



Australian Journal of Applied Linguistics

ISSN 2209-0959

https://www.castledown.com/journals/ajal/

Australian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 3(3), 233–254 (2020) https://doi.org/10.29140/ajal.v3n3.365

Teaching semantic considerations of ablative and locative cases in Turkish-to-English translated texts



CÜNEYT DEMIR a

^a The University of Siirt, Turkey ardgelen@hotmail.com

Abstract

Translation aims to transmit the original tone of the source text both syntactically and semantically accurate without losing the intent of a message. However, some syntactic considerations such as cases may pose a problem particularly if the source and target texts belong to different language typologies. Accordingly, this study investigated the translation of ablative and locative cases in Turkish-to-English studies to find out and analyse erroneous samples. The population of the study is composed of 131 students at the department of translation and the 360 pages data were gathered through different translation activities. Taxonomy with three categorizations was constructed for the identification and classification of the data, which are inaccurate cases, redundant cases, and case-missing. Results showed that ablative and locative cases had a similar number of errors in translation from Turkish to English, and inaccurate cases made up of the large proportion of these errors. This study concluded that there are a few considerations regarding ablative and locative cases that need to be taken into account while rendering a text. At last, some pedagogical implications aiming at lowering students' errors of translation relating to ablative and locative cases were suggested.

Keywords: cases, ablative, locative, translation, writing

Introduction

Language acquisition (LA) has been robustly studied from the aspect of morphological variability (cf. Radfors, 1991), incoming input (Universal Grammar), and extralinguistic views (motivation, attitudes, and so on). The process of LA, regardless of researchers' views, necessitates intensive cognitive efforts either consciously (Robinson, Mackey, Gass, & Schmidt, 2012) or unconsciously (Selinger, 1983; University of Cambridge, 2011), and these cognitive efforts need to be escalated even further in learning a second language (Wen, Mota, & McNeill, 2015) because the brain needs to pay much more attention to cognitive processes in SLA (Tomlin & Villa, 1994). Furthermore, the difficulty that speakers faced during second language acquisition (SLA) processes continue even after the speaker has acquired the language, particularly if the second language belongs to a different language family from their first

Copyright: © 2020 Cüneyt Demir. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial 4.0 International License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Data Availability Statement: All relevant data are within this paper.

language because the speaker needs to carry out comprehensive cognitive calculations in order to start cross-language activation (Kroll, Dussias, Bice, & Perrotti, 2015) and accordingly code and decode expressions in the second language. This is the situation for translators who need to be updated in both source language (SL) and target language (TL) because it is a profession requiring to eliminate syntactic (Shreve, Lacruz, & Angelone, 2010), semantic or any contextual disruptions in a translation task.

Translation aims to transmit the original tone of the source text grammatically and without losing the intent of a message; therefore, both syntactic and semantic considerations need to be taken into consideration in translation studies. However, rendering texts is not a one-way process requiring only target language competence, but a multi-dimensional process including many agents such as culture, motivation, and context. In concise, not to yield a poor performance, all of these considerations -from metacognitive problem solving (Angelone, 2010) to other norms of translation (cf. Schaffner, 2010)-should be taken into account on the process of translation.

A good translation is successful in conveying the message both syntactically and semantically (Jiménez et al., 2015); that is, it is to be constructed through accurate grammar and appropriate words. Any failing in grammar or word would prevent the message from being transmitted, and also would bring about readers to misunderstand the content of the message. Out of numerous considerations in grammar to create an equivalent translation, this study focussed on the issue of cases because the knowledge of cases in a language is crucial to be a competent and fluent speaker (Anderson, 2018). Although it does not attract much attention, the issue of cases is in the epicentre of the grammars of any languages. Therefore, insufficient knowledge of cases might prompt incorrect translations.

Case morphology is a persistent problem for foreign students learning Turkish (Babaoğlu & Ağçam, 2019; Petek and Dağıstanlı, 2018; Kan & Utlu, 2017) due to its sophisticated structure and this complexity may sometimes entail problem even for Turkish student in L2 acquisition (Haznedar, 2006); therefore, Turkish students experience difficulty in using prepositions in English writing (cf. Erel & Bulut, 2007; Demirel, 2017), which may be because the number of prepositions in Turkish is fewer than the number in English. Furthermore, cases in Turkish are not discourse-dependents (Antonova-Unlu and Wei, 2020), which is why persistent case-assignment is essential to construct sentence in Turkish. Particularly, cases of ablative and locative necessitate more effort for Turkish students in L2 writing than other cases because English, different from Turkish case system, has many options for locative cases (e.g., in, on, at, by) and for ablative case (e.g., of from, away from, concerning). This study detected incorrect translations from Turkish to English due to insufficient knowledge of ablative and locative cases; accordingly, this study aims to investigate language impairment in Turkish-English translations stemming from case-related problems (namely ablative and locative) and how to heal them through pedagogical implications offered at the end of the present study.

Background of the study

As an instructor at the Department of Translation, I noticed that student writing fails to alienate itself from appearing "unnatural" in terms of native fluency, and this unnaturalness does not only cause the feeling of foreignness in writing, but also ungrammatical target texts. In the wake of a small-scale investigation, I detected that students had difficulties in translating cases accurately. Turkish language does not include all cases, and neither does English language; therefore, you need to adjust the source language to the target language. For instance, a general mistake that students had in their writing was loan-translation, a word-to-word translation. In the process of Turkish-English translation, students felt obliged to place an ablative case in English just because there was an ablative case in Turkish, which was unnecessary. The knowledge of cases and how they should be translated are a requisite for students to have a flair for correct translation. In line with this, students' lack of knowledge on cases in Turkish-

to-English translation led to this study. A preliminary study showed that students' erroneous use of cases can be categorized into three: inaccurate case, redundant case, and case-missing.

The problem with ablative and locative cases in Turkish-to-English translations

Student translators seem to have a fixed knowledge regarding cases, which is that they translate Turkish ablative case "+den" (also its derivatives: dan, ten, tan) to English as *from* in most cases and Turkish locative case "+de" (also +da, +te, +ta) to English as *in/at*. However, this is not valid in every situation because different from Turkish, English language has many prepositions to cover just a single case; in other words, the equivalence of an ablative case in Turkish is not always *from*, but *on*, *in*, *among*, *out of* and so on depending on the use. To start with, the confusing point with ablative cases is that they do not carry the same meaning, but changes in the way how and where the translator uses them. The examples (the first four by Mert, 2003) below provide some insight regarding the problem.

i. Ev +den çıktı. ii. Hastalık +tan öldü.	(He came out from the house or He left φ home) (He died because of illness)	State of existing State of reason
iii. Bu yol+ dan gitti.	(He went on this way)	State of
iv. Onlar+dan biri geldi.	(One of them came)	positioning State of specification
v. Sabah+tan yola çıktılar.	(They set off in the morning)	State of time
vi. Yün+ den bir elbise giyindi.	(She wore a woollen dress)	State of adjectivization
vii. Kılıç tahta+dan yapıldı.	(The sword was made from wood)	State of source
viii. Mutluluk+tan bayıldı.	(She fainted with happiness)	State of indirect object
ix. Burası çöl+ den sıcak.	(Here is hotter than a desert)	State of comparison

All of the Turkish examples above include an ablative case but there is not a fixed ablative case in their English translations. Specifically, no word was used to cover the ablative case of +den in English equivalence in the first example while in the second example because of was for the suffix of +tan. Similarly, the third example had on for +dan, and of for +dan in the last example. The rationale behind using a different word in English is because ablative cases in Turkish are employed to express a different meaning depending on the situation. For example, ablative case denotes a state of exiting in the first example; a state of reason in the second example; a state of positioning in the third example; a state of specification in the fourth example; a state of time in the fifth example; a state of adjectivization in the sixth example; a state of source in the seventh example; a state of indirect object, and a state of comparison in the last example.

