

**CONTRIBUTIONS OF COGNATE WORDS IN TURKISH  
AND ENGLISH TO VOCABULARY TEACHING IN  
EFL**

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**YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ**  
**Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı**  
**Yrd. Doç. Dr. M. Yavuz KONCA**  
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ENGLISH TO VOCABULARY TEACHING IN EFL

(İngilizcenin Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğretilmesinde Türkçe ve İngilizcedeki Benzer  
Kökenli Sözcüklerin Kelime Öğretimine Katkısı)

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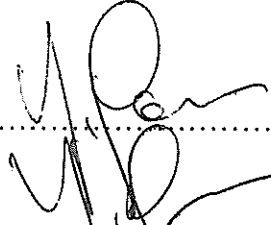
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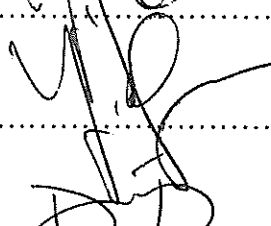
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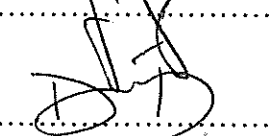
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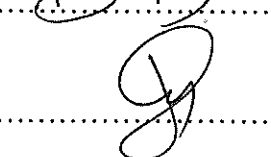
## KABUL VE ONAY

Yrd. Doç. Dr. M.Yavuz Konca danışmanlığında, Fatma KİMSESİZ tarafından hazırlanan "Contributions Of Cognate Words in Turkish And English To Vocabulary Teaching in EFL" başlıklı çalışma 04 / 06 / 2012... tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda başarılı bulunarak jürimiz tarafından İngiliz Dil Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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Yukarıdaki imzaların adı geçen öğretim üyelerine ait olduğunu onaylarım.

.. / .. / .....

Prof. Dr. H.Ahmet KIRKKILIÇ  
Enstitü Müdürü

## TEZ ETİK VE BİLDİRİM SAYFASI

Yüksek Lisans/Doktora Tezi olarak sunduğum “Contributions Of Cognate Words in Turkish And English To Vocabulary Teaching in EFL” başlıklı çalışmanın, tarafımdan, bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düşecek bir yardıma başvurmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlandığım eserlerin kaynakçada gösterilenlerden olduğunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmış olduğunu belirtir ve onurumla doğrularım.

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## ÖZET

### YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

# İNGİLİZCENİN YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRETİLMESİNDE TÜRKÇE VE İNGİLİZCEDEKİ BENZER KÖKENLİ SÖZCÜKLERİN KELİME ÖĞRETİMİNE KATKISI

**Fatma KİMSESİZ**

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Bu çalışmada Türkçe ve İngilizcenin benzer kelimelerinin bir yabancı dil olarak İngilizcede kelime öğretimine katkılarının araştırılması hedeflenmiştir. Türkçeye telaffuz ve yazım olarak benzeyen İngilizce kelimeler, hem Türkçe ve hem İngilizce sözlük analizi yoluyla bulunmuştur. İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen iki grup 6. sınıf öğrencisine uygulanan bu kelimelerin bir grubu üzerinde yapılan anket çalışmaları yoluyla, benzer kelimelerin ikinci dilde kelime öğretimine katkıları ve kolaylıkları araştırılmış ve bu konu üzerinde çalışılmıştır. Çalışma sonucunda, benzer kelimelerin bu kelimelere daha önceden aşina olan öğrencilerin bu kelimeleri hemen fark ettiği ve tahmin ettiği bulundu. Eğer öğrenciler kelimelerle çok fazla aşina değillerse, onlara anlam olarak Türkçeye benzeyen kelimelerin anlamları açıklandığında kelimelerin anlamlarını daha kolay ve hızlı öğrendikleri ortaya çıktı. Ayrıca, eğitimde faydalı bir öğretim ve öğrenme yöntemi olan olumlu transferin ikinci dil öğrenilmesinde ve öğretilmesinde akla yatkın ve uygulanabilir bir yöntem olduğu fark edildi. Benzer kelimeler, kelime hazinesinin geliştirilmesinde İngilizce ve Türkçedeki benzer kelimelerin öğrenilmesinde ve öğretilmesinde olumlu aktarım rolü oynamıştır.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Benzer Kelimeler, Yabancı Dil Öğrenme, Olumlu Aktarım, Kelime Hazinesi Geliştirme,

