Description of -mA/-mAK Structures in Turkish from Perspective of Second/Foreign Language Pedagogy

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Abstract

Views on language education have changed along with developments in global society. Today, most learners seek to acquire a foreign language for daily communication. Consequently, instructors focus on communicative activities in language classrooms. When performing such activities, the most challenging issue for teachers is to create accurate and consistent grammatical content in harmony with communicative activities. In language education literature, *triad classifications* are often used to classify grammatical content: form, function and use. In this study, I introduce the grammatical content classifications mentioned in the literature and then classify *-mA* and *-mAK* suffixes, one of the most difficult subjects for learners of Turkish. With this aim, I review both reference grammar and textbooks, the kind of resources typically used by classroom teachers, who do not have time to perform an in depth linguistic description. With this in mind, the study focuses on the classification of the information depicted by linguistic resources. As a result, the form, function and usage characteristics of the *-mA* and *-mAK* suffixes are listed item by item and sample lesson content is presented. This research will help instructors of Turkish to construct the content of their lessons and gain a new perspective on grammar teaching.

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Introduction

Description of a language is as critical of a step in language education as it is in liguistics studies. A language instructor should describe the grammatical units him/herself from reference grammars if s/he does not have any prepared pedagogical resources or materials (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). Description means the disclosure of the rules of a language with a synchronic investigation. An effective pedagogical grammar of a language can be written based on an effective descriptive grammar of that language (Henry, 2012; Tomlin, 1994). Since descriptive grammars are synchronical, they take a photo of a language at that moment and do not make an argument about old or new forms of a language or how the language should be etc. They are separate from 'prescriptive grammars' and serve as a base for pedagogical grammars from that perspective. Therefore, if a grammar instructor were to prepare the topic him/herself, s/he must approach the topic descriptively.

The descriptive grammar approach brings with it many questions. The first question is "What will be described?". In fact, Cem (as cited Chomsky, 1965; Hymes, 1971) argued that the answer to this question was attained through different ends, such as the swinging of approach pendulum in the second language acquisition work. If we accept the "Grammatical competence" concept that was claimed by Chomsky in 1965 as a starting point, second language teaching models use sentence tranformation exercises in second language classes. Then, in 1971, Hymes claimed that producing grammatically correct sentences is not enough when learning a language and mentioned the "Communicative competence" concept. Therefore, language education started to move away from grammar and instead focused on improving the use of language and speaking fluently. In language classes that implement communicative approach, students who are not very concerned about structures have been directly involved in communication activities; however, in time, the lack of accuracy in language has been noticed. In such courses, the wrongly learned structures became permanent (fossilized). These shortcomings moved the pendulum again, and from the 1990s onwards, language educators have been seeking ways of focusing on language structures without ignoring the communication dimension. The following paragraphs will trace and summarize these results.

Celce-Murcia and Hilles (1988) claim that before starting a grammar lesson, teachers should review the reference grammar books and put forth how the subject is formed and when it is used. Instructors should consider the following three factors when describing topic from grammar books: social factor, meaning factor and discourse factor. Each grammatical form can be matched to one or more of these.

Larsen-Freeman (2001) makes a similar classification. For the author, the goal of grammar instruction is striking a balance between grammar and communication. Therefore, considering grammar as a meaningless, context-free and static phenomenon causes disharmony between grammar teaching and the communication process. Grammar structures do not only consist of morphosyntactic structures, but are also used to convey meaning in appropriate contexts. Larsen-Freeman proposes a framework related to the three dimensions of grammar structures. This diagram helps make grammar easier to understand for both instructors and learners.
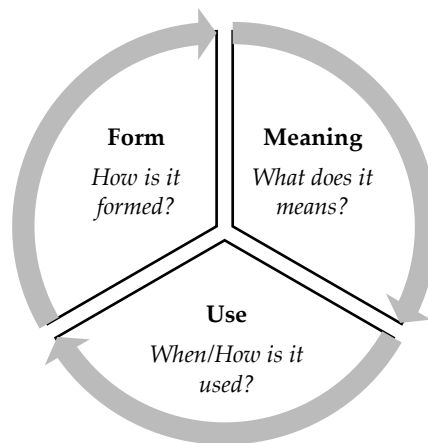
Figure 1. Three Dimensions of Grammar

The diagram considers three dimensions for each grammatical structure: form, meaning and use. The form encompasses how a particular grammatical unit is structured or it is sorted by other elements in a sentence. The form may be either lexical or morphological. Meaning refers to the lexical or the grammatical meaning of a structure. Use is related to the relationship between language and context. The concept of context, which is closely related to the dimension of use, can be the social context, the context of linguistic discourse or the person's past experience. The social context describes the relationship between the listener and the speaker during communication. The context of linguistic discourse refers to the effect of the structures that come before and after a certain structure in a sentence. Larsen-Freeman (2001) indicates that a grammar instructor can begin the lesson preparation by identifying these three dimensions for all grammatical units. During lesson instructors does not have to focus on these three dimensions equally. They may focus on the dimensions in which students are weak.

