduplication. Indeed, considering the fact that downtrends normally involve interaction of contrastive tones (see, for example, Hombert (1974), Connell (2001)), which they partially note, such a suggestion could hardly be conclusive. We suggest, however, that a radical position based on Winkler and Obeng's observation could do the trick of accounting for the realization of the L tone in reduplicated verb-stems. This radical shift stems from a further assumption here that downtrends could/should be looked at as phonological phenomena, rather than a phonetic one. In this direction, assuming downdrift as the case in the reduplicated verb-stems, it could be represented in the phonology by all L tones on a stretch of utterance and, in this particular case, the reduplicated verb-stem. That is to say, in the Akan reduplicated verb-stem, downdrift should not only be described as "the progressive lowering of a high tone after a low tone" (Hombert 1974, p. 171), but as due to the phonological manifestation of downdrift.

#### 4. Conclusion

We have looked at reduplication of the Akan verb-stem and noted that, among others, reduplication is generally used to encode the iterative and or distributive nature of the verb. We have also appreciably looked at how reduplication, as a morphological process, is realized in Akan verb-stems. The realization has been explained through the Morphological Doubling Theory (MDT), which establishes that a morphological construction calls for two independent inputs of different co-phonology (that determines their individual shapes), whose morpho-syntactic features are in agreement, and that outputs share a third co-phonology that produces a surface form.

Phonologically and, specifically, in terms of how morphology affects phonology, three phonological alterations have been noted and have been described as having to do with the principle of VH, vowel-shift with regard to height and tone realization. We have explained that since reduplication is left-directed in Akan verb-stems, thus realizing the structure 'CONSTITUENT<sub>1</sub><sup>reduplicant</sup>-CONSTITUENT<sub>2</sub><sup>base</sup>', VH, which is a regressive rule in Akan, is set to apply in it; i.e. from the base to the reduplicant and this indeed has been the case. Through vowel shift (from low to high), we have also explained the need for a least sonorous vowel in a reduplicant whose base contains only the most sonorous vowel /a/. This analysis has particularly been seen with the monosyllabic base and has been extended to the polysyllabic base. Last, but not the least, tone realization has been observed as being generally sensitive to reduplication, resulting in phonological downdrift.

#### Endnotes

<sup>1</sup>Generally, verbal affixes, including aspects, are not reduplicated with the stem.

<sup>2</sup> Observe that the stem-initial consonant /dw/ becomes /nw/ in the negated form. This is due to a phonological process Marfo (2009) calls voiced-to-nasal assimilation. With application of voice-to-nasal assimilation, a stem-

initial voiced stop becomes a nasal after a nasal prefix with the same specification of the nasal prefix, thus /dw/ becoming /nw/ after /n/. This also applies in compounds, in which case an initial voiced stop in a succeeding compound member becomes a nasal with the specification of the final nasal in its preceding compound member.

<sup>3</sup> Let us note that Akan is a two-tone language; i.e., it employs high tone (H) and low tone (L) in the grammar. H is indicated with an acute (e.g., *dá'day'*) and L is indicated with a grave (e.g., *dà'never'*). There is also a case of downstepped H after another H (e.g., *àdà'ká'a box'*), but this is seen as only a variety of the H tone.

<sup>4</sup> See Clements (1981) and Marfo (2009) for some details on the two-span harmony.

<sup>5</sup> Alternatively, even with a suggestion that the reduplicant is not due to morphological doubling, which a theory like the Correspondence Theory (e.g. McCarthy and Prince 1995) would advocate for, and that vowels in the reduplicant are immediately unspecified for ATR, the reduplicant must ultimately share the ATR specification of the base considering the fact that VH in Akan is regressive in application and the position that reduplication in Akan verb-stems is left-directed, as noted in the main text.

<sup>6</sup> Following Selkirk (1984) for example, the sonority hierarchy or scale is given as vowels >> liquids >> nasals >> fricatives >>affricates >> stops, where 'x >> y' indicates 'x is more sonorous than y'. It is also important to note that, among each category, there is a ranking of sonority as well. Thus, as we have done in text with the ten phonetic vowels in Akan, low vowel are the most sonorous, followed by mid vowels and high vowels come in that order.

<sup>7</sup> We refer to all of them as downtrends, following Connell (2001).

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## Akan dilindeki ikilemler eylem biçimlerinin biçimbilimsel sesbilimi

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### Öz

Bu makale Akan dilindeki eylem çekimli ikilemelerde, ö e türetme ile seslerin de i imi (örne in; biçimbilimsel sesbilimi) arasındaki ili kiyi anlatmaktadır. Makalede özellikle iki konu üzerinde durulmu tur: ikilemelerdeki eylem gövdelerinin biçimbilgisi ve biçimsel de i ikliklerin bazı sesleri nasıl etkiledi i. Akan dillerinin biçimsel özelliklerinden dolayı eylem gövdelerinden olu an ikilemelerin genellikle bütün oldu u gözlemlenmi tir ve Biçimsel kileme Teorisi (Inkelas 2005; InkelasandZole 2005) ı ı nda Akan eylem gövdelerinin ikilemesinin anlam ifade eden bir yapının iki veya daha fazla kez tekrar edilmesi yoluyla olu turuldu u gözlemlenmi tir. Yani kelimenin kendisiyle ikilemesi arasında yapısal farklılıklar olsa da her ikisi de benzer sesbilimsel olaylara maruz kalmı lardır. Biçimbilimsel Sesbilim yoluyla Akan dillerindeki eylemlerin ikileme yapılması esnasındaki sesbilimsel özelliklerin üç konuyla ili kili oldu u saptanmı tur. Bunlar ünlü uyumunun uygulanması, ses yüksekli ine göre olu an ünlü de i imi ve tonsal benzerliklerin gerçekte tirilmesidir. Makalede, konunun kapsamlı bir ekilde ele alınmasının ardından Akan dilindekieylem gövdelerinin ikilenmesinin Biçimbilimsel Sesbilim ile alakalı bir olgu oldu u açıklanmı tur.

*Anahtar sözcükler:* Akan Dili; Biçimbilimsel Sesbilim; kileme; Ünlü Uyumu ve Ses Yükseli i; Ton

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## The effect of dialog journal writing on EFL learners' grammar knowledge

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### Abstract

One way which teachers try to encourage students to become autonomous is by encouraging them to write journals. Students can write about their personal interests as it can improve students writing skills. The present study was done to investigate the impact of dialog journal writing on learners' grammar development and their confidence. Two intact classes at Golestan University, Iran were randomly selected and assigned as experimental and control groups. The participants were 68 students who ranged in age from 18 to 23 and who regularly attended the general English classes for 12 sessions during the spring semester. The experimental group was instructed to write a journal every session, overall twelve journal entries during the treatment, while the control group received the regular class instruction. A pretest and a posttest were used to evaluate the participant's grammar skill before and after the treatment. The results of the study revealed that journal writing had a significant positive effect on students' grammar knowledge and enhanced their confidence in writing. The findings also showed that EFL learners in the experimental group overwhelmingly preferred the DJW project in improving their grammar knowledge.

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*Keywords:* Dialog journal writing; grammar; confidence; EFL learners

## 1. Introduction

In Iran, English education has paid the most attention to the study of language, emphasizing gaining knowledge of English rather than using it. In learning English, Iranian students are supposed to just memorize a great deal of vocabulary and grammar rules and they just need to know how to manipulate these linguistic elements in final tests. Thus, writing and speaking skills are rarely taken care of as important skills in public system and students rarely use their knowledge for writing; even in private language institutes that have some writing classes in their schedule writing is still treated as a one-way communication in which students express their ideas without mutual meaning negotiation with the teacher.

Of course, it is evident that knowing the rules of grammar is considered as one of the features of a competent user of a language but the ability of using it in a correct way is more important. It is important for students to recognize the importance of using their knowledge of grammar and vocabulary in a meaningful way to transfer them from memorized stage to internalized one or from passive stage to the active one. Dialog journals writing (DJW) can be a good solution for this problem. In writing classes, one of the methods used to provide students with collaborative learning is dialog journal writing since it improves students' writing abilities in terms of grammar, content and lexical usage, and confidence in writing ability (Peng, 2007).

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DJW is a written conversation in which students and teachers have mutual communication regularly (daily or weekly) over a semester school year or a course (Peyton, 2000). The topic is random and the teacher doesn't correct students' errors (Taggart & Wilson, 2005). Students can write about issues in which they are interested and seem to be important to them (Peyton, 1993). Teachers can prepare and provide topics about students' real lives and students can also find journal writing friendly and they may talk about their previous problems (Kose, 2005). By providing opportunities for students to think both about how they are learning and also what they are learning (Harmer, 2007), DJW improves their writing skills and helps them to reflect their learning and it can be a good writing practice too.

Moreover, Peyton and Staton (1996) maintain that effective dialog journal is a system with three important components: (a) the written communication itself, (b) the dialogic conversation, and (c) the responsive relationship between a learner and a more competent person in the foreign language. Moreover, according to Barkhuizen, (1995), there are two aims of keeping journals: (a) to give students to reflect their own experiences critically (b) to establish a channel of communication between teachers and students so that they learn more about each other and develop a closer relationship.

Further, DJW has some more advantages, too. Kose (2005) asserts that it provides opportunity to practice authentic language, increases learners' motivation, develops writing and reading fluency, and develops close relationship between a teacher and students. By answering questions and making comments about their students' entry, teachers can get more information about their students and have a wider view of their needs. Then teachers are more able to effectively look for resources that will motivate the students more directly.

Therefore, journal writing makes a new dimension in the relationship between teachers and students because there is enough time and space for sharing ideas. Further, students' attitude toward the second language will change by using DJW in this way. All in all, you can see it helps both teachers and students feel confident (Jones, 1991).

The efficiency of DJW can be classified into two categories for students as well as teachers. In case of teachers, by using journals teachers can learn many things about their students which they were previously unaware of when they read what they write in journals (Harmer, 2007). Since DJW focuses first on meaning as well as on form, teachers can use real topics that seem to be challenging and interesting for students. Teachers can also read students' journals and respond them acting as a writing model for students.

DJW is even more efficient for students. Progoff (1975 as cited in Hiemstra, 2002) stipulates that journal writing enhances growth and learning and it systematically evokes and strengthens inner capacities of students. Through journals, students can improve their fluency and reflect new experiences and emerging knowledge and also think through with another individual's ideas, problems, and important choices (Peyton, 1993). Kreeft (1984) approves this idea arguing that writing journals provides students with a large number of comprehensible texts to read and helps students build fluency in writing. DJW establishes a natural, comfortable bridge to other kinds of writing (Haynes-Mays et al. 2011) and provides opportunities for students to learn grammatical forms and structures by reading teachers' responses and imitating them (Yoshihara, 2008).

It is also to be noted that in writing classes DJW is a method to provide students with collaborative learning. The process enables participants to negotiate and communicate meanings through written messages and provides a way to construct knowledge and share their understanding with others. Thus, it improves students' writing abilities in terms of grammar, content and lexical usage and confidence toward writing. Although many second language learners think learning English writing is an anxiety evoking experience and a negative and anxious activity, teachers can play an important role by using DJW in class to facilitate the process of English writing in a relaxed atmosphere in order to promote

students' English writing. The purpose of learning process is to create meaning and achievement of this goal without grammar knowledge is not possible. In fact, grammar rules are the framework of meaning and have a key role in understanding the text. In addition, there is a strong relationship between the grammar knowledge and language proficiency; also, methods like DJW have an important role in improving learners' grammar knowledge.

Therefore, the purpose of the study was to show how DJW would positively have an effect on learners' grammar knowledge and improve their English writing. In fact, the first purpose of DJW was to increase communication between students and teachers, and the other issue was to investigate learner' grammar knowledge at the next stages.

### 1.1. Literature review

Among the four skills, writing seems to be the most demanding one needing concentration and constant practice. L2 learners have to consider vocabulary, language use, style techniques and sentence formation all at the same time in order to create an essay. Students are personally involved in writing and teachers are just facilitators in this process. On the other hand, grammatical accuracy is one of the essential parts to ensure the writer's intended meaning and to avoid communicative misunderstanding (Larsen-Freeman, 2003). The issue of accuracy is applicable to JW as JW has proven to be effective in stimulating the natural interaction of language use in ESL and EFL students so that they can further linguistic development (Vickers & Ene, 2006). Moreover, writing progress has been principally measured by accuracy although JW emphasizes fluency in writing content and ideas (Bailey, 1983; Marefat, 2002; Brown, 2004; Oshima & Hogue, 2007). It is also to be noted that learners' errors could signify an effective step towards improving grammatical accuracy (Carroll & Swain 1993).

Of course there are differences among teachers in instruction. In teaching grammar, teachers can resort to *focus on form* (FonF) technique as compared to a *focus on formS* (FonFs) one. The difference in these techniques can be seen in how the students see themselves and the language (Ellis, 2001). A FonF technique looks specifically at linguistic elements during communication. Conversely, a FonFs technique looks at specific discrete lexical items within a non-communicative activity (Laufer, 2006). Basically students in a FonFs situation view themselves as the learners of the language and the language as the object of the study, whereas in FonF, a student learns and practices everything in light of the communicative aspect of the language (Ellis, 2001).

Regarding these two techniques, Spada and Lightbown (2008) believe that one is not better than the other and they are not in competition. Rather, the two techniques are seen as complimentary to each other in complete language instruction. Dialog journaling seems to fit well within the realm of this belief, as the isolated, FonFs instruction can be brought about within the integrated, or FonF, communicative interaction. So dialog journals open a new channel of communication and provide a context for language development. Different studies can confirm the effectiveness of this method.

### 1.2. Previous studies on DJW

Morrel (2010) investigated the effectiveness of correcting written language errors of seven deaf and hard of hearing children from 7-11 years old using dialog journals for ten weeks. The study concluded that writing dialog journals motivated them to write and to take risks in expressing themselves through writing. Dialog journals were able to correct errors of students who had higher literacy level and to encourage the development of new language structure.

In another study, Kose (2005) explored the effect of using dialog journals on language anxiety and classroom affect. The study was conducted with one control group and one experimental group in the spring semester. Data were collected through questionnaires and interviews. He concluded that dialog

journal implementation had a positive effect on attitudes towards English courses and it was as a positive way to support students' writing.

Yoshihara (2008) was another researcher who examined the effect of dialog journal writing. He found that dialog journal writing can be one way to build a trust relationship between teacher and student. The finding of the study also showed that Journal writing developed a meaningful relationship between them.

Another study conducted by Voit (2009) examined dialog journal writing in improvements of grammatical morphemes in low-literacy adult English language learners. He analyzed dialog journal entries for a 3-month period. The data showed that there was no clear improvement in grammatical morphemes. The finding displayed that participants' confidence, closer community atmosphere in the classroom, discussing and solving the problems were the benefits of journal writing.

Puengpipattrakul (2009) also worked on the use of dialog journals as a means to develop grammatical accuracy in writing. The data were analyzed through journal entries. This study was helpful for undergraduates in raising their awareness of grammatical accuracy. Additionally, it gave the students more self-confidence in the use of verb tenses and more self-motivation to reflect their own grammatical accuracy.

Further, Datzman (2010) examined the impact of dialog journal writing on writing performance of four fourth-grade English language learners at an elementary school in Northwest Arkansas. The study continued for 12 weeks and students wrote about interesting topics. They showed greater improvement in writing compared to the other learners who did not participate in dialog journal writing. The improvement in writing indicated that DJW is an effective way for improving the writing skill of English language learners.

Moreover, Haynes-Mays, Peltier Glaze & Broussard (2011) conducted a study to investigate the impact of DJW on literacy and language development of African American students. They wanted to implement an EFL technique which allows students to improve their writing. The results of their study showed that students' writing ability improved and students learnt language in non-threatening manner.

In addition, Hemmati and Soltanpour (2012) compared the effects of reflective learning portfolios and DJW on Iranian EFL learners' accuracy in writing performance. Treatment lasted for 14 sessions. Students were assigned into two experimental groups. The findings showed that gains in reflective learning portfolios group's performance were significantly better than dialog journal group.

### *1.3. Research questions*

Given the importance of DJW in language learning and due to scarcity of research studies on the effect of DJW on grammar development, the present study attempted to investigate the effect of DJW on learners' grammar proficiency. For this purpose the study was designed to address the following two research questions:

1. Does dialog journal writing have any effect on Iranian EFL learners' grammar proficiency?
2. Does dialog journal writing enhance Iranian EFL learners' confidence?

## **2. Method**

### *2.1. Research design*

To assess the effects of an instruction intervention in a natural educational setting, a pretest-posttest control group design was used for the present study. This design consists of administering a pretest on a dependent variable (grammar development) to participant of both groups. The independent variable

(dialog journal writing) was then administered to the experimental group. Following the treatment, both groups took a posttest on the dependent variable. The scores from the pre and posttest were then compared in order to determine the learners' responses to the treatment (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). The data showed the differences in students' grammar performance before the treatment in comparison with the one after the treatment as well as an effect produced via the dependent variable.

## 2.2. *Setting and participants*

The present study was designed to determine the effectiveness of using dialog journals on improving Iranian students' grammar proficiency. Sixty eight intermediate level students were selected from two intact homogeneous classes (each 34) at Golestan University, a large state university in Gorgan, Iran during the spring semester in 2013. They were non-English major students ranged in age from 18 to 23. Having studied English as a foreign language for at least seven years, they were taking General English course at the university. The sample was not ethnically diverse and all the participants were Iranians whose first language was Persian. They all voluntarily took part in the study and gave consent for data collection. The classes were randomly selected based on a coin toss, in which one class was the experimental group and the other class the control group to help determine the effectiveness of the journal writing on learners' grammar development.

## 2.3. *Instruments*

### 2.3.1. *The pre- and posttests*

At the beginning and end of the study, students were given an English grammar proficiency test. It was a teacher-made test consisting of 40 multiple-choice items. The test assumed to measure learners' competence with the English language, and tested only explicit grammatical rules of English. The test was examined by three experts for its content validity. Cronbach's alpha was determined to be 0.84. The main objective of the test was to know the English knowledge of the students that participated in the study and to judge improvements made after the dialog journals were implemented.

### 2.3.2. *Questionnaire*

A two part pre- and post-study questionnaire was administered in the study. The first part was the Academic Behavioral Confidence Scale (Sanders and Sanders, 2007), a 24-item questionnaire that refers to the students' beliefs that they can perform competently in a particular learning situation and how students behave in the extent to which they have a strong belief, firm trust, or sure expectation in their ability to respond to the demands of studying at school. The second part included three open-ended questions inquiring on students' experience on DJW and their feelings about improvement in grammar ability and confidence in writing. Cronbach's alpha was determined to be 0.78.

### 2.3.3. *Semi-structured interviews*

To further examine the learners' reactions to the DJW project in the experimental group and to elicit their own evaluations of how their grammar ability had improved, the researchers conducted short semi-structured interviews with 12 participants. As Kajornboon (2005) urges, this type of interview can provide researchers with opportunities to explore interviewees' views and opinions. It was also used to achieve fuller understanding of the results of quantitative analyses concerning the effect of DJW on grammar development. These semi-structured interviews were conducted face to face and individually. The interviews were conducted in Persian, too. The questions included in interviews were as follows: 1. *How do you like DJW? Did DJW improve your grammar knowledge?* 2. *How did DJW contribute to your improvement of grammar?* 3. *Would you like to have DJW included in your syllabus in the future?*

#### 2.4. *Treatment*

An informal meeting was held before starting dialog journal sessions to make them familiar with DJW. The teacher explained about dialog journals and what was expected of students. In dialog journal sessions students were given papers to write their daily journal entries. Students were also encouraged to write about their interests and experiences. This method provided non-threatening environments for students. Every session the learners wrote dialog journals to their teacher. The students selected their own topic, length, and style. The teacher (one of the researchers) read their writings and wrote back in their journals giving some feedback. The learners were told to write about their interests, thoughts, experiences, and feelings freely. The teacher corrected grammatical errors in the journals or commented about their writing. The teacher tried to model correct usage of grammatical errors in his responses. The treatment lasted for 12 sessions. Throughout the study, special attention was paid to the correct use of grammatical morphemes like using ‘s’ as singular third person marker, possessive marker, plural marker and regular and irregular past and perfect tense and subject/verb agreement.

#### 2.5. *Procedure*

The study was conducted for twelve sessions in twelve weeks. At the beginning of the semester, the learners in the two groups were asked to take a pretest in one 35-minute class period before the DJW project. Then the learners in the experimental group were given 20 minutes to answer the pre-study questionnaire on their writing confidence. This research drew from two sources: 1) an informal meeting which was between one of the researchers and students in the experimental group. One of the researchers explained about journal writing and what was expected of students. Students were encouraged to write about their feelings, thoughts, and opinions. 2) The dialog journal writing sessions in which the students wrote journals twice a week. The study was designed to last 12 weeks in which the control group was presented a placebo and did not participate in the Daily Dialog Journal Writing project. After the DJW project, the students in both groups were asked to take a posttest for 35 minutes. Further, 30 minutes were given for the learners in the experimental group to finish the post-study questionnaire. After collecting the students’ journal entries, the researchers interviewed 12 students. Finally, the researchers gathered, computed, and analyzed the scores.

#### 2.6. *Data analysis*

The means of performances of the experimental and the control groups in the pre and posttests were compared to determine whether there was a significance improvement in the test scores. Then an independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the results of two groups and an independent sample t-test was employed to assess whether the scores of the two tests (pre-tests and posttests) in each group (experimental or control) differed significantly or not. In addition, the scores on the five-point scale in both questionnaires were analyzed by a descriptive procedure and a t-test. The open-ended questions in the questionnaire were generalized and analyzed. Follow-up interviews were also recorded, transcribed, categorized, and analyzed by the researchers.

### 3. **Results**

To answer the first research question and to explore the effect of treatment on learners’ grammar development in each group, a paired sample t-test was run. Further, to explore the significant difference between the two groups, experimental and control, on learners’ grammar development, an independent samples t-test was run.

Grounded upon the descriptive statistics of the pretest, it was revealed that both groups had almost the same mean score in the pretest. Thus, both groups were homogeneous. The experimental group gained the mean score of 5.26 and the control group received the mean score of 4.76. The mean scores of both groups showed that there was no significant difference between the groups in the pretest ( $p > 0.05$ ). The data given in Table 1 illustrate the descriptive statistics of the pretests for both groups. The descriptive statistics tabulated shows that both groups performed almost the same on the pretest and there existed no significant difference between the two groups. It should be pointed out that the  $t$ -observed is 0.813.

