

The Production of Turkish Relative Clauses in Second Language Acquisition: Overcoming Student Difficulties

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Abstract

This study focuses on teaching relative clauses (RCs) in Turkish, a left-branching language, and discusses the relative difficulty of producing RCs in Turkish by English-speaking learners by investigating whether the production of subject relative clauses in Turkish is easier than that of the object relative clauses. It also offers suggestions as to how to help learners overcome these difficulties. Turkish and English belong to two different language families, Altaic and Indo-European respectively. This study lends further insight that Turkish does not have RCs similar to those found in Indo-European languages. Instead, in Turkish RCs comprise nominalized verbs and participles. The characteristics of Turkish are also explained such as its word order, agglutinating morphology, vowel and consonant harmony rules as well as case markers indicating grammatical relations between sentence constituents, which shed light to our understanding of RCs in Turkish. Data was collected through written and oral tasks from students enrolled in a military intensive Turkish language training program in the United States. Moreover, their performance was studied through classroom observations and one-on-one speaking activities.

Introduction

Language learners have to internalize grammar forms of the target language in order to produce and comprehend them without difficulty in their daily communications. This is not an easy task since it involves overcoming processing difficulties caused by the grammar of the target language. One grammar structure that exemplifies such processing difficulties with re-

spect to comprehension as well as production and that has received attention in literature is the relative clause (RC). Interest in this structure is induced to a certain extent by its universality in languages of the world and to some extent by its syntactic properties as well as its frequency and usefulness in day to day use of language (Izumi, 2003).

The comprehension and production of RCs (Eckman, Bell, & Nelson, 1988; Gass, 1979; Hamilton, 1994; Izumi, 2003; O'Grady, Lee, & Choo, 2003; Pavesi, 1986; Wolfe-Quintero, 1992) have received considerable attention in second language acquisition research. However, most of these studies are on languages similar to English, in which RCs are postnominal, where the relative clause follows its head. The research indicates that subject relative (SR) clauses as in (1a) are easier to produce and comprehend than are direct object relative (OR) clauses as in (1b) (Aydın, 2007).

1. a. the boy who loves the girl
 b. the boy whom the girl loves

In SLA literature, much work on the relative difficulty of processing and acquiring different types of RCs has been influenced by the work on the typology of RCs by Keenan and Comrie (1977; e.g. Eckman et al., 1988; Gass, 1979; Pavesi, 1986; Wolfe-Quintero, 1992). This typology is based on the markedness obtained from an extensive comparative study of RC structures in various typologically different languages. It focuses on the positions of the NP (Noun Phrase) that can be relativized, which vary among different languages of the world in a systematic way. According to this typology, if a language permits relativization of NPs of a particular type, for example indirect object, then those NPs of the type that are located higher in the hierarchy (in this case, direct object and subject) may also undergo relativization, as illustrated in (2):

2. subject > direct object > indirect object > oblique > genitive

As mentioned previously, findings indicating that SRs are easier to comprehend than ORs, and the hierarchy of relative difficulty is based on studies that take the English language as their basis. There are very few studies on the languages where RCs are pronominal, whereby the RC precedes its head, such as Korean (O'Grady et al., 2003) and Turkish (Aydın, 2007), and both these studies focus on the comprehension of RCs rather than their production. In their study, Grady et al. (2003) studied English speaking learners of Korean and found that L2 learners of Korean appear to find SRs far easier to comprehend than non-subject relatives (ORs) due to the structural distance between the gap and the head of the RC.

Aydın (2007) investigated English, Japanese and Korean speaking learners of Turkish, which yielded similar results in that "the subject gap is structurally closer to the head than is the direct object gap" (Aydın 2007, p. 300). He studied 32 adult learners of Turkish of different degrees of proficiency with different L1 backgrounds, namely English, Korean and Japanese. RC structures in Korean and Japanese resemble Turkish RC structures; whereas English RC constructions are considerably different, which may point to the possibility of transfer whereby similarities are easily learned but differences result in a greater number of errors, as posited by the strong form of the contrastive analysis hypothesis of Wardhaugh (1970). It was found that processing of subject relative (SR) clauses is easier than that of object relative (OR) clauses in Turkish, a left-branching language. Moreover, Japanese and Korean speakers had more correct responses for SRs (45) and ORs (26) as opposed to English speakers (32 and 21 respectively). Additionally, Japanese and Korean speakers had fewer incorrect responses for SRs (19) and ORs (38) as opposed to English speakers (32 and 43 respectively).

Although little research has been carried out on the comprehension of Turkish RCs in L2 speakers, the issue of comprehension and production of Turkish RCs has been the subject of

much recent work in L1 acquisition of Turkish (e.g., Aarssen, 1996; Ekmekçi, 1990; Slobin, 1986; Özcan, 1997).

Ekmekçi (1990) investigated the nature of children's production and imitation of RCs in Turkish. Her study supported the appearance of SRs before ORs in child speech. She demonstrated that children perform better in the production of SRs than in the production of ORs.

Slobin (1986) compared the use of RCs in the speech samples of 57 English-speaking and 57 Turkish-speaking children from the age of 2-to-4.5. All RCs occurring in the adult-child interactions were extracted. The occurrence of RCs turned out to be rare in both languages and was not found before the age of 2.5. However, he also found that acquisition of RCs in Turkish is much slower, and happens later when compared to English. In other words, the acquisition of RCs is much faster in English than in Turkish. Slobin (1986) claims that the number of RCs used by 2-to-4-year-old Turkish monolingual children in his study is about half the number of RCs used by English-speaking children in the same age group. In other words, RCs were twice as frequent in English as in Turkish. The same asymmetric pattern was evidenced in the adult speech to the children.

The relative difficulty in Turkish RCs was explained from the deformation of the embedded clause which loses the finite verb and normal case inflections of a canonical main clause. RCs in English approximate the canonical form of an English clause. On the other hand, RCs in Turkish are noncanonical. Moreover, "the nonfinite verbs in relative clauses may not even be recognized as interpretable by children" (Slobin 1986, p. 282). In other words, children encounter difficulty in distinguishing the functions of nonfinite verb forms (p. 287). Furthermore, Turkish children hardly ever used the ORs (12% overall) whereas English-speaking children used ORs almost 5 times more (56%), which brings to mind Keenan-Comrie's (1977) accessibility hierarchy presenting subjects to be most accessible to relativization: subject > direct object > indirect object > oblique >

genitive. English speakers could even relativize on oblique cases fairly frequently, although this was very rare in Turkish (Slobin, 1986).

An additional difficulty appears to result from the complexity of the Turkish *-dik* construction, the object participle, as opposed to the *-(y)En* construction, the subject participle. In other words, the construction of SRs and ORs is not identical in Turkish. As argued by Slobin (1986), the genitive marking of the subject of the ORs is quite distant from the canonical clause structure in Turkish. The data shows that children are reluctant to interpret a sentence-initial noun in the genitive as an agent. He adds that even Turkish adults find it easier to process complex sentences beginning with nouns in the nominative. Thus, it is easier for them to process *-(y)En* rather than *-dik* constructions. Therefore, Slobin argues that the use of ORs are more difficult and problematic than that of SRs in Turkish (1986, p. 285). In sum, both Slobin (1986) and Ekmekçi (1990), who studied Turkish language acquisition as L1, indicate that it is easier to find SRs than ORs.

In investigating distinctive subskills of Turkish children in the Netherlands and in Turkey, Verhoeven & Boeschoten (1986; also cited in Verhoeven, 1991) studied Turkish language abilities of children in those two countries. At the morphosyntactic level, there was a strong divergence regarding the acquisitional pattern of nonfinite verb forms. It seemed that the use of complex constructions requiring nominalized verb forms was extremely difficult for the children in the Netherlands, acquiring or learning Turkish as a second language.

When the findings are compared taking L1 acquisition into consideration, it is observed that there are similarities between adults learning Turkish as an L2 and children learning Turkish as an L1 as to the comprehension of RCs. This similarity, in turn, can be used as testimony against a fundamental L1-L2 difference hypothesis (Aydın, 2007). As O'Grady et al. (2003) posit ".....comparative study of L1 and L2 acquisition offers the

promise of insight into how language is learned and used” (p. 445).