Supporting these content classifications, Thornburry (2002) divides pedagogical rules into the rule of forms and the rule of use. The author states that the rule of use is often more difficult and complex than the rule of form; because the rule of use is largely dependent on context and is difficult to express in black and white. In the grammar lessons, the relationship between the rule of forms and the rule of use should be emphasized.

As I reviewed some grammar books prepared for pedagogical purposes related to the presentation of grammar I observed similar classifications. Bland (2003) classifies the grammatical content as form, meaning and use. S/he gives preference to form before meaning and use dimensions. In this way, Bland states that students could understand how the form is structured and pronounced before moving on to more difficult and open-ended activities focusing on meaning and use. Carter, Hughes, and McCarthy (2000) discuss the grammar of use and grammar of form separately, and the answer to the question of "Has she taken it with her?" "She may have, I'm not sure." is grammatically correct but for the use dimension it is not enough. The answers like "don't know" and "think so" are also possible. It is stated in the book that such choices should be included in grammar classes. Thomson and Martinet (1984) classify gramatical topics into form and use. If the topic is not a form but a function-based unit (e.g. nouns), it begins with the title of genres or functions. The usage dimension is also divided into two parts. While there are contexts in which a form is used, the contexts in which a form can not be used are also provided. The form dimension precedes the use dimension in the book. Finally, Ketrez (2012) classifies some of her units as form and meaning. The book explains iconic terminology such as *-mA / -mAK* first by introducing the form and then by explaining its functions and usage.

According to the literature presented above, grammar dimensions are generally classified as triad. This shows us that there are actually three dimensions in grammar. These three dimensions, which are form, meaning and use, are in fact a three-dimensional classification of all the knowledge that a person has about a language. To know a language means to know the form of the language, the meanings of forms and when and how they are used. This opinion is supported by a view from Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams (2011). According to the authors, every native speaker has a dictionary in their minds. In this dictionary, knowledge of the forms, meaning and use dimensions are stored (48). An example of this view is that if a native speaker knows that *-(y)Iş* suffix in the *geç-iş* verb nominalizes the verbs they can also know that this can be applied to all the other verbs: *gel-iş, dur-uş, gir-iş…* Native speakers also have knowledge of the context in which *–(y)Iş* suffix is used. Thus, they are able to produce sentences in limitless meanings with limited forms in appropriate contexts. In second language acquisition, learning these three dimensions prepares students grammatical and communicative competence at the same time. Thus, students comprehend the complex system of language and can use it to communicate successfully (Brown, 2000; Larsen-Freeman, 2001; Ellis, 2005; Uslu, 2005).

The three dimensions of grammar can be further clarified by an example from Turkish:

Uludağ'a kar yağmış.

The form-based features of this sentence include a number of properties: It has received the *-mIş* tense suffix, and the indirect object has *-A* case suffix, and the function of the sentence is "Notification". It is likely that this sentence was spoken between two friends who were planning to go to Uludağ to ski. This is an example of the use information of this sentence. It is not a sentence that someone can say while talking during a conference.