**Table 1.** Comparison of both groups' performances on pretest

Groups	N	Mean	SD	sig	t
Experimental	34	5.26	2.562	0.419	0.813
Control	34	4.76	2.511		

**Note:** The full score is 40. \*  $p < .05$

As for the descriptive statistics of the posttest, it was revealed that the experimental group using DJW outperformed the control group in grammar development. The descriptive statistics provided in Table 2 shows that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the posttest and actually there existed a significant difference between the two groups in the posttest-pretest total gain scores ( $t=9.312$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Thus, this study showed that using DJW improved the grammar proficiency of the EFL students. It should be pointed out that the  $t$ -observed is 9.312.

**Table 2.** Comparison of both groups' performances on posttest

Groups	N	Mean	SD	sig	t
Experimental	34	23.11	6.645	0.000	9.312
Control	34	11.85	2.363		

**Note:** The full score is 40. \*  $p < .05$

Table 3 shows the effect of the DJW project on the students' writing confidence. The participants' mean score in overall confidence in English writing after the DJW project was higher than that before the DJW project ( $M = 32.45 < 11.87$ ). The finding revealed a significant difference in the students' overall confidence in English writing between the pre-study and the post-study ( $t = 1.312$ ,  $p = 0.00$ ). Hence, it can be assumed that the students' confidence for English writing in the experimental group increased after the DJW project.

**Table 3:** Comparison of the students' confidence on English writing before and after DJW

Groups	N	Mean	SD	sig	t
Experimental	34	11.78	4.87	0.000	1.312
Control	34	32.45	3.63		

Regarding learners' reflections on their improvement in writing and grammar abilities which were obtained via semi-structured interviews, they reported they could write more organized and fluently developing and expressing their ideas clearly in English, too. Some claimed their improvement and development in critical thinking. Some other learners noted that through DJW, they could acquire grammar ability.

Overall, the findings of the present study showed that there was a significant difference between the two groups in learners' grammar development and the DJW intervention enhanced participants' confidence in writing.

#### 4. Discussion

The study was aimed to determine whether DJW would positively affect writing accuracy of specific grammatical morphemes and also to investigate its role in enhancing learners' confidence. The findings of the present study indicated that dialog journal writing is an effective method in the development of grammar of the pre-intermediate EFL learners. They obviously were more able to apply correct agreements of nouns and verbs and also use grammatical morphemes accurately. In addition, the learners indicated more confidence in making sentences and in comparison to the first sessions of the course, they felt less nervous in presenting their writings.

The finding of the present article is in line with that of other researchers like Kose (2005) who concluded that dialog journal implementation had a positive effect on attitudes towards English courses and it was as a positive way to support student writing which was approved by this article, too. This study was also in congruent with the one conducted by Yoshihara (2008) who found that dialog journal writing can build a trust relationship between teacher and student and this was observed during this course and it was more obvious by comparing students-teacher relationship in the control and experimental groups. Voit (2009) found no clear improvement in grammatical morphemes among low-literacy adult learners but asserted participants' confidence, closer community atmosphere in the classroom as the benefits of journal writing. The result of this study is in compliance with other studies such as Puengpipattrakul (2009), Datzman (2010), Haynes-Mays, Peltier-Glaze & Broussard (2011) who found that DJW raised undergraduates' awareness of grammatical accuracy and gave them more self-confidence in using verb tenses and increasing more self-motivation to reflect their own grammatical accuracy. They also concluded that greater improvement occurred in writing of learners who participated in dialog journal writing compared to others who did not. Further, students' writing ability improved and students' learnt language in non-threatening manner.

#### 5. Conclusions and pedagogical implications

As mentioned above, in Iran the focus of public education is on teaching linguistic forms and grammar rules to students and communicative aspects of language are rarely taken into consideration. In this EFL context Iranian learners still have problems with verb tense accuracy and also applying agreements correctly to make correct English sentences in tests and in writing. Therefore, using DJW seems to be a good opportunity for students to practice their memorized knowledge and make it active and also to create a more relaxed context of learning.

On the other hand, writing instructors can use this method as an effective one to improve students' accuracy as well as fluency. Of course, teachers should be careful to different proficiency and maturity levels of learners who come from different age and social backgrounds in presenting new grammatical points and correcting them.

This study investigated the effect of dialog journal writing on Iranian EFL students' grammatical proficiency. The major findings of the present study can be summarized as follows: the dialog journal writing promoted the students' grammatical proficiency especially in correct usage of grammatical morphemes like using 's' as singular third person marker, possessive marker, plural marker and regular and irregular past and perfect tense and subject/verb agreement. Significant differences were found in the students' writing performance in terms of using correct grammatical morphemes between the pre- and posttest. On the other hand, when participating in the pre-test, the learners had a lot of mistakes in choosing the correct option but they could present a better representation in the posttest after 12 weeks. Second, the dialog journal project improved the students' confidence in producing sentences fluently. The overall result of this study revealed that the students' writing ability improved. By the positive feedback that received from the participants and the information drawn from the questionnaire given to

the learners in the experimental group, it can be concluded that the students held positive attitudes toward the dialog journal writing project.

Overall, the findings of the present study support the benefits of dialog journaling. The research done to date also strongly shows the benefits as well. On the basis of the students' perspective, the finding showed a belief that the writing was easier, freer, and that they developed a better written fluency. Additionally, it was found that as a teacher, the more initiative left to the student, the better the results. Finally, in the case of the improved use of grammatical morphemes, it was clearly shown that an improvement was seen over time. That is DJW lead to correct use of grammatical morphemes like using 's' as singular third person marker, possessive marker, plural marker and regular and irregular past and perfect tense and subject/verb agreement

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## Diyalog Günlüğü Yazmanın İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenen Öğrencilerin Dil Bilgisi Üzerindeki Etkisi

### Öz

Öğretmenlerin öğrencilerini bağımsız olmaya teşvik etmek amacıyla kullandıkları yöntemlerden biri de onları günlük yazmaya teşvik etmektir. Öğrenciler ilgi alanlarıyla ilgili yazdıkça yazma becerileri gelişecektir. Bu çalışma diyalog günlüğü tutmanın öğrencilerin gramer bilgisi ve kendilerine güven duygusu üzerindeki etkisini araştırmak amacıyla yürütülmüştür. Çalışmada İran, Golestan Üniversitesi'nden iki doğal sınıf rastgele seçilerek deney ve kontrol grubu olarak belirlenmiştir. Katılımcılar, yaşları 18 ile 23 arasında değişen ve bahar döneminde 12 haftadan oluşan Genel İngilizce derslerine düzenli olarak katılım gösteren 68 öğrenciden oluşmaktadır. Kontrol grubu olağan öğretime tabi tutulurken, deney grubu, dönem sonunda toplamda 12 adet günlük kaydına ulaşacak şekilde, her hafta günlük yazmakla ödevlendirilmiştir. Katılımcıların uygulamadan önce ve sonraki gramer becerilerini ölçmek amacıyla ön test ve son test kullanılmıştır. Çalışmanın sonuçları, diyalog günlüğü yazmanın öğrencilerin gramer bilgisi ve yazma konusunda kendilerine güven duymalarında manidar bir olumlu etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca çalışmanın sonunda deney grubundaki öğrencilerin büyük çoğunluğu gramer bilgilerinin geliştirmek için diyalog günlüğü yazmayı tercih etmişlerdir.

*Anahtar sözcükler:* Diyalog günlüğü yazma; dilbilgisi; kendine güven; İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrenciler

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## The status of /r/ in the pronunciation of Turkish PhD candidates and its rehabilitation by computer and audacity programs

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### Abstract

Today, there are two major standard varieties in English pronunciation in the world: British English (BrE, also called Received Pronunciation (RP) and North American English (NAE). British English is the hub of all the varieties of English dialects. One cannot consider NAE a separate language. Within British English and American English there are also a great variety of accents due the lingua franca effect of English. The Received Pronunciation (RP) and General American (GA) have received more attention than others from phoneticians and phonologists. In GA, which is a rhotic accent – /r/ phoneme, can occur in positions where many of the vowels can be r-colored by way of realization of a following /r/. American-r is a retroflex consonant and in the International Phonetic Alphabet, it is indicated with a hook in the bottom right, such as [ɹ]. The retroflex approximant [ɹ], which is an allophone of the alveolar approximant [ɹ], are heard in many dialects of American English, particularly in the Midwestern United States. One of the biggest differences between the British and the American accents is that Americans always pronounce the /r/ phoneme word-initially, word-medially and word-finally. In this paper, general situation of /r/ phoneme and special existence of retroflex-r of NAE will be explored in the pronunciation of 45 PhD candidates, who took an oral exam at Hacettepe University, Faculty of Education in the Department of English Language Education on July, 11th, 2012. In this research, the existence of /r/ phoneme will be investigated by using the Error Hunt Approach and a diagnostic test in listening comprehension, and a 50-minute lesson plan will be presented as a remedial rehabilitation refinement by Audio-articulation Model by computer and Audacity Program (1.2.6.)

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*Keywords:* Error hunt approach; retroflex-r; Audio-articulation Model; fossilization

## 1. Introduction

American and British English have two quite different articulation for /r/ phoneme. When speaking with the General American (GA), Americans use a rhotic r, which means they articulate it in all parts of the word, while the tongue tip is curved up towards roof of the fronto-palatal region of the mouth, including when it occurs after a vowel sound. GA means any educated American speech /r/ establishes a general category with /l/ phoneme, the two of which is called liquids. GA accent pronounces the r phoneme wherever it is written. So, there are perceptible differences between the two. The /r/ is very commonly existing phoneme in forms of liquid or approximant in many languages of the world. It was discovered that the North American English-r at word-initial, word-medial, and word-final occurrences has been a problematic pronunciation issue for 27 Turkish English teachers with BA degree in English Language Education, whose rate of misarticulation of retroflex NAE-r was 100% (Demirezen, 2011:896). There are several reasons of this ambiguous articulation of NAE-r by Turkish English teachers. The Turkish teachers can never approximate to the bunched-r and retroflex-r position of NAE r-phoneme because no comparable r-sound exists in the phonemic inventory of Turkish with these forms of articulations.

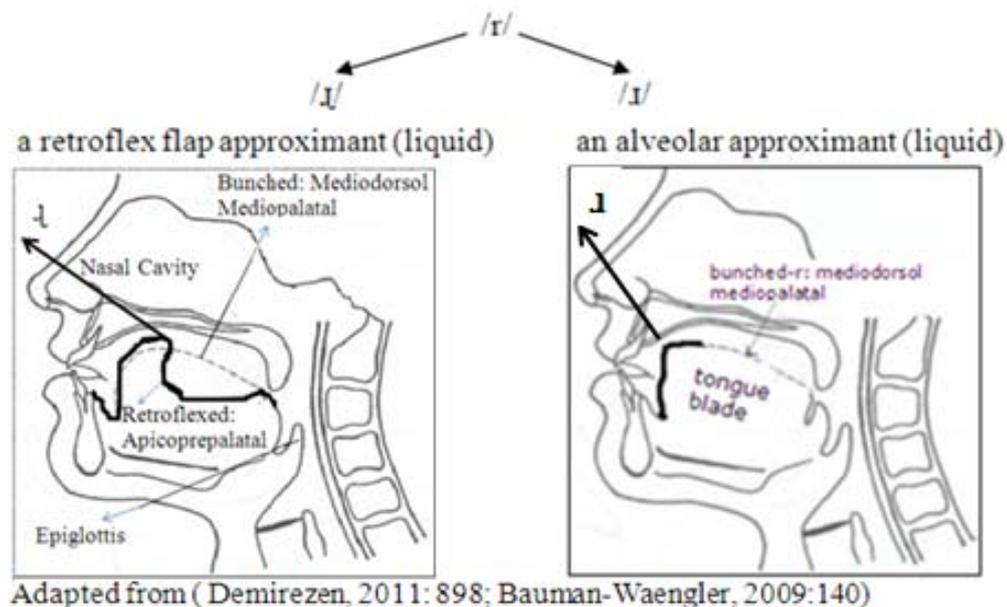
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## 2. Phonemic structure of /r/ phoneme

As a term, GA describes a general catch-all category for any American speech variety. A great majority of GA speakers use rhotic-r, but they show wide variability in articulatory congruence of the rhotic-r phoneme. Since /ɹ/ is a tricky phoneme, the IPA-system recognizes at least eight kinds of /r/, each of which are articulatorily different from each other. In the structure of English, the /r/ phoneme very frequently takes place in form of different variants, like a consonant, semi-vowel, approximant, glide, or retroflex (Demirezen, 2011: 897). Since /r/ phoneme requires the simultaneous activation of the muscles in and around the apex during speech, it happens to be a difficult phoneme to articulate. In fact, /r/ is also difficult sound to be acquired in infantile speech for Americans (Shriberg, 1993; Sander, 1972) and Turkish infantile speech as well. It is notoriously difficult for American children to learn to produce (McGowan et al., 2003). Sander (1972) reported that the median age for acquisition of /r/ for American children was 3 years, and it was not until age 6 years that 90% of children produced /r/ correctly.

## 3. Two basic types of the /r/ phoneme in North American English

There are two types of /r/ which are articulated in NAE. In NAE or GA, The first type of /r/ phoneme is a voiced retroflex flap approximant (a semivowel, a liquid), and the second type is a voiced alveolar approximant (semivowel, a bunched liquid). The following figures indicate this difference as articulatory descriptions, which was also handled by Demirezen (2012, pp. 397-400).



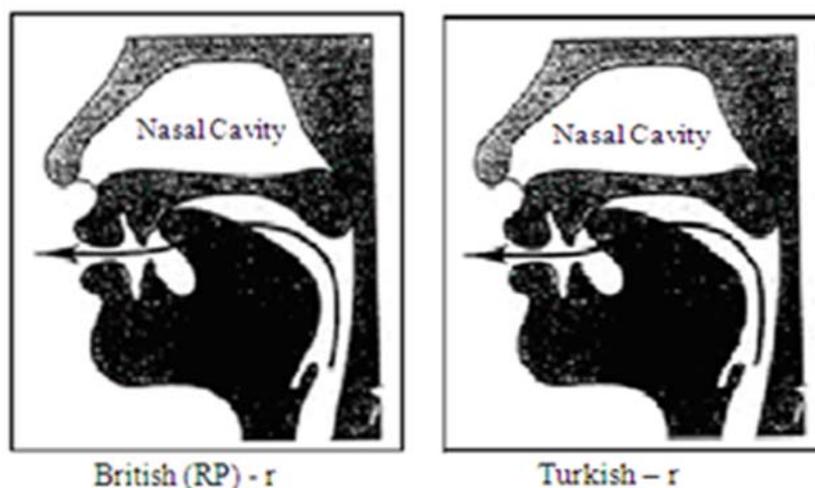
**Figure 1.** The /r/ phoneme in North American English

The airstream mechanism is pulmonic, which means that the /ɹ/ is made by pushing air solely with the lungs and diaphragm into the oral cavity via trachea. In the production of a retroflex approximant, there is a narrow passage, without being palatalized, between the apex and postalveolar (or apicoprepalatal) region of the vocal tract. While the airstream passes through, there is not enough opening to produce a turbulent airstream. The place of articulation is retroflex, which means that with the tip of the tongue curled up towards the roof of the mouth because of which the produced sound is called a central consonant, which means it is produced by directing the airstream along the center of the tongue and the roof of the mouth, rather than to the sides.

In the bunched form the tongue is laminal (flat). The place of articulation is alveolar which means it is articulated with either the tip or the blade of the tongue at the alveolar ridge, which are termed respectively apical and laminal. The apex touches the alveolar ridge without any curling up. Just like in its retroflex variant, the air passage is narrowed in the vocal tract at the place of articulation without the creation of a turbulent airstream, as seen in the second part of the above picture. Magnetic resonance images of vocal tract configurations during /ɹ/ production show that speakers of American English employ a wide range of articulatory strategies and shape their tongue differently to produce /ɹ/ (Espy-Wilson, 2004, pp. 62-63). Officially speaking, in most of the books and articles [ɹ] takes place.

#### 4. British-r (Received Pronunciation, RP)

British-r has long used as a model for teaching English to foreign learners. RP is non-rhotic; that is, the phoneme /r/, is only articulated in RP when it is immediately followed by a vowel sound. It's status of pronunciation word-initially and word medially is not noticed very much, but its word-final articulation is noticed and audibly heard as a benchmark.



**Figure 2.** British English –r (Adapted from Kelly, 2000, p. 51)

There are very different names of the places of articulation given to retroflex flap-r. The voiced mediadorsal-mediopalatal rhotic approximant (bunched) or voice apico-prepalatal rhotic approximant (retroflexed) is indicated officially as [ɹ], not /ɹ/. Due to its difficult pronunciation, the retroflex-r as a flap is one of the most commonly misarticulated sounds, the curve of the apex up makes it more complex for Turks. Mother tongue intervention is a point on which all would agree that a learner's first language poses the biggest obstacle for learning the pronunciation of another language. The non-existence of retroflex-r in Turkish, the difficulty of curling up the tip of the tongue towards fronto-palatal region without creating any sign of palatalization is another difficulty. Apparently, this could explain why the retroflex-r approximant is one of the last sounds that could be mastered by Turkish PhD students.

The reasons for the poor development of English pronunciation skills by the Turkish lie not only in the Turkish language but also in the ways English is taught. Needless to say, pronunciation skill certainly falls within the parameters of communicative competence. If it is not acquired, it harms to develop a communicative competence in spoken English.

## 5. Methodology

This article explored the articulation of NAE /ɹ/ phoneme, which is a retroflex approximant in the articulation of 45 Turkish PhD degree participants. This research is based on the exploration of the following research questions:

1. In which environments do Turkish PhD degree candidates have a failure in the articulation of NAE retroflex /ɹ/ phoneme?
2. If they have, what must be the causes?
3. Do they need a rehabilitation of the retroflex /ɹ/ phoneme?

### 5.1. Participants

45 PhD candidates who come from 35 different state and private universities of Turkey took the oral exam. 10 of the participant were males and 35 of them were female. 30 of the applicants held an MA degree from the English Language Education Departments while 5 had an MA on English linguistics; 3 of them had an MA on English Translation Division; 7 of them held an MA degree on English Language and Literature while 5 of them held an MA on American Language and literature. The age range of the participants varied from 22 to 35. Of five candidates, 3 were males and two were females, had already finished an MA program in USA. Seven of them are recently graduated and are not teaching at the moment.

They altogether took the PhD oral exam in July 11, 2012 in the same day at Hacettepe University, Faculty of Education at the Department of English language Education. Each candidate was asked questions within 10 minutes by the jurors on English linguistics, foreign language education, language acquisition, bilingualism and multilingualism. Each of the participants is recorded within the boundaries of Error Hunt Approach by filling a diagnostic test. The participants had no idea that they were being scored by one of the jury members.

### 5.2. Materials

A diagnostic listening test was utilized in this research, which depended on the suggestions made by Baker (1993, p. 134) and is further modified by the author of this article. The diagnostic test and the suggested symbols for the capture of the fossilized vowel errors by (Baker 1993) are as follows:

- ^ = no difficulty with this sound
- XX = extreme difficulty with this sound
- X = difficulty
- X^ = minor difficulty

This model is modified by the researcher of this article by adding word-initial, word-medial, and word-final sections to the diagnostic test. The modified version of this diagnostic is shaped as follows:

- N=45 = Explored phoneme: /ɹ/ Initially Medially Finally
- ^ = no difficulty with this sound
- XX = extreme difficulty with this sound: /ɹ/ XX XX XX
- X = difficulty
- X^ = minor difficulty

For each candidate this diagnostic test was kept, and the shape it took was as follows:

- N=45 = Explored phoneme: /ɹ/ Initially Medially Finally
- ^ = no difficulty with this sound
- XX = extreme difficulty with this sound: /ɹ/ XX XX XX
- X = difficulty
- X^ = minor difficulty

When each record kept for the participants was put together, the totality of the data results boil down to:

- N=45 = Explored phoneme: /ɹ/ Initially Medially Finally
- ^ = no difficulty with this sound
- 40 = extreme difficulty with this sound: /ɹ/ XX XX XX
- X = difficulty
- X^ = minor difficulty

### 5.3. Data Collection and analysis

As it is already expressed, the Error Hunt Approach was utilized in this research in conjunction with a diagnostic test. The data was collected by the researcher by listening in to the answers given by the participants, who had no idea that they were being recorded; by this way the rate of exam anxiety they had was kept as it is. The researcher specified the existence of the North American retroflex /ɹ/ phoneme at the beginning, middle, and at end of the words in the articulations of the participants.

## 6. Results and discussion

In terms of data analysis in accordance with the recorded diagnostic test, the following findings are encountered:

### 6.1. RQ #1: In which environments do Turkish PhD degree candidates have a failure in the articulation of NAE retroflex /ɹ/ phoneme?

In spite of this fact, the analysis indicates that 40 participants (88.8%) have a serious mispronunciation of NAE retroflex /ɹ/ in word-initial, word-medial, and word-final environments.

By nature, NAE /ɹ/ is a retroflex flap phoneme, but 40 of the participants articulated it as an alveolar tap [ɾ], which is a Turkish form of /r/ form in speech: mother tongue interference is apparent. Only 5 of the 45 participants systematically and automatically articulated the /ɹ/ flap phoneme in the correct form most probably due to the fact that they held an MA degree from USA universities.

So, the first research question came out to be true. Such a rate like 88.8 % is a seriously high fault of pronunciation for PhD students because this rate demonstrates that they have a grave pronunciation defect, which probably will further be worsened by the addition of other fossilized pronunciation of vowels and consonants in a medium of fossilized multiarticulations. Then, the first research question was truly presupposed.

### 6.2. RQ #2: *If they have, what must be the causes?*

Familiarity with the problem-causing phoneme is the first cause to be explored. Since 30 of the applicants held an MA degree from the English Language Education Departments, they most probably took up two courses in Listening and Comprehension I and Listening and Comprehension II in the first year of their four-year education program. They may have studied on the production and perception of the retroflex flap /ɹ/, which requires a great mastery of tongue curving back up to the roof of the fronto-palatal region of the mouth, and other varieties of it. The other 15 applicants coming from the divisions of English and American literature, and Translation Division presumably had not studied on the perception and production of this phoneme. The matter of the fact is that the PhD students were still unable to internalize the perception and production of NAE retroflex /ɹ/ phoneme in three environments.

### 6.3. RQ #3: *Do the participants need a rehabilitation of the retroflex /ɹ/ phoneme in their pronunciation?*

Apparently, the third research question demonstrates that the participants must go through a remedial pronunciation correction treatment because foreign language teaching is a professional job, which requires at least the near native-like approximation of articulations in which they failed by a negative rate of 88.8 %. Such a high rate is unacceptable, and therefore they definitely need. For the rehabilitation process the Audio-articulation Model proposed by Demirezen (2010a) can be put into practice by a 50-minute lesson plan that comes to the stage in the forthcoming section.