Although very few studies have been carried out on the comprehension of Turkish RCs in L2 learners, no research has been conducted on the production of RCs in Turkish in L2 learners. This study aims at discussing the relative difficulty of producing subject and object RCs in Turkish, a left-branching language, by focusing on teaching RCs in Turkish as a Less Commonly Taught Language (LCTL) through formal instruction in a military intensive Turkish language training program in the United States. It also investigates whether the production of subject relatives (SRs) in Turkish is easier than that of object relatives (ORs). The findings of this study can be applied to the teaching and learning of this useful grammar point in the educational institutions in the United States. Teaching suggestions as classroom activities are also presented in the conclusion of the paper. Some of these activities are created by instructors teaching Turkish in this military language training institute and some are taken from textbooks related to classroom pedagogy.

At this military language training program Turkish is taught as a Category III language. It belongs to the second category of most difficult languages to learn for English native speakers as defined by the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) skill level descriptions originally developed by the United States Foreign Service Institute (The ILR (FSI) Proficiency Scale, 1999) (see Appendix A for a complete list of categories of languages).

There are a number of factors that can affect the level of complexity in learning two totally unrelated languages (Niyekawa, 1983; Tozcu and Coady, 2003). For instance, the learner has to deal with orthographic, phonological, morphosyntactic and syntactic differences which might pose considerable difficulty in learning two unrelated languages. Since morphosyntactic features that are vital to sentence comprehension differ across languages, information-processing procedures also diverge across languages

(Koda, 2005), which turn out to be challenging for the language learner. In this case, Turkish, an Altaic language, when compared with English, an Indo-European language, is structurally as well as morphosyntactically dissimilar, which may create considerable difficulty for English native speakers learning Turkish.

General Characteristics of Turkish Language

Turkish is an Altaic language with a neutral word order of Subject-Object-Verb (SOV). Unlike English that is a right-branching language, Turkish is a left-branching language. The characteristics of the language are “suffixed inflections, postpositions, and preposed demonstratives, numerals, possessives, adjectives and relative clauses” (Aksu-Koç and Slobin, 1985, p. 840). Subject pronouns can be deleted because verbal affixes mark person and number. Morphology is agglutinating and the morphemes are post-posed. Words are composed of a sequence of suffixes, which are added to an unchanging root and each suffix expresses a grammatical category (Bayraktaroğlu & Bayraktaroğlu, 1992). The case markers suffixed to the noun phrases (NPs) indicate the grammatical relations between sentence constituents. The role of prepositions is assumed by case-suffixes that are attached to the end of the nouns; but there are some postpositions that immediately follow the nouns to which they refer (Mardin, 1961; Thomas, 1967). As Lewis (2000) claims “the functions of some English prepositions are performed in Turkish by the case-suffixes. Those of the rest are performed by postpositions, which follow the word they govern” (p. 83).

Turkish has a Latin alphabet which consists of eight vowels and twenty-one consonants. “Vowel harmony operates throughout all words of native origin and for all grammatical suffixes that harmonize with the last vowel of the noun or verb stem” (Aksu-Koç and Slobin, 1985, p. 840). The following are the two alternations which suffixes follow: “(1) A front-back alteration of unrounded low vowels, e/a, represented by the phonematic unit E, and (2) A front-back, rounded-unrounded alterna-

tion of high vowels, *i/ı/ü/u/*, represented by *I*" (1985, p. 840). For example, the ablative suffix *-dEn* can be realized as *Rize-den* 'from Rize' and *Erzurum-dan* 'from Erzurum' and the genitive suffix *-In* can be realized as *Rize-nin* 'of Rize' and *Erzurum-un* 'of Erzurum.' Noun and verb stems are followed by strings of syllabic grammatical particles agreeing in vowel harmony with the stem. The order of noun suffixes is as follows: stem + (plural) + (possessive) + (case) (Slobin, 1986, p. 274).

In addition to vowel harmony, we see the phenomenon of consonant harmony operating throughout words and grammatical suffixes (Kornfilt, 2000). During the process of agglutination, when a suffix is added to a word stem or to a preceding suffix, two types of consonant change may take place: 1) the initial consonant of the newly added suffix may change; or 2) the final consonant of the word stem or the preceding suffix may change (Bayraktaroğlu & Bayraktaroğlu, 1992, p. 23). There are four consonant pairs that are involved in such changes: *t-d*; *p-b*; *ç-c*; *k-g* or *-ğ* (Bayraktaroğlu & Bayraktaroğlu, 1992, p. 23). For instance, the voiceless consonants 'p,' 't,' 'k,' and 'ç,' change to their voiced counterpart 'b,' 'd,' 'ğ,' and 'c' respectively before a suffix beginning with a vowel (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005; Swift, 1963).

The section that follows discusses case markers in Turkish, one of the sources of difficulty for English native speakers in applying them to the head of RCs.

Case Markers

Case suffixes that are bound affixes are the most productive way to indicate syntactic functions of noun phrases (Kornfilt, 2000). Nouns in Turkish are case marked for accusative, dative, locative, ablative, and genitive (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005; Mardin, 1961; Sebüktekin, 1971). The same case markers are also applied to pronouns, demonstratives, question words, and derived nouns (Aksu-Koç and Slobin, 1985, p. 840).

The Accusative Case

The accusative marker *-(y)I* corresponds to 'the', the definite article in English which is also called the determiner (Underhill 1976, p. 50). For example,

3. John ev -i gör -dü.
 (John house ACC see Past)
 /John evi gördü/ 'John saw the house.'

The Dative Case

The dative marker *-(y)E* corresponds to prepositions 'to' and 'for' in English (Underhill 1976, p. 67). For example,

4. Okul -a gel -di.
 (school DAT come Past)
 /Okula geldi/ 'He came to school.'
5. John Jane -e bir kitap al -dı.
 (John Jane DAT a book buy Past)
 /John Jane'e bir kitap aldı/ 'John bought a book for Jane.'

The Locative Case

The locative marker *-dE* corresponds to prepositions such as 'in', 'at', 'on', 'by', 'over' in English (Underhill 1976, p. 79). For example,

6. Fransa -da yaş -ar.
 (France LOC live Aorist)
 /Fransa'da yaşar/ 'He lives in France.'

The Ablative Case

The ablative marker *-dEn* corresponds to prepositions such as 'from', 'off' in English (Underhill 1976, p. 68). For example,

7. John -dan al -dı.
 (John ABL receive Past)
 /John'dan aldı/ 'He received (it) from John.'

The Genitive Case

In the phrase 'John's notebook' the relationship between 'John' and 'notebook' is illustrated by a suffix '-s' attached to John. However, in Turkish the same relationship is demonstrated by using two suffixes, which are the genitive case inflection *-ın* attached to John, and the possessive suffix *-i* attached to *defter* 'notebook' (Underhill, 1976, p. 91). For example,

8. John *-ın* *defter* *-i*.

(John GEN notebook POSS)

/John'ın defteri/ 'John's notebook'

As Underhill notes, "The genitive suffix indicates that the noun to which it is attached is the possessor of some other noun. The possessive suffix indicates that the noun to which it is attached is possessed by some other noun" (1976, p. 91). "A number of grammarians also recognize the genitive as a case for subjects of nominalized clauses..." (Kornfilt, 2000, p. 212). There is a different genitive and corresponding possessive suffix for each person and number in Turkish.