Thornburry (2002, p. 11) states that it is often more difficult to write and present the rule of use than the rule of forms. Traditionally, the rule of forms come to mind in terms of grammar. However, focusing on the rule of use provides context for the student and helps the teacher to create context. The benefits of creating a context and how the make a context (how to write the rule of use) are examined in various studies. Cem (2005) illustrates the constituents of a context in the following figure and explains how to present usage information in a lesson to students.
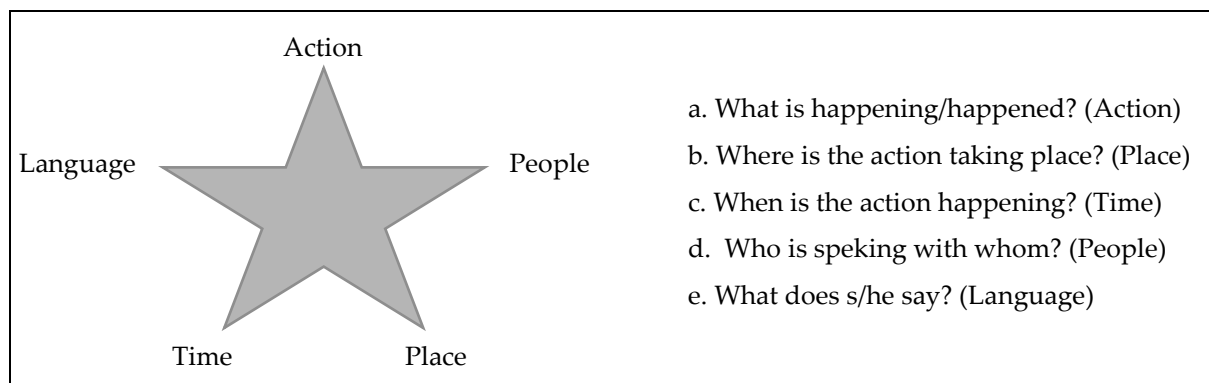

a. What is happening/happened? (Action)

b. Where is the action taking place? (Place)

c. When is the action happening? (Time)

d. Who is speking with whom? (People)

e. What does s/he say? (Language)

Figure 2. Components of Context

Cem (2005) presents a context sample based on the sentence: *"Ben açayım. Ahmet'tir.''*.

Ahmet ile Ali aynı iş yerinde çalışıyorlar. Ertesi gün önemli bir toplantıya katılacaklar. İkisi de toplantı saatini bilmiyor. Ali'nin önemli bir işi var ve gitmesi gerekiyor. Ahmet Ali'ye "Sen git. Ben toplantı saatini öğrenir, akşam seni ararım." diyor. Akşam, Ali'nin evinde telefon çalıyor. Ali eşine "Ben açayım. Ahmet'tir." diyor. (p. 16)

Cem (2005) indicates that the context can also be presented with visual materials. The author gives a visualized sample of the above text as follows. For the picture at left, giving an explanation as *"Bunlar Ali ile Ahmet. Aynı iş yerinde çalışıyorlar. Yarın ofiste önemli bir toplantı var."* the following questions can be asked to clarify the context: *"Şu an saat kaç?"*, *"Ali Ahmet'e ne diyor?"*, *"Ahmet ne diyor?"*. For the picture at right, the following questions can be asked: *"Ali nerede?"*, *"Şimdi saat kaç?"*; *"Ne oluyor?"*, *"Ali ne diyor?"*; *"Ali neden telefonu kendisi açmak istiyor?"*.

Figure 3. Visualized Context Sample (Cem, 2005, p. 17)

According to Thornburry (2002), grammar is a process that enables the person who speaks or writes to transfer the meaning when the context is lacking or absent. Adults, like children, have to rely on context clues until they reach an adequate level of grammar. To better understand the opinion of the author, the situation of a new arrival in Turkey can be considered. This foreigner is going from Istanbul to Ankara by train. If s/he goes to a ticket office, it will probably not be too difficult for him/her to buy his/her ticket. It would be sufficient only to say "Bilet (Ticket)" and the name of the destination place. The reason why the foreigner is not forced to express his/her aim in this case is that the place to which s/he went is a ticket office and that only tickets are sold there. The ticket office has a context in itself. Contrary, if the foreigner asks how to go from Istanbul to Ankara in a resturant to a waiter, s/he will have to use more words than s/he used at the ticket office and s/he will have to use more grammar. According to Brown (2000, p. 362) "a context informs students about 'who is speaking or writing', 'who is the target group or the interlocutor', 'where the communication takes place', 'style' and 'alternative forms to choose". In this way, the student not only gets some technical information, but also obtains the knowledge that may be useful for communication.

Although it is clear that there is a triad classification as in the above studies, it is seen that these terms are used interchangeably (See Cem, 2005). Ellis (2005) claims that meaning should be divided into semantic meaning (meaning of words or specific grammatical structures) and pragmatic meaning (meaning of context based on communication); however, Ellis's (2005) pragmatic meaning concept reflects the dimension of use.