## 7. Conclusion

As a result, pronunciation is still a great problem for learners of English regardless of their levels. Even PhD candidates have great predicaments in the articulation of some sounds like retroflex /ɹ/. Such a situation has been clear after an observation made during a PhD interview. So, it is a significant reality based on errors made by students.

Firstly, 88.8% of the PhD candidates have serious problems in the pronunciation of retroflex /ɹ/. This is a very great percentage, and its cause must be revealed. It seems that the reason of this unwanted situation is lack of background information and education in terms of articulation and speaking. It can also be stated that the reason of this reality dates back to the first years of the students' university lives.

However, cure is not far away. Rehabilitation can be provided by the help of Audio Articulation Model. Such a model provides exercises of many kinds to learners, by the help of which learners are expected to reach to better desired levels of pronunciation. Appendix A provides an example of Audio Articulation Model which is used by the writer of this article. In this model, the students hear and practice all of the exercises from the voice of the native-

speakers and near native speakers, whose speech and related practices in the texts are downloaded by the Audacity program and text to speech labs, like <http://text-to-speech.imtranslator.net/>, [http://www.oddcast.com/home/demos/tts/tts\\_example.php](http://www.oddcast.com/home/demos/tts/tts_example.php), <http://www.acapela-group.com/text-to-speech-interactive-demo.html>, <http://www.ivona.com/en/>, and <http://www2.research.att.com/~ttsweb/tts/demo.php>.

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- <http://www.ivona.com/en/>
- <http://www2.research.att.com/~ttsweb/tts/demo.php>

## Appendix A. An Application

Prepared PowerPoint presentation with the all exercises is given to the students in a memory stick.  
*A Remedial Lesson Plan for the rehabilitation of retroflex /ɹ/ phoneme of English:*

### 1. Motivation- warm up

The teacher of pronunciation coach enters and greets the students.

**Teacher:** Hello students! How are you all today?

**Students:** Hello, sir! We are fine, how about you?

**T:** Thank you all, I am well. What did you do at the week end? The conversation goes on like this for a couple of minutes.

### 2. Review the previous subject:

**T:** Students, which English phoneme did we study in our previous lesson?

**Stds:** We worked on the articulation of /n/ phoneme in English.

**T:** Can you give me some words on it?

**Stds:** nine, nun, can, man, nanny, and the like.

**T.:** Very good, correct!

### 3. Present today's topic

T.:

Dear students, today we will study the **voiced retroflex approximant of NAE**, whose photic sign designed by IPA is /ɹ/. The words representing this phoneme are seen in the corpus.

### 4. Prepare a corpus:

#### CORPUS

barbarian /bɑːrɪjən/	competitor /kəmˈpɛtədɔːr/
barbarous /ˈbɑːrbəɹəs/	extracurricular /ˌɛkstɪˈkʊləˌrɪkjələ/
border /ˈbɔːrdɪr/	refrigerator /ˌrɪˈfrɪdʒəˌreɪdɔːr/
carburetor /ˈkɑːrbəˌreɪdɔːr/	referendum /ˌrɛfəˈrɛndəm/
career /kəˈrɪə/	rector /ˈrɛktɔːr/
carrier /ˈkæɹiə/	reformer /rɪˈfɔːmə/
corner /ˈkɔːrnɪ/	registrar /ˌrɛdʒəˌstɹɪr/
farmer /ˈfɑːmə/	recovery /rɪˈkʌvəɹi/
rancher /ˈræntʃɪ/	controller /kənˈtrɔːlə/
rather /ˈræðɪ/	razor /ˈreɪzɪ/
recorder /rɪˈkɔːdɪ/	scarecrow /ˈskɛrkrou/
reciprocal /rɪˈsɪpɪkəl/	warrior /ˈwɔːrɪə/
reconsider /ˌrɪkənˈsɪdɪ/	worker /ˈwɔːkɪ/

This corpus is studied by computer applications: all of these vocabulary items are downloaded by audacity (1.2.6) program and text to speech labs. This way approximation is created to native-like speech. Students repeat and recite them.

### Tongue Twisters

As a principle of **Audio-articulation** pronunciation remediation model, problem-causing phoneme or sound occurs at least once in form-focus norms. There are double and triple occurrences of it for concentrated occurrences.

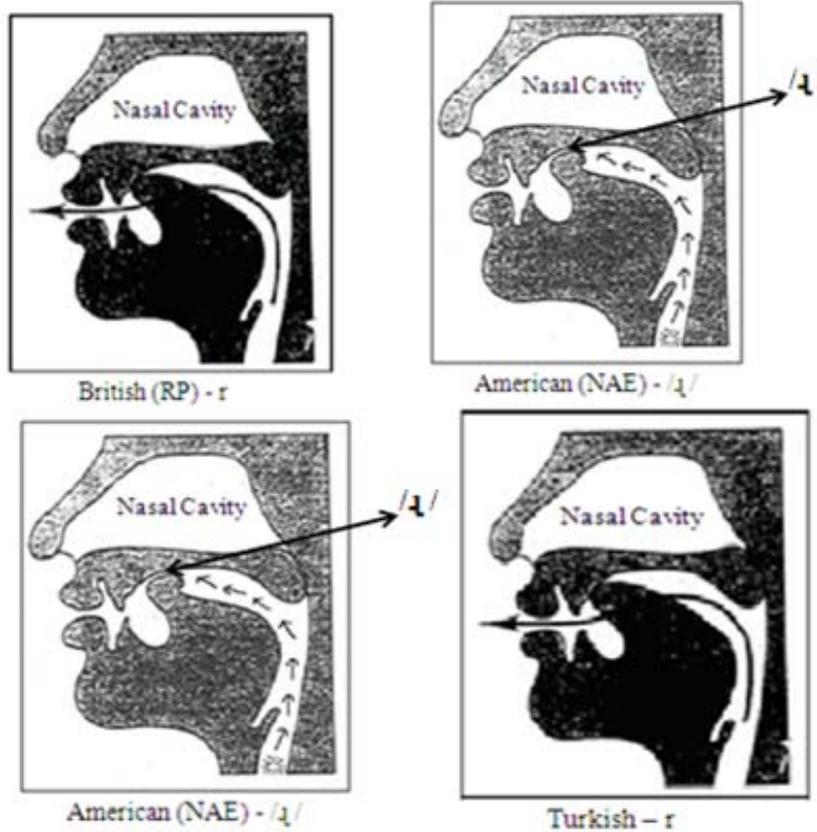
- |   |   |
|---|---|
| (1)<br>The order<br>The order of my partner<br>The order of my partner near the river<br>The order of my partner for the rumor near the river | (2)<br>Teardrops<br>Teardrops of a referee<br>Teardrops of a referee in a rainstorm<br>Teardrops of a referee in a storm at the corner    |
| (3)<br>A teacher<br>A regular teacher<br>A regular teacher and a preacher<br>A former regular teacher and a preacher                          | (4)<br>A researcher<br>A researcher and reporter<br>A retired researcher and reporter<br>A retired researcher and reporter in recovery    |
| (5)<br>The farmer<br>The former farmer<br>The former farmer at the corner<br>The former farmer at the corner of the border                    | (6)<br>An error<br>An error in a career<br>An error in a registrar's career<br>An error in a registrar's recorded career                  |
| (7)<br>A rector<br>A reformer rector<br>A reformer rector as a researcher<br>A reformer rector in a rumor as a researcher                     | (8)<br>A partner<br>A partner as a reporter<br>A partner as a former reporter<br>A partner as a former reporter in an error               |
| (9)<br>A porter<br>A barbarous porter<br>A barbarous porter as a reformer<br>A barbarous porter as a regular reformer                         | (10)<br>The remark<br>The remark of a reviewer<br>The remark of a reviewer as a researcher<br>The remark of a reviewer as rare researcher |

### 5. Give the rule:

In the production of NAE retroflex approximant flap-r, middle and the back of the tongue (dorsum) is in a flat position while the apex (tip of the tongue) is curled up towards the front part of the hard palate in a touching position. Neither little friction or palatalization can be heard in the oral cavity nor is there a momentary closure of the vocal tract during the articulation process. The distinctive point here is that apex approaches the upper gum while it is curled up towards the roof of the mouth: this type of sound production is called as retroflexion. In the IPA, retroflex consonants are indicated with a hook in the bottom right as seen in this figure: /ɻ/. The following figures are adapted from Kelly (2008).

**Definition:** /ɻ/ is a voiced retroflex flap approximant (liquid) in NAE and is officially indicated by its alveolar form whose symbol is /ɻ/. Turkish phd students and Turks, in general, use the alveolar form of /ɻ/, due to its articulation difficulties caused by their mother tongue. Turkish learners of NAE do not perceive that a great mastery of tongue muscles is required in order to reach the correct target for /ɻ/. It is articulated by curling your tongue towards the back of the mouth fully. Then, it is actually the tip of the tongue doing the "job", not the dorsum of the tongue. The British alveolar

voiced tap approximant, on the other hand, is pronounced with the tip of the tongue approaching the alveolar or postalveolar region.



The points, places and manner of articulations in the above-mentioned pictures are explained in detail to the students. At this point, a short movie clip is presented to the students from the voice of a native speaker.

#### 6. Continue with harder exercises:

##### Fill in the following words:

**Paragraph 1** (In audio-form, downloaded from internet by Audacity (1.2.6) program and text to speech labs.

Warrior	barbarian	murderer	farmers	riders	after
terrorize	competitor	razor-sharp	teardrop	performing	barbaric

##### Instruction:

1. Listen to the production and articulation of the /ɹ/ phoneme in the following passage.
2. Memorize this passage and recite in in front of a mirror.

Once upon a time, there was a **warrior** who was a real **barbarian**. He would do strange **barbaric** actions. In fact, he was a real **murderer**, who loved to kill rulers, **farmers**, workers, ranchers, and **riders**. In addition, he would love to **terrorize** his **competitors** with his **razor-sharp** sword. He was so ruthless that there would be no **teardrops** in his eyes **after** performing these killings.

**Paragraph 2** (In audio-form, downloaded from internet by Audacity (1.2.6) program and text to speech labs)

**Instruction:**

1. Listen to the production and articulation of the / ɹ / phoneme in the following passage.
2. Memorize this passage and recite in front of a mirror.
3. Try to track movement of your tongue (a bunched or retroflex form?) in a mirror. How far back do you curl the tongue to the hard palate?
4. Which type of-r are you systematically and automatically using?

Apart from being the scientific ruler, a rector is the establisher of careers at a university. He has to consider and reconsider the future of his faculty members who are pursuing scientific careers. As a scientific ruler, he is supposed to be the reviewer, recorder, reporter, performer, supporter, coordinator, moderator, and controller of all reforms in the curricular and extracurricular programs of his university. Also, he must be real supporter of teachers, instructors, lecturers, researchers.

**7. Make a summary**

First, the teacher takes the questions from the students. Then, s/he makes a summary and takes the students' attention to the pronunciation difficulties in NAE. The impact of mother tongue intervention is explained. A new video clip is shown to the students to summarize the retroflex nature of NAE. Finally, s/he gives the PowerPoint to the students so that they can study on their own in their free times.

**8. Give homework to the students.**

1. Each student will find out three words in which / ɹ / phoneme takes place three or four times.
2. Each student will write down 3 tongue twisters and download them from internet by Audacity (1.2.6) program and text to speech labs).
3. Each student will write a paragraph (250 words) in each word of which / ɹ / phoneme will take place three times. It must be downloaded from internet by Audacity (1.2.6) program and text to speech labs.

## Türk doktora adaylarında /r/'nin durumu ve Audacity bilgisayar programı ile iyileştirilmesi

### Öz

Günümüzde İngilizce telaffuzunda dünyada iki temel standart çeşit vardır: İngiliz İngilizcesi ve Kuzey Amerika İngilizcesi. İngiliz İngilizcesi, İngiliz lehçelerinin bütün türlerinin merkezindedir. Kimse Amerikan İngilizcesini ayrı bir dil olarak düşünemez. İngilizcenin ortak iletişim dili olma etkisinden dolayı, İngiliz ve Amerikan İngilizcesinin içinde pek çok aksan çeşidi vardır. İngiliz İngilizcesi (RP) ve Amerikan İngilizcesi (GA) sesbilimciler ve sesbilim uzmanları tarafından daha fazla dikkat çekmiştir. r- birimsesli aksan olan GA'da, pek çok ünlü onları takip eden /r/ sesinin fark edilmesiyle r-etkin olabilen pozisyonlarda olabilir. Amerikan-r geriye dönük tür ve Uluslararası Fonetik Alfabesinde şekilde görüldüğü gibi tam altında bir çengelle belirtilir: [ɹ]. Dişyuvasal approximant /ɹ/ nin sesbirimsel değişkeni olan geriye dönük approximant /ɹ/, Amerikan İngilizcesinin birçok lehçesinde özellikle Orta Batı Amerika'da duyulur. İngiliz ve Amerikan aksanları arasındaki en büyük farklılıklardan biri Amerikalıların /r/ birimsesini kelime başında, kelime ortasında ve kelime sonunda her zaman telaffuz etmeleridir. Bu çalışmada, /r/ birimsesinin genel durumu ve Kuzey Amerikan İngilizcesindeki geriye dönük-r nin özel varlığı, Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda yapılan sözlü sınava katılan doktora adaylarının telaffuzlarında keşfedilecektir. Bu araştırmada, Hata Yakalama Yaklaşımı ve Dinleme-Algılama sınavı kullanılarak /r/ birimsesinin varlığı araştırılacak ve 50 dakikalık bir ders planı bilgisayar ve Audacity Programı yardımıyla Duy-Seslet Modeli kullanılarak onarımsal iyileştirme sunulacaktır

*Anahtar sözcükler:* Hata yakalama yaklaşımı; geriye dönük-r; duy-seslet modeli; kemikleşmiş hata

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## Washback effects of high-stakes language tests of Turkey (KPDS and ÜDS) on productive and receptive skills of academic personnel

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### Abstract

Washback, the impact of tests on education in general and language testing in particular, has become a popular area of study within educational research. This paper focuses on the washback effects of two high-stakes Foreign Language Tests (KPDS and ÜDS) of Turkey. The main concern of the study is to investigate the impact of these tests on receptive and productive language skills of academicians. 103 academic personnel working at Nevşehir University attended the study. A 26-item questionnaire was designed and administered to 103 academic personnel working at Nevşehir University. The data were analyzed using statistical analysis including descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation) and inferential statistics that use ANOVA to find whether there are significant differences between productive and receptive skills of the participants. It has been found out that there are significant differences between reading and writing; reading and listening, but reading and speaking provided insignificant results.

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**Keywords:** High-Stake Tests; KPDS; ÜDS; YDS; Washback effect

## 1. Introduction

Tests, particularly high-stakes tests, aim to induce consequences for the test-takers, teachers, administrators, parents, and the policy makers. Scholars from different countries such as China (Qi, 2004), Hong Kong (Cheng, 2005), Korea (Choi, 2008), Japan (Watanabe, 2004b), and Taiwan (Chen, 2002) claim that these tests directly or indirectly affect educational policy of the national or international institutions to determine course designs and classroom practices. Shohamy (2001a, 2001b); Wall (1997); also support the power of tests on wider society such as policy makers or school administrators who try to use them to manipulate or implement educational policies.

Definitely, “testing is never a neutral process and always has consequences” (Stobart, 2003, p. 140). Negative or positive, strong or weak, the influence of tests on learning has been termed as ‘washback’ or ‘backwash’ (Biggs, 1995). The term is used as a synonym for ‘impact’, ‘effect’ or ‘consequence’ in educational context, particularly in the field of language assessment and applied linguistics. Washback studies in language testing include high-stakes tests of some countries such as, Sri Lanka (Wall & Alderson, 1993), Hong Kong (Andrews, 1995; Cheng, 1997, 1998, 1999; Andrews et al., 2002) and Israel (Shohamy et al., 1996) where English is used as a foreign or second language.

Turkey as a foreign language setting has a lot of national and international language assessment exams which candidates need to go through for different purposes. Apart from international exams such

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as TOEFL or IELTS the names of some national language tests held in Turkey are: State Personnel Language Examination, (Kamu Personeli Dil Sınavı; hereafter KPDS), Inter-University Foreign Language Examination (Üniversiteler Arası Dil Sınavı; hereafter ÜDS), and University Entrance Examination (Yükseköğretime Giriş Sınavı; hereafter YGS). They are high-stakes language tests administered by OSYM in Turkey. However, the name of KPDS and ÜDS has changed in April 2013. These two exams are combined and have been replaced by YDS (Foreign Language Examination).

Though KPDS and ÜDS are the most favored national high-stakes language tests in Turkey, there is only limited research in the literature about their outcomes particularly in terms of learning. Actually, not only in Turkish context but also throughout the whole world the washback researches generally focus on the effects of tests on teaching (Pan and Newfields; 2012) rather than learning. However, researchers such as Cheng (2008); Spratt (2005); Wall (2000) and Watanabe (2004) have emphasized the need to explore the influence of tests on learners, since they are directly affected by them (Pan and Newfields, 2012). Therefore, this study aims to explore the washback effects of KPDS and ÜDS on language development of the learners. More specifically, the study focuses on the impact of these high-stakes tests on receptive and productive language skills of academic personnel studying at Nevşehir University, Turkey.

### *1.1. Literature review*

#### *1.1.1. The notion of washback and washback studies*

The notion of washback or backwash can be defined as the impact of a test on teaching and learning (Biggs, 1995, 1996, in Cheng, 2003). Alderson and Wall (1993) framed the term “washback” to “classroom behaviors of teachers and learners rather than the nature of printed and other pedagogic material” (p. 118). Messick (1996) and Hughes (2003) on the other hand, assert that whether positive or negative there is a direct relationship between the teaching process and the design and use of the examination. According to Frederiksen (1984) and Hughes (2003), if a test is poorly designed, the outcomes are possibly negative; adversely a well-prepared test can have positive impacts on teaching and learning process.

Many scholars conclude that washback seems to be associated primarily with high-stakes tests, which are mainly employed for making important decisions on wider fields of a society such as education and economy (Hughes, 2003; Li, 1990; Shohamy, 1993; Pearson, 1988; Luxia, 2005). The growing importance of high-stakes test, which are widely used both national and international context of education, makes the washback studies a popular research area.

A great number of researchers have investigated the effects of washback on learning/teaching second/foreign language so far. The most widely investigated topics regarding the impact of high-stakes tests are the stakeholders of the education process such as textbooks (Saville and Hawkey, 2004), teachers (including teaching assistants), (Cheng, 2005; Ferman, 2004; Saif, 2006; Wall, 2006), learners and learning (Andrews, Fullilove, and Wong, 2002; Watanabe, 2001), attitudes toward testing (Cheng, 2005; Jin, 2000), and test preparation behaviors (Lumley and Stoneman, 2000).

While some of these studies have focused on the impact of world-wide-known high-stakes test like TOEFL, TOEIC, and IELTS (Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Newsfields, 2005; Reynolds, 2010), the others (Cheng, 1997; Hsu, 2009; Manjarres, 2005; Wall, 2005; Watanabe, 1996) have investigated nationwide exams. For instance, Alderson and Hamp-Lyons’ (1996) study can be considered as a pioneer work in the area of washback effect. They investigated the washback effect of Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) preparation courses. They found that the TOEFL test has an impact on what and how teachers teach. However, the degree of this effect changes from teacher to teacher.

Additionally, their study has revealed that the difference between TOEFL versus non-TOEFL teaching is not clear since it is difficult to explain why the teacher taught in that way.

In another study, Rahimi and Nazhand (2010) focus on the washback effect of one of the most taken English exams in the world, IELTS. They have conducted a study on the washback effect of IELTS preparation courses to learn students' perceptions of speaking instructions. The students express what they think about the speaking instructions through questionnaires. In general, the IELTS exam has a negative washback effect on the development of speaking skill during the course periods as IELTS restricts the speaking skill due to the format of the exam. Another example of a washback study about national high-stakes exams has conducted by Li (1990). He has investigated the effects of the Matriculation English Test in China through a questionnaire and asserted positive effects for the test. Later in 1993, Shohamy has studied the effects of three language tests: The Arabic Test, the English Oral Test, and the Reading Comprehension Test. The study has revealed that all the three tests have some impact on teaching and learning practices. Wall (2005) has conducted a study by examining the effects of a national high-stakes test "English as a Foreign Language" on the education system of Sri Lanka. She reported that both the factors of the exam itself and the characteristics of the educational setting have an influence on the intended outcomes of the examination on the teachers and the learners. Finally, Muñoz and Álvarez (2010) have searched the washback effect of an oral assessment system (OAS) on some areas of EFL teaching and learning. Positive washback effect has been observed on the teachers' teaching and assessment practices and on students' oral production.

However, there are only a few national studies conducted in Turkey. Hughes (2003) for instance, has investigated the effects of an English proficiency test at Bogazici University in Istanbul. He has found out that the test achieved its main goal of motivating students to work harder on their English proficiency. Later in 2007, Sevimli has studied washback effects of foreign language component of the university entrance examination on the teaching and learning context of language groups in secondary education. She states that productive skills of speaking and writing and receptive skill of listening are totally neglected and not tested. She thought that this might have been the washback effect on the teaching and learning of the students and curriculum. Like Sevimli (2007), Karabulut in 2007 has studied on university entrance test. She has examined how foreign language component of the university entrance examination influences teachers and students in senior three classrooms (the last grade of high school) in Turkey. In her study she has also focused on the attitudes of different stakeholders and senior three English teaching in general towards the test. The most important result of her study is the students' and teachers' focusing more on the (grammar, reading, vocabulary) which is tested in the exam and ignoring the ones that are not tested (listening, speaking, writing).

Finally, Özmen (2011) has conducted a research on washback effects of inter-university foreign language examination (ÜDS) on candidate academics. Washback effects of ÜDS are investigated in a qualitative study. It is clearly seen that ÜDS has a negative washback effect on the test-takers. The results also reveal that the exam has both a micro level effect which can be defined as the effect on an individual or a small group of individuals, and a macro effect on a relatively populated group of individuals studying or working at university contexts.