When compared to the ablative case, a locative case has fewer states which are state of location, state of time, state of possession, and state of case/action; however, English equivalents of them are more divergent, hence sophisticated particularly for Turkish student translators of English. For example, a translator needs to use numerous prepositions to cover just the suffixes of *de/da* and *te/ta* in Turkish based on sound harmony as stated below.

State of location

```
i. Ev+de(yim).
ii. Okul+da(yim).
iii. Kalabalık+ta(yim).
(I am in the house)
(I am at the school)
(I am among the crowd)
```

iv. Oda+da(yım). (I am inside/in the room)

v. Kapı ile sıra arasın+da(yım). (I am between the door and the desk)

vi. İkinci kat+ta(yım). (I am on the second floor)

vii. Kitap masa+da/çekmece+de (The book is **on** the table / **in** the drawer)

viii. Istanbul+da. (in Istanbul) ix. Üniversite+de (at the university)

State of time

i. Nisan+da.
 ii. 15 Nisan'+da
 iii. Saat 4'+te.
 iv. Pazar saat 4'+te
 (in April)
 (at four o'clock)
 (on Sunday 4pm)

v. 1990'+da. (in 1990)

vi. Bayram+da köprüler ücretsiz. (Bridges are free of charge throughout/during the festival)

vii. Bayram+da gelecek. (He is going to come in/at the festival)

viii. İlkbahar+da (in spring)

ix. İlkbahar toplantısın+da (at spring meeting)

State of possession

i. Kitap Ali'+de. (The book is with Ali)ii. Ali'+de para var. (Ali has money)

State of case/action

i. Gömlek el+**de** yıkandı. (The shirt was washed **by** hand)

ii. Ayak+ta konuştum. (I talked standing)

iii. Gerçek+te öğle değil. (It is not like that in reality) iv. Savaş+ta ve barış+ta (at war and at peace)

As seen, while ablative case in Turkish has four suffixes (den/dan, ten/tan), English translation of them necessitates more sophisticated knowledge because English grammar is not rich in ablative case; therefore, the translator needs to find the exact matching depending on the use of the case. Similarly, for the suffixes of locative cases in Turkish (te/ta- de/da) there is not a stable equivalence in English, which is why the translator must undertake a great deal of cognitive process in order to find the correct equivalence.

The purpose of the study

Even proficient translators tackle the problem of cases, which is a challenge to overcome not to lose the intended meaning in the SL. Given this fact, it is assumed that less competent translators like students at the department of Translation experience even more difficulties regarding the translation of cases in Turkish-to-English translation studies. This study aims to investigate the problems that students, prospective translators, had in their translation exercises regarding two main cases: ablative and locative. Furthermore, the present study aims to decrease erroneous translation of cases in the translated texts of the students through enlightening them about how to make an appropriate translation of ablative and locative cases in Turkish-to-English exercises. This study categorized ablative cases in Turkish into nine and locative cases into four; accordingly, it investigated which category has the most erroneous use. Lastly, some pedagogical suggestions were put forward.

Theoretical Background

Turkish cases vs. English cases

West-Germanic languages like English have plainer forms of cases compared to Altaic languages like Turkish. Seven cases exist in English case system, which are nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, ablative, locative, and vocative. Turkish case system necessitates suffixation while prepositions are used to cover cases in the English. On the other hand, Turkish is a richly agglutinative language with morphosyntactic relations and it works through the suffixation of several different morphemes on the verbal or nominal stem (Rothweiler, Chilla, & Babur, 2010). Each morpheme is tantamount to a suffix and need to obey phonologically to the rule of vowel-consonant harmony. Grammatical morphemes employ tense, aspect, or person appearing as plural or possessive. Because Turkish is a null-subject language, the cases are too important to misuse. As in all other null-subject languages such as Uralic (Finnish, Estonian, and so on) and Latin originated (Spanish, Italian, and so on), accurate suffixation allows the speakers to build grammatical sentences. In a null-subject language such as Turkish, the referent of the verb expresses tense, aspect, person, number, gender agreement, and possessive, rendering an agent or noun phrase redundant. The suffixation system of Turkish is, as first defined by Panini, the nominal stem that allows speakers easily bring transcategorial expansions (Miyaoka, 2012) that modify a noun to a verb or a verb to an adjective, and has definiteness marker that can be suffixed to it (Julien, 2005). On the contrary of most sources mentioning the existence of six cases (accusative, dative, genitive, locative, ablative, and instrumental), the Turkish case system holds more than six cases (see Table 1), though they are not much common and applicable in all cases.

Table 1 *Turkish case system.*

Case	Turkish affix*	Turkish Meaning	English Equivalence of the affix**	English Meaning
Nominative ¹	[unmarked]	okul	[unmarked]	School
Accusative ²	[u]	okul-u	the	the school
Dative ³	[a]	okul-a	to, onto, into	to the school
Genitive ⁴	[un]	okul-un	of, 's	of the school
Locative 5	[da]	okul-da	at, in, on, inside, within	at the school
Ablative ⁶	[dan]	okul-dan	from, of, out of, on, because of, in, with	from the school
Instrumental 7	[la]	okul-la	with, by, to	with the school
Essive 8	[ca]	okul-ca	as	as school
Abessive 9	[suz]	okul-suz	without	without school
Equative 10	[umsu]	okul-umsu	like, as	school-like
Covarage 11	[luk]	okul-luk	for	for school
Conditional 12	[sa]	okul-sa	if, in case of	in case of school
Possessive 13	[um]	okul-um	my	my school
Plurality 14	[lar]	okul-lar	-s plural	schools

^{*} The affix may change based on tense, aspect, vowel, and possessive harmony.

^{**} Translation of the existent examples. They may change depending on the meaning.

(1) Okul büyük.
NOMINATIVE (NOM). ADJ.
school big

The **school** is big.

(2) Okul-**u** bul-du-m.

NOM-ACCUSATIVE VERB-PAST-FIRST SING. PERSONAL PRONOUN (PP)

school **the** found I

I found the school.