The order in which these three dimensions will be presented in the courses is another point of contention. In the paragraphs above, it was mentioned in which order this classification is presented in various grammar books. In addition, Cem (2005) argues that the meaning of grammatical structures should be determined and meaning should precede form. The reason for this is that the students should make the input meaningful so that they can convert the input to the intake. For this reason, after the determination of the meaning of "estimation, inference" of the -DIr suffix, it is necessary to determine the -DIr forms which give these meanings. Because -DIr only gains this meaning in certain forms; that is, the meaning determines the form. The -DIr suffix has that meaning only after the nominal predicates

and -mIş and –(I)yor aspect suffixes. While this is true, this is not the case for some grammar subjects, and it may be more beneficial for students to see and pronounce the form first. Therefore, a clear determination of the order of this classification should not be made and teachers should decide on this based on the subject itself.

In this study, I aimed to describe *-mA* and *-mAK* suffixes, which are one of the subordinate clauses in Turkish, based on the triad classification mentioned in the paragraphs above. The reason for choosing *-mA* and *-mAK* suffixes in the paper is that students have difficulty in these suffixes based on various studies (Fidan, 2016; Tiryakiol, 2018). With this aim, I sought to asnwer the following research questions:

1. What are the formal features of *-mA* and *-mAK* suffixes?
2. What are the functional features of *-mA* and *-mAK* suffixes?
3. What are the usage features of *-mA* and *-mAK* suffixes?

Method

I conducted a document analysis to find answer to the research questions. Document analysis is the analysis of written materials with information on the phenomenon that is being investigated. Educational studies use textbooks, curriculum guidelines, student and teacher handbooks, lesson assignments and exams, course and unit plans, teacher files, and official documents as a data source in document analysis (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013, p. 189-190). Accordingly, data were collected from two groups of documents. The first group is the reference grammar books and articles discussing the features of the *-mA/-mAK* suffixes. The second group consists of textbooks prepared for students who learn Turkish as a second / foreign language or pedagogical grammar books.

I described the grammatical content according to the dimensions of form, function, and use. My main references were major grammar articles and books with a descriptive approach. I did not include any of the articles or books that had a prescriptive approach (For further information on prescriptive and descriptive approach see Tiryakiol, 2018). I indicated the resources that I reviewed with the name of their writers. Books written for teaching Turkish as a foreign language were indicated by the titles of the books and the levels of the structure (Istanbul Yabancılar İçin Türkçe Öğretim Seti=Istanbul B1 etc.). I did not aim to make a deep linguistic description. I reviewed the possible sources that may be used by a foreign language teacher. For each dimension, I first evaluated the reference books and then the textbooks. I summarized my opinions for each dimension.

The reference books and articles that were reviewed in this research are listed as follows: *Göğüş, 1969; Gencan, 1979; Erguvanlı Taylan, 1993; Underhill, 1976; Kural, 1994; Aydın, 1999; Deny, 2012.*

Coursebooks are followings: *Istanbul B1 (Aslan, 2013), Yedi İklim A2 (Barın et al., 2015), Yeni Hitit Temel 1 (Uzun, 2009), Ketrez (2012).*

Results

Findings are organized in three titles related to the research questions.

Dimension of Form

Dimension of form is how a particular grammatical unit is structured or how it is sorted by other elements in a sentence.

Table 1. Description of Form

The Evaluation of Views in Reference Grammars	The Evaluation of Views in Coursebooks
Most of the reference grammars, which were reviewed in this research, accept the idea of two different formations in these suffixes (See Göğüş, 1969; Gencan, 1979, Erguvanlı Taylan, 1993); However, Deny (2012), Underhill (1976) and Kural (1994) have a different point of view from other resources in terms of -mA/-mAK separation. Deny (2012) indicates that -mA is a form of -mAK in which the consonant k drops. Underhill (1976) uses 'short infinitive' term and thinks that -mA is a form of infinitive -mAK, which bears a person marker that means the subject was marked explicitly. Similar to that idea, Kural (1994) indicates that both -mA and -mAK are infinitives, -mAK can be divided into two parts as -mAK and -K-, and -mA is also a type of -mAK. Because of this point of view, Kural chooses the symbolization -mA(K). According to Kural, -K- sound at the end of this suffix is like complementizers, which were seen in some languages (English that, Arabic allazi, Persian ki etc.).	These structures are presented as two different suffixes in course books; however there is a more transitive presentation inside the books. For instance, the structures are handled as "İsim-Fiil Ekleri (-mA, -mAK)" in Istanbul B1 (Aslan, 2013), "-mA/-mAK" in Yedi İklim A2 (Barın et al., 2015), "ADLAŞTIRMA -mA, -mAK" in Yeni Hitit Temel 1 (Uzun, 2009). There is not any grammar explanation for these suffixes especially in the Yeni Hitit Temel 1 (Uzun, 2009) and Yedi İklim A2 (Barın et al., 2015). They only present the structural features of the suffixes in sentences and tables. The suffixes are handled more discretely in Istanbul B1 (Aslan, 2013). They are presented as three different structures: "fiil + mAk, fiil + mA, fiil + mA + iyelik eki". Ketrez (2012) choose the title of "Infinitives with -mA ve -mAK" and stresses that -mA and -mAK should not be confused because -mA has different functions and usages from -mAK.