#### *1.1.2. State Personnel Language Examination (KPDS) and Inter-University Foreign Language Examination (ÜDS)*

Of all the aforementioned national foreign language high-stakes exams, KPDS and ÜDS are the most preferred ones in Turkey. Most common use of these two examinations for academic personnel can be divided into four categories; first of which is; using the scores of these exams to attend a PhD program. Universities in Turkey require students to get at least 55 points to be admitted as a PhD candidate. In other words, students have to get at least 55 points from a high stake language test accepted by YÖK in

order to be a PhD student in Turkish state universities. Secondly, these exams are used as a prerequisite for the academic promotion. Assistant professors in Turkey are supposed to get at least 65 points to be promoted, which is one of the several requirements of being promoted to associate professorship. Although there is no minimum limit, the higher scores the candidates have from these exams, the more chance they will have for admission. Thirdly, when applying to a master's degree program, applicants are also asked to provide their scores of these exams. Finally, the personnel who work for the government should attend to KPDS to get some amount of increment in their salaries depending on their proficiency level.

The content and format of both KPDS and ÜDS are almost similar but there are still a few differences between them. There are 80 questions both in KPDS and ÜDS. The allotted time for both of the exams is 180 minutes. KPDS consists of one type of exam whereas ÜDS is divided into three majors: Social Sciences, Life Sciences and Health Sciences. The first 40 questions of ÜDS are the same regardless of the major. KPDS and ÜDS share eight main headings under which the types of questions fit: Vocabulary, grammar, sentence completion, reading comprehension, translation, dialogue, paragraph completion and irrelevant sentence. However, there are two parts which only exist in KPDS, which are situational response and paraphrasing the sentences.

### *1.2. Research questions*

The study addressed the following research questions:

1. What is the washback effect of KPDS and ÜDS on receptive skills (listening and reading) of the Turkish academic personnel?
2. What is the washback effect of KPDS and ÜDS on productive skills (writing and speaking) of the Turkish academic personnel?
3. Are there any significant differences between the development of participants' productive and receptive skills regarding the washback effect of KPDS and ÜDS?
4. What is the relationship between development of participants' productive and receptive skills regarding the washback effect of KPDS and ÜDS?

## **2. Method**

### *2.1. Setting and participants*

The study was conducted at Nevsehir University, which is one of the public universities in Turkey. Nevsehir University was founded in 2007. It has six faculties: Faculty of Education, Faculty of Science and Letters, Faculty of Fine Arts, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Faculty of Engineering and Architecture, Faculty of Tourism. The University also has a College of Health and three vocational schools. As of May 2013, it had 493 academic and 228 administrative staff.

#### *2.1.1. Demographic characteristics of the participants*

There were 51 male and 52 female participants who took part in the study. The average age for the participants was around 35.

As it is presented in Table 1, 26.2% of the participants consisted of assistant professors who have not got 65 or more points from KPDS or ÜDS or an equivalent exam accepted by YÖK. 47.6% of the participants were instructors which might imply that they do not plan an academic career. In Turkey, research assistants and assistant professors are expected to get promoted to a higher academic degree but university instructors do not necessarily plan an academic career.

**Table1.** Participants' field of study and title

		Field			
		Social Sciences	Science	Health	Total
Title	Assistant Prof.	18	5	4	27
	Research Assistant	21	3	3	27
	Instructor	27	15	7	49
	Total	66	23	14	103

As for the academic field of study, there were 66 academicians in the field of social sciences. The number of the participants in the field of health and science were 38 which is almost half of personnel in social sciences. The current study focuses on the academic personnel particularly who have not passed KPDS or ÜDS yet. Out of 115 academic personnel who have not acquired 65 points or above, 103 academic staff were included in the study. 12 academic personnel could not be included since they either did not volunteer to participate in the study or were out of town.

## 2.2. Instrument

In most of the washback studies, the methods used are based on surveys, interviews, testing measures, classroom observations or a combination of these (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt, Ferman, 1996 and Watanabe, 1996). The survey comprised of 5-point Likert-scale items (1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=no idea; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree). The survey examines i) which skills participants focus on ii) how they study while getting prepared for KPDS and ÜDS and, iii) their attitudes towards the influence of KPDS and ÜDS on their language development (see Appendix). All questionnaires were delivered in Turkish in order to prevent any misunderstandings of the survey items.

Chi-square test was used to determine the reliability of the survey questions. It is a “nonparametric statistical test of hypotheses for variables” (Joseph & Joseph, 1986 and Healey, 2005, p.544). The chi-square values were  $\text{sig} < 0.05$  indicating adequate reliability for each of the dimension of the survey.

The face validity of the survey instrument was ascertained by presenting the questionnaire to four experts studying in the Foreign Language Education department. The experts made some observations and modifications on the survey items.

## 2.3. Data collection

A survey research design was used to investigate the answer to the question of ‘What are the washback effects of high stake exams (KPDS and ÜDS) on receptive and productive skills of Turkish academic personnel?’ As it was thought that e-mailing the questionnaires to the academic staff would result in a low amount of feedback, the questionnaires were delivered in person by the researcher. To save time and energy, all of the academic personnel were called through their university telephone lines. To those personnel whom the researcher could reach through telephone, information about the study was given and they were requested to take part in the study if they have less than 65 from KPDS, ÜDS or an equivalent exam accepted by YÖK. When they had accepted to join the study, the researcher visited them in their office to hand out the questionnaires. Each questionnaire took approximately 5 minutes to fill in.

## 2.4. Data analysis

Descriptive statistics including frequency, percentage, means and standard deviations were used to find an answer for the first research objective: “What is the washback effect of KPDS and ÜDS on language skills?” The second objective, whether any difference exists between productive and receptive skills of the participants, was analyzed utilizing one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Additionally, correlation analysis was used to determine the relationship between the productive and receptive skills. All statistical analysis was performed using SPSS software (SPSS Version 19).

## 3. Results

### 3.1. R.Q.1. What is the washback effect of KPDS and ÜDS on receptive skills of the Turkish academic personnel?

#### 3.1.1. Washback on reading

To evaluate the impact of KPDS and ÜDS on reading participants were asked if they had studied to improve their reading skill while getting prepared for KPDS and ÜDS. 85.4% (the mean score is 3.7184) of the participants stated that they had studied to improve their reading skills since it was tested in KPDS and ÜDS. On the other hand, only 3.9% of the participants disagreed that they had studied to improve their reading skills. The high rate (85.4%) of agree implies that KPDS and ÜDS have strong positive washback effect on reading.

#### 3.1.2. Washback on listening

Participants were asked whether they had studied to improve their listening skills although it was not tested in KPDS and ÜDS. 77.7% (the mean score is 2.3010) of the participants did not study for listening skills on account of the fact that it was not tested in KPDS and ÜDS.

As for proving the negative washback effect of KPDS and ÜDS on listening skills, the academicians were also asked whether they would study to develop their listening skill if it was tested. 83.5% of the participants stated that they would study to develop their listening skills if KPDS and ÜDS had a part that tested listening. Only 5.8% of the participants stated that even if KPDS and ÜDS tested listening skills, they would still not study to develop this skill.

### 3.2. R.Q.2. What is the washback effect of KPDS and ÜDS on productive skills (speaking and writing) of the Turkish academic personnel?

#### 3.2.1. Washback on speaking

Academicians were asked whether they had tried to improve their listening skill or not although it was not tested in KPDS and ÜDS. 77.6% (the mean score is 2.1068) of the participants did not do anything to develop their speaking skills just because KPDS and ÜDS did not check how well they spoke. 77.6% of the participants’ not studying to develop their speaking skills as it was not tested implies that KPDS and ÜDS have a strong negative effect on learners’ speaking skills.

So as to clarify the negative washback effect of the tests on their speaking skills participants were also asked whether they would study to improve their speaking ability if it was tested. 85.5% of the participants stated that they would study to develop speaking skills if KPDS and ÜDS had a part testing it, which can be interpreted as the negative washback effect of these tests on oral skills.

### 3.2.2. Washback on writing

In the survey item related to writing skills, participants were asked if they had studied to improve their writing ability although it was not tested in KPDS and ÜDS. 78.7% (the mean score is 2.3592) of the participants stated that they did not study to develop their writing skills since it was not tested in KPDS and ÜDS. 78.7% of the participants' not studying to develop their writing skills as it was not tested implies that KPDS and ÜDS have a strong negative effect on learners' writing skills.

The next survey item about writing skill questions whether the participants would study to improve their writing skills if it was tested in KPDS and ÜDS. The strong negative impact of KPDS and ÜDS on writing skills confirms the findings of the previous survey item. 86.4% of the participants stated that they would study to develop their writing skills if KPDS and ÜDS had a part which test this skill.

### 3.3. R.Q.3. Are there any significant differences between the development of participants' productive and receptive skills regarding the washback effect of KPDS and ÜDS?

The ANOVA test as shown in Table 2 indicates that the differences in mean scores of reading between listening ( $p < 0.001$ ) and writing ( $p < 0.009$ ) are statistically significant. On the other hand, the mean scores of reading and speaking provides insignificant results at 0.114 significance level.

**Table 2.** Analysis of one-way ANOVA for significant differences between reading and other skills

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
listening	Between Groups	18.805	4	4.701	4.961	.001
	Within Groups	92.865	98	.948		
	Total	111.670	102			
speaking	Between Groups	6.214	4	1.553	1.912	.114
	Within Groups	79.612	98	.812		
	Total	85.825	102			
writing	Between Groups	19.236	4	4.809	3.612	.009
	Within Groups	130.473	98	1.331		
	Total	149.709	102			

The ANOVA Test results (as it is seen in Table 3) also indicates significant differences between the mean scores of listening and reading, between listening and speaking ( $p < 0.000$ ) and between listening and writing ( $p < 0.001$ ).

**Table 3.** Analysis of one-way ANOVA for significant differences between listening and other skills

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
reading	Between Groups	41.108	4	10.277	9.014	.000
	Within Groups	111.727	98	1.140		
	Total	152.835	102			
speaking	Between Groups	43.860	4	10.965	25.607	.000
	Within Groups	41.965	98	.428		
	Total	85.825	102			
writing	Between Groups	52.786	4	13.196	13.343	.001
	Within Groups	96.923	98	.989		
	Total	149.709	102			

3.4. R.Q.4. What is the relation between development of participants' productive and receptive skills regarding the washback effect of KPDS and ÜDS?

The correlation analysis of the data indicates a positive relationship between reading and listening (.404\*\*) and a positive but low correlation between reading and speaking (.263\*\*). As it is shown in table 4, there is a positive correlation between reading and writing.

**Table 4.** Analysis of Correlations

	reading	listening	speaking	writing
reading	1			
listening	.404**	1		
speaking	.263**	.681**	1	
writing	.353**	.525**	.512**	1

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4 indicates that there is a high and positive correlation between listening and speaking (.681\*\*) and a positive relationship exists between listening and writing (.525\*\*). There is also a positive relationship between speaking and writing ( $r=.512^{**}$ ).

#### 4. Discussion

The aim of this study is to investigate the washback effect of two high-stakes language tests (KPDS and ÜDS) in Turkey on the receptive and productive skills of the Turkish academic personnel. The results of the survey analysis both descriptively and statistically reveal that the most positively affected skill by these language tests is reading skill. This is an indication of the negative washback effect of KPDS and ÜDS particularly on the productive skills of speaking and writing and the receptive skill of listening. The findings of the study are in line with Sevimli (2007) who has studied washback effects of foreign language component of the university entrance examination. There is also similarity with the findings of Karabulut (2007) who found that students and teachers focus more on the grammar, reading and vocabulary which are tested in YGS and ignore the ones that are not tested (listening, speaking, writing). Rahimi and Nazhand's (2010) findings about the washback effect of IELTS preparation courses are also parallel to the results of the current study. They asserted that IELTS exam has a negative washback effect on the development of speaking skill since the format of the IELTS restricts the speaking skill.

This result induces the students to work more at developing their receptive skills than their productive ones with the overflow of multiple-choice questions (Weiping and Juan, 2005). When the structure of these exams is taken into consideration, it is quite necessary for the participants to try to develop their reading skills as 75% of the exam requires individuals to have a highly developed reading skill. If people learn a language with the aim of passing an exam at the end of the learning process, they usually tend to study the subjects or improve the skills that they will be tested. For example; if an English test does not involve listening skills, most of the attendees will not have a tendency to improve that specific skill. This outcome is in line with Wall and Alderson (1993) who assert that a test will influence what students study. Most of the academic personnel who take KPDS and ÜDS as an academic requirement of YÖK will mostly focus on passing the exam. As a result, they will not spend any effort to improve the skills such as listening, speaking and writing that are not included in these tests. This result matches with that

of Ferman (2004) who explains how washback is observed through an increased focus on skills included on the test, resulting in “an increase in time allotted for the development of these skills” (p. 204).

The negative washback effect of KPDS and ÜDS on writing skills of the participants is rather surprising since the academicians are also expected to publish in international journals to promote in their academic career which means they should develop their writing ability. However, the results indicate that the participants are not motivated even by this situation and most of them do nothing to improve their writing ability. This can be due to the effect of the tests on test takers which is also supported by Shohamy (1992) and Shohamy et al. (1996) who emphasize that a measurement-driven system leads to cramming for the test and concentrates attention on the skills that are tested.

Finally, the results of the current study reveal significant differences between the development of productive and receptive skills of the participants. They do not focus on the skills which are not tested in the exams. These findings are in line with the findings of Smith (1991), and Shepard (1997) that the test itself determines what people will study and test like activities are all consequences of external testing.

## 5. Conclusions

In conclusion, KPDS and ÜDS have positive washback effect only on reading skills of the Turkish academics while these tests have negative on writing, listening and speaking skills. In other words, productive skills of speaking and writing and receptive skill of listening are totally neglected by the participants of these tests since these skills are not tested. Alderson and Wall (1993) and Watanabe (1996) also suggest that tests will have washback effects for some learners, but not for others. When the structure and content of these exams are taken into consideration, the reason why the participants do not do any kinds of listening, writing, speaking activities for getting prepared these exams could be easily understood. Participants are highly interested in developing their reading skills since these exams require individuals to have highly developed reading skills and knowledge of grammar to get a high score.

However, language tests are expected to integrate all the four skills for assessing test takers' language performance. Particularly for speaking skills, Poonpon (2010) found out that speaking tests are necessary for learners, so this should be included in tests. Furthermore, this is also supported by the finding of Andrews, Fullilove and Wong (2002), who suggested that adding an oral test would have some influence on the students' spoken performances. It is the same for all other receptive and productive skills. That is, they should take part in a language test if it is expected to assess a more valid construct of what it really means to know a language. Supporting this, Frederiksen (1984) claims that if tests fail to assess the abilities that are desired to be fostered, they may cause test bias against teaching crucial skills that are not tested.

A language test should definitely be multi-faceted. As KPDS and ÜDS test only grammar and reading comprehension skill rather than writing, speaking and listening skills, we can say that they are not multi-faceted tests. In this case, though the primary purpose of these exams is to push the learners to learn a language with all its dimensions, a complete language learning process is hardly managed due to the structure and content of these exams.

Consequently, the test designers in Turkey should design and use alternative language assessment tests which include all the dimensions of language performance considering the fact that academicians have to compete with their counterparts in the international arena. It should well-motivate the test takers and consider the other elements of the language education context such as teaching practices, learners' needs, curricular objectives, materials and so forth instead of just focusing on academic promotion.

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## Appendix A.

### Questionnaire

1. **Age:** 22-31 ( ) 32-41 ( ) 42-51 ( ) 52 + ( )
2. **Gender:** Male ( ) Female ( )
3. **Title:**  
Assistant Professor ( ) Research Assistant ( ) Lecturer ( )
4. **Field of Study:**  
Social Sciences ( ) Science ( ) Health ( )
5. **How long have you been studying for KPDS and ÜDS?**  
0-1Year ( ) 2-4 Years ( ) 5-7 Years ( ) 8 or more ( )

<b>B- Please read the following items carefully and cross (x) the one that suits you best.</b>					
	<b>Definitely disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>No Idea</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Definitely agree</b>
1- I do reading activities such as reading a novel, an article, a magazine in order to get a valid point from KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2- I do listening activities in order to get a valid point from KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3- I do speaking activities in order to get a valid point from KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

4- I do writing activities in order to get a valid point from KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5- Going abroad for language education is necessary in order to get a valid point from KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6- Extra help such as attending a private English course is needed in order to get a valid point from KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7- Test strategies and tactics need to be learned in order to get a valid point from KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8- Too many preparation tests should be solved in order to get a valid point from KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9- KPDS and ÜDS increase my willingness of learning English.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10- KPDS and ÜDS decrease my willingness of learning English.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11- I feel stressed and pressurized due to KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12- I feel more anxious because I have to pass KPDS or ÜDS to get a academic promotion.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13- Feeling that I will not be able to get a valid point from KPDS or ÜDS negatively affects my studies and my attitude towards English.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
14- I study to improve my grammar knowledge since it is tested in KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
15- I study to improve my vocabulary knowledge since it is tested in KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
16- I study to improve my reading comprehension since it is tested in KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
17- I do not study to improve my pronunciation since it is not tested in KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
18- I would study to improve my pronunciation if it was tested in KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
19- I do not study to improve my speaking since it is not tested in KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
20- I would study to improve my speaking if it was tested in KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
21- I do not study to improve my listening since it is not tested in KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
22- I would study to improve my listening if it was tested in KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
23- I do not study to improve my writing since it is not tested in KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
24- I would study to improve my writing if it was tested in KPDS and ÜDS.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
25- KPDS and ÜDS influence my English in a positive way.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
26- KPDS and ÜDS influence my English in a negative way.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

## Türkiye’de düzenlenen iki önemli dil sınavının (KPDS ve ÜDS) akademik personelin algısal ve üretken dil becerileri üzerine geriye dönük etkisi

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### Öz

Testlerin, genel olarak eğitim özel olarak da dil eğitimi üzerindeki etkisi anlamına gelen geriye dönük etki çalışmaları, günümüzde eğitim alanında oldukça popülerdir. Bu çalışma, Türkiye’de düzenlenen iki önemli sınav olan KPDS ve ÜDS üzerine odaklanmıştır. Çalışmanın temel amacı, bu testlerin akademisyenlerin üretken ve algısal becerileri üzerindeki etkisini araştırmaktır. Araştırmaya Nevşehir Üniversitesinde çalışan 103 akademik personel katılmıştır. 26 ögeli bir anket tasarlanıp 103 akademik personele uygulanmıştır. Veriler betimsel (frekans, yüzdeler, medyan, standart sapma) ve istatistiksel olarak üretken ve algısal beceriler arasında anlamlı fark olup olmadığını bulmak için ANOVA kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Sonuç olarak, okuma ve yazma; okuma ve dinleme arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı fark bulunmuş fakat okuma ve konuşma arasında anlamlı fark bulunmamıştır. *Anahtar sözcükler:* Önemli Sınavlar; KPDS; ÜDS; geriye dönük etki

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## Türkçede renk adlarıyla özel ad yapımı

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### Öz

Türkçe renk adları açısından çok zengin bir dildir. Ancak bu zenginliğe rağmen renk adlarının dil bilimsel işlevselliği ve özel ad vermedeki yeri üzerine çalışmalar oldukça yeni ve yetersizdir. Bu çalışma, renk adlarının ad bilimindeki yeri ve Türkçe özel ad vermedeki işlevini ortaya koymaya çalışmaktadır. Bu çalışmada ilk önce harita ve sözlük gibi temel kaynaklardan özel adlar taranmış, daha sonra bu özel adlarda kullanılan renk adlarının sıklık ve içerik analizi yapılmıştır. Türkçe özel ad vermede, toplam 17 farklı renk adının kullanıldığı görülmüştür. Dilin çevrim alanında daha uzun süredir var olan, kara, ak, gök ve sarı gibi kadim renk adları daha fazla tercih edilmiştir. Bu renk adları, daha eski tarihlerden bu yana kullanılmageldiklerinden daha geniş bir kavram alanına sahiptir. Farklı özel ad türlerinde bazı renk adları, kavram alanlarındaki anlamlara göre daha çok tercih edilebilmektedir. Kişi adları, kadim renk adlarının yanında daha yeni renk adlarının da tercih edildiği dinamik bir alan olarak gözlemlenmiştir. Bu çalışma sonuç olarak Türkçe renk adlarının çok zenginliğini ve özel ad vermede dil bilimsel olarak işlevselliğini ortaya koymuştur.

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*Anahtar sözcükler:* renk adları; özel adlar; ad bilimi

## 1. Giriş

Dillere yeni sözcük eklemenin çeşitli yolları vardır. Türkçe ile biçim ve dizim açısından benzerlik gösteren dillerde türetme ve sözcükleri birleştirme; bu yollardan en yaygın olanıdır. Renk adları; bu amaçla türetme ve sözcük birleştirmede sıklıkla kullanılmaktadır. Türetme ve birleştirmede renk adlarının kullanımı, Türkçe konuşurlarının da sıklıkla kullandıkları unsurlardandır.

Renk adlarının zenginliğine ve Türkçe söz varlığına katkılarına dair çalışmalar oldukça yenidir. Nevruz ve Renkler Sempozyumu'nda (2001), Türkçe renk adlarıyla ilgili bir dizi bildiri sunulmuş ve bunlar basılmışsa da çalışmaların dil bilimsel değil de daha çok antropolojik bakış açısına sahip olduğu görülmektedir. Türkçedeki renk adlarını dil bilimsel bakış açısıyla ele alan bir çalışma Kaymaz (2000) tarafından yapılmıştır. Kaymaz, renk adlarını Orhon Yazıtlarından başlayarak biçim ve kavram göstergelerine göre sınıflamıştır. Bununla birlikte, çalışma, renk adlarının sözlüksel kapsamlarıyla sınırlandırılmıştır.

Renk adlarının dil bilimsel değerleriyle ilgili bir dizi çalışma da Bayraktar (2003-2010) tarafından yapılmıştır. Bu çalışmalar, Berlin ve Kay (1969, ss. 2-3) tarafından gerçekleştirilen bütün diller için renk terimleri sınıflandırması temel alınarak hazırlanmıştır. Berlin ve Kay, çalışmalarını Saphir ve Whorf'un "bütün dillerde renk terimlerinin temel benzerlikleri vardır" ilkesine dayandırmışlardır. Berlin ve Kay'in renk terimleri hipotezinde başlıca şu renk adları temel alınmıştır: beyaz, siyah, kırmızı, yeşil, sarı, mavi, kahverengi, mor, pembe, portakal rengi ve gri. Bu renkler, çeşitli niteliklere

\* Bu makale, "Renk Adlarının Türkçede Özel Ad Yapımında Kullanımı" adlı bildirinin gözden geçirilmiş biçimidir.  
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sahip birçok dilde incelenmiş ve tüm dillerin içerdikleri renk adlarına göre 7 ayrı tipe ayrıldığı tespit edilmiştir. Bu gruplar şöyledir:

1. Bütün dillerde mutlaka beyaz ve siyah renk adları bulunmaktadır.
2. Bir dil 3 renk adı içeriyorsa, ilk gruptaki renkler ve ek olarak kırmızı renk adı vardır.
3. Bir dil 4 renk adı içeriyorsa, ikinci gruptakiler ve ek olarak yeşil veya sarı (ikisi birden değil) renk adı vardır.
4. Bir dil 5 renk adı içeriyorsa, üçüncü gruptakiler ve ek olarak yeşil ve sarı (ikisi birden) renk adı vardır.
5. Bir dil 6 renk adı içeriyorsa, dördüncü gruptakiler ve ek olarak mavi renk adı vardır.
6. Bir dil 7 renk adı içeriyorsa, beşinci gruptakiler ve ek olarak kahverengi renk adı vardır.
7. Bir dil 8 renk adı içeriyorsa, altıncı gruptakiler ve ek olarak mor, pembe, portakal rengi veya gri renk adlarından biri ya da bunların birleşiminden oluşmuş bir renk adı vardır.