Relative Clauses in Turkish

RCs are adjectival constructions that modify noun phrases. In Turkish RCs precede the noun phrases they modify the way adjectives precede the nouns they modify, and they contain one of the participle suffixes *-(y)En* or *-dik*, which correspond to relative pronouns such as 'who,' 'which,' 'that,' 'whom,' 'whose,' and 'where' in English (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005). In Turkish verb phrases can be nominalized and can function as embedded clauses. For instance, in RCs with underlying objects, as in the Turkish equivalent of 'the book which John read' in Example (9), 'John' which is the underlying subject in the embedded clause, takes the genitive suffix, thus "possessing a nominalized form of his action of 'reading,' and this entire possessed nomin-

al" precedes the head noun *kitap* (Aksu-Koç and Slobin, 1985, p. 842):

9. John -in oku -duğ -u kitap
 (John GEN:3SG read PART POSS:3SG book)
 /John'ın okuduğu kitap/ 'The book which John read'

In English, as demonstrated in Example (9), a RC is introduced by a *wh*-word that modifies a Noun Phrase (NP). The RC follows the NP that it modifies, and the embedded clause has a missing NP in it. In Turkish, on the other hand, the RC precedes the NP that it modifies, and the verb of the modifying clause is nominalized with an object participle. Moreover, there is not an overt *wh*-element in RCs in Turkish. Additionally, the RC in English retains its finite verb 'read' and has a subject pronoun (who, whom, which, etc.) (Baker, 1989); whereas in Turkish there is a nonfinite verb with a nominal participle. Since Turkish is a left branching language, the RCs precede the head nouns that they modify whereas in English the RCs follow the head nouns that they modify because of the right branching feature of the language.

In summary, looking at RCs in Indo-European languages, we find clearly separated surface clauses, whereas the corresponding clauses in Turkish are considerably different from their underlying representation. Therefore, it can be concluded that Turkish does not have RC constructions similar to those found in Indo-European languages. Instead, Turkish has participle phrases with nonfinite verbs in the form of nominalizations with subject participles, *-(y)En* (as realized *-en/an* depending on vowel harmony rules) or object participles *-dIk* (as realized *-diğ/diğ/duğ/düğ/tığ/tiğ/tuğ/tüğ* depending on vowel and consonant harmony rules). Along the same lines, vowel harmony also applies to the possessive suffix that is attached to object participles (as realized *-dığı/diği/duğu/düğü/tığı/tiği/tuğu/tüğü*). The tense suffix of the verb in the embedded clause is replaced with a participle depending on whether there is an underlying subject

or object in the embedded clause, resulting in the embedded clause losing its finite verb. As mentioned previously, with object relative clauses a genitive suffix is added to the subject of the embedded sentence, and the corresponding possessive suffix is attached to the participle, thus forming a genitive-possessive compound (Underhill, 1976, pp. 287-288; Öztopçu, 2006). Furthermore, there is no empty position; rather this is filled by a participle *-(y)En* or *-dİk*.

‘The book which John read’ in Example (9) has the structure in Appendix B presenting the right branching direction of RCs in English with a missing NP. Its Turkish equivalent *John’ın okuduğu kitap*, an OR clause in Turkish, has the structure in Appendix C. Vowel harmony applies to the possessive suffix that is attached to the object participle (as realized *-u* in *okuduğu*). The tree diagrams in Appendices B through E are based on C. L. Baker’s (1989) *English Syntax* that is used as a textbook in English syntax both at the undergraduate or the beginning graduate level.

As illustrated in Appendix C, object participles are used when the head noun is the object of the embedded clause and the tense suffix of the verb is replaced with an object participle *-dİk* (Underhill, 1976). The relationship of the target of relativization, the head noun *kitap* ‘book,’ to the relative clause is that of direct object of the verb *oku-* ‘read’ (cf. *John kitabı okudu* ‘John read the book’) (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005). It should be noted /k/ becomes a ‘soft g’ /ğ/ when followed by a vowel (Mardin, 1961). Therefore, the object participle, *-dİk*, or the “Non-Subject Relativization” marker as denoted by Kornfilt (1991, p. 73), becomes *-duğ* when the possessive suffix is added.

Subject participles are used when the head noun is the subject of the embedded clause. In Example (10) the relationship of the target of relativization, the head noun *çocuk* ‘boy,’ to the relative clause is that of subject of the verb *oku-* ‘read’ (cf. *çocuk kitabı okuyor* ‘the boy is reading the book’) (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p. 439). “We substitute for the present tense *okuyor* the present participle *okuyan*” (Lewis, 2000 p. 255). The “Subject

Relativization” marker, as denoted by Kornfilt (1991, p. 73), is –(y)En. It is simply added to verb stems and, thus, replaces the tense suffix of the verb (Öztopçu, 2006; Underhill 1976; Mardin, 1961). Example (10) has the structure as in Appendix D in Turkish.

10. **Kitab -ı oku -yan çocuk**
 (Book ACC read SP boy
 /Kitabı okuyan çocuk/ ‘The boy who is reading the book’

It is also worthwhile to mention that participles are verbal suffixes and can only be attached to verb stems, never to nouns or adjectives. “When relativizing a constituent of a nominal sentence the suppletive form *ol-* of the copula is used as the bearer of the participle suffixes” (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p. 439). As also noted by Lewis “when the verb of the original statement is simply ‘is’, the use of a participle meaning ‘being’, i.e., *olan* or *bulunan...*” is supplied (2000, p. 255), which creates additional difficulty for learners of Turkish as a foreign language. For instance, from Example (11) we can derive Example (12).

11. **Kitap -lar masa -da**
 (Book PL table LOC)
 /Kitaplar masada/ ‘The books are on the table.’

12. **Masa -da ol -an kitap -lar**
 (Table LOC BE SP book PL)
 /Masada olan kitaplar/ ‘The books that are on the table’

Example (12) that exemplifies a subject relative clause in Turkish with a nonverbal predicate has the structure as in Appendix E.

Methodology

Participants

Participants of this study were seventeen military students enrolled in an intensive Turkish language training program in the United States. As they were entering the program, all participants took the DLAB (Defense Language Aptitude Battery), which measured students' aptitude for learning foreign languages. The mean of participants' age was 32; their ages ranged between 25 and 44. Fifteen of them were male and two of them were female. All participants reported that Turkish was a foreign language for them. Their educational backgrounds varied: six of them had M.S. degrees, two of them had M.A. degrees, one of them had a B.S. degree; two of them had A.A. degrees; one of them was working on his B.S. degree, and five of them had some college education.

Method

In an attempt to determine whether different tasks assigned to students would generate different or contradictory results, they were asked to perform three written tasks including a sentence combining task, a grammaticality judgement task and a picture task during the intermediate phase of the extensive course. The grammaticality judgment task and sentence combining task were adapted from Gass (1979) whereas the picture task was adapted from O'Grady et al. (2003), Özçelik (2006) and Aydın (2007). The grammaticality judgment task was intended to provide information regarding students' receptive knowledge of Turkish RCs. The sentence combining and picture tasks were intended to extract information regarding students' productive knowledge of the same grammatical structure.

The grammaticality judgement task

The grammaticality judgement task involved participants' giving acceptability judgments to 27 Turkish sentences, each of

which contained a RC. Of these sentences 13 were well-formed Turkish sentences and 14 were not. Each ungrammatical sentence contained one of the six error types listed below:

- Using subject participles (SPs) in place of object participles (OPs) and vice versa
- Omission of OLAN during relativization of sentences with nonverbal predicates
- Incorrect ordering of words during relativization
- Incorrect application of case markers to the head of the RCs
- Incorrect application of vowel harmony rules to SPs and OPs
- Incorrect application of consonant harmony rules to SPs and OPs

The sentences were kept as simple as possible lexically to guarantee that the grammaticality judgments were not made on the basis of something other than the one which was particularly being examined. As claimed by Gass (1979), on the grammaticality judgement task, which is a decoding task, there were apparently two steps taken on the way to accepting or rejecting a sentence. It is logical to presume that a participant first attempts to interpret the sentence under consideration since it is highly unlikely that it will be perceived as acceptable if it cannot be interpreted semantically. Additionally, the participant must determine whether it fits the pattern of Turkish denoted by his or her interlanguage. Familiarity seems to be the factor in taking decisions on pattern congruity.

Sentence combining task

The sentence combining task entailed combining two sentences. To obtain sufficient data of this type, it was crucial to 'compel' participants to produce sentences containing RCs. It was hoped that the results from this task would display participants' actual competence, since specific instructions were provided to produce this particular structure. On the other hand, the results from the grammaticality judgement task may not dis-

play the entirety of the participant's knowledge, since the input was controlled to a greater extent by the researcher.