## **ABSTRACT**

### **MASTER'S THESIS**

#### **CONTRIBUTIONS OF COGNATE WORDS IN TURKISH AND ENGLISH TO VOCABULARY TEACHING IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

**Fatma KİMSESİZ**

**2012, 126 Pages**

In this study, the contributions of cognate words of Turkish and English to vocabulary teaching in English as a foreign language is aimed to be studied. The English words that are similar to Turkish in pronunciation and writing are found out via dictionary analysis both in Turkish and in English. Through different questionnaires on a certain group of these words applied to two groups of 6th grade students, who learn English as a foreign language, the contributions and facilities of cognate words to vocabulary teaching in L2 are investigated and studied. As a result of the study, it is found out that cognate words are noticed and guessed immediately by the students who are familiar with the words before. If they are not much familiar with the words, when they are explained the meaning of the words which are similar to Turkish in meaning, it is found out that they learned the meanings of the words more easily and quickly. It is also found out that positive transfer, which is a profitable way of learning and teaching in education is also plausible and applicable in second language learning and teaching. Cognate words played as positive transferring role in learning and teaching the words that are similar in Turkish and English in vocabulary development.

**Key Words:** Cognate Words, Learning Foreign Language, Positive Transfer, Vocabulary Development,

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

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**Erzurum – 2012**

**Fatma KIMSESİZ**

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<b>BIA Model</b>	: Bilingual Interactive Activation
<b>CAH</b>	: Contrastive Analyses Hypothesis
<b>EFL</b>	: English as a Foreign Language
<b>Eg</b>	: For Example (rooted from the expression “Exempli Gratia” in Latin)
<b>ELT</b>	: English Language Teaching
<b>FSI</b>	: Foreign Service Institute
<b>İMKB</b>	: İstanbul Menkul Kıymetler Borsası.
<b>L1</b>	: First Language
<b>L2</b>	: Second Language
<b>(O)</b>	: Orthographic overlap
<b>(P)</b>	: Phonological overlap
<b>(S)</b>	: Semantic overlap
<b>RHM</b>	: Revised Hierarchical Model
<b>SPSS</b>	: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
<b>TEFL</b>	: Teaching of English as a Foreign Language

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter includes the purpose, the significance, the limitations and the assumptions of the study and the research questions. Important definitions are also introduced at the end of the chapter.

#### **1.1. The Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to find out the contributions of similarities of vocabulary items in Turkish to vocabulary teaching in English as a foreign language. Besides, it is expected to find out the effects of the results of the study on learner groups.

#### **1.2. The Research Questions**

I asked some questions about the research and used them to make a detailed research and to make judgements and evaluations about the research field. Here are the questions:

What is the effect of cognate words in learning a second language?

Do the cognate words have facilitative roles in learning vocabulary of the target language?

Is there a positive relationship between cognate words and vocabulary learning in L2?

Does interlingual transfer influence vocabulary development in the acquisition of L2?

### **1.3. The Significance of the Study**

Language is the most basic factor that enables communication between people. With developments in transportation and technology, the communication between people not only existed in the borders of a certain region or country, but also it needed communication among these people. As they are from different countries and speak different languages, the native languages they use needed change and interaction as a natural consequence of communication need.

As an indispensable result of the interaction and communication, some cognate words and phrases appeared in both languages. This interaction also reveals us a concept of “positive transfer” which facilitates learning on similar conditions in the psychology of education.

This study aims at finding out the influence of cognate words in vocabulary learning in ELT. The study is important and necessary because, it tries to study the influence of cognate words as a result of the interaction between Turkish and English.

### **1.4. The Limitations of the Study**

The research investigates the influence and contributions of the cognate words just in English and in Turkish as a consequence of interaction between these two languages. However as a natural result of interaction between people from all over the world, interlingual change and interaction is acceptable for all languages. The use of cognate words in every language can make vocabulary learning easier for other languages.