Bu tiplerde dillerin gelişimi, renklerin çoğalmasıyla paralellik göstermektedir. Başka bir deyişle, diller geliştikçe renkler ayrılmaya ve çoğalmaya başlamaktadır. Köktürklerden bu yana renklerin pek çoğunun takip edildiği düşünüldüğünde Türkçenin, *kara, ak, al, sarıg* ve *kök* renklerini barındıran Köktürkçe döneminde -hiç değilse- dördüncü tipte olduğu anlaşılmaktadır. Karahanlı Türkçesine ait eserlerdeki renklere bakıldığında renk çeşitliliğinin altıncı hatta yedinci tipe ulaştığı görülmektedir. Bu da bir yandan Türkçenin kadimliğini, öte yandan da tarih boyunca izlediği gelişim çizgisini göstermektedir.

Türkçede renk adlarının özel bir yeri vardır. Renkler pek çok dilden farklı olarak, kendi alt tonlarına ayrılırken doğal yaşamdan faydalanarak en temel özellikleri olan soyutluğu kaybederek somutlaşırlar. Örneğin vişneçürüğü, gülkurusu, vapurdumanı, güvercinboynu, yavruağzı gibi renk adları; doğadan gelen belirgin ayırt edici özellikler yardımıyla somutluk kazanmıştır. renklerin en temel özelliği olan soyutluk kaybolmuştur.

Türkçede renk adlarının dikkat çekici bir özelliği de sözcük türetmede sıklıkla kullanılmalarıdır. Hayvan, bitki, eşya, hastalık, yemek, oyun gibi günlük yaşamda sıklıkla rastlanan birleşik adların yapımında renklerden yoğun bir şekilde faydalanılır. Renkler sözcük türetmenin yanında özel adların yapımında da kullanılır. Bu özel adlar; ad biliminin (onomastique) dalları olan kişi adları (antrophonomy); dağ ve yükselti adları (horonymy); deniz, göl ve su adları (hidronymy) ile şehir ve yerleşim yeri adları (toponymy) alanlarının tümünde görülür.

Giriş kısmının ilk bölümünde de belirtildiği üzere renklerin ad yapımındaki yeri ve önemi ile ilgili çalışmalar oldukça yenidir. Özellikle özel ad yapımında renk adlarının kullanımına dair detaylı ve sistematik bir çalışma bulunmamaktadır. Böylesi bir çalışma, Türkçede özel ad yapımında renk adlarının potansiyeline dair önemli ipuçları sunabilir.

## 2. Çalışma

Bu çalışmada renk adlarının ad biliminin bu dört alanında kullanımı üzerinde durulacak, renk adlarının özel adlar oluşturmada kullanım sıklığı ve bunun önemi açıklanmaya çalışılacaktır.

## 3. Yöntem

Bu çalışma bir kaynak taraması ve renk adlarının semantik analizi üzerine kurulmuştur. Burada, kaynakçada da görüleceği gibi çeşitli sözlük ve atlaslardan renk adlarını içeren özel adlarla ilgili bir tarama yapılmıştır. Değerlendirme sırasında ise renk adları; özel adlarda ilk ya da ikinci sözcük olarak yer alması veya yapım ya da çekim eki almış biçimde olması durumunda da çalışmanın kapsamına dahil edilmiştir. Bunun yanında renk adının Türkçenin tarihî dönemlerine ait biçimleri (saru gibi) ve

ses değişimine uğramış biçimleri (ağ, göğ gibi) de çalışmaya dahil edilmiştir. İncelenen renk adının ad biliminin alt dallarından herhangi birinde saptanamaması durumunda ek bir açıklama yapılmamıştır. Ayrıca ad biliminin alt dallarından hareketle yapılacak bir sınıflandırma daha karmaşık olabilir düşüncesiyle renk adlarından hareketle sınıflandırma yapılmıştır. Yer adları incelenirken parantez içindeki K köyü, B beldeyi, İ ilçeyi, A adayı, Bur. burnu, parantezsiz kullanımlar il merkezlerini; kişi adları incelenirken K adın kız adı olduğunu, E erkek adı olduğunu, K/E hem kız hem de erkek adı olarak kullanıldığını göstermektedir.

#### 4. Bulgular

Yapılan tarama sonucunda özel ad yapımında 17 farklı renk adının kullanıldığı tespit edilmiştir. Bunlar alfabetik sıra ile *ak, al, ala, beyaz, boz, çakır, gök, kara, kır, kırmızı, kızıl, mavi, mor, pembe, sarı, siyah, yeşil* renk adlarıdır. Tablo 1'de tespit edilen renk adlarının özel ad yapımındaki kullanım sıklığını sunmaktadır.

**Tablo 1.** Renk adları içeren özel adların toplam değerleri

Ak	Al	Ala	Beyaz	Boz	Çakır	Gök	Kara	Kır	Kırmızı	Kızıl	Mavi	Mor	Pembe	Sarı	Siyah	Yeşil
516	40	101	10	134	57	234	547	58	4	158	4	12	7	217	1	78
TOPLAM:									2178							

Tablo 1'de yer alan verilere göre renk adlarıyla oluşturulmuş toplam 2178 özel ad saptanmıştır. Özel ad oluşturmada en sık kullanılan renk adları *kara, ak, gök* ve *sarı*dır. Onları *sırasıyla kızıl, boz, ala, yeşil, kır, çakır, al, mor, beyaz, pembe, kırmızı, mavi* ve *siyah* izlemektedir. Bu bölümde öncelikle renk adlarının taramasından elde edilen bulgular betimlenecektir. Bulgular renk adlarının kullanım sıklığına göre sunulmaktadır. Bu renk adları ad biliminin kapsamına giren yer, dağ, su ve kişi adları açısından değerlendirilecektir. Sonraki bölümde de renk adlarının ad yapımındaki yeri ile genel bir değerlendirme yapılacaktır.

#### Kara

Kara renk adını içeren 436'sı yer adı, 11'i dağ adı, 16'sı su adı, 84'ü kişi adı olmak üzere toplam 547 özel ad saptanmıştır

#### Kara renk adıyla yer adları

Kara renk adını içeren ikisi il, 17'si ilçe, 33'ü belde, 381'i köy, biri ada, ikisi burun olmak üzere toplam 436 yer adı saptanmıştır.

Afyon Karahisar(İl)	Karaaba (K)	Eynekaraca (K)	Karaamca (K)	Karabaş(K)	Ağzıkaraağaç(K)
Balkaraağaçören(K)	Karaağıl(B)	Karaabalar (K)	Karaardıç (K)	Karabağ(K)	Ağzıkarahan (K)
Başkaraağaçören(K)	Karaağıl(K)	Karaabalı (K)	Karaarkaç (K)	Karabahçe(K)	Dağkaraağaç (K)
Belkaraağaçören(K)	Karaağız(K)	Karaabdal (K)	Karaarslan(K)	Karabahşiş(K)	Eskikaraağaç(K)
Karaağaçkuyusu(K)	Karaağa (K)	Karaağaç (K)	Karaatlı (K)	Karabakır (K)	Eskikaradana(K)
Karaalikaçağı (K)	Karaalanı(K)	Karaağaçlı (K)	Karaaydın (K)	Karabalçık(K)	Karabaçak (K)
Karabezirgan (K)	Karaali (B)	Karabacaklar(K)	Karaayıt (K)	Karabaşlı (K)	Karabağlar (K)
Karaboynuzlar (K)	Karaali (K)	Karabacaklı (K)	Karaazap (K)	Karabedir (K)	Karabahadır (K)
Karaböğürtlen (K)	Karabey (K)	Karaağaçalanı(K)	Karababa (K)	Karabenli (K)	Karaboncuk (K)
Karacaköy (K)	Karabulu(K)	Karabayat (K)	Karabıyıklı(K)	Karabörk (K)	Karaboyalık (K)
Karacakuyu (K)	Karabulut(K)	Karabayır (K)	Karabiga (B)	Karabul (K)	Karaböcülü (K)
Karacaoba (K)	Karabucak(K)	Karabeyler (K)	Karabodur (K)	Karaburç (K)	Karabörklü (K)
Karacaoğlan (B)	Karabudak(K)	Karabeyli (K)	Karaboğaz(K)	Karaca (K)	Karacağaç(K)
Karacaoğlan (K)	Karabulak(K)	Karabıyık (K)	Karaboya (K)	Karabük (İ)	Karacaahmet(K)
Karaçaygöleti (K)	Karaburna(K)	Karabulduk (B)	Karacalar (K)	Karabük (K)	Karacahüyük(K)
Karaçobanpınarı(K)	Karaburun(K)	Karaburçlu (K)	Karacalı (K)	Karacagür (K)	Karacakişlak (K)

Karadig'inderesi (K)	Karaburun(K)	Karaburhan (K)	Karacalık (K)	Karacakaş (K)	Karabürçek (K)
Karadurmuşlu (K)	Karacaburç(K)	Karacaoğlu (K)	Karacan (K)	Karacahisar(K)	Karacaali (K)
Karaelbistan (K)	Karacadere(K)	Karacaözü (K)	Karacabağ (K)	Karacakaya(K)	Karacaardıç (K)
Karaevliçavuş (K)	Karacasu (İ)	Karacapınar (K)	Karacabey (İ)	Karacaköy (B)	Karaçalılık (K)
Karaevligeriş (K)	Karacasu (K)	Karacarıslan (K)	Karacadağ (B)	Karacaömer(K)	Karaçerçili (K)
Karagömlek (K)	Karacasu (İ)	Karaçomak (K)	Karacadağ (K)	Karacaören (B)	Karaçimen (K)
Karagöz (K)	Karacasu (K)	Karaçökek (K)	Karaçal (K)	Karacaören (K)	Karaçoban (K)
Karagözler (K)	Karacık (K)	Karaçörtlen (K)	Karaçalı (K)	Karacaşehir(K)	Karaçokrak (K)
Karagüçük (K)	Karacuma (K)	Karaçubuk (K)	Karaçalı (K)	Karacatepe (K)	Karaçukur (K)
Karagüllüalan (K)	Karacurun (K)	Karaduman (K)	Karaçaltı (K)	Karacauşağı(K)	Karadayılar (K)
Karahüyükaşar (K)	Karaçağıl (K)	Karaduraklı (K)	Karaçam (K)	Karaçavuş (K)	Karadig'in (K)
Karahanköy (K)	Karadağ (K)	Karaerkek (K)	Karaçarlı (K)	Karaçayır (B)	Karadiken (K)
Karahasan (B)	Karadana (K)	Karaevli (K)	Karaçay (B)	Karaçayır (K)	Karadikmen (K)
Karahasan (K)	Karaçuha (K)	Karaevliya (K)	Karaçay (K)	Karaçebiş (K)	Karadonalar (K)
Karahasanlı (B)	Karadede (K)	Karageçmiş (K)	Karadat (K)	Karadut (K)	Karadonu (K)
Karakabağaç (K)	Karademir (K)	Karagedik (K)	Karadayı (K)	Karaelli (K)	Karadoru (K)
Karainbeyli (K)	Karadere (B)	Karageyikli (K)	Karadereli (K)	Karaelma (K)	Karadoruk (K)
Karakese (K)	Karadere (K)	Karagöçer (K)	Karadibek (K)	Karadin (K)	Karaelmacı (K)
Karakesek (K)	Karagöl (K)	Karagöllü (K)	Karadirek (B)	Karadulda (K)	Karahüyük (K)
Karakestane (K)	Karagölet (K)	Karagüney (K)	Karadirlik (K)	Karafakılı (K)	Karadig'demir (K)
Karakışla (K)	Karağı (K)	Karagüveç (K)	Karadivan (K)	Karafasil (K)	Karahallı (İ)
Karakışlakçı (K)	Karahacı (K)	Karahacılı (K)	Karadoğan(K)	Karageçit (K)	Karahan (K)
Karakızlar (K)	Karagür (K)	Karagündüz (K)	Karadona (K)	Karagöbek (K)	Karahayit (K)
Karakimse (K)	Karahıdır (K)	Karakazan (K)	Karahoca (K)	Karaincirli (K)	Karakaş (K)
Karakiraz (K)	Karahisar (K)	Karakeçi (B)	Karain (K)	Karakabak (K)	Karakavak (K)
Karakova (K)	Karakadı (K)	Karakeçi (K)	Karainler (K)	Karakaçak (K)	Karakavuk (K)
Karakoyun (K)	Karakale (K)	Karakeçili (B)	Karaisa (K)	Karakamış (K)	Karakamya (B)
Karakoyunlu (K)	Karakapı (K)	Karakeçili (K)	Karaisalı (İ)	Karalent (K)	Karakaya (K)
Karamanca (K)	Karakılıçlı (K)	Karakocalı (K)	Karakeş (K)	Karakişi (K)	Karakoçlu (K)
Karamandere (K)	Karakıran (K)	Karakoçan (İ)	Karakeşli (K)	Karakoca (K)	Karakolan (K)
Karamankaşı (K)	Karakısık (K)	Karakoçan (K)	Karakıl (K)	Karakoç (K)	Karakolköy (K)
Karamanlar (K)	Karakız (K)	Karakoçlar (K)	Karakılıç (K)	Karakol (K)	Karakollar (K)
Karamukmolla (K)	Karaköse (İ)	Karagoza (K)	Karaköseli(K)	Karakur (K)	Karakusunlar(K)
Karanlıkdere (K)	Karaköse (K)	Karaköçek (K)	Karakulak (B)	Karakurt (B)	Karakuzulu (K)
Karaoğlanlar (K)	Karaköy (B)	Karaköprü (B)	Karakulak (K)	Karakurt (K)	Karaküttük (K)
Karaoğlanlı (B)	Karaköy (K)	Karaköprü (K)	Karakurun (B)	Karakurtlu (K)	Karamağara (B)
Karaoğlanlı (K)	Karaalan (K)	Karalarbaşı (K)	Karakuş (K)	Karalı (K)	Karamağara (K)
Karaoyunca (K)	Karalar (K)	Karaleylek (K)	Karakuşlu (K)	Karalık (K)	Karamanlı (B)
Karasukabaklar (K)	Karakuzu (K)	Karalgazi (K)	Karakuyu (K)	Karallı (K)	Karamanlı (K)
Karataşterziler (K)	Karaman (İ)	Karamüsel (İ)	Karakuz (K)	Karamolla (K)	Karamazak (K)
Karaselendi (K)	Karaman (İl)	Karanar (K)	Karamelik (K)	Karamuk (K)	Karamehmet (K)
Karapürçek (B)	Karaman (K)	Karandere (K)	Karameşe (K)	Karamuklu (K)	Karansil (K)
Karapürçek (K)	Karalımsın (İ)	Karansıl (K)	Karamık (K)	Karaorman (K)	Karansıllı (K)
Karatoprak (B)	Karantı (K)	Karasevinç (K)	Karaoğlak (K)	Karaoğlu (K)	Karaotlak (K)
Karatoprak (K)	Karaoba (K)	Karasoku (K)	Karaoğlan (B)	Karaoluk (K)	Karaova (B)
Karasungur (K)	Karaot (K)	Karapir (K)	Karaoğlan (K)	Karapazar (K)	Karaova (K)
Karayanalak (K)	Karaöz (K)	Karapolat (K)	Karasar (K)	Karapelik (K)	Karaören (K)
Karayaprak (K)	Karapınar (İ)	Karasakal (K)	Karasatı (K)	Karaperçin (K)	Karaseki (K)
Karayaşmak (K)	Karapınar (K)	Karasalkım (K)	Karasavcı (K)	Karatoklu (K)	Karasel (K)
Karayazıcılar (K)	Karasu (İ)	Karateke (K)	Karataş (B)	Karatop (K)	Karaşekir (K)
Karayürekli (K)	Karasu (K)	Karatekeli(K)	Karataş (İ)	Karatuş (K)	Karaşeyh (K)
Karayavşan (K)	Karaşar (B)	Karatekin (K)	Karataş (K)	Karaurgan (B)	Karatavuk (K)
Şebinkarahisar (İ)	Karaşar (K)	Karatepe (K)	Karayağcı (K)	Karaurgan (K)	Karaterzi (K)
Tahtakaradut (K)	Karavelet (K)	Karayayla (K)	Karayahşi(K)	Karayemiş (K)	Karayılan (K)
Yeşilkaraman (K)	Karaveli (K)	Karayazı (İ)	Karayatak (K)	Karayenice (K)	Karayokuş (K)
Karayonca (K)	Karayün (B)	Karsandıklı (K)	Karayün (K)	Kızkaraca (K)	Şarkikarağaç (İ)
Karnikara (K)	Kara Ada (Muğla)		Kara Burun (Muğla)	Karataş Burnu (Adana)	

### Kara renk adıyla dağ adları

Kara renk adını içeren üçü sıradağ, yedisi dağ, biri dağ geçidi olmak üzere toplam 11 dağ adı saptanmıştır.

Karanlık Dağ (Giresun)  
Kara Güney Dağları (Kırınkkale)  
Karadağ (Karaman)  
Karakuş Dağı (Afyon)

Karaca Dağ (Konya)  
Karacadağ (Ş. Urfa)  
Karadağlar (Trabzon)  
Akçakara Dağı (Muş)

Karagöl Dağları (Tunceli)  
Karadağ (Erzincan)  
Karabel Geçidi (Van)

*Kara renk adıyla su adları*

Kara renk adını içeren biri deniz, beşi nehir, üçü göl, üçü baraj, biri körfez, ikisi çay, biri dere olmak üzere toplam 16 su adı saptanmıştır.

Karadeniz	Karataş Gölü (Burdur)	Karasu Nehri (Nevşehir)
Karakaya Baraj Gölü (Diyarbakır)	Karababa Barajı (Ş. Urfa)	Karasu Nehri (Erzurum)
Kara Dere (Balıkesir)	Karaçay Nehri (Erzurum)	Karasu Nehri (Erzincan)
Karaidemir Barajı (Tekirdağ)	Karakuş Çayı (Tokat)	Karasu Çayı (Van)
Karakaya Barajı (Elazığ)	Karaboğaz Gölü (Samsun)	Kara Irmak (Rize)
Karaboğaz Gölü Körfezi (Samsun)		

*Kara renk adıyla kişi adları*

Kara renk adını içeren 79'u erkek, üçü kız, ikisi hem erkek hem de kız adı olmak üzere toplam 84 kişi adı saptanmıştır.

Başkara (E)	Çalkara (E)	Kara (E)	Karaaslan (E)	Karabay (E)	Karabörü (E)
Baykara (E)	Çankara (E)	Karaabat (E)	Karabağ (E)	Karabet (E)	Karabudun (E)
Beykara (E)	Çaykara (E)	Karaakın (E)	Karabaş (E)	Karabey (E)	Karabuğday(E)
Bozkara (E)	Erenkara (E)	Karaalp (E)	Karabatak (E)	Karaboğa (E)	Karabuğra (E)
Karabulut (E)	Karacakurt (E)	Karaçay (E)	Karadeniz (E)	Karaefe (E)	Karaişık (E)
Karabükey (E)	Karacan (E)	Karaçelik (E)	Karadoğan (E)	Karaer (E)	Karakalpak (E)
Karaca (K/E)	Karacı (E)	Karadağ (E)	Karaduman(E)	Karagöz(K/E)	Karakan (E)
Karacabey (E)	Karaçar (E)	Karademir(E)	Karadut (K)	Karahan (E)	Karakaş (E)
Karakaya (K)	Karaköse (E)	Karakut (E)	Karamut (E)	Karanalp (E)	Karaörs (E)
Karakız (K)	Karakucak (E)	Karakuz (E)	Karamürsel(E)	Karanbay (E)	Karapars (E)
Karakoca (E)	Karakurt (E)	Karaman (E)	Karan (E)	Karaoğlan(E)	Karasal (E)
Karakoç (E)	Karakuş (E)	Karata (E)	Karatün (E)	Karaoğuz (E)	Karasu (E)
Karasungur(E)	Karaşın (E)	Karatan (E)	Karayağız (E)	Taykara (E)	Karatay (E)
Karasüyek (E)	Karamık/Karamuk (E)	Karataş (E)	Karayel (E)	Uçkara (E)	Karatekin (E)

*Ak*

Taranan kaynaklarda ak renk adını içeren 292'si yer, 19'u dağ, 17'si su ve 188'i kişi adı olmak üzere toplam 516 özel ad saptanmıştır. Ak renk adı ile türetilen özel adların aşağıda verilmektedir.

*Ak renk adıyla yer (Toponymy) adları*

Burada ak renk adının ağ biçimi ve yapım ek almış biçimleri de listeye dahil edilmiştir. Türkiye sınırları içinde ak renk adını içeren tek il, Aksaray'dır. Ak renk adını içeren onu ilçe, yirmi dördü belde, yüz elli altısı köy ve biri ova olmak üzere 292 adet yer adı vardır. Bunlar aşağıda verilmektedir.