(3) Okul-a gel-eceği-m.

NOM-**DATIVE** VERB-FUTURE- FIRST SING. PP.

school **to** come will I

I will come to the school

(4) Okul-un kapı-sı

NOM-GENITIVE NOM-THIRD SING. GEN.

school of door

The door of the school

(5) Cenk okul-da.

NOM NOM-LOCATIVE

Cenk school at

Cenk is at the school.

(6) Okul-dan gel-di-m.

NOM-**ABLATIVE** VERB-PAST-FIRST SING. PP.

school **from** came I

I came **from** school.

(7) Konu okul-la ilgili-dir.

NOM NOM-INSTRUMENTAL ADJ-VERB
Issue school to related is

The issue is related **to** the school.

(8) Okul-ca gidi-yor-uz.

NOM-ESSIVE VERB-PRESENT PROG.-FIRST PLURAL PP.

school **all together with** going we We are going **all together with** school.

(9) Okul**-suz** bir kasaba NOM**-ABESSIVE** INDEFINITE PRONOUN (IP) NOM school **without** a town

A town without school

(10) Okul-umsu bir bina
NOM-EQUATIVE IP NOM
school-like a building

A school-like building

(11)Tam okul-luk bir bu öğrenci ADV. **DETERMINER** NOM-COVARAGE IP NOM right this school for student a

A student right for this school

(12) O bir okul-sa ...

THIRD SIN. PP IP NOM-CONDITIONAL

t a school if

If it is a school...

(13) Okul**-um** büyük-tür. NOM**-POSSESSIVE** ADJ-VERB

school **my** big is

My school is big.

(14) Okul-lar kapalı-dır.
NOM-PLURAL ADJ-VERB school-s closed are

The schools are closed.

As in all other morphologically rich agglutinative languages, the number of cases is higher in Turkish than in English. Languages belonging to different families may harden the translators' work because they are to find exact matches in both source and target languages. So as to not to end up with poorly translated texts with semantic problems, the appropriate translation of cases is crucial.

Semantic considerations and cases

The system of translation consists of three stages: analysis, transfer and restructuring. The first, analysis needs analysing the message given in the source language from the point of view of grammatical relationships and the meaning of the words while the second, transfer, requires transferring the message in the translator's mind from the source language into the receptor language, and in the last stage the final message is made understandable in the receptor language through restructuring the transferred material. In the wake of processing the information, this cross-language priming needs a carefully planned switch from SL to TL. Taken the cognitive stages of translation, it seems that the translator carries a heavy burden and struggles to produce the best possible equivalent in the TL.

All these semantic considerations may occur automatically in bilingual mind (Crinion *et al.*, 2006), which is called semantic priming. Compared to those who acquired the language in the early ages, speakers of a second language who learned the language, particularly after nine (or arguably twelve) seem to have lack of semantic priming because of the disadvantages that the age would bring (cf. Johnson & Newport, 1989; Schumann, 1975 for critical period effect). In order to eliminate or abolish the adverse effect of age, adult learners came under intensive language training programs (cf. Kormos & Sáfár, 2008; Bak, Long, Vega-Mendoza, & Sorace, 2016 for the effect of this program), yet they cannot reach a satisfactory level though much time and effort was devoted.

Semantic considerations are crucial for cross-language translations particularly in which languages belong to different language families. Even a simple translation may be problematic for the translators if they are not proficient in the grammars of both languages. The problem grows even further when morphological constructions of the words dramatically change as in Turkish and English. In other words, Turkish is a highly agglutinative language and syntactical order is majorly controlled through

suffixation; furthermore, a similar rule exists for the cases which are added up following suffixes. Quite the opposite, English is much plainer in terms of suffixation and cases. Therefore, translators undertake extra burden in Turkish-to-English translations.

Out of numerous grammatical subjects that prevent an adult speaker from appearing native-like, the issue of cases is worth our attention in translation studies because they create a relationship between grammar (through affixes) and the nominative word. English language has a lack of grammatical complexity in cases, and does have only a few cases (McArthur, 1992); on the other hand, Turkish, relatively speaking, has many cases because of its morphologically rich heritage. This may prompt some infelicities for the translators in terms of translation quality, hence reliability because they may not be able to find the exact matches of cases. For example, the locative case can be represented by different prepositions such as at, in, on, inside, within, or ϕ (need to be left blank) because there is not a fixed affix for locative case in English while it is only de/da in Turkish, and there is not a reference point where the translator could appeal to regarding the correct word that should be included. Similarly, this cross-linguistic problem is same with the ablative case in Turkish-to-English translation since the ablative case de/da in Turkish has many equivalents in English. In brief, a translator may confuse what preposition to use for a Turkish text including cases on the process of Turkish-to-English translation, which is a situation that could end up with translation dilemmas such as weird or even on occasion inaccurate translations. Therefore, the relationship between semantic considerations and cases is to be taken into consideration to have semantically accurate productions.

Methodology

Data collection

The department of translation at the University of Siirt is a four-year program and has numerous courses on different fields that necessitate students to make Turkish-to-English translations. These courses are daily writing practices, financial translation, literary translation, medical English, English for diplomacy, technical English, and media and communication. The courses do not belong to a single term, but are delivered throughout all the four years; for example, literacy translation is a second-grade course while technical English is a fourth-grade course. The common ground of them, to produce Turkish-to-English documents, provided this study to garner data for the necessary analyses. Not all the courses were lectured by the researcher alone; therefore, other lecturers were kindly asked to provide the documents they had at the end of the term. In the wake of adding up all documents belonging to other lecturers, 360 pages of data were constructed.

Given the scores of the university entrance exam (UEE) and general point average (GPA), it appears that the English proficiency level of the students from whom the data were obtained show an alteration. Assuming that high differences in proficiency levels may prompt reliability concerns regarding data, the documents belonging to the students who have a score of UEE over 380 and under 340 and to those who have GPA out of 60-80 ranges were excluded. The department has students from different origins of Syrian, Azerbaijani, Kyrgyz, Turkmen, Egyptian, and Iraqi; however, because this study investigates Turkish-to-English translation works, students who are not Turkish origin were excluded even if they did speak Turkish. In concise, the data, consisted of 360 pages, were collected from 131 students and the distribution of students across grade level was provided in Table 2 to inform regarding the skewness of the distribution. As seen in the table, although the skewness of the data ranges from eight to 52, this fluctuation is not regarded as a statistical problem for the qualitative studies.