In the sentence combining task participants were given 12 pairs of Turkish sentences with specific oral and written instructions regarding the way they should be combined. In other words, the instructions were such that the only correct way of combining them would produce a RC. Six pairs entailed the formation of subject relative clauses and the remaining six pairs entailed the formation of object relative clauses. Errors made on the sentence combining task were again categorized according to the error type. The classification of errors was the same as the classification of errors in the grammaticality judgement task.

Both tasks were given to each participant six times over a five month period. The vocabulary items differed; however, the syntactic structure was kept constant from one testing session to another.

Picture Task

In an attempt to again determine learners' productive knowledge of relative clauses in Turkish, they were also given a picture task whereby participants were given pictures and asked to prepare a narration based on the people or objects in each picture by composing sentences using subject relative (SR) and object relative (OR) clauses. They were instructed to produce at least eight sentences with RCs. Following O'Grady et al. (2003) and Aydın (2007) erroneous productions were categorized as "reversal errors" and "head errors." In reversal errors in SRs, the subject relatives were produced erroneously as object relatives; whereas the head was correctly identified (see Example 13a). In head errors in SRs, erroneous productions show that the word *kızı* 'the girl' was interpreted as the head of the RC, i.e., as the agent (see Example 13b).

13. a. reversal errors in SRs

correct production: "the boy who loves the girl"

incorrect production: “the boy who the girl loves”

b. head errors in SRs

correct production: “the boy who loves the girl”

incorrect production: “the girl who loves the boy”

Similarly, erroneous productions in ORs may occur as demonstrated in Example (14). In reversal errors in ORs, the OR is produced erroneously as an SR; however, the head is correctly identified in this type of error (see Example 14a). In head errors in ORs, the participants produce the word *kızın* ‘the girl’, which is the agent, as the head of the RC (see Example 14b).

14. a. reversal errors in ORs

correct production: “the boy who the girl loves”

incorrect production: “the boy who loves the girl”

b. head errors in ORs

correct production: “the boy who the girl loves”

incorrect production: “the girl who loves the boy”

Classroom observations and speaking activities

Additional data were collected through systematic classroom observations whereby the students were observed while completing grammar exercises regarding RCs in Turkish. They were also observed in class while using RCs in free flowing conversation activities in a relaxed atmosphere as well as during one-on-one speaking sessions. The conversations involved topics such as self and family, education and work experience, descriptions, past, present as well as future narration, current events, and expressing opinion.

Student Survey

In an effort to reflect the attitudes, beliefs, and experiences of the participants with respect to their learning of RCs in Turkish, they were also asked to complete a survey using a Likert scale. The statements on the Likert scale were developed based on students’ errors on sentence combining, grammaticality judge-

ment and picture tasks as well as their errors that were detected as they were completing grammar exercises related to RCs during class visits and their performance during free flowing conversations and one-on-one speaking activities.

Moreover, a short answer survey was also used in the formulation of the Likert scale since, according to Borg and Gall (1989, p. 429), the best method of determining closed form questions or Likert scales is to ask questions in short answer or essay form of a small number of respondents and then use their answers to develop closed form questions or Likert scales. Patton (2002, p. 21; as also cited in Tozcu, 2008, p. 160) claims “the open-ended responses permit one to understand the world as seen by the respondents. The purpose of gathering responses to open-ended questions is to enable the researcher to understand and capture the points of view of other people without predetermining those points of view through prior selection of questionnaire categories.” Therefore, five participants were also interviewed and asked to complete an open form questionnaire and their responses were used to develop the Likert scale.

Examples for each statement on the Likert scale were also provided to further clarify each statement for the participants in this study in order for them to be able to respond to each statement with full understanding and accuracy (see Table 5 in Appendix F). There were five categories for the students to choose from to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statements: 1. strongly disagree; 2. disagree; 3. undecided; 4. agree; 5. strongly agree. They were encouraged to add additional comments they might have.

Results and Discussion

Sentence combining, grammaticality judgement and picture task results

The results of the study indicate that RCs in Turkish cause considerable difficulty for English native speakers learning Tur-

kish and that the differences between English and Turkish RCs result in a greater number of errors in the production of RCs in Turkish, as was predicted by the strong form of the contrastive analysis hypothesis of Wardhaugh (1970). The ORs in particular posed the greatest difficulty for the learners.

Table 1 illustrates the percentage of correct sentences on the sentence combining task. The total score for SRs was 612 (6 test items x 17 participants x 6 data collection sessions). The overall score for ORs was also the same (6 test items x 17 participants x 6 data collection sessions). As demonstrated in Table 1, the total number of correct sentences including SRs and ORs was 433 and 265 respectively, indicating that the participants did far better on SRs than OR's with a score of 71.0% correct on the former whereas they scored only 43.0% for the latter.

Table 1. Number of sentences correct on sentence combining task (all participants)

	Total number	Correct Sentences
Subject Relatives (SR)	612	433 (71.0%)
Object Relatives (OR)	612	265 (43.0%)

Table 2 summarizes the mean of correct identification scores on the grammaticality judgement task. The total number of sentences on this task was 2754 (27 test items x 17 participants x 6 data collection sessions). Out of these 2754 test items, the total number of well-formed sentences equaled to 1326 (13 test items x 17 participants x 6 data collection sessions) whereas the total number of ill-formed sentences was 1428 (14 test items x 17 participants x 6 data collection sessions).

The results show that the participants appear to be relatively more correct at SRs than ORs. The participants' correct identification scores on the SRs was 85% whereas their correct identi-

fication scores on the ORs was 54%. Focusing on the issue of OLAN in SRs, only 42% of the participants noticed the omission of OLAN whereas 58% of the participants did not notice its omission, which appears to indicate that OLAN in SRs with nonverbal predicates creates additional complication for learners of Turkish as a foreign language.

Table 2. Frequency and percentage of correct identification responses for subject relative (SR) and object relative (OR) clauses on the grammaticality judgment task (all participants)

	Total Number	Correct Responses	Incorrect Responses
Well-formed subject relatives -(y)En	612	521 (85%)	91 (15%)
Well-formed object relatives -dIk	714	390 (54.%)	324 (46%)
Using -(y)En in place of -dIk	204	125 (61%)	79 (39%)
Using -dIk place of -(y)En	306	131 (43%)	175 (57%)
Omission of OLAN	204	85 (42%)	119 (58%)
Incorrect word order	204	97 (48%)	107 (52%)
Incorrect application of case markers to the head noun	306	109 (36%)	197 (64%)
Incorrect application of vowel harmony rules	102	48 (47%)	54 (53%)

Incorrect application of consonant harmony rules	102	42 (41%)	60 (59%)
--------------------------------------------------	-----	----------	----------

Table 3 summarizes correct and incorrect sentences of two types of RCs based on the picture task in which students were asked to prepare a narration. The total number of the sentences with RCs in the narrations prepared by students was 136 (eight sentences x 17 participants). Ninety sentences included SRs and forty-six sentences included ORs.

Table 3. Frequency and percentage of correct sentences with subject relative (SR) and object relative (OR) on the picture task

	Total Number	Correct	Incorrect
SR	90	66 (73.0%)	24 (27.0%)
OR	46	11 (24.0%)	35 (76.0%)

As illustrated in Table 3, the participants attempted to produce more SRs (90) than ORs (46), demonstrating that they felt more at ease with producing SRs rather than ORs. Although their performance on SRs was far from being perfect, they did much better on SRs than ORs with scores of 73.0% on the former whereas they scored only 24.0% on the latter, indicating that RCs in Turkish was difficult for them; however, the greatest difficulty appeared to lie in the ORs.

Regarding the issue of errors, Table 4 shows that reversal errors on the picture task were much greater in number than head errors in ORs. The participants scored 74.0% on the former and 26.0% on the latter.

Table 4. Frequency and percentage of errors in subject relative (SR) and object relative (OR) clauses.