Aksaray (İl)	Aksaray Ovası	Akhisar (İ)	Akyazı (İ)	Akçadağ (İ)	Akçakoca (İ)
Akseki (İ)	Akdağmadeni (İ)	Akçakale (İ)	Akşehir (İ)	Akseki (İ)	Akçaabat (İ)
Akpazar (B)	Akyaka (B)	Aktuzla (B)	Aksakal (B)	Akyurt (B)	Akçakışla (B)
Akdağ (B)	Ağlı (B)	Aksu (B)	Akdemir (B)	Akpınar (B)	Akziyaret (B)
Akkuş (B)	Akçakent (B)	Akköy (B)	Akkaya (B)	Akmeşe (B)	Akşar (B)
Akçaova (B)	Akçasır (B)	Akçay (B)	Akçapınar (B)	Akkışla (B)	Akören (B)
Ağcakeçi (K)	Akçabudak (K)	Akbaba (K)	Akbenli (K)	Akbuğday (K)	Ağcın (K)
Ağcakeçili(K)	Akçakoyunlu (K)	Akbağ (K)	Akbıyık (K)	Akbulak (K)	Akçaköy (K)
Ağcakent (K)	Akçasusurluk (K)	Akbağlık (K)	Akbıyıklar (K)	Akbulgur (K)	Akçakuşak(K)
Ağcakesek(K)	Ağmusa (K)	Akballı (K)	Akbıyıklı (K)	Akbulut (K)	Akçakuzu (K)
Akburç (K)	Ağcakoca (K)	Akçabeyli (K)	Akçaçalar (K)	Akbilek (K)	Akçalören (K)
Akburun (K)	Akçaalan (K)	Ağcil (K)	Akçaçalı (K)	Akçadam (K)	Ağcakaya (K)
Akbük (K)	Akçaavlu (K)	Akçaburç (K)	Akçaçalıuşağı (K)	Akçadere (K)	Akçaova (K)
Akça (K)	Akçabağlar (K)	Akçabük (K)	Akçaçam (K)	Akçagedik (K)	Akçaören (K)
Akyüz (K)	Akçabey (K)	Akçaçal (K)	Akçaçay (K)	Akçagil (K)	Akbelenli (K)
Akçagöze (K)	Akçağün(K)	Akçainiş (K)	Akçakamış (K)	Akçakaya (K)	Akçapınar (K)
Akçagül (K)	Akçağüney (K)	Ağşar (K)	Akçakavak (K)	Akçakaynak(K)	Akçasaz (K)
Akçakeçili(K)	Ağcamahmut (K)	Akçakent (K)	Akçakese (K)	Akçakısrak (K)	Ağcağüney (K)
Akçasır (K)	Akçasöğüt (K)	Ağcalı (K)	Akçataş (K)	Akçadere (K)	Akamber (K)
Akçasoku (K)	Akçasu (K)	Akçatarla (K)	Akçatepe (K)	Akçatoprak(K)	Akçay (K)
Akçevre (K)	Akçiçek (K)	Akçiğdem(K)	Akçir (K)	Akçiriş (K)	Akçörtlen(K)
Akçayar (K)	Akçayazı (K)	Akçayır (K)	Akçayurt (K)	Akçeltik (K)	Akçenger (K)
Akçukur (K)	Akçakışla (K)	Akdağ (K)	Akdama (K)	Akdamar (K)	Akdana (K)

Ağcaalan (K)	Akdeğirmen (K)	Akdede (K)	Akbayır (K)	Akdamla (K)	Akdarı (K)
Akdere (K)	Akdemir (K)	Akdik (K)	Akdoğan (K)	Akdiken (K)	Akdilek (K)
Akdiz (K)	Akdizgin (K)	Akdoğan (K)	Akdoğmuş (K)	Akdoğu (K)	Akdooruk (K)
Akduman (K)	Akgedik (K)	Akgöze (K)	Akhoca (K)	Akkaynak (K)	Akkinlar (K)
Akduran (K)	Akgelin (K)	Akgümüş (K)	Akin (K)	Akkeçi (K)	Akkıraç (K)
Akdurmuş(K)	Akgöl (K)	Akgün (K)	Akkavak (K)	Akkeçili (K)	Akçatı (K)
Akdüven (K)	Akgömlek (K)	Akgüney (K)	Akbelen (K)	Akkese (K)	Akkişla (K)
Akgeçit (K)	Akgöz (K)	Ağören (K)	Akkaya (K)	Akkılıç (K)	Akkipri (K)
Akkoca (K)	Akkovanlı (K)	Akalan (K)	Akkuş (K)	Akbucak (K)	Akçakoyun(K)
Akkocalı (K)	Akkoyunlu (K)	Akköy (K)	Akkuyu (K)	Akoba (K)	Akören (K)
Akkoç (K)	Akkoz (K)	Akkum (K)	Akkuzulu (K)	Akocak (K)	Akboğaz (K)
Akkonak (K)	Akköprü (K)	Ağcaören (K)	Aklar (K)	Akoluk (K)	Akpınar (K)
Akkoşan (K)	Akköse (K)	Akbinek (K)	Akmanlar (K)	Akova (K)	Akpınarlı (K)
Akörü (K)	Akörençarşak(K)	Akpazar (K)	Akörensöküler(K)	Akbaşlar (K)	Aksaçlı (K)
Akbaşak (K)	Akörenkişla (K)	Aksığın (K)	Akpınarbeleni (K)	Aksakal (K)	Aksal (K)
Ağarı (K)	Aksaz (K)	Aksicim (K)	Akağaç (K)	Aksungur (K)	Aksütlü (K)
Akseki (K)	Aksoy (K)	Aksinir (K)	Aksu (K)	Aksutekke (K)	Akçakonak (K)
Ağartı (K)	Aksöğüt (K)	Aksorguç (K)	Aksular (K)	Aksüt (K)	Akşar (K)
Ağaylı (K)	Aktaş (K)	Aktepe (K)	Aktulga (K)	Ağyazı (K)	Ağcalar (K)
Akşinik (K)	Aktaşkurtlar (K)	Aktoprak (K)	Aktuluk (K)	Aktuzla (K)	Akyaka (K)
Aktarla (K)	Aktaştekte (K)	Aktuğlu (K)	Aktutan (K)	Akuşığı (K)	Akyamaç (K)
Akyapı (K)	Akyarma (K)	Akbaş (K)	Akyemiş (K)	Akyokuş (K)	Akyumak (K)
Akyaparak (K)	Akyayık (K)	Akyazı (K)	Akyer (K)	Akyol (K)	Akboğa (K)
Akyar (K)	Akyayla (K)	Akyele (K)	Akyıldız (K)	Akyola (K)	Akyurt (K)
Akyuva (K)	Akyünlü (K)	Kirliakça (K)	Akyokuşkavağı(K)	Akyürek (K)	Akçakoca (K)
Kanlıkat (K)	Eskiakören (K)	Ağcakoyun(K)	Eskiakcaalan (K)		

#### *Kara renk adıyla dağ adları*

Kara renk adını içeren üçü sıradağ, yedisi dağ, biri dağ geçidi olmak üzere toplam 11 dağ adı saptanmıştır.

Karanlık Dağ (Giresun)	Karaca Dağ (Konya)	Karagöl Dağları (Tunceli)
Kara Güney Dağları (Kırıkkale)	Karacadağ (Ş. Urfa)	Karadağ (Erzincan)
Karadağ (Karaman)	Karadağlar (Trabzon)	Karabel Geçidi (Van)
Karakuş Dağı (Afyon)	Akçakara Dağı (Muş)	

#### *Kara renk adıyla su adları*

Kara renk adını içeren biri deniz, beşi nehir, üçü göl, üçü baraj, biri körfez, ikisi çay, biri dere olmak üzere toplam 16 su adı saptanmıştır.

Karadeniz	Karataş Gölü (Burdur)	Karasu Nehri (Nevşehir)
Karakaya Baraj Gölü (Diyarbakır)	Karababa Barajı (Ş. Urfa)	Karasu Nehri (Erzurum)
Kara Dere (Balıkesir)	Karaçay Nehri (Erzurum)	Karasu Nehri (Erzincan)
Karaidemir Barajı (Tekirdağ)	Karakuş Çayı (Tokat)	Karasu Çayı (Van)
Karakaya Barajı (Elazığ)	Karaboğaz Gölü (Samsun)	Kara Irmak (Rize)
Karaboğaz Gölü Körfezi (Samsun)		

#### *Kara renk adıyla kişi adları*

Kara renk adını içeren 79'u erkek, üçü kız, ikisi hem erkek hem de kız adı olmak üzere toplam 84 kişi adı saptanmıştır.

Başkara (E)	Çalkara (E)	Kara (E)	Karaaslan (E)	Karabay (E)	Karabörü (E)
Baykara (E)	Çankara (E)	Karaabat (E)	Karabağ (E)	Karabet (E)	Karabudun (E)
Beykara (E)	Çaykara (E)	Karaakin (E)	Karabaş (E)	Karabey (E)	Karabuğday(E)
Bozkara (E)	Erenkara (E)	Karaalp (E)	Karabatak (E)	Karaboğa (E)	Karabuğra (E)
Karabulut (E)	Karacakurt (E)	Karaçay (E)	Karadeniz (E)	Karaefe (E)	Karaşık (E)
Karabükey (E)	Karacan (E)	Karaçelik (E)	Karadoğan (E)	Karaer (E)	Karakalpak (E)
Karaca (K/E)	Karacı (E)	Karadağ (E)	Karaduman(E)	Karagöz(K/E)	Karakan (E)
Karacabey (E)	Karaçar (E)	Karademir(E)	Karadut (K)	Karahan (E)	Karakaş (E)
Karakaya (K)	Karaköse (E)	Karakut (E)	Karamut (E)	Karanalp (E)	Karaörs (E)
Karakız (K)	Karakucak (E)	Karakuz (E)	Karamürsel(E)	Karanbay (E)	Karapars (E)

Karakoca (E)	Karakurt (E)	Karaman (E)	Karan (E)	Karaođlan(E)	Karasal (E)
Karakoç (E)	Karakuş (E)	Karata (E)	Karatün (E)	Karaođuz (E)	Karasu (E)
Karasungur(E)	Karaşın (E)	Karatan (E)	Karayađız (E)	Taykara (E)	Karatay (E)
Karasüyek (E)	Karamık/Karamuk (E)	Karataş (E)	Karayel (E)	Uçkara (E)	Karatekin (E)

## Ak

Taranan kaynaklarda ak renk adını içeren 292'si yer, 19'u dađ, 17'si su ve 188'i kiři adı olmak üzere toplam 516 özel ad saptanmıştır. Ak renk adı ile türetilen özel adların aşıđıda verilmektedir.

## Ak renk adıyla yer (Toponymy) adları

Burada ak renk adının ađ biçimi ve yapım ek almıř biçimleri de listeye dahil edilmiştir. Türkiye sınırları içinde ak renk adını içeren tek il, Aksaray'dır. Ak renk adını içeren onu ilçe, yirmi dördü belde, yüz elli altısı köy ve biri ova olmak üzere 292 adet yer adı vardır. Bunlar aşıđıda verilmektedir.

Aksaray (İl)	Aksaray Ovası	Akhisar (İ)	Akyazı (İ)	Akçadađ (İ)	Akçakoca (İ)
Akseki (İ)	Akdađmadeni (İ)	Akçakale (İ)	Akşehir (İ)	Akseki (İ)	Akçaabat (İ)
Akpazar (B)	Akyaka (B)	Aktuzla (B)	Aksakal (B)	Akyurt (B)	Akçakıřla (B)
Akdađ (B)	Ađlı (B)	Aksu (B)	Akdemir (B)	Akpınar (B)	Akziyaret (B)
Akkuş (B)	Akçakent (B)	Akköy (B)	Akkaya (B)	Akmeře (B)	Akşar (B)
Akçaova (B)	Akçasır (B)	Akçay (B)	Akçapınar (B)	Akkıřla (B)	Akören (B)
Ađcakeçi (K)	Akçabudak (K)	Akbaba (K)	Akbenli (K)	Akbuđday (K)	Ađcın (K)
Ađcakeçili(K)	Akçakoyunlu (K)	Akbađ (K)	Akbıyık (K)	Akbulak (K)	Akçaköy (K)
Ađcakent (K)	Akçasusurluk (K)	Akbađlık (K)	Akbıyıklar (K)	Akbulgur (K)	Akçakuşak(K)
Ađcakesek(K)	Ađmusa (K)	Akballı (K)	Akbıyıklı (K)	Akbulut (K)	Akçakuzu (K)
Akburç (K)	Ađcakoca (K)	Akçabeyli (K)	Akçaçalar (K)	Akbilek (K)	Akçalören (K)
Akburun (K)	Akçaalan (K)	Ađcıl (K)	Akçaçalı (K)	Akçadam (K)	Ađcakaya (K)
Akbük (K)	Akçaavlu (K)	Akçaburç (K)	Akçaçalıuşađı (K)	Akçadere (K)	Akçaova (K)
Akça (K)	Akçabađlar (K)	Akçabük (K)	Akçaçam (K)	Akçagedik (K)	Akçaören (K)
Akyüz (K)	Akçabey (K)	Akçaçal (K)	Akçaçay (K)	Akçağil (K)	Akbelenli (K)
Akçağöze (K)	Akçağün(K)	Akçainiř (K)	Akçakamıř (K)	Akçakaya (K)	Akçapınar (K)
Akçağül (K)	Akçağüney (K)	Ađşar (K)	Akçakavak (K)	Akçakaynak(K)	Akçasaz (K)
Akçaakeçili(K)	Ađcamahmut (K)	Akçakent (K)	Akçakese (K)	Akçakısırak (K)	Ađcağüney (K)
Akçasır (K)	Akçasöđüt (K)	Ađcalı (K)	Akçataş (K)	Akbudak (K)	Akamber (K)
Akçasoku (K)	Akçasu (K)	Akçatarla (K)	Akçatepe (K)	Akçatoprak(K)	Akçay (K)
Akçevre (K)	Akçiçek (K)	Akçiđdem(K)	Akçir (K)	Akçiriř (K)	Akçörtlen(K)
Akçayar (K)	Akçayazı (K)	Akçayır (K)	Akçayurt (K)	Akçeltik (K)	Akçenger (K)
Akçukur (K)	Akçakıřla (K)	Akdađ (K)	Akdam (K)	Akdamar (K)	Akdana (K)
Ađcaalan (K)	Akdeđirmen (K)	Akdede (K)	Akbayır (K)	Akdamlı (K)	Akdarı (K)
Akdere (K)	Akdemir (K)	Akdik (K)	Akdođantekke (K)	Akdiken (K)	Akdilek (K)
Akdiz (K)	Akdizgin (K)	Akdođan (K)	Akdođmuş (K)	Akdođu (K)	Akdöruk (K)
Akduman (K)	Akgedik (K)	Akğöze (K)	Akhoca (K)	Akkaynak (K)	Akkınlar (K)
Akduran (K)	Akgelin (K)	Akgümüř (K)	Akin (K)	Akkeçi (K)	Akkıraç (K)
Akdurmuş(K)	Akgöl (K)	Akgün (K)	Akkavak (K)	Akkeçili (K)	Akçatı (K)
Akdüven (K)	Akgömlük (K)	Akğüney (K)	Akbelen (K)	Akkese (K)	Akkıřla (K)
Akgeçit (K)	Akgöz (K)	Ađören (K)	Akkaya (K)	Akkılıç (K)	Akkirpi (K)
Akkoca (K)	Akkovanlı (K)	Akalan (K)	Akkuş (K)	Akbucak (K)	Akçakoyun(K)
Akkocalı (K)	Akkoyunlu (K)	Akköy (K)	Akkuyu (K)	Akoba (K)	Akören (K)
Akkoç (K)	Akkoz (K)	Akkum (K)	Akkuzulu (K)	Akocak (K)	Akboğaz (K)
Akkonak (K)	Akköprü (K)	Ađcaören (K)	Aklar (K)	Akoluk (K)	Akpınar (K)
Akkoşan (K)	Akköse (K)	Akbinek (K)	Akmanlar (K)	Akova (K)	Akpınarlı (K)
Akörü (K)	Akörençarşak(K)	Akpazar (K)	Akörensöküleri(K)	Akbaşlar (K)	Aksaçlı (K)
Akbaşak (K)	Akörenkiřla (K)	Aksıđın (K)	Akpınarbeleni (K)	Aksakal (K)	Aksal (K)
Ađarı (K)	Aksaz (K)	Aksicim (K)	Akağaç (K)	Aksungur (K)	Aksütlü (K)
Akseki (K)	Aksuy (K)	Aksinir (K)	Aksu (K)	Aksutekke (K)	Akçakonak (K)
Ađartı (K)	Aksöđüt (K)	Aksorguç (K)	Aksular (K)	Aksüt (K)	Akşar (K)
Ađaylı (K)	Aktaş (K)	Aktepe (K)	Aktulga (K)	Ađyazı (K)	Ađcalar (K)
Akşinik (K)	Aktaşkurtlar (K)	Aktoprak (K)	Aktuluk (K)	Aktuzla (K)	Akyaka (K)
Aktarla (K)	Aktaştekke (K)	Aktuđlu (K)	Aktutan (K)	Akuşađı (K)	Akyamaç (K)
Akyapı (K)	Akyarma (K)	Akbaş (K)	Akyemiř (K)	Akyokuş (K)	Akyumak (K)
Akyaprak (K)	Akyayık (K)	Akyazı (K)	Akyer (K)	Akyol (K)	Akbođa (K)
Akyar (K)	Akyayla (K)	Akyale (K)	Akyıldız (K)	Akyola (K)	Akyurt (K)
Akyuva (K)	Akyünlü (K)	Kirliakça (K)	Akyokuşkavađı(K)	Akyürek (K)	Akçakoca (K)
Kanlıkat (K)	Eskiakören (K)	Ađcakoyun(K)	Eskiakçaalan (K)		

*Ak renk adıyla dağ (Horonymy) adları*

Türkiye sınırları içinde ak renk adını içeren 19 dağ ve tepe adı saptanmıştır. Bunlardan dördü sıradağdır.

Akçalı Dağları (İçel Antalya arası)	Ak Dağları (Yozgat-Sivas arası)	Akinek Dağı (Adana)
Akdağ Tepesi (Trabzon)	Akçakoca Dağları (Sakarya)	Aktaş Tepesi (Aydın)
Akbaba Dağları (Erzurum)	Akdoğan Dağı (Muş)	Akdağ (Denizli)
Akdağlar (Diyarbakır)	Akdağ (Aydın)	Akdağ (İzmir)
Akdağlar (Antalya)	Akdağ (Adıyaman)	Akdağ (Amasya)
Akdağ (Muğla)	Akdağ (Kütahya)	Akdağ (Erzurum)
Akçakara Dağı (Muş)		

*Ak renk adıyla su (Hydronymy) adları*

Türkiye sınırları içinde; ak renk adını içeren biri deniz, dokuzu göl, dördü çay, ikisi nehir, biri dere olmak üzere toplam 17 su adı saptanmıştır.

Akdeniz	Akgöl (Sakarya)	Aksu Çayı (Antalya)	Aktaş Deresi (Kumburgaz)
Akşehir Gölü (Konya)	Akgöl (Konya)	Akçay (Denizli)	Akyayan Gölü (Adana)
Aktaş Gölü (Ardahan)	Akgöl (Burdur)	Akyatan Gölü (Adana)	Akdoğan Gölü (Muş)
Akçay (Van)	Akçay (Aydın)	Aktaş Gölü (Ardahan)	Aksu Nehri (Giresun)
Aksu Nehri (Maraş)			

*Ak renk adıyla kişi (Anthroponymy) adları*

Türk Dil Kurumu'nun Kişi Adları Sözlüğü'nde ak renk adıyla türetilmiş toplam 188 kişi adı bulunmaktadır. Bunlardan yirmi biri kız, yüz kırk altısı erkek, yirmi biri hem kız hem de erkekler için ortak addır. Bu adlarda ak renk adı "parlak, ışıklı, aydınlık; namuslu, beyaz" anlamlarıyla kullanılmıştır.

Ak (K)	Akal (E)	Akasma (E)	Akbal (K/E)	Akbayar (E)	Akbora (E)
Akabatur (E)	Akalan (E)	Akata (E)	Akbaran (E)	Akbek/Akbey (E)	Akboy (E)
Akabay (E)	Akalin (K/E)	Akatay (E)	Akbaş (E)	Akbel/Akbil (E)	Akbörü (E)
Akad (E)	Akalp (E)	Akay (K/E)	Akbaşak (K/E)	Akbet (E)	Akбудun (E)
Akadlı (E)	Akaltan (E)	Akaydın (E)	Akbatu (E)	Akbilge (E)	Akbuğ (E)
Akağan (E)	Akant (E)	Akbacı (K)	Akbay (E)	Akboğa (E)	Akbulut (E)
Akburak (E)	Akcivan (E)	Akçakan (E)	Akçalı (E)	Akçer (E)	Akçit (E)
Akburç (E)	Akça (K/E)	Akçakaya (E)	Akçam (E)	Akçığır (E)	Akçora (E)
Akburçak(E)	Akçabay (E)	Akçakıl (E)	Akçan (E)	Akçıl (K)	Akdağ (E)
Akcan (K/E)	Akçael (K/E)	Akçakoca (E)	Akçasu (K/E)	Akçınar (E)	Akdal (E)
Akcebe (E)	Akçagül (K)	Akçal (E)	Akçay (E)	Akçiçek (K)	Akdamar (E)
Akdeniz (E)	Akdoğan (E)	Akdoru (E)	Akgül (K)	Aker (E)	Akgil (E)
Akdik (E)	Akdoğdu (E)	Akdoruk (E)	Akgün (E)	Akerin (E)	Akgiray (E)
Akdiken (E)	Akdoğmuş (E)	Akdöl (E)	Akgündüz (E)	Akerman (E)	Akgöl (E)
Akdil (E)	Akdoğu (E)	Akduman (E)	Akgüner (E)	Akersan (E)	Akgöze (E)
Akdoğ (E)	Akdora (E)	Akel (E)	Akdurmuş (E)	Akersoy (E)	Akgüç (E)
Akinci (K)	Akkan (E)	Akkemik (E)	Akgüneş (K/E)	Akkuş (E)	Akmaner (E)
Akkadın (K)	Akkar (K)	Akkerman (E)	Akgüngör (K/E)	Akkutlu (K)	Akmaral (K)
Akhan (E)	Akkaş (E)	Akkılıç (E)	Akkor (E)	Akkuyas (E)	Akmeriç (E)
Akhanım (K)	Akkaya (E)	Akkın (E)	Akköz (E)	Akman (E)	Aknur (K)
Akhun (E)	Akkaynak (E)	Akkız (K)	Akkurt (E)	Akmanalp (E)	Akol (K)
Akozan (E)	Aksunar (E)	Aksoy (K/E)	Akipek/Akyipek (K)	Aksal (E)	Aksen (K)
Akönder (E)	Aksuner (E)	Aksöğüt (E)	Akpınar (K/E)	Aksan (E)	Akser (E)
Akören (E)	Aksungur (E)	Aksu (K/E)	Akpolat /Akpulat(E)	Aksarı (K)	Akses (K/E)
Aköz (E)	Aksülün (K)	Aksun (E)	Akşın (E)	Aksay (E)	Akseven (K)
Akpay (E)	Aksüyek (K/E)	Aksuna (K)	Akşit (E)	Aksel (K/E)	Aksın (K/E)
Aktaş (K/E)	Aktekin (E)	Akyürek (E)	Akyıldız (K/E)	Aktunç (E)	Gürak (E)
Aktalay (E)	Aktolga (E)	Akyüz (E)	Akyiğit (E)	Aktün (E)	Özak (E)
Aktan (E)	Aktolun (E)	Erakalın (E)	Akyol (E)	Aktürk (E)	Özakay (E)
Aktaş (E)	Aktuğ (E)	Eraksan (E)	Akyön (E)	Akün (K/E)	Özaktuğ (E)
Aktay (E)	Aktuna (K/E)	Günak (E)	Akyurt (E)	Aküal (E)	Özüak (E)
Yüzüak (E)	Akdemir/Aktemür/Aktimur (E)				

*Gök*

Gök renk adını içeren 137'si yer, biri dağ, sekizi su, 93'ü kişi adı olmak üzere toplam 239 özel ad saptanmıştır. Bu adlara gök renk adının göğ ve kök biçimleri de dahil edilmiştir.