Course	1 st Year	2 nd Year	3 rd Year	4 th Year	No. Pages
Daily Writing Practices	52				150
Financial Translation			30		71
Literary Translation			30		
Medical English		41			109
English for Diplomacy		41			
Technical English				8	30
Media and Communication				8	
Total			131		360

Table 2 *The number of students in each course and the number of pages that were collected.*

It may be of help to expand knowledge regarding the courses in Table 2; accordingly, Daily Writing Practices aims to teach what a speaker may need in their common work such as filling an application form, applying for a job vacant, complaining about a product and so on. Courses of Financial Translation, Literary Translation and Medical English, as understood from their names, are courses that require specific jargon in the field and their equivalences in the target language. These courses have a purpose of introducing student translators with terms (in-field words) in both source and target languages and completing translation tasks to improve in-field translation skills. It is incumbent upon students to read piles of European Union (EU) documents before making a translation in the course of English for Diplomacy because they need to be accustomed to the diplomatic language. Diplomacy in Turkey is largely upon on EU; therefore, the course compels students to read a certain amount of English document on EU as the start of the course and then guide them how to make translation from Turkish to English. Instructors are completely free to decide on what kind of course content they will have for the course of Technical English. Finally, students were asked to translate local interesting news to English for the course of Media and Communication.

Identification of errors

Error correction practically involves a threefold process of identification, evaluation and correction, and the majority of studies have focused on the latter two areas (Hyland & Anan, 2006) while this study focused on the first criteria, identification, in order to pinpoint the problematic areas that students experience in Turkish-to-English translation works because true determination of a problem sheds light on finding the most appropriate solution for it. Accordingly, this study created an error-based taxonomy with three categorizations to be able to classify the data, which are as follows.

- 1. Inaccurate case: This category is the determination of incorrect use of cases in Turkish-to-English translations. In accordance, *Taşınmak+tan sıkıldım* (I am bored **of** moving house) needs the preposition *of* in English while it may confuse Turkish speakers because of linguistic features of Turkish, which end up with the use of *from* instead of *of* as in *I am bored from moving house**. Different from a redundant case that disrupts native fluency in writing, inaccurate cases may completely spoil the phrase and hence prevent readers from getting the message.
- 2. Redundant case: This category refers to the opposite of case-missing, which denotes that a case is used in English translation while it should not have been. For instance, *Sıcak havalarda pamuktan bir elbise giymelisin* (You should wear a cotton cloth in hot weather) uses an ablative case in the word *pamuk+tan* (from cotton); however, no ablative case is required in English translation because the adjective *cotton* already covers the need for the preposition of

from. Therefore, you should wear a cloth from cotton in hot weather would be categorized as an example of redundant case because of the preposition phrase of from cotton. Redundant case does not mean that the use is wrong but weird in terms of nativeness in the writing of English proses.

3. Case-missing: This category refers to the lack of a case. For example, the sentence of *Akşam evi terkettiler* (They left home at night) in Turkish does not necessitate any cases before the word *akşam* (night) but in English the case of *at* need to be used. Therefore, nominative use of the word *akşam* such as in *they left home night* would be an example of case-missing due to the lack of *at* in English translation of the sentence.

Analyses and procedure

The data were analysed manually by the researcher because there does not exist any PC or other technology-based devices that could categorize data in line with the taxonomy. The researcher scanned the data and placed examples of inaccurate case, redundant case, and case-missing into the taxonomy. To validate the researcher's reliability of analyse, a tenth of the whole data was subjected to a second scan by another rater who is a specialist in ELT. To maintain scoring consistency and to minimize analysers' bias, each analyser independently categorized the data according to the same taxonomy. The result showed a perfect harmony between analysers by a margin of 0.90 inter-rater reliability.

Results

The findings showed that there are, in total, 62 errors regarding the translation of ablative and locative cases to English. The highest proportion belongs to the category of inaccurate cases with 51 errors that constitute 82% of all errors. The category of redundant cases follows with six errors that constitute 11% in total error. Case-missing is the category with the fewest errors; the portion of it in total error is just 7% with four errors (Figure 1).

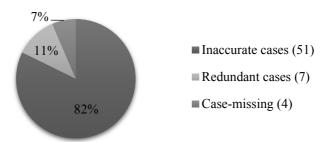


Figure 1 *The number of errors in data.*

When it comes to more specific results as to cases, the results showed that errors of locative cases outnumber those of ablative cases. The number of errors of locative cases is 32 while the figure is 30 for ablative cases. Figure 2 summarizes the data and presents percentage information on the issue, and then subtitles provide some authentic examples taken from the data and detailed number of errors as to each case and category.

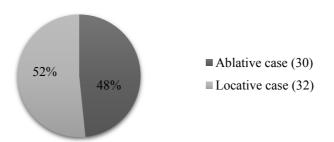


Figure 2 *The number of errors of ablative and locative cases.*

Ablative cases

In the issue of ablative cases, the category of inaccurate cases makes up the biggest portion with 23 errors, and then the categories of redundant cases and case-missing follow with five and two errors respectively (Figure 3).

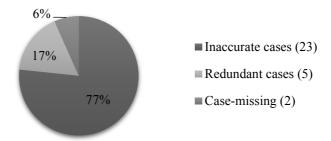


Figure 3 *The categorical number of errors concerning ablative cases.*

This study categorized ablative cases to nine different states as mentioned in the introduction. Accordingly, the errors were placed into the appropriate categories so that the reason of erroneous use could be understood easier (Table 3).

Table 3 *Categorization of ablative case errors in terms of their states*

State of	Inaccurate case	Redundant case	Case missing	Total
1. existing	4	2		6
2. reason	2			2
positioning	3	1		4
4. specification	1		1	2
5. time	1			1
6. adjectivization		1		1
7. source	1			1
8. indirect object	10	1	1	12
9. of comparison	1			1
Total	23	5	2	30

Table 3 shows that ten out of 23 inaccurate case examples belong to the state of indirect object, which places it to the top rank. It is followed by the state of existing (4), state of positioning (3), and state of reason (2). Each of the rest states has a single inaccurate case example except for the state of adjectivization which was not found. Concerning the category of redundant case, five examples were found in the data, two of which are under the state of existing. Each state of positioning, adjectivization, and indirect object has one example. The last category, case-missing, has two examples that belong to

the states of specification and indirect object.

Inaccurate case

Table 4 presents all the authentic examples picked from the data. Accordingly, the ablative cases that function as state of indirect object rank the top as the most erroneously used ones, which is followed by the state of existing. The majority of the students used *from* while they should have used *by* in their sentences to cover the ablative case in Turkish.

 Table 4 Inaccurate sentences including ablative cases in data.