The study is limited to tests applied on 6th grade students in a government school in Turkey. If it was possible to apply the tests on a larger amount of students and on different grades of learners, the result of the study could be more different, and more reliable.

In the list of cognate words, the words that are used in daily life are found out from dictionaries. However, it is possible that in many lands like science, medicine and technology, there can be many uses of cognate words which are applicable to the study.

## 1.5. The Assumptions of the Study

It is supposed that the answers given in questionnaire tests are valid and reliable. It is also supposed that cognate words between two languages facilitate vocabulary learning in L2. It is assumed that there are many borrowed words and cognate words in Turkish and those words have English equivalences which look similar semantically and phonetically.

## 1.6. Definitions

**1.6.1. Borrowed Words:** Borrowed words are the words that are usually adapted to the speaker's first language. They are pronounced and used grammatically as if they were part of the speaker's first language. (Holmes, 1992, 42)

**1.6.2. Borrowing Transfer:** Odlin (1989, 165) defines borrowing transfer as in bilingual contexts, the influences found in the use of a person's native language that are due to the subsequent acquisition of another language.

**1.6.3. Cognate Words:** Cognates are the words that share a similar meaning, spelling, and pronunciation. (Lado, 1957, 82)

**1.6.4. False Cognates:** False cognates are the words that are similar in form but mean different things. They constitute a special group very high on a scale of difficulty. (Lado, 1957, 83)

**1.6.5. Language:** Martinet (1960, 29) describes language as an instrument of communication in virtue of which human experience is analysed differently in each given community into units, the monemes, each endowed with a semantic content and a phonic expression.

**1.6.6. Language distance:** the relative degree of similarity between two languages. (Odlin, 1989, 166)

**1.6.7. Negative transfer:** Cross-linguistic influences resulting in errors, overproduction, miscomprehension, and other effects that constitute a divergence

between the behaviour of native and nonnative speakers of a language. (Odlin, 1989, 167)

**1.6.8. Positive Transfer:** Any facilitating effects on acquisition due to the influence of cross-linguistic similarities. Positive transfer results in a convergence of behaviours of native and non-native speakers of a language. (Odlin, 1989, 168)

**1.6.9. Target Language:** The language being taught and learned. This term is also preferable to Foreign Language. (Lado, 1964, 221)

**1.6.10. Transfer:** The extension of a native language habit into the target language with or without the awareness of the learner. (Lado, 1964, 222)

**1.6.11. Vocabulary Item:** A separate unit of meaning usually in the form of a word, but also as a group of words. (Tercanlioğlu, 2000, 202)



## CHAPTER TWO

### 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1. What is Language?

The description of language has been an issue for many linguists for many years. Yet, it is a fact that language is especially related with human beings. As people use a language, they use it with many aspects; all related with their bodies and thinking. However there is a consensus among many linguists that language is humane and scientific.

Sapir (1921, 8) defined language as a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols... We speak what we think and feel voluntarily.

According to Martinet (1960, 15) language is the scientific study of human's speaking system and the object of this science is a form of human activity. Language is used by people actively and people are the object of this study. Language is used, heard, and understood by the human. Dinneen (1967, 4) also believes that the most important claim linguists make is that their study of language is scientific. A scientific study should be empirical, exact, and, therefore, objective. He suggests that scientist of language should make experiments with a language, in other words he/she should use language in his studies to get applicable results to all languages in the aspects of the universal features of language. The results should be exact and objective in view of scientific study. Crystal (1971:239) describes language as the most frequently used and most highly developed form of human communication we possess.

According to Bolinger (1968, 12-13) sounds are the medium of language. If we learn a language we must learn to produce sounds. Sounds are the indispensable units of language and are organized to form words and then meanings.

A language should have semantic and phonetic features that can be found in different forms in every language. Martinet (1960, 29) describes language as an

instrument of communication in virtue of which human experience is analysed differently in each given community into units, the monemes, each endowed with a semantic content and a phonic expression. Every nation uses the language differently with varying sounds, different intonations even of the same sounds, with various word patterns, expressions and exclamations which are sometimes peculiar to certain languages.