*Gök renk adıyla yer adları*

Gök renk adını içeren toplam 137 yer adı saptanmıştır. Bunlardan 120'si köy, 14'ü belde, biri ilçe, biri ada ve biri de vadidir.

Göksu Vadisi	Gökçeada (A)	Göksun (İ)	Gökçedağ (B)	Göktaş (B)	Göktepe (B)
Gökçeören (B)	Göksu (B)	Gökoğlan (B)	Gökdere (B)	Gökçeyazı (B)	Gökçebey (B)
Gökçesu (B)	Gökçeli (B)	Gökçen (B)	Gökçeağaç(B)	Gökdere (B)	Gökçebel (K)
Gökbüvet (K)	Gökçay (K)	Gökçe (K)	Gökçam (K)	Gökçebağ (K)	Gökçebelen (K)
Gökçalı (K)	Gökçayır (K)	Gökçeağaç (K)	Gökçealan (K)	Gökçebayır (K)	Gökbudak (K)
Gökçeboğaz (K)	Gökçecat (K)	Gökçedam (K)	Gökçedüz (K)	Gökçeinek (K)	Gökçekaya (K)
Gökçebük (K)	Gökçedağ(K)	Gökçedere (K)	Gökçegöz (K)	Gökçekanat (K)	Gökçekaynak(K)
Gökçeçakmak (K)	Gökçekaş (K)	Gökçedoğan(K)	Gökçegüney(K)	Gökçeayva (K)	Gökçekent (K)
Gökçeharman (K)	Gökçeler (K)	Gökçeköy (K)	Gökçeseki (K)	Gökçekıran (K)	Gökçekonak (K)
Gökçehüyük (K)	Gökçeli (K)	Gökçekuyu (K)	Gökçesu (K)	Gökçekısıık (K)	Gökçekoru (K)
Çaygökpinar(K)	Göğem (K)	Gökçeağıl (K)	Gökay (K)	Gökçekişla (K)	Gökçeoba (K)
Gökçeören (K)	Gökçevre (K)	Gökçepelit (K)	Gökçeoğlu (K)	Gökçeyaka(K)	Gökçeyazı (K)
Gögebakan (K)	Gökçetaş (K)	Gökçepınar (K)	Gökçeoluk (K)	Gökçetepe (K)	Gökben (K)
Gökçöz (K)	Gökdağ (K)	Gökçesaray (K)	Gökçeovacık(K)	Gökçeterek (K)	Gökçeyol (K)
Gökçepayam (K)	Gökçimen(K)	Gökçeyamaç(K)	Gökbük (K)	Gökgöl (K)	Gökhüyük (K)
Gökçetabaklar(K)	Gökçukur (K)	Gökçeyurt (K)	Gökdoğan (K)	Gökgöz (K)	Gökiniş (K)
Gökçetoprak (K)	Gökdere (K)	Gökbahçe (K)	Gökgedik (K)	Gökgözler (K)	Gökkaya (K)
Gökçetorlaklar(K)	Gökova (K)	Gökbel (K)	Gökkuşağı (K)	Gökpinar (K)	Gökkiriş (K)
Gökvelioğlu (K)	Gökören (K)	Gökoğlu (K)	Gökmenler (K)	Gökseki (K)	Gökköy (K)
Gökyaka (K)	Gököz (K)	Gökomez (K)	Gökoğlan (K)	Göksel (K)	Gökköyler (K)
Gökyurt (K)	Göksu (K)	Göksün (K)	Gökalan (K)	Göktarla (K)	Göktepe (K)
Küçükgökçeli (K)	Gökbez (K)	Göksüncük (K)	Göktürk (K)	Göktaş (K)	Gökbelen (K)
Göktöme (K)	Gökagaç (K)	Gökkuşağı (K)	Göksüncük (K)	Gökçeiçi (K)	

*Gök renk adıyla dağ adları*

Gök renk adını içeren bir dağ adı saptanmıştır.

Gök Tepe (Kastamonu)

*Gök renk adıyla su adları*

Gök renk adını içeren ikisi baraj, üçü nehir, biri körfez, biri çay, biri göl olmak üzere toplam sekiz su adı saptanmıştır.

Gökçekaya Barajı (Ankara)	Gökpinar Nehri (Eskişehir)	Gökçeler Barajı (Muğla)
Gökhisar Gölü (Burdur)	Gökova Körfezi (Muğla)	Göksu Nehri (Mersin)
Gökırmak Nehri (Kastamonu)	Göksu Çayı (Bursa)	

*Gök renk adıyla kişi adları*

Gök renk adını içeren 10'u kız, 66'sı erkek, 17'si hem kız hem erkek adı olmak üzere toplam 93 kişi adı saptanmıştır.

Aygök (K)	Gögen (E)	Gökay (K/E)	Gökbel (E)	Gökbey (E)	Gökbudun (E)
Ergök (E)	Göğüş (E)	Gökbaran (E)	Gökbelen(E)	Gökbora (E)	Gökbulut (E)
Ergökmen (E)	Gök (K)	Gökbay (E)	Gökben (K)	Gökbörü (E)	Gökcan (E)
Göğem (K/E)	Gökalp (E)	Gökbayrak (E)	Gökberk (E)	Gökbudak (E)	Gökçen (K/E)
Gökçe (K/E)	Gökçel (K/E)	Gökçebey (E)	Gökçil (E)	Gökdal (E)	Gökel (E)
Gökçebala (E)	Gökçem (K)	Gökçeer/Gökçer(E)	Gökçin(K/E)	Gökdemir (E)	Göken (E)
Gökçebalan (E)	Gökçen (K/E)	Gökçek (K/E)	Gökçül (E)	Gökdeniz (E)	Göker (E)

Gökçebel (E)	Gökçesu (E)	Gökduman (K)	Gökçün (E)	Gökdoğan (E)	Gökgöl (E)
Göksel (K/E)	Gökmenalp (E)	Göksenin (E)	Gökhan (E)	Göknur (K/E)	Gökmete (E)
Gökselen (K)	Gökmener (E)	Gökser (E)	Gökhun (E)	Gökperi (K)	Göknel (E)
Göksen (K/E)	Göksaltuk (E)	Göksev (K/E)	Gökmen (E)	Göksal (K/E)	Göknil (E)
Gökseven (E)	Gökşan (K)	Göktalay (E)	Göksan (E)	Göktay (E)	Göksoy (E)
Göksever (E)	Gökşen (K/E)	Göktan (E)	Göksav (E)	Gökten (E)	Göksu (K/E)
Göksun (K/E)	Gökşin (K/E)	Göktaş (E)	Göksay (E)	Göktöre (E)	Göktuğ (E)
Göktulga (E)	Göktunç (E)	Kökşin (E)	Gökyay (E)	Kök (E)	Nurgök (K)
Göktuna (E)	Göktürk (E)	Köktürk (E)			

### Sarı

Sarı renk adını içeren özel adlarda saru biçimi de adlara dahil edilmiştir. Sarı renk adını içeren 191'i yer, üçü su, 23'ü kişi adı olmak üzere toplam 217 özel ad saptanmıştır.

#### Sarı renk adını içeren yer adları

Sarı renk adını içeren altısı ilçe, sekizi belde, biri yayla, bir plato, 179'u köy olmak üzere 191 yer adı saptanmıştır.

Sarıkamış (İ)	Sarıgöl (İ)	Sarıkaya (İ)	Saruhanlı (İ)	Sarıoğlan (İ)	Sarıcakaya (İ)
Sarıyer (İ)	Sarısu (B)	Sarıgerme (B)	Sarıkavak (B)	Sarıkonak (B)	Sarıbuğday (B)
Sarıbeyler (B)	Sarıgöl (B)	Sarıköy (B)	Sarıbaşak (K)	Sarıcalı (K)	Sarıçayır (K)
Sarıdeğirmen (K)	Sarıalan (K)	Sarıbeyler (K)	Sarıbayır (K)	Sarıcaova (K)	Sarıçevre (K)
Sarıdarı (K)	Sarıyazak (K)	Sarıbeyli (K)	Sarıbelen (K)	Sarıcasu (K)	Sarıçiçek (K)
Sarıdüz (K)	Sarıaydın (K)	Sarıbıyık (K)	Sarıcan (K)	Sarıdavut (K)	Sarıçimen (K)
Sarıerik (K)	Sarıbey (K)	Sarıboğa (K)	Sarıçal (K)	Sarıdayı (K)	Sarıçoban (K)
Sarıfasıl (K)	Sarıbük (K)	Sarıbudak (K)	Sarıçalı (K)	Sarıdemir (K)	Sarıçökek (K)
Sarıfatma (K)	Sarıca (K)	Sarıbulak (K)	Sarıçam (K)	Sarıderesi (K)	Sarıçubuk (K)
Sarıdanışment (K)	Sarıbaba (K)	Sarıcailyas (K)	Sarıdallı (K)	Sarıdibek (K)	Sarıçukur (K)
Sarıdana (K)	Sarıdere (K)	Sarıcaoğlu (K)	Sarıdam (K)	Sarıdoğan (K)	Sarıfakılar (K)
Sarıbrahimli (K)	Sarıgazel (K)	Sarıgümüş (K)	Sarıhacılar (K)	Sarıharman (K)	Sarıhan (K)
Sarımahmutlu (K)	Sarıgazi (K)	Sarıgün (K)	Sarıhacılı (K)	Sarıhasan (K)	Sarıhıdır (K)
Sarımehmetler (K)	Sarıgöl (K)	Sarıgüney (K)	Sarıhalil (K)	Sarıhasanlı (K)	Sarıhuğlar (K)
Sarımehmetli (K)	Sarıgöze (K)	Sarıgüzel (K)	Sarıhamzalı (K)	Sarıkabak (K)	Sarıhüyük (K)
Sarımustafalar (K)	Sarıgül (K)	Sarıhacı (K)	Sarıkavak (K)	Sarıkadı (K)	Sarışık (K)
Sarımollalı (K)	Sarılar (K)	Sarıkadılar (K)	Sarıkaya (K)	Sarıkeçili (K)	Sarıkoç (K)
Sarınasuhlar (K)	Sarılı (K)	Sarıkamış (K)	Sarıkayalar (K)	Sarıkız (K)	Sarıkonak (K)
Sarınören (K)	Sarıkoz (K)	Sarıkaşık (K)	Sarımehmet (K)	Sarıkızlı (K)	Sarıkoyak (K)
Sarısüleyman (K)	Sarıköy (K)	Sarıömer (K)	Sarıoğlan (K)	Sarıpolat (K)	Sarıseki (K)
Sarıtanışmanlı (K)	Sarıkum (K)	Sarıömerli (K)	Sarıoğlu (K)	Sarısalkım (K)	Sarısığırlı (K)
Sarısipahiler (K)	Sarımazı (K)	Sarıören (K)	Sarıot (K)	Sarısaltık (K)	Sarısırat (K)
Sarıyaprak (K)	Sarımeşe (K)	Sarıkuşak (K)	Sarıova (K)	Sarısaman (K)	Sarısögüt (K)
Sarıyatak (K)	Sarıoba (K)	Sarıkürklü (K)	Sarıpınar (K)	Sarısaz (K)	Sarısungur (K)
Sarıyayla (K)	Sarıveli (K)	Sarıtarla (K)	Sarısu (K)	Sarıtepe (K)	Sarıtosun (K)
Sarıyazma (K)	Sarıyaka (K)	Sarıtaş (K)	Sarısuvat (K)	Sarıtopallı (K)	Sarıyakup (K)
Türkmensarılar (K)	Sarıyar (K)	Sarıtekke (K)	Sarışeyh (K)	Sarıtoprak (K)	Sarıyamaç (K)
Eskisarıbey (K)	Saruhanlı (K)	Sarıyer (K)	Sarıyusuf (K)	Sarıcakır (K)	Sarıağıl (K)
Ortasarıbez (K)	Çamsarı (K)	Sarıyonca (K)	Saruhan (K)	Sarıçavuş (K)	Sarıçanak (K)
Çiftlikсарıca (K)	Sarıaliler (K)	Sarıyurt (K)	Saruhanlar (K)	Sarıağaççayı (K)	Sarıabat (K)
Baltasarılar (K)	Sarıabdal (K)	Sarıahmetler (K)	Sarıbahçe (K)	Sarıcaalı (K)	Sarıabalı (K)
Sarıbalta (K)	Sarıdal (K)	Sarıağaç (K)	Sarıçiçek Platosu (Tunceli)	Sarıçiçek Yaylası (Tunceli)	

#### Sarı renk adını içeren su adları

Sarı renk adını içeren biri baraj, biri göl, biri çay olmak üzere toplam üç su adı saptanmıştır.

Sarılık Gölü (Samsun)

Sarıyar Barajı (Ankara)

Sarı Çay (Çanakale)



Bozburun(Bur.)	Bozcaada (A)	Bozbaba (A)	Bozok Platosu	Bozcaada (İ)	Bozkır (İ)
Bozüyük(İ)	Bozdoğan (İ)	Bozkurt (İ)	Bozova (İ)	Bozoğlak (B)	Bozburun (B)
Bozova (B)	Boztepe (B)	Bozkurt (B)	Bozarmut (K)	Bozbük (K)	Bozağa (K)
Bozbel (K)	Bozboğa (K)	Alibozlu (K)	Bozburun (K)	Bozca (K)	Bozalan (K)
Bozcaali (K)	Bozcahüyük(K)	Bozcayaka (K)	Bozçalı (K)	Bozdağ (K)	Bozdemir (K)
Bozcaarmut(K)	Bozcalar (K)	Bozcayazı (K)	Bozçanak (K)	Bozdağı (K)	Bozatalanlı(K)
Bozcaatlı (K)	Bozcatepe (K)	Bozcayurt (K)	Bozçavuş (K)	Bozdam (K)	Bozdoğan (K)
Bozeli (K)	Bozgeçe (K)	Bozdanalıbayram(K)	Bozhane (K)	Bozkanat (K)	Bozkaya (K)
Bozen (K)	Bozgedik (K)	Bozkoca (K)	Bozhüyük(K)	Bozkandak(K)	Bozbağlar (K)
Bozgeç (K)	Bozgüney (K)	Bozkocatepe (K)	Bozkale (K)	Bozkaş (K)	Bozkır (K)
Bozköy (K)	Bozkurt (K)	Boztopraklı (K)	Bozobası (K)	Bozoğlu (K)	Bozbelen (K)
Bozbayır (K)	Bozkuş (K)	Bozyurt (K)	Bozağaç (K)	Bozok (K)	Bozat (K)
Bozalioğlu (K)	Bozlağan (K)	Bozoba (K)	Bozoğlak (K)	Bozoğlu (K)	Bozön (K)
Bozınar (K)	Boztaş (K)	Bozaba (K)	Boztepe (K)	Bozüyük (K)	Bozyaka (K)
Boztahta (K)	Bozbulut (K)	Bozören (K)	Boztoprak(K)	Bozatalan (K)	Bozyar (K)
Bozlar (K)	Hacıbozlar (K)	Çakrazboz (K)	Bozyayla (K)	Bozyer (K)	Bozyiğit (K)
Bozlu (K)	Bozyazı (K)	Çankıbozdağ (K)			

### Boz renk adıyla dağ adları

Boz renk adını içeren dört dağ adı saptanmıştır. Bunlardan biri sıradağdır.

Bozdağ (Denizli)                      Bozdağ (Eskişehir)                      Bozdağ (Konya)                      Bozdağlar (İzmir)

### Boz renk adıyla kişi adları

Boz renk adını içeren biri kız, otuzu erkek olmak üzere toplam 31 kişi adı saptanmıştır.

Bozcin/Bozçin (K)	Bozat (E)	Bozbala (E)	Bozbay (E)	Bozbora (E)
Bozdağ (E)	Bozay (E)	Bozbaş (E)	Bozbey (E)	Bozca (E)
Bozdeniz (E)	Boztaş (E)	Bozok (E)	Bozdoğan (E)	Bozer (E)
Boztimur (E)	Boztepe (E)	Bozokay (E)	Bozrak (E)	Bozerk (E)
Bozdemir(E)	Boz (E)	Bozan (E)	Bozyel (E)	Bozyiğit (E)

### Ala

Ala renk adını içeren 68'i yer, sekizi dağ, biri su, 24'ü kişi adı olmak üzere toplam 101 özel ad saptanmıştır. Bu adlarda ala ve alaca bir arada değerlendirilmiştir.

### Ala renk adıyla yer adları

Ala renk adını içeren üçü belde, üçü ilçe, altmış ikisi köy olmak üzere toplam 68 yer adı saptanmıştır.

Alaçam (İ)	Alaca (İ)	Alaşehir (İ)	Alacahan (B)	Aladağ (B)	Alaçat (B)
Alabağ (K)	Alabalık (K)	Alabuğday (K)	Alaçalı (K)	Alaçam (K)	Alaçat (K)
Alaçatı (K)	Alaçayır (K)	Aladağ (K)	Aladikme (K)	Alagöz (K)	Alagüney (K)
Alaçay (K)	Alağaç (K)	Aladana (K)	Aladüz (K)	Alagün (K)	Alakamış (K)
Alagömlek (K)	Alakeçi (K)	Alakır (K)	Alakoçlu (K)	Alakova (K)	Alaköy (K)
Alakaya (K)	Alakeçili (K)	Alakoç (K)	Alakonak (K)	Alakoyun (K)	Alakuş (K)
Alakuşak (K)	Alapınar (K)	Alabayır (K)	Alataş (K)	Alatepe (K)	Alatosun (K)
Alakuzu (K)	Alasökü (K)	Alatarla (K)	Alatay (K)	Alatoprak (K)	Alayağmur (K)
Alaçamderesi(K)	Alayaka (K)	Alayazı (K)	Alayurt (K)	Tepealagöz (K)	Alayüz (K)
Alacaat (K)	Alacabayır (K)	Alacadağ (K)	Alacakaya (K)	Alacalı (K)	Alayar (K)
Alacaatlı (K)	Alacabük (K)	Alacahan (K)	Alacalar (K)	Alacaoğlu (K)	Alayer (K)
Alacık (K)	Alabal (K)				

### Ala renk adıyla dağ adları

Ala renk adını içeren biri tepe, dördü dağ, üçü sıradağ olmak üzere toplam sekiz dağ adı saptanmıştır.

Aladağlar (Adana)	Aladağlar (Ağrı)	Alaçam Dağları (Kütahya)	Alaçam Tepesi (Balıkesir)
Aladağ (Bolu)	Alaca Dağ (Antalya)	Alacadağ (Konya)	Alacadağ (Artvin)

#### *Ala renk adıyla su adları*

Ala renk adını içeren bir adet su adı saptanmıştır.

Alakır Çayı (Antalya)

#### *Ala renk adıyla kişi adları*

Ala renk adını içeren on üçü erkek, dokuzu kız, ikisi hem erkek hem kız adı olmak üzere toplam 24 kişi adı saptanmıştır.

Ala (K/E)	Alabay (E)	Alacan (E)	Alaçuk (E)	Alageyik (K)	Alagün (K)
Alabaş (E)	Alabezek (K)	Alaçam (E)	Aladoğan (E)	Alagöz (K)	Alahan (E)
Alakız (K)	Alakurt (E)	Alanur (K)	Alatan (E)	Alatay (E)	Alayunt (K)
Alakoç (E)	Alakuş (K/E)	Alapınar (K)	Alataş (E)	Alabegim/Alabegüm (K)	Alaca (E)

#### *Yeşil*

Yeşil renk adını içeren 73'ü yer, biri dağ, ikisi su, ikisi kişi adı olmak üzere toplam 78 özel ad saptanmıştır.

#### *Yeşil renk adını içeren yer adları*

Yeşil renk adını içeren üçü ilçe, yedisi belde, 63'ü köy olmak üzere toplam 73 yer adı saptanmıştır.

Yeşilova (İ)	Yeşilyurt (İ)	Yeşilhisar (İ)	Yeşilkent (B)	Yeşilova (B)	Yeşilyazı (B)
Yeşilyurt (B)	Yeşildere (B)	Yeşilvadi (B)	Yeşilce (B)	Yeşilbelen (K)	Yeşilbük (K)
Yeşilçukurca(K)	Yeşildağ (K)	Yeşilce (K)	Yeşilçat (K)	Yeşilçit (K)	Yeşildemet (K)
Yeşilgüneycik(K)	Yeşildal (K)	Yeşilada (K)	Yeşilçay (K)	Yeşilçonlu (K)	Yeşildere (K)
Yeşilkaraman(K)	Yeşildallı (K)	Yeşilçam (K)	Yeşilçevre (K)	Yeşilçukur (K)	Yeşilbağlar (K)
Yeşilalan (K)	Yeşildam (K)	Yeşildurak (K)	Yeşilhisar (K)	Yeşilkale (K)	Yeşildon (K)
Yeşilören (K)	Yeşilli (K)	Yeşilgöl (K)	Yeşilbayır (K)	Yeşilkavak (K)	Yeşilköy (K)
Yeşilöz (K)	Yeşiloba (K)	Yeşilbahçe (K)	Yeşilhüyük (K)	Yeşilkaya (K)	Yeşilkuyu (K)
Yeşilözen (K)	Yeşilova (K)	Yeşilkonak (K)	Yeşiller (K)	Yeşilkent (K)	Yeşilburç (K)
Yeşilyamaç (K)	Yeşilpınar (K)	Yeşiltaş (K)	Yeşilvadi (K)	Yeşilyazı (K)	Yeşilyöre (K)
Yeşilyayla (K)	Yeşilsırt (K)	Yeşiltepe (K)	Yeşilbarak (K)	Yeşilağaç (K)	Yeşilyurt (K)
Yeşilbağ (K)	Yeşilsu (K)	Yeşiltömek (K)	Yeşilyaka (K)	Yeşilyol (K)	Yeşilalıç (K)
Yeşilyuva (K)					

#### *Yeşil renk adını içeren dağ adları*

Yeşil renk adını içeren bir dağ adı saptanmıştır.