	Turkish Text	English Translation*	Error / Corrected form	Error type
1.	İlk eşin +den iki çocuğu vardı.	He had two kids from (by) his first wife.	from / by	State of indirect object
2.	Siyahi bir kadın +dan bir oğlu oldu.	He had a son from (by) a black woman.	from / by	State of indirect object
3.	Şampiyon +dan bir gol daha geldi.	One more goal was scored from (by) the champion.	from / by	State of indirect object
4.	Ezber +den öğrenme etkili değil.	Learning from (by) rote is not efficient.	from / by	State of indirect object
5.	Olay +dan bilgilendirilmemiştim.	I was not informed from (about) the event.	from / about	State of indirect object
6.	Önemsiz konular +dan konuştuk.	We talked from (about) unimportant topics.	from / about	State of indirect object
7.	Bu oyun +dan sıkıldım.	I am bored from (with) this game.	from / with	State of indirect object
8.	Hugo' +dan yazılı bir eserdi.	It was a written document from (by) Hugo.	from / by	State of indirect object
9.	Tamamen şans +tan oldu.	It was totally from (by) luck.	from / by	State of indirect object
10.	Açık yara +dan mikrop girebilir.	A virus may enter from (through) an open wound.	from / through	State of indirect object
11.	Yaptırımlar +dan ekonomi çökmüştü.	Economy was collapsed from (because of) the sanctions.	from / because of	State of reason
12.	Mutluluk +tan bayıldı.	She fainted from (with) happiness.	from / with	State of reason
13.	Tren tünel +den geçti.	The train went from (through) the tunnel.	from / through	State of existing
14.	Arabayla evlerin +den geçtik.	We drove from (by) their house.	from / by	State of existing
15.	Daha önce bu köy +den geçtik.	We travelled from (though) this village before.	from / through	State of existing
16.	Kutu +dan hediyeyi çıkardım.	I took the present from (out of) the box.	from / out of	State of existing
17.	Kredi kartın +dan ödeme yapıldı.	The payment was done from (by) the credit card.	from / by	State of source
18.	Masa +dan kalk.	Get from (off) the table	from / off	State of positioning
19.	Deniz kenarın +dan bir ev aldık.	We bought a house from (by) the seaside.	from / by	State of positioning

2	20. Patika yol +dan gittik.	We went from (on) the rough way.	from / on	State of positioning
2	21. Her beş odan +dan biri küçük.	One from (of) every five rooms is small.	from / of	State of specification
2	22. Suç oranı %15' +ten fazla arttı.	The rate of crime increased further from (than) 15%	from / than	State of comparison
2	23. Saat sekiz +den dir yoldayız.	We are on the way from (since) 8 o'clock	from / since	State of time

^{*} Parentheses provide correct words.

Redundant case

The results showed that there are four examples of redundant case, as were provided in Table 5.

Table 5. Examples of redundant cases concerning ablative cases.

Turkish Text	English Translation*
1. Istanbul'+dan ayrıldıktan sonra	after I left from Istanbul
"Lütfen ev+den çıkın" dedim.	I said "please exit from the house"
3. Bu taraf +tan gitti.	She went from this side.
4. O konu+dan bahsetmedik.	We did not mention from that topic.
Elinde cam+dan bir çerçeve vardı.	He had a frame from the glass in his hand.

The preposition *from* is redundant and erroneous in the examples from one to four, hence should be removed because all of the main verbs are used without a preposition in English (while they should be used with the case of *from* in Turkish). On the other hand, the preposition *from* in the last example does not prompt a grammatical error, but adds weirdness to the style of the writing; therefore, the preposition *from* aiming to cover the ablative case +dan in Turkish seems to be redundant and the sentence needs to be revised as *He had a glass frame in his hand*.

Case-missing

The results provided two examples about case-missing as shown below. In the first example, the student missed of that would cover the ablative case of +dan in Turkish; meanwhile, in the second example, the student did not use about.

Example 1.

Turkish text: Kitaplar+dan iki tanesi çok güzeldi. English translation: Two (of) books were very good.

Example 2.

Turkish text: Hayallerim**+den** konuştum. English translation: I talked **(about)** my dreams

Locative case

The category of inaccurate cases is the most problematic area in the Turkish-to-English translated texts. Students had 28 inaccurate case examples while only two redundant case and two case-missing examples, as summarized in Figure 4.

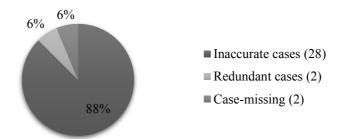


Figure 4 *The categorical number of errors concerning locative cases.*

When the distribution of the examples was taken into account (Table 6), the subcategories of locative case shows that *state of location* takes the first rank with 17 examples, and then follows respectively *state of case/action*, *state of time* and *state of possession*.

Table 6 Categorization of locative case errors in terms of their states.

States	Inaccurate case	Redundant case	Case missing	Total
1. State of location	16		1	17
2. State of time	3			3
3. State of possession	2			2
4. State of case/action	7	2	1	10
Total	28	2	2	32

Authentic examples as to each category of locative case were provided below, which are twenty-eight examples of *inaccurate case*, two examples of *redundant case*, and two examples of *case-missing*.

Inaccurate case

The equivalence of locative case -de[da/te/ta] in Turkish is largely the prepositions of *at* or *in*, and accordingly student translators, in most cases, incorrectly used *at* and *in* to translate locative cases in Turkish-to-English translations (Table 7).

Table 7 *Inaccurate sentences including locative cases in data.*

Turkish Text		English Translation*	Error / Corrected	Error type
1.	Kütüphane +de yim, beni rahatça bulabilirsin.	I am at (in) the library, you can find me easily.	at / in	State of location
2.	Kütüphane +de buluşalım. Oradan gideriz.	Let's meet in (at) the library. We can go from there.	in / at	State of location
3.	Kalabalık +ta olduğumdan konuşamadım.	I could not talk because I was in (among) the crowd.	in / among	State of location
4.	Onlar 7. Kat +ta ydılar.	They were at (on) the seventh floor.	at / on	State of location
5.	Çimenlik+te oturduk.	We sat at (on) the lawn.	at / on	State of location
6.	Kayalık bir patika +da ilerledik.	We moved at (along) a rock path.	at / along	State of location
7.	Televizyon+da birşey yoktu.	There was nothing at (on) the TV.	at / on	State of location

		0		
8.	Telefon+da seni bekliyor.	She is waiting for you at (on) the phone.	at / on	State of location
9.	Parmağın +da bir yüzük vardı.	She had a ring at (on) her finger.	at / on	State of location
10.	Onca insanın için +de rencide oldum.	I was hurt in (among) so many people.	in / among	State of location
11.	Cüzdanımı masa +da unuttum.	I left my wallet at (on) the table.	at / on	State of location
12.	Evimiz Konyaaltı sahilin +de.	Our house is at (on) the coast of Konyaaltı.	at / on	State of location
13.	Aslında bir çiflik +te çalışmak isterdim.	In fact I would like to work at (on) a farm.	at / on	State of location
14.	Anahtarlar kapı +da ydı.	The keys were in (on/at) the door.	in / on	State of location
15.	Tavan +da büyük bir örümcek vardı.	There was a big spider at (on) the ceiling.	at / on	State of location
16.	Tren+de yanyana oturduk.	We sat together in (on) the train.	in / on	State of location
17.	Bu konu +da herşeyi söyledim.	I said everything in (about) this topic.	in / about	State of case/action
18.	Farklı tatlar +da dondurmalar satılıyordu.	Ice-creams at (with) different tastes were sold.	at / with	State of case/action
19.	Değişik renkler +de elbiseler aldım.	I bought clothes at (in) different colours.	at / in	State of case/action
20.	Öğlen yemeğin +de ne var?	What is in (for) the lunch?	in / for	State of case/action
21.	Fiyat +ta anlaştık.	We agreed at (on) the price.	at / on	State of case/action
22.	Şirketin büyümesin +de sorun yaşayorduk.	We had problem in (with) the growth of the company.	in / with	State of case/action
23.	Bu olay +da benim bir suçum yok.	You cannot blame me in (on) this event.	in / on	State of case/action
24.	Arkadaşımla Salı 2' +de buluşacaktık.	We would meet our friend at (on) Tuesday 2 pm.	at / on	State of time
25.	Kış toplantısın +da konuyu tartışmıştık.	We had discussed the issue in (at) winter meeting.	in / at	State of time
26.	15 günlük tatil +de dükkanlar kapalıydı.	The shops were closed in (during) 15-day vocation.	in / during	State of time
27.	Cevabı ben +de öneme sahipti.	His answer was important in (to) me.	in / to	State of possession
28.	Ben +de para yoktu.	I did not have any money at (with) me.	at / with	State of possession