Dimension of Function

Dimension of function expresses the roles and relations of grammatical structures in a sentence.

Table 2. Description of Function

The Evaluation of Views in Reference Grammars	The Evaluation of Views in Coursebooks
Subject in the embedded clause	*Subject in the embedded clause*
The debate on difference between *-mA/-mAK* is mostly conducted around the situation of subject in the embedded clause. Generally it is accepted that, while the subject can be seen in *-mAK* clauses, it can not be seen in *-mA* clauses. Research refers to the Government and Binding Theory (See Underhill, 1976; Kural, 1994; Aydın, 1999). (1) a. Ali [**PRO** okula gitmek] istiyor. b. Ali [*pro* okula gitmesi]ni istiyor. In the sentence (1)a above, the subject of the embedded clause is controlled by the subject of the main clause. The subject is not controlled by the main clause. The subject clause within the clause. It was seen in the verb of embedded clause as third singular person. If wanted, the subject Ayşe'nin can be inserted here.	There is no explanation about the subject in Yedi İklim A2 (Barın et al., 2015) and Yeni Hitit Temel 1 (Uzun, 2009) coursebooks. Istanbul B1 (Aslan, 2013) stresses that possessive suffix must be used when the subjects are different in the embedded clause and the main clause. However, Istanbul B1 (Aslan, 2013) does not establish any link between possessive suffix and subject. Ketrez (2012) expresses that when the subject of main and embedded clauses are different, it is *-mA*, when they are same, it is *-mAK*.
Nominalization	*Nominalization*
Underhill (1976) indicates that these suffixes are devices by means of which one sentence may be included within another to fill the grammatical role of "noun phrase" within the main sentence. At the end of that process, one of the sentences nominalizes. Thus, we can write a real noun phrase replacing: (3) a. [Orhan'ın geç kalması]na kızdım. b. [Orhan'ın dostu]na kızdım. Erguvanlı Taylan (1993) indicates that by using these suffixes, we nominalize the embedded clauses. Kural (1994) also stresses that *-mA(K)* is a nominalization suffix.	The most prominent function of *-mA(K)* suffix is "nominalization" in Teaching Turkish as a Foreign Language coursebooks. For example, Istanbul B1 (Aslan, 2013) explains this suffix as "*Nominalization is the use of a verb as a noun. In Turkish, nominalization is realized by adding the suffixes of -mAk, -mA and -(y)Iş to the verb. These affixes can be added to all verb stems. In a sentence, the verb with this suffix functions as the name of an event of action. They can also be added case suffixes.*". Yeni Hitit Temel 1 (Uzun, 2009), however, does not explain the functions of this suffix but it presents the topic with the title of "NOMINALIZATION".

Case Suffixes

The reference grammars, which were reviewed for the research, mention the case suffixes. For example, Erguvanlı Taylan (1993) indicates that these suffixes nominalize the clauses and they are followed by case suffixes based on the main verb.

Case Suffixes

There is no formula or explanation about *-mA* and *-mAK* suffixes in Yedi İklim A2 (Barın et al., 2015). The formulas were seen as [fiil + mAk], [fiil + mA] and [fiil + mA + iyelik eki] in Istanbul B1 (Aslan, 2013) and case suffix is not added to the embedded clause. However, when *-mA* is used in indirect speech, the formula is [fiil + mA + iyelik eki + belirtme eki] but here there is a question: Are case suffixes only used for indirect speeches? Embedded clauses are presented in two different formulas in Yeni Hitit Temel 1 (Uzun, 2009). While the first table is [Adlaştırma + İyelik Eki], the second table is [Adlaştırma + İyelik Eki + Durum].