Yeşil Dağ (Kütahya)

#### *Yeşil renk adını içeren su adları*

Yeşil renk adını içeren iki su adı saptanmıştır. Bunlardan biri Türkiye'nin altıncı en uzun akarsuyu, biri de deredir.

Yeşilırmak

Yeşil Dere (Isparta)

#### *Yeşil renk adını içeren kişi adları*

Yeşil renk adını içeren iki kişi adı saptanmıştır. Bunlardan biri yeşil renk adının eski biçimidir.

Yaşıl (K)

Yeşil (K/E)

*Kır*

Kır renk adını içeren 40'ı yer, 18'i kişi adı olmak üzere toplam 58 özel ad saptanmıştır.

*Kır renk adıyla yer adları*

Kır renk adını içeren biri il, ikisi belde, 37'si köy olmak üzere toplam 40 yer adı saptanmıştır.

Kırşehir (İ)	Kıracasalılı (B)	Kırabası (B)	Kıraçtepe (K)	Kıratbükü (K)	Kıravdan (K)
Kıraçbağı (K)	Kıraçköy (K)	Kıraçoba (K)	Kıraman (K)	Kıratlı (K)	Kıravga (K)
Kırbaş (K)	Kıraçgöz (K)	Kırcalar (K)	Akkıraç (K)	Nahırkıracı (K)	Bozkır (K)
Kırca (K)	Kırcaklı (K)	Kırcalı (K)	Uzunkıraç (K)	Alakır (K)	Kıraçlar (K)
Kırcaoğlu (K)	Kırcı (K)	Kırcay (K)	Kırcı (K)	Kırkışla (K)	Kırcılar (K)
Kıraçgülü (K)	Kırçal (K)	Kırgeriş (K)	Kırkıllı (K)	Kırköy (K)	Kırcı (K)
Kıroba (K)	Kıroğlu (K)	Kırsoku (K)	Kıraç (K)		

*Kır renk adıyla kişi adları*

Kır renk adını içeren 18 kişi adı saptanmıştır. Bu adların tümü erkek adıdır.

Baykır (E)	Kıraç (E)	Kırat (E)	Kıray (E)	Kırboğa (E)	Kırca (E)
Bozkır (E)	Kıralp (E)	Kıratlı (E)	Kırbay (E)	Kırbörü (E)	Kırdar (E)
Kırdarlı (E)	Kırhan (E)	Kırman (E)	Kırtay (E)	Kırteke (E)	Kırtekin (E)

*Çakır*

Çakır renk adını içeren 50'si yer, biri dağ, ikisi su, dördü kişi adı olmak üzere toplam 57 özel ad saptanmıştır.

*Çakır renk adıyla yer adları*

Çakır renk adını içeren 46'sı köy, dördü belde olmak üzere toplam 50 yer adı saptanmıştır.

Çakırhüyük (B)	Çakırlar (B)	Çakırbeyli (B)	Çakıralan (B)	Çakır (K)	Çakırçeşme (K)
Çakırağa (K)	Çakırbahçe (K)	Çakırbeyli (K)	Çakırcaali (K)	Çakırçal (K)	Çakırdemirci(K)
Çakırdere (K)	Çakırakir (K)	Çakırhacılı(K)	Çakırkaş (K)	Çakırkoç (K)	Çakırlar (K)
Çakırdoğan (K)	Çakırgümüş(K)	Çakırkadı (K)	Çakırkaya (K)	Çakırköy (K)	Çakırlı (K)
Çakıroba (K)	Çakırören (K)	Çakırözü (K)	Çakırsayvan(K)	Çakırsöğüt (K)	Çakırşeyh (K)
Çakıroğlu (K)	Çakıröz (K)	Çakırpınar(K)	Çakırsaz (K)	Çakırsu (K)	Çakırtarla (K)
Çakırtaş (K)	Çakıryenice(K)	Kızılçakır (K)	Baklançakırlar(K)	Çakırbey (K)	Çakırçalı (K)
Çakırüzüm (K)	Çakıryiğit (K)	Balcıçakır(K)	Çalçakırlar (K)	Çakırca (K)	Çakıralan (K)
Barçaçakırlı(K)			Küçükçakırman(K)		

*Çakır renk adıyla dağ adları*

Çakır renk adını içeren bir dağ adı saptanmıştır.

Çakırözlü Dağı (Trabzon)

*Çakır renk adıyla su adları*

Çakır renk adını içeren dört kişi adı saptanmıştır. Bunlardan biri hem kız hem de erkek adı, üçü erkek adıdır.

Çakır (K/E)	Çakırbey (E)	Çakırca (E)	Çakırer (E)
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*Al*

Taranan kaynaklarda yedisi yer, 33'ü kişi adı olmak üzere toplam 40 özel ad saptanmıştır.

*Al renk adıyla yer adları*

Al renk adını içeren yedi yer adı saptanmıştır. Bunlardan biri belde, altısı köydür.

Albayrak (B) Alca (K) Alçalı (K) Alpaşa (K) Alpaşalı (K) Alaba (K) Alaçık (K)

*Al renk adıyla kişi adları*

Al renk adını içeren yirmisi erkek, dokuzu kız, dördü hem kız hem de erkek adı olmak üzere toplam 33 kişi adı saptanmıştır.

Alçın (E)	Alçiçek (K)	Aldemir (E)	Algül (K)	Algün (K/E)	Alışık (K/E)
Alçinsu (E)	Alçin (K)	Aldeniz (K)	Aldoğan (E)	Alhan (E)	Alışın (K)
Alkan (K/E)	Alkor (E)	Allı (K)	Alnar (E)	Alsancak (E)	Altan (E)
Alkoç (E)	Alköz (E)	Allıkız (K)	Alsaç (K/E)	Alsu (K)	Altaş (E)
Altav (E)	Altemür (E)	Alten (E)	Alipek /Alyipek(K)		Günaltan (E)
Altunç (E)	Aldemir (E)	Alyiğit (E)	Tuncal/Tunçal (E)		

*Mor*

Mor renk adını içeren dokuzu yer, biri su ve ikisi kişi adı olmak üzere toplam 12 özel ad saptanmıştır.

*Mor renk adını içeren yer adları*

Mor renk adını içeren dokuz yer adı saptanmıştır. Bunların tümü köy adıdır.

Morca (K) Morsoğan (K) Morkaya (K) Morsümbül (K) Moryayla (K) Mordoğan (B)  
Morcalı (K) Morhamam(K) Morkoyun (K)

*Mor renk adını içeren dağ adları*

Mor renk adını içeren bir dağ adı saptanmıştır.

Mor Dağı (Van)

*Mor renk adını içeren kişi adları*

Mor renk adını içeren biri kız, biri hem kız hem de erkek adı olan iki kişi adı saptanmıştır.

Moray (K/E) Morgül (K)

*Beyaz*

Beyaz renk adını içeren sekizi yer, ikisi kişi adı olmak üzere toplam 10 özel ad saptanmıştır.

*Beyaz renk adıyla yer adları*

Beyaz renk adını içeren ikisi belde, altısı köy olmak üzere toplam sekiz yer adı saptanmıştır.

Beyazköy (B) Karbeyaz (B) Beyazlar (K) Beyazsu (K) Karbeyaz (K) Beyazköy (K)  
Beyazkaya (K) Beyazsaray (K)

*Beyaz renk adıyla kişi adları*

Beyaz renk adını içeren iki kişi adı saptanmıştır.

Beyaz (K) Gülbeyaz (K)

*Pembe*

Pembe renk adını içeren dördü yer, üçü kişi adı olmak üzere toplam yedi özel ad saptanmıştır.

*Pembe renk adını içeren yer adları*

Pembe renk adını içeren dört köy adı saptanmıştır.

Pembecik (K)

Pembeciler (K)

Pembeli (K)

Pembelik (K)

*Pembe renk adını içeren kişi adları*

Pembe renk adını içeren ve tamamı kız adı olan üç kişi adı saptanmıştır.

Gülpembe (K)

Pembe (K)

Pembegül (K)

*Kırmızı*

Kırmızı renk adını içeren yalnızca dört yer adı saptanmıştır. Bunun dışında özel ad bulunamamıştır. Bunlardan üçü köy, biri beldedir.

Kırmızıköprü (B)

Kırmızılar (K)

Kırmızıtaş (K)

Kırmızıdam (K)

*Mavi*

Mavi renk adını içeren birisi yer, üçü kişi adı olmak üzere dört özel ad saptanmıştır.

*Mavi renk adını içeren yer adları*

Mavi renk adını içeren bir yer adı saptanmıştır.

Mavidere (K)

*Mavi renk adını içeren kişi adları*

Mavi renk adını içeren üç kişi adı saptanmıştır. Bu adların üçü de kız adıdır.

Mavi (K)

Maviş (K)

Mavisel (K)

*Siyah*

Siyah renk adını içeren bir yer adının dışında özel ada rastlanmamıştır. Bu da bir köy adıdır.

Sivrisiyahlar (K)

*Özel adların türlerine göre renk adlarının kullanımı*

Renk adlarının ayrı ayrı kullanımlarının yanında özel adların türlerine göre bakıldığında değişik kullanım sıklıkları saptanmıştır. Bunlar Tablo 2'de görülmektedir.

**Tablo 2.** Özel adların türlerine göre renk adları

	Ak	Al	Ala	Beyaz	Boz	Çakır	Gök	Kara	Kır	Kırmızı	Kızıl	Mavi	Mor	Pembe	Sarı	Siyah	Yeşil
<b>Yer</b> 1557	292	7	68	8	99	50	132	436	40	4	142	1	9	4	191	1	73
<b>Dağ</b> 47	19	0	8	0	4	1	1	11	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
<b>Su</b> 51	17	0	1	0	0	2	8	16	0	0	2	0	0	0	3	0	2
<b>Kişi</b> 523	188	33	24	2	31	4	93	84	18	0	13	3	2	3	23	0	2
<b>Toplam</b> 2178	516	40	101	10	134	57	234	547	58	4	158	4	12	7	217	1	78

Tablo 2 yakından incelendiğinde yer adı oluşturmada öne çıkan ve en sık kullanılan renk adlarının *kara* (436), *ak* (292), *sarı* (191), *kızıl* (142), *gök* (132) ve *boz* (99) olduğu görülmektedir. Dağ adlarının yapımında ise *Ak* (19), *kara* (11), *ala* (8) ve *boz* (4) diğer renk adlarına nispeten çok daha sıklıkla kullanılmıştır. Su adları incelendiğinde *Ak* (17), *kara* (16), ve *gök* (8) en sık görülen renk adları olarak tespit edilmiştir. Kişi adlarında *Ak* (188) renk adı diğer renk adlarına nazaran çok daha sıklıkla kullanılmıştır. Bu renk adını, sıklık sırasına göre *gök* (93), *kara* (84), *al* (33), *boz* (31), *ala* (24), *sarı* (23) izlemektedir. Diğer renk adları daha az görülmektedir.

## 5. Tartışma ve Sonuç

Özel ad oluşturmada 17 farklı renk adının tespit edilmiştir. Bu makale için yapılan taramada özel adların yapımında sadece ana renklerin tercih edilmiş, açık, koyu gibi renk belirleyicilerinin kullanılmamıştır. Renk adlarının böylesi zengin kullanımı Türk kültürünün ve kültürümüzün sesi olan Türkçenin doğanın renkleriyle ne kadar iç içe bir dil olduğunun ortaya koymaktadır. Türkçemizin anlatım zenginliğinin doğanın çeşitliliğinden esinlendiği söylemek yanlış olmayacaktır.

Bir dilin bu kadar çok renk adı içermesi gelişmişliğini de ortaya koymaktadır. Berlin ve Kay'in (1969) kuramına göre Türkçede bu kadar çok farklı renk adının etkin ve yaygın olarak görüşmesi dilimizin zenginliğinin göstergelerinden sadece bir tanesidir.

Özel ad oluşturmada en sık kullanılan renk adları *kara*, *ak*, *gök* ve *sarı*dır. Onları sırasıyla *kızıl*, *boz*, *ala*, *yeşil*, *kır*, *çakır*, *al*, *mor*, *beyaz*, *pembe*, *kırmızı*, *mavi* ve *siyah* izlemektedir. Özel ad yapımında bu dört renk adının ön plana çıkması oldukça çarpıcı bir olgudur. Ön plana çıkan bu dört rengin yanı sıra, bu sıralamada dikkat çekici bir diğer özellik, Türkçe kökenli olmayan *siyah* (<Far.), *kırmızı* (<Ar.), *mavi* (<Far.), *pembe* (<Far.), *beyaz* (<Ar.), ve kökeni tam olarak belli olmayan *mor* gibi renk adlarının özel ad oluşturmada sıklıkla tercih edilmemesidir. Bu durumdan hareketle, özel adları koyarken Türkçe konuşanların öncelikle Türkçenin kadim renk adlarını tercih ettikleri rahatlıkla söylenebilir. Ayrıca *kurşunî*, *sincabî*, *şarabî*, *lacivert*, *kahverengi* gibi yabancı kökenli sözcükler barındıran renk adlarını içeren özel ad olmaması da bunu belirginleştirmektedir. Bu durum üzerine Eren “Türkçe *gök* kelimesi varken *mavi* kelimesini kullanmaya lüzum var mıdır? Aydınlarımız *mavi* gözden bahsederler, fakat halk *gök göz* der, *Gökbel*, *Gökbelen*, *Gökçeören*, *Gökgöl*, *Gökkaya*, *Gökpınar*, *Gökseki* der, *Gökkaya*, *Gökayar*, *Göktepe*, *Göksu* der, fakat aydınlar *Mavi Nil* ve “*Mavi Tuna*” derler. *Göknil* ve *Göktuna* daha güzel ve daha Türkçe değil midir? (1989, s. 165)” sözleriyle özel adlarda tercih edilen renk adlarının Türkçe olmasının nedenini açıklamaktadır.

Uzun süredir dilin çevrim alanının içinde olan renk adlarının çok daha geniş kavramsal alanlara sahip olması mümkündür. Bu durumda, özel ad yapımında en sık yer alan renk adları; en eski dönemlerden beri var olmakta ve sıklıkla başka kavramlar için de kullanılmaktadır. Bu renk adlarının soyut renk

kavramlarını işaret etmenin yanında eski Türkçede *kuzey-kara*, *güney-kızıl*, *doğu-gök*, *batı-ak* ve *merkez-sarı* olmak üzere farklı yönleri belirtmek için kullanıldıkları bilinmektedir. Dört yönün yanı sıra, günün dört zamanı, dört mevsim de renklerle ifade edilmiştir (Geniş bilgi için Bkz. Çelik 1942; Gabain 1968, ss. 107-109).

Gabain bu renklerden “kara, ak, kızıl, yeşil ve *sarı*ğın kullanımının yaygın; ala, kök, boz ve kırmızı sınırlı (1968, s. 108)” olduğunu ifade ederken aslında Türk kültüründe asıl ve ikincil renkleri belirtmektedir. Buna ek olarak da “Yalnız yeşil yerine herhâlde kök de geçebiliyor (1968, ss. 108)” diyerek gök renk adının anlam alanında yeşili de barındırdığına işaret etmektedir. Tablo 1’in verileri Gabain’in görüşünü destekler niteliktedir. Gök renk adı, tarihî dönem eserlerindeki kullanımlar ve Anadolu ağızlarındaki örneklere bakıldığında yeşilin yanında mavi ve mor renklerinin ifadesini de taşıyor olmalıdır. Gök renk adını içeren 234 özel ad varken yeşil içeren 78, mavi içeren 4, mor içeren 12 özel ad vardır. Bu durum gök renk adının bu renkleri anlam alanında barındırmasının yanı sıra dildeki eskiliğinin de göstergesi olarak kabul edilebilir.

Yer adı oluşturmada en sık kullanılan renk adlarının *kara*, *ak*, *sarı*, *kızıl*, *gök* ve *boz* olduğu görülmektedir. Yukarıda verilen bilgiler ışığında yer adlarının verilmesinde tarihi kökeni olan ve anlam alanı geniş olan kadim renk adlarının ön plana çıktığı söylenebilir. Örneğin, yer adlarında en sık kullanılan renk adı olan karanın bu adların tümünde renk anlamı taşımadığını söylemek yanlış olmayacaktır. Kara bu yer adlarında “seçkin, alade, kuzey, esmer” gibi anlam alanındaki diğer anlamları da belirtiyor olmalıdır. Yer adlarında en sık görülen renk adlarını sırasıyla *yeşil*, *ala*, *çakır*, *kır*, *mor*, *beyaz*, *al*, *pembe*, *kırmızı*, *mavi* ve *siyah* izlemektedir.

Dağ adı oluşturmada en sık kullanılan renk adları *ak*, *kara*, *ala* ve *boz*dur. Doğa olayları, coğrafik yapı ve bitki örtüsünün durumunu bu renk adlarıyla ifade ediliyor olabilir. Örneğin, *kara* renk adının bu makalede incelenen tüm özel adlarda en çok kullanılan renk adı olmasına karşın, dağ adlarında en sık görülen renk adının *ak* olması oldukça ilginç bir durumdur. Türk kültüründe dağ imajının doruklarda çok uzun süre karla kaplı olması bu olgunun ifadesi için *ak* renk adını ön plana çıkarmış olabilir. Dağ adlarında en sık görülen renk adlarını sıklık sırasına göre birer dağ adıyla *çakır*, *gök*, *kızıl*, *mor*, *yeşil* renk adları izlemektedir.

Su adlarında en sık kullanılan renk adları *ak*, *kara*, *gök* ve *sarı*dır. Su için en önemli niteliğin temizliği olduğu düşünüldüğünde en çok kullanılan renk adının *ak* olmasının nedeni; akın anlam alanındaki “temizlik, berraklık” anlamı olmalıdır. *Kara*, *gök* ve *sarı* renk adları suyun derinliği ve içinde taşıdığı maddelerin rengiyle değişen görüntüsüne göre farklı renkleri ifade etmek için kullanılmaktadır. Su adlarında en sık kullanılan renk adlarını kullanım sıklığına göre ikişer su adıyla *çakır*, *kızıl*, *yeşil* ve bir su adıyla *ala* izlemektedir.

Kişi adlarında en sık kullanılan renk adları *ak*, *gök* ve *karadır*. Kişi adlarında renk adları kullanımı çok daha geniş bir çeşitlilik göstermektedir. *Kırmızı* ve *siyah* dışında bu taramada tespit edilen tüm renk adları kişi adı yapımında kullanılmıştır. Diğer özel ad alanlarında ayrı olarak bu çeşitlilik, kişi adı koymanın Türk kültüründe tarihsel bir geçmişin yanı sıra güncel gelişmelerden de etkilendiğine işaret etmektedir. Yer, dağ ve su adlarının tarihsel geçmişleriyle sık sık değişmesi pek olası değildir. Oysa yaşam süresi çok daha kısa olan ve yaşadığı anlık coğrafya, kültür, ekonomik ve siyasî şartlardan etkilenen insanoğlunun ad verme alışkanlıkları ve eğilimlerinin değişim göstermesi çok daha olasıdır. Dile yeni giren ve albenisi olan yeni renk kavram ve adlarının kişi adı vermede kullanılması özellikle Türk kültürü gibi renk adlarını çok kullanan bir dilde şaşırtıcı olmamalıdır. Bu yüzden, diğer özel ad türlerinin aksine kişi adlarındaki bu çeşitliliği güncel gelişmelere ve dilin gelişip zenginleşmesine bağlamak yanlış olmayacaktır.

Kişi adlarında renk adlarının kullanımının doğrudan soyut renk kavramı yerine yan anlamları ile kullanılması şaşırtıcı değildir. Örneğin, en sık görülen renk adı olan *ak*, bu kişi adlarının tümünde renk

anlamına işaret etmiyor olmalıdır. Ak renk adının anlam alanındaki “temiz, dürüst, namuslu, seçkin” gibi anlamlar da bu adlarda kullanılmış olmalıdır. *Pembe* ve *mor* renk adları daha çok güzellik ifadesi olarak gül çiçeği ile birlikte kullanılmaktadır.

Sonuç olarak, yukarıdaki tarama ve incelemeden aşağıdakileri söylemek mümkündür. İlk olarak, Türkçe özel ad yapımında renk adları yoğun olarak kullanılmaktadır. Kavram alanları genişleyen renk adları renklerin öneminin yanı sıra onların temel sözcüklerden olduğunu ve dil bilimi açısından işlevselliğini de göstermektedir. İkinci olarak, Türkçe özel adlar daha çok kadim renk adlarına başvurularak oluşturulmaktadır. Bu ad verme geleneğinde kullanılan renk adlarının sadece renk anlamlarıyla kullanılmamakta, pek çok yan ve mecaz anlam içermektedir. Üçüncü olarak, her ne kadar, özel ad vermede kadim renk adları tercih edilse de ad verilenin yaşam süresi ve tarihsel döngüsü dilin gelişimine paralel olarak daha yeni dil öğelerinin kullanılmasına olanak vermektedir. Kişi adlarında dile nispeten yeni girmiş renk adlarının kullanımı buna iyi bir örnektir. Son olarak farklı özel ad türleri renk adlarının anlam alanlarına göre değişik renk adlarını, ak renk adının dağ adlarında daha çok tercih edilmesi gibi, çağrıştırmaktadır.

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## Coining proper names through colour terms in Turkish

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### Abstract

Turkish is rich in colour terms. Despite the wealth of such terms in Turkish, studies into their linguistic functions and roles in coining and giving proper names are relatively new and inadequate. This study aims to explore the place of colour terms in onomastics and their function in giving proper names in Turkish. This study firstly created a corpus of proper names with colour names from a collection of important sources like maps and dictionaries, which was then followed by an analysis of frequency and content. This study documented 17 different colour terms used in Turkish proper names. Of these, older colour terms such as *kara* (black), *ak* (white), *gök* (blue), and *sarı* (yellow) are used relatively more frequently. It is apparent that these long existing colour terms have larger conceptual fields than those relatively newer colour terms. It was also observed that different types of proper names may attract different colour terms simply due to different meanings they hold in their conceptual field. It was also observed that anthroponomy, with a more vibrant use of relatively newer colour terms in naming human beings as well as a well employment of the older terms, constitutes a more dynamic domain. This study has documented the wealth and linguistic functionality of Turkish colour terms in coining proper names.

*Keywords:* colour terms; proper names; onomastique

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