Errors	SR	OR
Reversal	8 (33%)	26 (74%)
Head	3 (13%)	9 (26%)
Omission of OLAN	8 (33%)	N/A
Incorrect word order	2 (8%)	0
Incorrect application of case markers	3 (13%)	0
Incorrect application of vowel harmony	0	0
Incorrect application of consonant harmony	0	0

The high rate of reversal errors in ORs indicates that ORs are generally analyzed in the same way as SRs. Moreover, reversal and head errors in SRs are far less (33% and 13% respectively) than those in ORs (74% and 26% respectively), which appear to show that production of SRs by English native speakers is far less problematic than that of ORs in Turkish.

Survey Results

The data were also analyzed by calculating the means of participant responses to the student survey. Table 5 in Appendix F illustrates the overall means of participant responses to statements 1 through 13 on the Likert scale (5 = strongly agree). As shown in Table 5, the overall mean values of the participants' responses to statements 1 through 5 and 7 were very high ranging from 4.6 to 4.9, indicating that RCs in Turkish are perceived to be a difficult grammar point for them to learn. Students were often confused as to when to use the subject participle *-yEn* versus object participle *-dIk*. On several occasions during one-on-one speaking activities, numerous students made reversal errors, confirming students' confusion regarding the usage of subject and object participles. For instance, while talking about his dining experience at a restaurant, one student replaced the

object participle with the subject participle, as illustrated in (15) whereas he should have said (16).

*15. Oturan masa pencere kenarındaydı.

‘The table that sat was by the window.’

16. Oturduğumuz masa pencere kenarındaydı.

‘The table at which we sat was by the window.’

Another student replaced the object participle with the subject participle as demonstrated in (17) while talking about his furniture in his home. The correct form is presented in (18).

*17. Tamir eden sandalye sağlam oldu.

‘The table that fixed became sturdy.’

18. Tamir ettiğim sandalye daha sağlam oldu.

‘The table that I fixed became sturdy.’

One other student replaced the subject participle with the object participle while talking about his childhood experiences growing up on a farm, as presented in (19), when in fact he meant to say (20).

*19. Süt verdiğimiz ineklerimiz çoktu.

‘We had many cows that we gave milk to.’

20. Süt veren ineklerimiz çoktu.

‘We had many cows that gave milk.’

The difference in branching directions of Turkish and English also posed a challenge for participants. The mean value of their responses to Statement #6 was 4.9 showing that the left branching characteristic of Turkish presented considerable difficulty for them. For instance, one student, while talking about the books he borrowed from the library, said (21), where the head noun, *kitaplar* preceded the relative clause, when, in fact, it should have followed it as in (22).

*21. Kitaplar kütüphaneden getirdiğim

22. Kütüphaneden getirdiğim kitaplar

‘The books that I borrowed from the library’

While talking about how much he liked chocolates, another student made the erroneous statement in (23) where the head

noun preceded the relative clause, when, in reality, it should have followed it as exemplified in (24).

*23. Çikolata Whole Foods'dan aldığım

24. Whole Foods'dan aldığım çikolata

'The chocolates that I bought from Whole Foods'

Participant responses to statement #8 in the survey also demonstrate that students are confused about the word order in RCs in Turkish when the predicate of a simple sentence is nonverbal, and thus, OLAN should be used. The mean value of their responses was very high (4.8), substantiating their level of confusion. For instance, during one-on-one speaking when one student was asked to describe his living room, he made the statement in (25) where there was a word order problem, instead of making the statement in (26).

*25. Kanepenin olan yanında sehpanın üstünde bir vazı var.

26. Kanepenin yanında olan sehpanın üstünde bir vazı var.

'There is is vase on the coffee table that is next to the coach.'

On a different occasion, another student totally missed *olan* as in (27) when he was asked to describe a picture using relative clauses.

*27. Arabanın önünde çocuk ağlıyor.

28. Arabanın önünde olan çocuk ağlıyor.

'The boy who is in front of the car is crying.'

The mean of participant responses to statement #9 in the survey was 4.8, showing that they had considerable difficulty with respect to attaching the correct case marker to the head of the RC. As illustrated in (29) one student used the locative marker with the head noun, when in fact he should have attached the accusative marker as in (30). Another student did not apply the ablative marker to the head noun as in (31); however, these

learners could correctly supply case morphology in simple sentences.

*29. Komşular çok havlayan köpekte şikâyet etti.

30. Komşular çok havlayan köpeği şikâyet etti

‘The neighbors complained about the dog that barked a lot.’

*31. Dün aldığım ekmek çivi çıktı.

32. Dün aldığım ekmekten çivi çıktı

‘There was a nail in the bread that I bought yesterday.’

Survey results also show that students experienced difficulty in applying genitive and/or possessive markers in OR clauses. The mean value of participant responses to statement #10 was 4.7. During class observations or one-on-one speaking activities students were frequently observed to have a tendency to either omit the genitive and/or possessive markers as in (33) where the 3rd person genitive marker on *eşim* and 3rd person possessive marker on *aldığ* were missing, or applied them incorrectly as in (35).

*33. Eşim anneme aldığ Noel hediyesini çok beğendim.

34. Eşimin anneme aldığı Noel hediyesini çok beğendim.

‘I liked the Christmas present that my wife bought for my mother.’

*35. Sizin giydiğin elbisenin rengi çok güzel.

36. Sizin giydiğinizin elbisenin rengi çok güzel.

‘The color of the dress that you are wearing is very nice.’

Participants also encountered difficulty in applying vowel and consonant harmony rules to the object participle *-dık* (the mean values of participant responses to statements #11 and #12 were 4.7 and 4.6 respectively). For instance, in (37) one participant used /d/ and /ı/ in place of the /t/ and /i/ respectively. In (39) another participant used /t/ and /u/ in place of /d/ and /ü/.

- *37. Sizin gitdiğiniz lokanta deniz kenarında mı?
 38. Sizin gittiğiniz lokanta deniz kenarında mı?
 'Is the restaurant that you went to by the sea?'
 *39. Köpeğimi götürtuğum park evime yakın.
 40. Köpeğimi götürdüğüm park evime yakın.
 'The park where I take my dog is close to my home.'

The fact that in Turkish *-dik* is also used in because-constructions as in (41) appears to create further confusion for learners of Turkish as a foreign language, as also evidenced in participants' mean responses to statement #13 which was 4.6.

41.

Geç kal -diğ -i için otobüs -ü kaçır -dı

Late stay POSS:3SG because bus ACC miss
 PAST /Geç kaldığı için otobüsü kaçırdı/ 'He missed the bus
 because he came late'

This confusion was noted during sentence combining activities and other exercises containing a mixture of relative clauses and because-constructions. For instance, when they were asked to combine the sentences (42a) and (42b) by using a RC as in (43), several students tried to combine these sentences by using a because-construction as in (44) where *Jane* was case marked in the genitive erroneously when, in fact *Jane* should have remained in the nominative, being the subject of the sentence. Moreover, the possessor of the action of buying a book, *John*, was missing in the RC. Furthermore, the head noun of the RC *kitap* should have been case marked in the accusative and *için* should not have been used.

42. a. John bir kitap aldı.
 'John bought a book.'
 b. Jane kitabı çok sevdi.
 'Jane liked this book very much.'
 43. Jane John'ın aldığı kitabı çok sevdi.

'Jane liked the book that John bought.'

*44. Jane'in aldığı kitap için çok sevdi.

Limitations of the study

The results of the study are based on seventeen native English speaking students enrolled at a military intensive Turkish language training program. Thus, data for this study were collected from a relatively small number of participants. Therefore, generalizations from the results of the study must be made with caution because of this limitation.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study investigated the learning and production of RCs in Turkish and presented data on RCs from learners of Turkish as a foreign language. It was hypothesized that the learning and production of RCs in Turkish would pose difficulties for English native speakers and that the difficulties would even be more pronounced with ORs due to considerable structural differences between the two languages. Compared with English, RCs in Turkish are right-headed and there is no overt complementizer or any overt *wh*-element. Moreover, as also argued by Slobin (1986), the non-finite verb forms in RCs in Turkish are not easily recognized, which might present additional challenge for English native speakers.