Ketrez (2012) discusses the clauses with these suffixes in terms of their positions in the sentence, and points out that the clauses are used in the subject, predicate or object position. While the embedded clauses are subject or predicate positions they do not take any case suffixes. However, while the embedded clauses are in the object position, they start to take case suffixes. From this point of view, Ketrez reflects and implicitly implements the view that the case suffixes are dependent on the main verb

Tense

Erguvanlı Taylan (1993) discusses the *-mAK* suffix in terms of aspect and matches them with *-DIK/-AcAK* suffixes. As a result, she indicates that while *-DIK/-AcAK* has an aspect, *-mAK* does not. Kural (1994) expresses that *-mA(K)* suffix does not have a meaning in terms of tense. Contrary to this, he asserts that there is a tense meaning in the other embedded clause suffixes *-DIK* and *-AcAK*.

Tense

There is no reference to the relation between *-mA(K)* and *-DIK/-AcAK* in the coursebooks. Only Ketrez mentions the relation between *-mA/-mAK* and *-DIK/-AcAK*, and asserts that the only difference between them is tense as it is seen below:

(4)

a. Aylin'in geç kalmasına kızdık.

b. Aylin'in geç kalacağına kızdık.

c. Aylin'in geç kaldığına kızdık.

'We were surprised that Aylin is/was/will be late'

Dimension of Use

The dimension of use is refers the usage of grammatical structures in oral and written language. It seeks answer to questions like what, where, when, how.

Table 3. Description of Use

The Evaluation of Views in Reference Grammars	The Evaluation of Views in Coursebooks
There are no explanations in the reference grammars related to the contexts where *-mA* and *-mAK* suffixes are used. These resources deal with suffixes in terms of form and function. They do not provide any context. They only explain the usage of *-mA* in indirect speech. Underhill (1976) states that *-mA* is used as an object of verbs, such as saying and requesting in another sentence, not as a direct order.	Yedi İklim A2 (Barın et al., 2015) aims to teach this dimension by mechanical sentence transformation exercises.In this book, there are some pictures above examples. But those pictures are not effective to provide enough context for students. In addition, the subject is discussed only in the context of the imperative sentences. However, while direct speech is translated into indirect speech, the contexts that the student will encounter may be the context of imperatives, and there may be many contexts such as request, wish, plea. In the Yeni Hitit Temel 1 (Uzun, 2009), it is shown in a table how to construct sentences with indirect speech structurally, then sentence transformation activities are provided as like Yedi İklim A2 (Barın et al., 2015). Istanbul B1 (Aslan, 2013) also explains the topic with the following explanation: *"Reported speech is used to communicate what someone else said. The sentences in the form of imperative are transferred into reported speech by using suffix -ma. In the reported speech produced by this suffix the verbs soÿle-, iste-, rica et-, emret- can be used."*. Then, the boursebook presents the formula: fiil + mA + iyelik eki + belirtme eki. And it provides one more explanation: *In the reported speech with this suffix, the words such as "lütfen, sakın, haydi" are not used.*

Discussion

This chapter separated into three titles based on the grammatical dimensions.

Discussion of Form

The most prominent debate in the literature is whether *-mA* or *-mAK* suffixes are the same suffixes. The idea that *-mA* is the shortened form of *-mAK* is useful in terms of accepting one suffix as *-mA(K)*. This adoption is also appropriate to the criteria that a pedagogical rule must be simple and economic. However, since the functions of these two forms are different, they should be handled as two different suffixes in the lessons. Therefore, the functions of *-mA* and *-mAK* are different and must be taught seperately.

We see that *-mA* and *-mAK* suffixes are handled in terms of functions, not structures, in the coursebooks. The coursebooks draw attention to the usage differences of *-mA* and *-mAK*. There is no difference to adopt two different suffix as *-mA* and *-mAK* or one suffix as *-mA(K)* from the functional perspective. As a result they are different suffixes.

Teachers should instruct the sound changes, which arise in the usage of *-mA/-mAK* in sentences, after adopting two different *-mA* and *-mAK* suffixes. The sound changes of *-mA* is compatible with sound harmony in Turkish. There is no problem at the point of harmony; but changing K sound to y in *-mAK* is a problematic point. The problem sources from the conflict between the resources. Some resources claim that y sound (e.g. Pazardan ekmek almaya gidiyorum.) is a "buffer sound", which was seen mostly in traditional grammars. Whereas such an adoption obstructs students from the beginning, who are expected to comprehend the functional difference between *-mA* and *-mAK*. The suffix at the "almaya" word is *-mAK*, not *-mA*. The reason that students face challenges in *-mA/-mAK* suffixes is this adoption. The main reason for this discussion is to approach the grammar prescriptively. Teachers should approach their grammar classes descriptively. The difference between presciptive and descriptive approaches can be summarized by *-mA/-mAK* suffixes. In Turkish, if a vowel comes after *-mAK* (e.g. -A or -I case suffixes), the K sound at the end is expected to change to the ğ sound. The ğ sound was used like that in one term of Turkish. However, this sound is pronounced as y today. The debate of whether this sound is pronounced as y or ğ is a prescriptive approach. This debate can be useful for a group with expertice in Turkish. It is not pedagogical to explain old forms for students who want to learn a language for communicative purposes. As a summary, the structural (formal) sound changes of *-mA* is -ma/-me and of *-mAK* is -may/-mey.