It is widely accepted that there is no inherent relationship exists between linguistic sounds and the objects they represent. In human language, communication among human beings is characterized by the use of arbitrary symbols with agreed-upon meanings. (Tercanlioğlu, 2000, 12) Speakers choose arbitrary sounds to constitute words to mean different vocabulary items. Bolinger (1968, 15) also thinks that language is largely arbitrary. Identical meanings in different languages are almost never expressed by the same combination of sounds. There is no real connection between (almost all) the words that have the same meanings, and their names are chosen arbitrarily. Primitive people when they first named a noun, united arbitrary sounds and made up names for them.

Tercanlioğlu (2000, 15) shares the view that there are structural features that all or most languages have in common .... All languages use only a finite set of speech sounds. All have words, sentences are built from words based on the same physiological processes, and all humans have ways of making sounds. In this sense all languages have similar features that define themselves.

There are several characteristics of language that provide a basis for accurate description. ...all languages are sound ... systematic, ... meaningful, ... arbitrary and conventional. (Dinneen, 1967, 6) Any language used by people have various sounds and these sounds constitute words, words constitute expressions and sentences and all these constitutions are used systematically. The sentences made by the speakers are meaningful, in other words they are understandable by the hearers and the speakers are replied and the utterances are understood in the same way by anybody who hears the conversation.

According to Bloomfield (1933, 3) language plays a great part in our life. Perhaps because of its familiarity, we rarely observe it, taking it rather for granted, as

we do breathing or walking. Language is in the centre of our daily life which could be impossible to interact with people without it, and this is what distinguishes man from the animals.

According to Lado (1964, 11) language is intimately tied to man's feelings and activity. It is bound up with nationality, religion and the feelings of the self. It is used for work, worship, and play by everyone, be he a beggar or banker, savage or civilized. In other words a person with a language is an alive being sharing the life in all aspects with other people around him.

Language has some features that make it rather unique in its own. It is scientific that scientist of language can make judgements about the reasons and outcomes of a certain lingual condition. Language belongs to human who uses it by producing sounds, alters patterns and words with or without a systematic use. Language is used among people that communicate with each other and plays a crucial role in social life. Çelik (2009, 6) shows the major features of a language in his book *Linguistics for Students of English*:

Table 2.1.

*Major Features of a Language*

Communicative	The most basic function of language is to communicate.
Vocal	Vocal organs (e.g: mouth, nose, vocal cords) are used.
Human	Sophisticated use of language is unique to human species.
Social	It is used by all members of a community.
Natural	It is a natural phenomenon, collectively used and shaped.
Changeable	It can and will change through time for various reasons.
Rule- governed	There are systematic rules in the way words are organized in sentences.
Arbitrary	The relationship between form (pronunciation) and meaning is not systematic.
Creative	Language is used creatively rather than imitatively.

## 2.2. Learning a Language

Language learning has some stages which are nearly the same in all languages. According to Tercanlioğlu (2000, 163) the progress of a person in speaking is made in three main areas: the first; sound production, the second; speech perception and the last; speech interaction. Sound production is completed through the end of the 3rd age of a child. Sound perception is thought to have started from the very early times of a person, within the womb. Speech interaction starts with the first talking of the mother to her baby and so the communication starts.

Brooks (1960:1) mentions about three levels of analysis of language learning:

“Language, like sleep, is not a substance but a process; ... we should take into account three levels of analysis ... Data for the development of the first level of a theory of language have been available on every hand for uncounted centuries. As for the second level, many concepts dealing with language were recognized by early civilization and were reflected in the invention of phonetic alphabets, in the formulation of rules of grammar, and in inquiries into the relationship of words to meanings... The formulation of the third level of language theory by relating concepts to logical or mathematical systems is limited by the gaps in the second level ...”

In looking at an individual's knowledge of language learning attributes that human beings have. It seems clear that language learning also have universal characteristics. As an example, children acquire language in stages and these stages appear to be universal. (Tercanlioğlu, 2000, 15) Many characteristics of a language show that there are universal tendencies in learning a language. However these universal tendencies cannot always be applicable in learning a second language or a foreign language. A brief explanation is given on how an L2 can be acquired in the following section.