As illustrated in Table 4, the rate of reversal errors in ORs was found to be quite high, which might indicate that ORs were erroneously produced as SRs. On the contrary, the rate of the reversal errors where SRs were erroneously produced as ORs was rather low. That the SRs are produced more easily than ORs in a language like Turkish where RCs precede the head noun, is in line with Keenan and Comrie's (1977) accessibility hierarchy, which presents subjects to be most accessible to relativization. Participants' incorrect production of ORs as SRs, which might

indicate that ORs are more difficult to produce than SRs, can be explained by a psycholinguistic processing problem in Turkish. As Slobin (1986) claims, the genitive marking of the subject of the ORs is quite distant from the canonical clause structure in Turkish. His research shows that children acquiring Turkish as L1 are reluctant to interpret a sentence-initial noun in the genitive as an agent. He adds that even Turkish adults find it easier to process complex sentences beginning with nouns in the nominative. Therefore, it is easier for them to process *-(y)En* rather than *-dlk* constructions. Consequently, he argues that production of ORs appear to be more difficult and problematic than that of SRs in Turkish (Slobin 1986, p. 285).

When the results are compared taking acquisition of Turkish as an L1, it is observed that there are similarities between adults learning Turkish as a foreign language and children learning Turkish as an L1 with respect to the production of RCs. Concluding with the results of the study, Slobin (1986) and Ekmekçi (1990), who investigated Turkish language acquisition as L1, indicated that it is easier to find SRs than ORs. As also argued by Aydın (2007), this similarity can be employed as evidence against a fundamental L1-L2 difference.

Understanding the challenges encountered in the production of RCs in Turkish might better equip classroom teachers with creating effective pedagogical activities to help their students advance their proficiency regarding this grammar point. Appendix G presents teaching activities, from more controlled to less-controlled, for language instructors to build on.

Note

The views, opinions, an/or findings contained in this report are those of the author and should not be construed as an official Department of the US Army position, policy, or decision unless designated by other official documentation.

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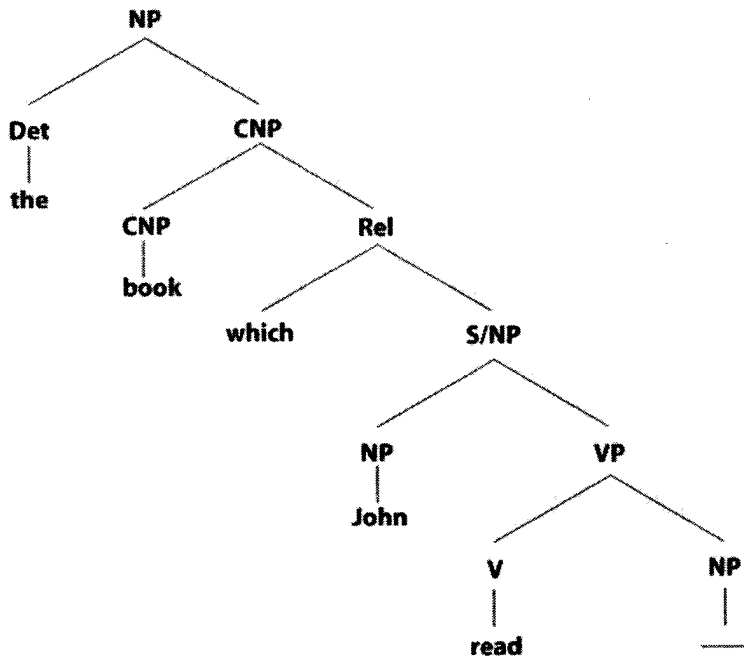
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Appendix A

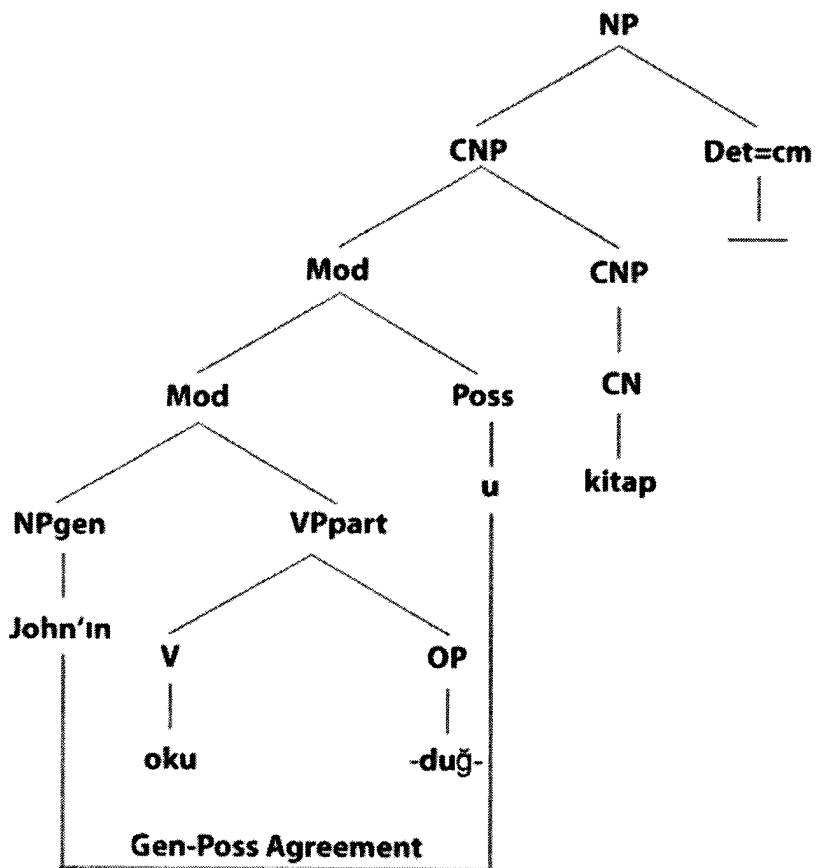
Categories of Languages

<p>Category IV:</p> <p>The category of most difficult languages to learn for the English native speaker</p>	<p>Chinese</p> <p>Korean</p> <p>Japanese</p> <p>Arabic</p>
<p>Category III:</p> <p>The second category of most difficult languages to learn for the English native speaker</p>	<p>Turkish</p> <p>Armenian</p> <p>Russian</p> <p>Pashto</p> <p>Dari</p> <p>Farsi</p> <p>Hindi</p> <p>Urdu</p>
<p>Category II:</p> <p>The second category of easiest languages to learn for the English native speaker</p>	<p>German</p> <p>Indonesian</p>
<p>Category I:</p> <p>The category of easiest languages to learn for the English native speaker</p>	<p>Spanish</p> <p>Portuguese</p> <p>French</p> <p>Italian</p> <p>Norwegian</p>