Discussion of Function

These suffixes are devices by means of which one sentence may be included within another to fill the grammatical role of "noun phrase" within the main sentence. Emdedded clause is nominalized clause. Because of this nominalization, we can write a real noun phrase replacing nominalized clause. We see this function in the coursebooks too. The coursebooks presents this function with tables and explanations. The idea of "replacing noun phrases with nominalized clauses" can be a useful way to teach nominalization function.

It was understood that the *-mA/-mAK* suffixes function both in the level of lexicon and syntax. The coursebooks handle these two functions together. Aydın (1999) indicates that such an approach forces the students to learn embedded clauses and a historical lexical formation at the same time. Related to this, Erkman Akerson (2016) indicates that forms should be presented at the sentence level in grammar lessons because students should see the forms in a context to understand better.

The most challenging point on these structures is the difference between the two according to the results of needs analysis (Tiryakiol, 2018). When the references are reviewed, it is seen that the difference between *-mA* and *-mAK* is basically tied to whether there is a possibility of seeing the subject in embedded clause. While the subject is seen in the sentences with *-mA*, it is not seen in the sentences with *-mAK*. The issue of the subject in the sentences with *-mA* is "hidden subject" which we know it from traditional grammar lessons. The challenging point to explain for teachers is the subject in the sentences with *-mAK*. It is called "empty category" in linguistics. Empty categories should be taught explicitly or implicitly. Even if it is difficult to understand the concept of an empty category with explanations, this category can be implicitly presented by using some formulas and symbols. Because Ellis (2016) indicates that when the learning material is more randomly structured with a large number of variables and when the important relationships are not obvious, an implicit mode of learning is more effective. There is no explanation on the subjectial difference between *-mA/-mAK* in the coursebooks. However, Ketrez (2012) mentions the subjectial difference between *-mA* and *-mAK* and this seems the most practical way to explain that difference.

-mA/-mAK suffixes have one more function when compared to the *-DIK* and *-AcAK* suffixes. There is no reference to the relation of *-mA/-mAK* and *-DIK/-AcAK* in the coursebooks. Since these sets address the structures separately, there is no transitivity between the structures. Only Ketrez (2012) referred to the relationship with the *-DIK/-AcAK* while dealing with suffixes, and stated that the only difference between the *-mA/-mAK* and *-DIK/-AcAK* was the tense difference. In spite of all this, learning the *-DIK/-AcAK* is a prerequisite to learn the *-mA/-mAK* in the pedagogical grammar lessons.

When handling to the functions of these suffixes (especially the subject and the nominalization), the use of formulas may facilitate understanding. Formulation of such complex structures facilitate the students to see changes in a sentence; however, when creating these formulas, it is necessary to determine exactly the boundaries of the main and the embedded sentence. In Turkish, embedded clauses are followed by case suffixes depending on the verb of the main sentence. Because of that reason, case suffixes are shown outside of the square brackets [] in linguistics. In some coursebooks -Istanbul B1 (Aslan, 2013) and Yeni Hitit Temel 1 (Uzun, 2009)- while formulas of *-mA/-mAK* are given, it is seen that case suffixes are included in the formula by presenting them as related to *-mA/-mAK*. When the case suffixes added to the embedded clause formula, the students ask the source of cases in the embedded clause. However, the boundaries of pedagogical rules should be well defined in pedagogical grammar.

Discussion of Use

There are no significant differences in the dimension of use of the *-mA / -mAK* suffixes. The difference between the two suffixes is basically based on the function as mentioned above. The processing of the contexts in which the two suffixes are used together will facilitate understanding of the subject, although not based on the use-based difference between these two suffixes. In particular, the dimension of the function is in the foreground, the dimension of use may remain in the background. For this purpose, various visual and interactive materials, especially videos, can be shown to students and activities can be done.