^{*} Parentheses provide correct words.

Redundant case

When you say ayak+ta (on one's feet) in Turkish, you need to use locative case +ta, but you do not have to in English because the word *standing* would just make locative case redundant as in the first example below. Regarding Example 2, *to fry* means to cook something in oil; therefore, a writer does not need to indicate that it is something inside the oil, but writer needs to use the word *oil* together with the locative case *in* in Turkish because there is no word in Turkish to cover both the oil and to fry. On

the account of that, the translator feels that s/he need to translate all of the preposition phrases to make a working translation, which is unnecessary.

Example 1.

Turkish text: Bizi ayak+*ta* karşıladılar. English translation: They met us *on* standing. Remodelled English translation: They met us standing.

Example 2.

Turkish text: Öğlen <u>yağ+da kızartılmış</u> tavuk yedim. English translation: I ate <u>chicken fried in the oil</u> in the lunch.

Remodelled English translation: I ate <u>fried chicken</u> in the lunch.

Case-missing

Student translators missed the locative cases in the examples below.

Example 1.

Turkish text: Turkiye Güney yarım küre**+de**dir.

English translation: Turkey is located (in) the southern hemisphere.

Example 2.

Turkish text: Uygun ucuzlukta elbiseler vardı.

English translation: There were clothes (at) affordable prices.

Discussion

In order to explain the results of the present study, it is of importance to consider the structural qualifications of both source and target languages in which Turkish-to-English translations occur. West-Germanic languages like English have more plain case systems compared to Altaic languages like Turkish. English language operates with a basic case system composed of seven cases while Turkish case system necessitates a sophisticated knowledge of suffixation highly because of its richly agglutinative structure and morphosyntactic relations. Therefore, translators need to be aware of the suffixation of several different morphemes on the verbal or nominal stem (Rothweiler, Chilla, & Babur, 2010) in particularly Turkish-to-English translations.

This study aimed to investigate the problems as to locative and ablative cases that the students at a department of translation had while they performed Turkish-to-English studies. Furthermore, the present study aimed to decrease the number of errors stemming from the erroneous translation of ablative and locative cases through the pedagogical suggestions. In accordance, the results were categorized under three subtitles *-inaccurate*, *redundant and case missing-* and provided a number of interesting reflections. First, inaccurate ablative and locative case samples were much more prevalent in students' Turkish-to-English translations when compared to the categories of redundant case and case missing. Inaccurate Turkish-to-English translations of ablative cases constituted 77% of all errors, and the figure was even higher for inaccurate translation of locative cases with a percentage of 88, which can be interpreted that student translators were not equipped with enough knowledge on how to translate ablative and locative cases in Turkish-to-English translations. When compared to ablative cases, locative cases seem to be more problematic for Turkish students (Erkaya, 2012) highly due to the large number of English equivalences of them (see Table 7). Erroneous translation of ablative and locative

cases in this study is largely because of insufficient knowledge of prepositions in English, which were also found as a primary reason in Turkish students' written texts (c.f. Özışık, 2014). Different from Turkish, English language includes more prepositions, and the correct equivalence of a single case in Turkish may be represented through myriad English cases, which is a practice either overlooked or ignored by the student translators. Another problematic point is loan translation of cases (Kırkgöz, 2010), that is, direct translation of Turkish cases without taking grammatical rules of English; for example, the preposition of *at* needs to be used to express an institutional place *okul+da* (at the school) whilst the preposition of *on* is used, as in *masa+da* (on the table), to indicate the position of an object over something (also somebody). In concise, inaccurate Turkish-to-English translation of cases seems to stem from insufficient knowledge of prepositions or a fixed English equivalence of each case in students' minds while translating.

This study contradicts Köroğlu's (2014) study in that she found unnecessary addition of a preposition (called *redundant case* in this study) is the most widespread error type; however, her data -different from the present study- were collected from Arabic texts written by Turkish students, and each language has its internal structures with different parameters that may end up with extensive variances (c.f. McNamee & Mayfield, 2002). On the other hand, Tunaz, Muyan, and Muratoğlu (2016) found that addition (*redundant cases* in this study) omission (*case missing* in this study) and substitution (*inaccurate cases* in this study) prepositional errors need remedial teaching activities because they are chiefly responsible for errors of Turkish students at different English language proficiency.

Transplanting a text from a language to another demands cross-linguistic competence in both languages, particularly from the mother-tongue to the target language because of possible L1 interference-effect. Comparative linguists, also studying L1 interference in translations, allocate a special place on negative transfers from L1 to L2 in translation studies. Researchers studying error analysis and correction of Turkish students (e.g., Akarsu, 2011; Erkaya, 2012; Köroğlu, 2014) paid particular attention to the effect of L1 interference while writing in English. Accordingly, this study found numerous negative L1 transfer examples; for example, locative cases of te/ta in Turkish were mostly translated as "at" in English (Table 7, examples 4, 5, and 13). Erarslan and Hol (2014) reasoned for errors in Turkish-to-English translated texts to negative L1 transfers of prepositions, and then vocabularies and tenses. Similarly, Özişik (2014) found that a significant number of erroneous prepositions resulting from L1 interference existed in the English texts of Turkish EFL students.

Conclusion

This study, with the purpose of investigating ablative and locative cases in Turkish-to-English translation of student translators, concluded that several factors should be minded while translating these cases. First, inaccuracy of ablative and locative cases in the translations of student translators seems to be a common issue that should be dealt with specific teaching activities inserted into the curriculum of concerned lessons in the departments of translation. Second redundant cases, though comparatively lower, take up a substantial place in student translators' Turkish-to-English translations, which appears to be due to L1 interference. The structure of the English language is different from Turkish, and students are in need of understanding this awareness to be able to use both source and target languages in their true structures so that student translators can get rid of the adverse influence of L1 in translations. Finally, student translators did not omit the cases in the places they should have used; therefore, case-missing does not seem to be a problematic issue.