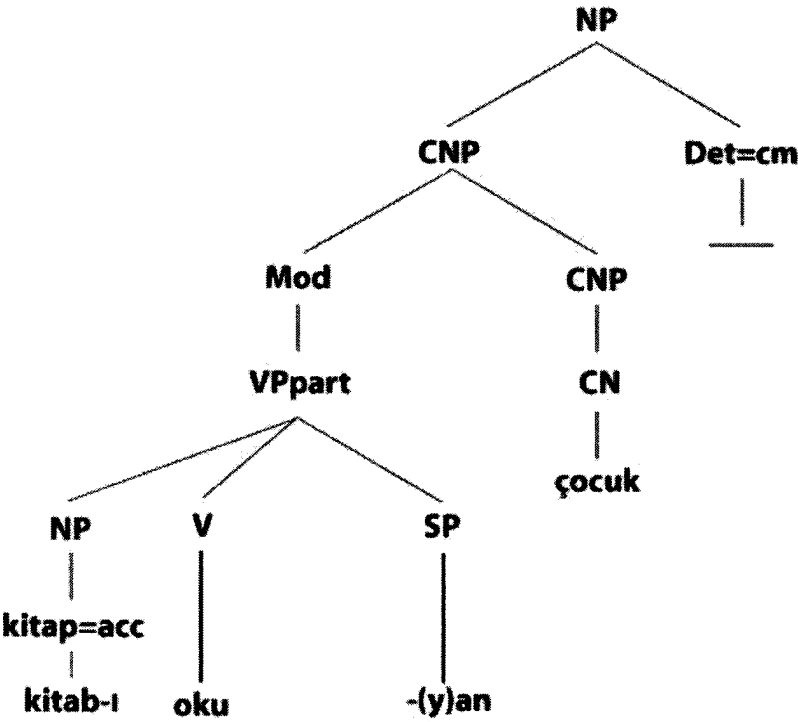
Appendix B



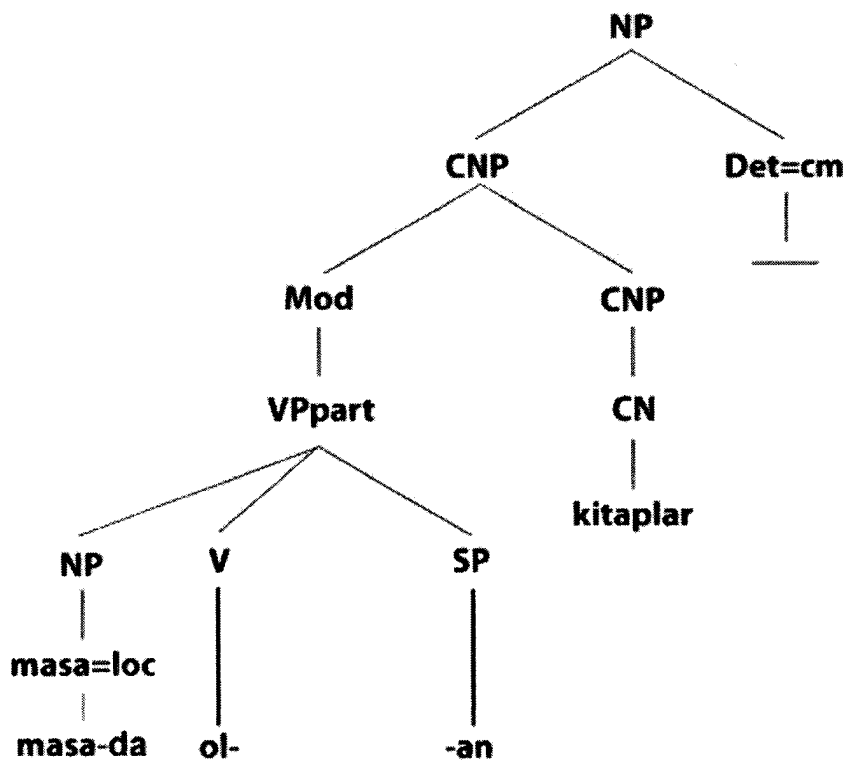
Appendix C



Appendix D



Appendix E



Appendix F

Table 5. Overall Means of Participant Responses to Statements on the Likert Scale.

Statements	Means
#1 Relative clauses in Turkish was the most difficult grammar point for me to learn. 4.7/5.0 Examples: 'Kapıyı açan çocuk' vs. 'Dün giydiğin elbise'	
#2 I had difficulty in learning relative clauses in Turkish. 4.7/5.0 Examples: 'Yüzen çocuk' vs. 'Konuştuğun kız'	
#3 I had difficulty in learning the object relative clauses - dık . 4.8/5.0 Example: 'Konuştuğun kız'	
#4 I had difficulty in learning the subject relative clauses -(y) En 4.6/5.0 Example: 'Yüzen çocuk'	
#5 Object relative clauses were more difficult to learn than subject relative clauses. 4.9/5.0	
#6 The branching direction in Turkish caused confusion for me. 4.9/5.0 (English is a right branching language; Turkish is a left branching language.) Examples: 'The boy whom John met' vs. 'John'ın tanıştığı çocuk'	
#7 I was confused as to when to use - dık vs. -(y) En . 4.8/5.0	

#8 I was confused about the word order in relative clauses when the predicate of a simple sentence is nonverbal, and thus, **OLAN** should be used.

4.8/5.0

Example: Çocuklar bu odada → Bu odada **olan** çocuklar

#9 I had difficulty in applying the correct case marker to the head of the relative clause.

4.8/5.0

Example: Öğretmen derse geç gelen öğrenciye kızdı.

#10 I had difficulty in applying genitive-possessive markers to object relative clauses.

4.7/5.0

#11 I had difficulty in applying the vowel harmony rules to the object participle,

4.7/5.0

-dığ/diğ/duğ/düğ.

#12 I had difficulty in applying the consonant harmony rules to the object participle,

4.6/5.0

-dığ/tığ.

#13 I was confused because **-dik** is also used in because-constructions.

4.6/5.0

Example: Geç kaldığı için otobüsü kaçırdı (because construction)

Appendix G

Recommended Teaching Activities

Explicit teaching of RCs

Since students are tremendously confused as to when to use the subject participle, *-(y)En*, versus the object participle, *-dIk*, it might be helpful to use the following two English sentences, one of them an SR (45) and the other an OR (46) as a starting point to explain when to use *-(y)En* versus *-dIk*.

45. I know the boy who is reading a book.

46. I know the boy whom you met.

It can be pointed out to them that in (45), which is an SR, there is no subject after the relative pronoun. In other words, in the phrase immediately following the relative pronoun, the subject is missing. Thus, students can be instructed that when they attempt to form a SR clause in Turkish, *-(y)En* should be used. On the other hand, it can be indicated that in (46), which is an OR, the direct object is missing in the phrase immediately following the relative pronoun, and consequently, in forming OR clauses in Turkish *-dIk* should be used.

Asking students to explain the difference between the underlying structures of subject participles and object participles

Understanding and explaining the difference between the following two sentences (adapted from Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983) might further facilitate students' understanding of subject and object participles:

47. Sana telefon eden kiři Amy'di.

'The person who called you was Amy.'

48. Telefon ettiğin kişi Amy'di.

'The person that you called was Amy.'

Once students have developed some understanding of RCs in Turkish, they will need a tremendous amount of practice to produce them with fluency.

Tree diagrams

Providing students with tree diagrams of RCs in Turkish might prove helpful. Ordinarily, presenting students with tree diagrams and transformational rules are not recommended; however, tree diagrams and transformational rules have proved beneficial with this particular construction (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983). Thus, asking students to draw tree diagrams of a few RCs in Turkish might be a useful strategy because students can apply their analytical skills to understand these complex structures.

Identification exercises

Students might be asked to read some piece of published writing such as a newspaper or magazine article. Then, in small groups they can be asked to underline all RCs in the text and determine to which head nouns the RCs refer (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983).

Oral production with tightly controlled contexts

After identification exercises, oral production activities using tightly controlled contexts by concentrating on one type of RC at a time can be beneficial (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983). For instance, students can form sentences to identify one of their fellow classmates who has some unique attribute as in (49).

49. Fransa'yı ziyaret eden öğrenci

'The student who visited France is'

Cuisenaire rods

Cuisenaire rods invented by Georges Cuisenaire (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983; as also cited in Norris, 2001) can be used for providing students with practice in both listening to and producing sentences containing RCs. Caleb Gattegno popularized the use of these rods for language teaching in many countries around the world through his language teaching methodology, *The Silent Way*. Olsen (1977) suggests that teachers give commands such as in Example (54) to encourage their students to produce their own commands:

50. **John'a kavuniçi çubuğun yanında olan sarı çubuğu ver.**

'Give John the yellow rod which is next to the orange one.'

Picture activities

Pictures are useful tools when teachers attempt to elicit RCs from their students (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983). For instance, students can be asked to make statements such as in (51) describing some aspect of a picture they are shown. For instance,

51. **Mavi elbise giyen kız yorgun görünüyor.**

'The girl who is wearing a blue dress looks tired.'

Description activities

The instructor can write definitions for 3-4 nouns—each beginning with the same letter. Examples in (52), (53) and (54) can be used for /Paris/ 'Paris,' /peynir/ 'cheese,' and /palto/ 'overcoat:'

52. **Eiffel Kulesi'nin bulunduğu şehir**

'The city where the Eiffel Tower is found'

53. Genellikle kahvaltıda yenilen bir yemek

‘A food that is usually eaten at breakfast’

54. Genellikle kışın giyilen bir kıyafet

‘A clothing item that is usually worn in the winter’

Then the class can be divided into small groups and each group is handed out a different list of 8-10 nouns beginning with the same first letter for them to provide definitions (adapted from Ur, 1988, pp. 268-269). It is advisable that each list include a mixture of times, places, objects, and people (Norris, 2001).