### 2.3. Learning A Foreign Language

Learning a foreign language is an issue that has different suggestions made by many linguists on how to learn and teach a foreign language more easily, quickly and properly. All linguists have different philosophies, procedures, methods, techniques and suggestions and use different activities in their classes to teach a foreign language to students who know nothing or know little about the target language.

Krashen (1987, 2) explains the theory of second language as consisting of a set of hypotheses, or generalizations, that are consistent with experimental data. They can be arrived at using any of a variety of means; however they must be able to predict new data. The same conditions in teaching a foreign language should bear similar results, in other words similar outcomes that are consistent with the input.

Learning a second- language is defined as acquiring the ability to use its structure within a general vocabulary under essentially the conditions of normal communication among native speakers at conversational speed. (Lado, 1964, 38) Learning the second language then means learning the expression, the content and their association for rapid use in the proper positions within the system of the target language among the people who use it.

According to Bolinger (1968, 12) learning a new language is always in some measure repeating an old experience... languages are alike because people are alike in their capacities for communicating in a uniquely human way. They can produce different but limited sounds and they can learn to express anything they want by uniting these sounds. Although animals can produce sounds, all animal beings produce certain limited sounds and do not have the ability to unite them to conform different words and to speak as human beings do. People use sounds, say the words, then patterns and later sentences and interact with other people around them. Moreover, learning a second language is considered to repeat the old experience of learning a language. As the speakers are able to use their first language, they can also learn another language or languages by transferring from their L1. In the following section, how L1 can affect L2 learning is explained.

## 2.4. Using First Language On Foreign Language Learning

In the study of foreign language teaching, turning to the mother tongue of the learner as a method of teaching has been suggested by many linguists. (Lado: 1957;1964, Stern:1983) The learner cannot be thought apart from his/her first language when he/she is taught a foreign language. In newer perspectives L1 is viewed as the critical basis for learning the new linguistic system of an L2 rather than as an interfering effect. (Koda, in Coady and Huckin, 1997, 36)

In many resources first language and second language are called with different names. Stern (1983,9) tabulates the two sets of terms as follows:

Table 2.2.

*Stern's tabulation of the first and second language.*

L1	L2
First language	Second language
Native language	Non-native language
Mother tongue	Foreign language
Primary language	Secondary language
Stronger language	Weaker language

The most important factor determining ease and difficulty in learning the patterns of a foreign language is their similarity to or difference from the patterns of the native language. (Lado, 1964: 91) When the pattern in the target language is parallel to one in the native language, the student merely learns new words which he puts into what amounts to an extended use of his native patterns.

There are many methods that teach a second language by taking the L1 as the background for teaching L2. They think that the mother tongue can be used when teaching a second language in order to make learning easier and quicker. Comparisons between L1 and L2 pragmatics lead to distinguishing the universals of acquisition of pragmatics from the particulars of (adult) second language acquisition. (Bardovi-Harlig,187; in Kaplan,2002)

Swan (1997: 166) presents several versions of the 'Equivalence Hypothesis' that second language learners might use when they are drawing on L1 patterns to use in L2, for example: Foreign words look different from mother tongue words but work in the same way semantically and grammatically. In addition, the Restructuring Hypothesis assumes the learner's first language as a basis for second language proficiency; so it becomes a cross-lingual theory of second language learning. (Stern, 1983: 403) Nation (2001:183) also suggests that as learners translate sentences or short texts from their first language, the target vocabulary may be provided. Students feel more secure when they understand everything. Starting something with the known always make the students feel psychologically safe and relaxed. Koda (in Coady and Huckin, 1997, 38) concludes that the use of L1 processing mechanisms that are typologically similar will result in better and more efficient performance. Getting help from the native language, interchanging the words, generalizing the rules always help learners to develop their skills on L2; although there seems to make errors while learning the target language, it is accepted that error analysis also helps students to learn the target language in another way.