It was concluded that ablative and locative cases are two issues not settled equally by student translators although erroneous locative cases slightly outnumber. Therefore, both cases are advised to get due concern by the instructors. Furthermore, this study concluded that further sub-categorizations of

ablative and locative cases may contribute to students' understanding regarding major differences between constructive morphological structures of Turkish and English, and hence prompt more qualified and native-like Turkish-to-English translated texts. Accordingly, this study categorized ablative cases into nine (*state of existing, state of reason, state of positioning, state of specification, state of time, state of adjectivization, state of source, state of indirect object and state of comparison*) and locative cases into four (*state of location, state of time, state of possession and state case/action*). As final remarks, this study gathered several suggestions that may contribute students in improving their flair for the translation of ablative and locative cases in Turkish-to-English studies.

Pedagogical implications

- 1. Inaccurate Turkish-to-English translation of ablative and locative cases seems to stem from insufficient knowledge of prepositions or a fixed English equivalence of each case in students' minds on the course of translation. Students may be suggested to read particularly native reading texts to be equipped with the skill of how to use ablative and locative cases as natives do or instructors may simply arrange some translation exercises such as fill in the blanks, simple Turkish-to-English sentences, and matching that students are required to use the true cases.
- 2. Morphological segmentation, requiring a fair amount of linguistic knowledge, may help students to cope with the complex morphological system of Turkish; hence, may improve their flair for Turkish-to-English translation if implemented separately on basis of nominal, verbal, adjectival and adverbial suffixation. For example, a training schedule for distinctive teaching of locative cases for nominal suffixation, and then for verbal, adjectival and adverbial suffixation is advised so that students would have more opportunity to understand morphological segmentation.
- 3. A single Turkish word can correspond up to phrases in English because of its agglutinative feature (Bisazza & Federico, 2009). Therefore, a pre-teaching programme to have the rudiments of the typology and internal structures of agglutinative languages may be of use for the further processes of case-morphology.
- 4. Mother tongue had an effect on Turkish language learners while translating the cases in relative clause sentences (Ordem, 2017), thus teachers should be alert and sure that the topic they teach has been comprehended by the students to prevent learners from transferring the features of their mother tongue into the target language. Students need to be checked at the end of each lecture to ensure whether the learners have taken in the rules, structures and lexical items of the target language. If learners avoid constructing the structures they do not know, some additional remedial teaching activities may be necessary (Akarsu, 2011).
- 5. While the situation with relation to the position of its source is generally taken into consideration in English (MacKenzie, 1978), Turkish may envisage the movement away from that position as in "Onu bir podcast'ten [ablative case] öğrendim" "I learned it in [locative case] a podcast". Therefore, student translators may get best advantage if instructors attract their attention to this cross-linguistic difference.
- 6. Another infelicity concerning the teaching of ablative and locative cases is the stableness of teaching patterns; that is, the current teaching procedures do not provide enough flexibility for the cases. Cases are categorized as nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, ablative, locative, and vocative, and then Turkish or English equivalences are provided, which is a too simplified situation when the complexity of morphosyntactic relations between the two languages is considered. Not to end up with poorly translated texts, the appropriate translation of cases is crucial, and students need a certain level of expertise in both Turkish and English case systems

to manage this. This study did not only categorized ablative and locative cases into two, but also further categorized ablative cases into nine and locative cases into four as in subtitle of 1.2. These sub-categorizations may be of utmost help to lower students' possible errors in the prospective translation studies.

- 7. A special teaching course regarding cross-linguistic differences concerning cases may be of benefit for student translators. There do not seem any curriculums that aim at gathering attention on these kinds of differences at the translation departments in Turkey. A course named Comparative Linguistics exists in the curriculums yet it does not suffice to be able to reveal all cross-linguistic differences between Turkish and English grammar because they have entirely different grammatical backgrounds due to their language typologies. Therefore, it is advised to increase the number of courses that deal with linguistic differences or to enhance the content of the existing courses.
- 8. Cases are particularly critical for code-switching, which is an essential flair for translators on the course of spontaneous translation as in Turkish-English bilingual discourse (Kemaloglu-Er, 2018). Accordingly, a genuine translation necessitates true code-switching of cases which play a significant role in converting cases in translator's mind; therefore, unique linguistic parameters of both source and target languages should not be taken for granted as this study illustrated different scenarios that the translators may encounter while translating Turkish cases of locative and dative to English.
- 9. The Interface Hypothesis aims to explain non-target-like linguistic examples that are experienced by all level speakers. It proposes that linguistic structures containing an interface between syntax and other cognitive domains are more unlikely to be acquired comprehensively than structures that do not contain this interface (Sorace, 2011). Therefore, this hypothesis may be of help to abolish errors in the use of Turkish case markers (Antonova-Ünlü, 2015). However, the method necessitates intensive-labour and can be applied to a small number of learners if the best outcome is expected.
- 10. Cognitive issues may be an important player to improve cross-translation of cases (Uygun and Gürel, 2016); therefore, instructors are advised to seek help from psycholinguists to determine a road map before initiating a teaching programme on case markers.

Outlook for further research

Out of six prevalent cases in Turkish, this study investigated only ablative and locative cases because of the possible data abundance, which otherwise would harden the analysis. Therefore, researchers may conduct a study on other cases to investigate erroneous uses. Furthermore, although largely six cases in Turkish are mentioned, there are some other cases in Turkish as seen in Table 1. An investigation on rare cases that were provided in Table 1 may ensure some insights regarding the states of cases in Turkish-to-English translation studies. At last, the present study collected data from students at the department of translation; however, many other English-medium departments require a great number of translation activities, and hence translation skills. Researchers are kindly invited to conduct a study on these departments, which could add up writing skills of those studying at diverse fields other than pure translation.

References

Akarsu, O. (2011). Error analysis in oral production of Turkish learners of English. *Atatürk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, *15*(1), 235–252.