Telling Likes/Dislikes

The instructor writes Examples (55) and (56) on the board to provide the class with introductory cues. Students then can be asked to complete the sentences according to their preferences. After the sentence completion activity, students can tell what they have written and write it on the board (Ur, 1988, p. 268).

55. I like people who _____.

56. I don't like people who _____.

Vocabulary game

Students can be presented with words and asked to provide their meaning by using RCs as in Examples (57) and (58):

57. Postacı ‘postman’ → posta dağıtan kişi ‘somebody who distributes the mail’

58. Öğretmen ‘teacher’ → ders öğreten kişi ‘somebody who teaches’

Playing games like Twenty Questions

Students can play a game (like Twenty Questions) in which they try to identify the name of a person or ob-

ject another student is thinking of as in (59) (adapted from Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983).

59. Bu kişi ‘Silence of the Lambs’ de oynayan biri mi?

‘Is this person someone who played in the movie, the Silence of the Lambs?’

Fill-in-the blanks exercises

Students can be asked to fill in the blanks with subject and object participles as in Examples (60) and (61) (Öztopçu, 2006, p. 417, 539-540).

60. Parkta koş _____ bey bizim öğretmenimiz. → Parkta koşan bey

‘The man who is running in the park is our teacher.’

61. Ahmet’in konuş _____ adam mühendis. → Ahmet’in konuştuğu adam

‘The man with whom Ahmet is speaking is an engineer.’

Forming RCs from simple sentences

Students can be asked to form RCs from simple sentences as in (62) and (63) (adapted from Öztopçu, 2006, p. 400).

62. Ablam Chicago’da yaşıyor. → Chicago’da yaşayan ablam....

‘My sister lives in Chicago.’ → ‘My sister who lives in Chicago....’

63. Çocuklar parkta oynuyor. → Parkta oynayan çocuklar.....

‘The children are playing in the park.’ → ‘The children who are playing the park...’

Sentence combining activities

Students can be encouraged to combine sentences such as the following to practice subject and object participles as in Examples (64) and (65) (adapted from Özel, 1995, p. 186, 375; Öztopçu, 2006, p. 397):

64. Çocuklar bahçede kitap okuyor. O çocuklar Ahmet'in arkadaşları.

'The children are reading a book in the garden.' 'Those children are Ahmet's friends.'

65 . Pasta yediler. Pasta çikolatalıydı.

'They ate a cake.' 'It was a chocolate cake.'

Translation activities

Students can be asked to translate the following sentences with subject participles from Turkish into English (Example 66) and from English into Turkish (Example 67) (adapted from Özel, 1995, p. 186; Öztopçu, 2006, p. 399, 417).

A. Translate into English

66. Bizi ziyarete gelen arkadaşlarımız Adana'da yaşıyorlar.

'Our friends who visited us live in Adana.'

B. Translate into Turkish

67. The woman who is singing is French.

'Şarkı söyleyen bayan Fransız.'

Students can be asked to translate the following sentences with object participles from Turkish into English (Example 68) or from English into Turkish (Example 69) (adapted from Öztopçu, 2006, p. 538).

A. Translate into English

68. Okuduğun gazete nerede?

'Where is the newspaper that you read?'

B. Translate into Turkish

69. The TV program that I watched was interesting.

‘İzlediğim televizyon programı ilginçti.’

Sentence completion exercises

Students can be asked to complete sentences as in Examples (70) and (71) with RCs (adapted from Öztopçu, 2006, p. 418, 544).

70. Sigara içen komşumuz bronşit oldu.

‘*Our neighbor who smokes* has bronchitis.’

71. Onun anlattığı hikâye çok ilginçti.

‘*The story that he told* was interesting.’

Reading newspaper ads and responding to them

Students can be asked to read job descriptions as in (72) published in newspapers and then write an application letter for the job (adapted from Öztopçu, 2006, p. 401).

72.

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‘My name is Lamia Karayel. I saw your ad in the newspaper....’

Asking questions

Students can be encouraged to ask questions that contain RCs as in (73) and (74) to find out more about their classmates (adapted from Özel, 1995, p. 358; Öztopçu, 2006, p. 540).

73. En çok sevdiğiniz film hangisi? ‘What is the name of the film that you enjoy the most?’

74. En az sevdiğiniz yemek ne? ‘What is the name of the dish that you like the least?’

Speaking activities

Students can be asked to read conversations as in Example (75) where the questions contain RCs. Then they can be asked to have similar conversations (adapted from Öztopçu, 2006, p. 541).

75.

Q: Ahmet’in tavsiye ettiği doktora gittin mi?

‘Did you see the doctor that Ahmet recommended?’

A: Evet, gittim ve memnun kaldım.

‘Yes, I did and I was very pleased.’

Personal ads

Students can be asked to prepare a personal ad such as in (76) that employs several RCs:

76.

Yüksek tahsilli ve yabancı dil **bilen**

Müzik dinlemekten **hoşlanan**

Seyahat etmeyi **seven**

Evlenmeyi **düşünen**

Orta yaşlı, sarışın, uzun boylu bir bayanla arkadaşlık

kurmak istiyorum. **İlgilenenler** e-posta adresime yazabilirler, akın334@hotmail.com

‘I would like to meet a middle-aged, tall, and blond lady who is well-educated and speaks a foreign language, enjoys listening to music, likes traveling and is considering marriage. Those who are interested can write to my e-mail address, akın334@hotmail.com’

Writing practice

Students can be asked to write about some topics which would very likely entail the use of RCs (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983). For instance, they can be asked to describe ‘The most interesting character I have ever met.’ A topic such as this one would probably prompt them to use RCs. The instructor might also specify that they use at least 4-5 RCs in their essay.

Group work

One student talks about one of the topics as in Examples (77) and (78). His or her classmates then ask questions about the topic (adapted from Öztopçu, 2006, p. 541).

77. Sevindiğiniz bir olay → An event that made you happy

78. En çok sevdiğiniz yazar → A writer that you like the most

Using poems and songs containing RCs

Instructors can bring songs or poems as in Example (79) (written by Pablo Neruda; translated into Turkish by Can Yücel) that are full of RCs. As students read this poem, which is about people who die slowly, they are asked to identify all the RCs. Then they

can be encouraged to ask and answer questions related to the poem by using RCs as in Example (80). The instructor can also bring a twist to the lesson and might encourage students to ask and answer questions about those people who might die early as in Example (81):

79. Yavaş yavaş ölürler
Seyahat etmeyenler.
Yavaş yavaş ölürler
Okumayanlar, müzik dinlemeyenler,
Vicdanlarında hoşgörüyü barındıramayanlar.

Yavaş yavaş ölürler
Alışkanlıklarına esir olanlar,
Her gün aynı yolları yürütenler,
Ufuklarını genişletmeyen ve değiştirmeyenler,
Elbiselerinin rengini değiştirme riskine bile girmeyenler,
Bir yabancı ile konuşmayanlar.

Yavaş yavaş ölürler
Heyecanlardan kaçınanlar,
Tamir edilen kırık kalplerin gözlerindeki pırıltıyı
görmek
istemekten kaçınanlar.

Yavaş yavaş ölürler
Aşkta veya işte bedbaht olup yön değiştirmeyenler,
Rüyalarını gerçekleştirmek için risk almayanlar,
Hayatlarında bir kez dahi mantıklı tavsiyelerin dışına
çıkmamış olanlar.

80.

Q: Yavaş yavaş ölenler kimler?
'Who are those who die slowly?'

A: Kitap okumayanlar.
'Those who do not read.'

81.

Q: Çabuk ölenler kimler?

‘Who are those who die fast?’

A: Sigara içenler.

‘Those who smoke.’

A: Sağlığına dikkat etmeyenler.

‘Those who do not pay attention to their health.’