It is noteworthy that there is a special case in the *-mA* suffix. In the reviewed resources, it is stated that *-mA* suffix is used in "indirect speech". It is possible to teach this dimension with various sentence conversion activities as seen in many resources; however, these exercises should be based on more context. According to the notes of the researcher in the lessons, the students challenge to comprehend the conversation and context.

Conclusion

a) Although the structural relationship between *-mA* and *-mAK* suffixes are discussed, these two suffixes are separate suffixes. From the functional perspective, there are two separate suffixes as *-mA* and *-mAK* in Turkish.

b) The functions of the *-mA* and *-mAK* suffixes are different at the syntax and lexical level. Students who learn Turkish as a second language first need syntactic functions. For this purpose, instructors should teach these suffixes at least at the sentence level.

c) The main difference between *-mA* and *-mAK* is whether there is a subject-verb agreement in the subordination clause in the sentence. While *-mA* suffix performs this agreement, *-mAK* suffix does not. For this reason, while the subject of the main sentence and clause is different in the sentences with *-mA*, the subjects are same in the sentences with *-mAK*. Although there are exceptions to this general rule, it may be clearer for the students to think about the subject difference when they learn these suffixes. The instructors can make students understand *-mA/-mAK* difference with various formulas and symbols. However, when writing these formulas, the boundaries of the clause and the main sentence must be determined correctly. The case suffixes belong to the main verb and not to the verb in the clause as shown in some textbooks.

d) The prior function of the *-mA* and *-mAK* suffixes is nominalization. Therefore, real noun phrases can be written instead of *-mA* or *-mAK*. The instructors can use this feature in the lessons and present sentences together with nouns and talk about the similarity.

e) Although it is not valid for each example, there is a tense-based difference between *-mA/-mAK* and the other subordinate clauses *-DIK/-AcAK*. Instructors can teach these suffixes together by pointing out the tense-based difference. In this case, however, the students must learn the suffixes *-DIK/-AcAK* before *-mA/-mAK*.

f) By using various materials in the courses, the contexts in which *-mA* and *-mAK* suffixes are used can be shown to the student. These suffixes are widely used in Turkish.

Suggestions

In this section, based on the results of the study, a sample content was presented for the *-mA/-mAK* suffixes according to the three dimensions of grammar.

Dimension of Form

-mA → ma, me

-mAK → mak, mek, may, mey

Dimension of Function

Presentation-1

Presentation-2

Presentation-3

Presentation-4

Presentation-5
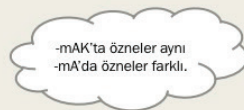
Presentation-6

Presentation-7

Dimension of Use
Citation: Mark Twain
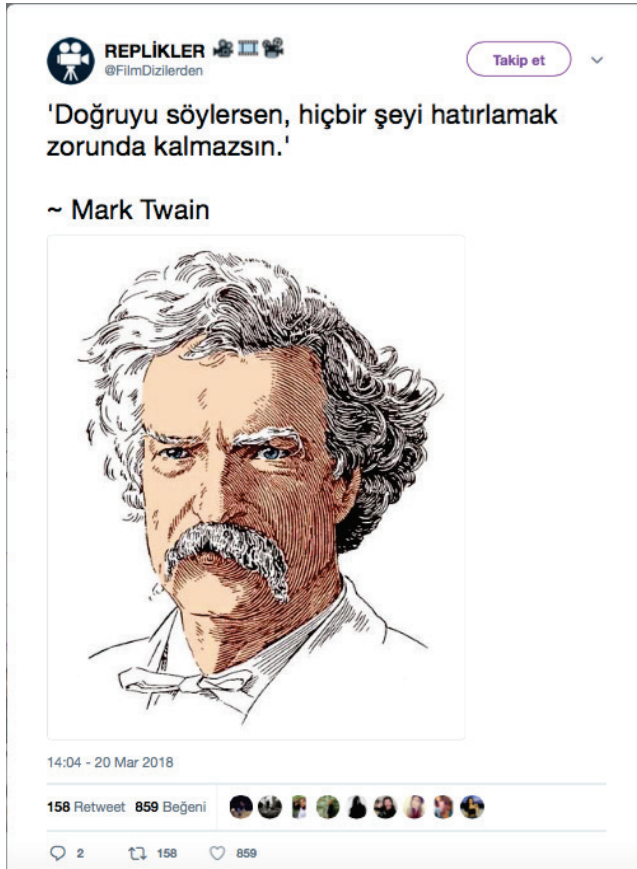
Video: Fight Club

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