- Anderson, J. M. (2018). *On case grammar: Prolegomena to a theory of grammatical relations.* New York: Routledge.
- Angelone, E. (2010). Uncertainity, uncertainity management, and metacognitive problem solving in the translation task. In G. M. Shreve, & E. Angelone (Eds.), *Translation and Cognition* (pp. 17–40). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Antonova-Unlu, E. (2015). Testing the Interface Hypothesis: The evidence from fossilized errors in the use of Turkish case markers. *Dilbilim Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 26(1), 1–23.
- Antonova-Unlu, E., & Wei, L. (2020). Examining possible sources of L2 divergence at the pragmatics interface: Turkish accusative in the end-state grammar of L1 Russian and L1 English users of L2 Turkish. *Lingua*, 244, 55.
- Babaoğlu, M.P. & Ağçam, R. (2019). The use of Turkish case markers by adult learners of Turkish as a second language. *Diyalektolog*, *22*, 35–44.
- Bak, T. H., Long, M. R., Vega-Mendoza, M., & Sorace, A. (2016). Novelty, challenge, and practice: The impact of intensive language learning on attentional functions. *PloS one*, 11(4), e0153485.
- Bisazza, A., & Federico, M. (2009). Morphological pre-processing for Turkish to English statistical machine translation. *Proceedings of the International Workshop on Spoken Language Translation* (pp. 129–135). December 1-2, 2009, Tokyo.
- Crinion, J., Turner, R., Grogan, A., Hanakawa, T., Noppeney, U., Devlin, J. Aso, T., Urayama, S., Fukuyama, H., Stockton, K., Usui, K., Green, D. W., & Price, C. J. (2006). Language control in the bilingual brain. *Science*, *312*(5779), 1537–1540.
- Demirel, E. T. (2017). Detection of common errors in Turkish EFL students' writing through a corpus analytic approach. *English Language Teaching*, *10*(10), 159–178.
- Erarslan, A., & Hol, D. (2014). Language interference on English: Transfer on the vocabulary, tense and preposition use of freshmen Turkish EFL learners. *ELTA Journal*, *2*(2), 4–22.
- Erel, S., & Bulut, D. (2007). Error treatment in L2 writing: A comparative study of direct and indirect coded feedback in Turlish EFL context. *Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 22(1), 397–415.
- Erkaya, O. R. (2012). Vocabulary and L1 interference Error analysis of Turkish students. *Literacy Issues in Higher Education*, 36(2), 1–11.
- Haznedar, B. (2006). Persistent problems with case morphology in L2 acquisition. C. Lleo içinde, *Interfaces in Multilingualism* (pp. 179–206). Amsterdam / Philedelphia: John Benjamins.
- Hyland, K., & Anan, E. (2006). Teachers' perceptions of error: The effects of first language and experience. *System*, *34*, 509–519.
- Jiménez, R. T., David, S., Fagan, K., Risko, V. J., Pacheco, M., Pray, L., & Gonzales, M. (2015). Using translation to drive conceptual development for students becoming literate in English as an additional language. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 49(3), 248–271.
- Johnson, J. S., & Newport, E. L. (1989). Critical period effects in second language learning: The influence of maturational state on the acquisition of English as a second language. *Cognitive Psychology*, *21*(1), 60–99.
- Kroll, J. F., Dussias, P. E., Bice, K., & Perrotti, L. (2015). Bilingualism, mind, and brain. *The Annual Review of Linguistics*, 1, 377–394.
- Julien, M. (2005). Nominal phrases from a Scandinavian perspective. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Kan, M. O., & Utlu, G. (2017). Errors in case markers made by Syrian students who learn Turkish in temporary education centers. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 5(9), 205–212.
- Kemaloglu-Er, E. (2018). Patterns of intrasentential code-switching in Turkish-English bilingual discourse: Testing the free morpheme and the equivalence constraint. *Artibilim: Adana Bilim ve Teknoloji Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 1(2), 35–45.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2010). An analysis of written errors of Turkish adult learners of English. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2, 4352–4358.

- Kormos, J., & Sáfár, A. (2008). Phonological short-term memory, working memory and foreign language performance in intensive language learning. *Bilingualism: Language and cognition*, 11(2), 261–271.
- Köroğlu, Z. Ç. (2014). An analysis on grammatical errors of Turkish EFL students' written texts. *Turkish Studies*, *9*(12), 101–111.
- MacKenzie, J. L. (1978). Ablative-Locative Transfers and Their Relevance for the Theory of Case-Grammar. *Journal of Linguistics*, 14(2),129–156.
- McArthur, T. (1992). *The Oxford companion to the English language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- McNamee, P., & Mayfield, J. (2002). Comparing cross-language query expansion techniques by degrading translation resources. *The 25th annual international ACM SIGIR conference on Research and development in information retrieval* (pp. 159–166). New York: ACM.
- Mert, O. (2003). Türkçe'de hal kategorisi ve öğretimi. *A.Ü. Türkiyat Araştırmaları Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 21, 25–31.
- Miyaoka, O. (2012). A grammar of Central Alaskan Yupik (CAY). Berlin/Boston: De Gruyter.
- Ordem, E. (2017). Acquisition of zero relative clauses in English by adult Turkish learners of English. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 5(1), 190–195.
- Özişik, C. (2014). Identifying preposition errors of Turkish EFL students. *ELT Research Journal*, 3(2), 59–69.
- Petek, E., & Dağıstan, S. (2018). The errors Kyrgyz students make in learning Turkish case suffixes and solutions. *Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods*, 8(10), 14–21.
- Radfors, A. (1991). Syntactic theory and the acquisition of English syntax. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Robinson, P., Mackey, A., Gass, S. M., & Schmidt, R. (2012). Attention and awareness in second language acquisition. In A. Mackey & S. M. Gass (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 247–267). London: Routledge.
- Rothweiler, M., Chilla, S., & Babur, E. (2010). Specific language impairment in Turkish: Evidence from case morphology in Turkish–German successive bilinguals. *Clinical Linguistics & Phonetics*, 24(7), 540–555. https://doi.org/10.3109/02699200903545328
- Schaffner, C. (2010). Norms of translation. In Y. Gambier & L. V. Doorslaer (Eds.), *Handbook of translation studies* (pp. 235–244). Amsterdam / Philedelphia: John Benjamins.
- Schumann, J. H. (1975). Affective factors and the problem of age in second language acquisition. *Language Learning*, 25(2), 209–235.
- Selinger, H. (1983). The language learner as linguist of metaphors and realities. *Applied Linguistics*, 4(3), 179–191.
- Shreve, G. M., Lacruz, I., & Angelone, E. (2010). Cognitive effort, syntactic disruption, and visual interference in a sight translation task. In G. M. Shreve & E. Angelone (Eds.), *Translation and cognition* (pp. 63–84). Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Sorace, A. (2011). Pinning down the concept of "interface" in bilingualism. *Linguistic Approaches to Bilingualism*, *I*(1), 1–33.
- Tomlin, R. S., & Villa, V. (1994). Attention in cognitive science and second language acquisition. *Studies in second language acquisition*, *16*(2), 183–203.
- Tunaz, M., Muyan, E., & Muratoğlu, N. (2016). A corpus-based study on the preposition error types in Turkish EFL learners' essays. *International Peer-reviewed Journal of Humanities and Academic Science*, 2016, 1–16. https://doi.org/10.17368/UHBAB.20161722361
- University of Cambridge. (2011, November 3). *Unconscious language learning*. Retrieved from https://www.cam.ac.uk/research/news/unconscious-language-learning
- Uygun, S., & Gürel, A. (2016). Processing morphology in L2 Turkish. Second language acquisition of *Turkish*, 59, 251–279.
- Wen, Z., Mota, M. B., & McNeill, A. (2015). Working memory in second language acquisition and processing. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Author biodata

Cüneyt Demir received his PhD in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), and is currently an Assistant Professor at Siirt University, Siirt-Turkey. He is currently offering courses at the graduate and undergraduate levels at Siirt University. His research interests include educational academic writing, ESP, and adult education in ELT.