As McCarthy (1998, 140) points out, "No matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wider range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way." Communication without the vocabulary items is certainly impossible. With the recognition of the importance of vocabulary, many techniques and approaches to teaching and learning vocabulary have emerged (Nation,2001). These include word families, key words, formal groupings, mnemonic devices, paired associates and processing information approach.

Schmitt (1997, 207-208) includes the enhancing effects of L1 cognates as one of the memorizing techniques in his taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies. He takes attention to the determination, social, memorial, cognitive and meta-cognitive styles as strategies in learning vocabulary.

Table 2.3.

*Schmitt's Taxonomy of Vocabulary Learning Strategies*

Dimension	Discovery	Consolidation
Determination	Analyse part-of-speech Analyse affixes, roots Determination check for L1 cognate Guess from context Consult dictionary Use word lists	
Social	Ask teacher Ask classmates Group work	Group study / practice Teacher checks word lists Interact with L1 speakers
Memory		Image of word meaning Connect to related words Group words together Study word sound / spelling Keyword method Use physical action Use cognates Paraphrase word meaning Underline initial letter
Cognitive		Verbal / written repetition Note-taking Put L2 labels on objects
Meta-cognitive		Use L2 media Test yourself Cognitive Continue study over time Skip / pass new word



Lado (1964, 120) categorizes words' degrees of difficulty in three groups. In the first group there are easy words that resemble to those in the first language in form, meaning and distribution. In the second group there are words with normal difficulty and they are different from the words of the first language. The third group is the one that presents special problems to learn vocabulary. Consequently, when there is a similarity to L1, L2 is acquired more easily; however when the similarity level decreases, the facility of learning L2 disappears in turn.

## **2.5. Learning Burden**

“Learning burden” is introduced by Nation (2001) to describe the heavy burden loaded on students about the subjects they have to learn. According to Nation (2001, 23), the “learning burden” of a word is the amount of effort required to learn it. Different words have different learning burdens for learners with different language backgrounds and each of the aspects of what it means to know a word can contribute to its learning burden.

The more similarity there is between the first language and the target language, the easier and faster the target language is learned. Nation (1990) explains the L1 effect on L2 acquisition by the following:

“The general principle of learning burden is that the more a word represents patterns and knowledge that learners are already familiar with, the lighter its learning burden. These patterns and this knowledge can be from the first language, from knowledge of other languages, and from previous knowledge of the second language. So, if a word uses sounds that are in the first language, follows regular spelling patterns, is a loan word in the first language with roughly the same meaning, fits into roughly similar grammatical patterns as in the first language and has similar collocations and constraints, then the learning burden will be very light and the word will not be difficult to learn. For learners whose first language is closely related to the second language, the learning burden of most words will be light. For learners whose first language is not related to the second language, the learning burden will be heavy..”

Nation (2001, 24) suggests teachers to try to help reduce the learning burden of words by drawing attention to systematic patterns and analogies within the second language, and by pointing out connections between the second language and the first.

Nation (2001, 24) also recommends teachers to estimate the learning burden of words for each of the aspects of what is involved in knowing a word, so that they can direct their teaching towards aspects that will need attention and towards aspects that will reveal underlying patterns so that later learning is easier.

The learning burden of a word depends on how much its various aspects are similar to patterns and items that the learner already knows from previous study of the second language, from the first language, or from other languages. (Nation, 2001, 220) These parallels can occur with all aspects of knowing a word and are most striking with cognate words.

Nation (2001, 56) claims that research on collocations shows that there are patterns. An awareness of these patterns can reduce the learning burden of certain words. Where collocations are similar between the first and second language, the learning burden will be different.

## **2.6. Language Change**

All languages change in time. There are many factors that speeds the change in languages. Wars in the past, assimilations, increasing level of communication between people; especially from other countries, high rank of economical boast, technological developments, scientific improvements and the universal relationships required for the governmental needs have forced languages to have changes in big or small amounts. As a result of all these and more, there intruded some foreign rooted words called borrowed words or sometimes cognate words.

Carroll (1953, 23) explains that the primary business of linguistics is to study the living and the recorded language systems of the world. He considers linguistics under two major headings, descriptive linguistics and historical or comparative linguistics. Carroll (1953,23)defines descriptive linguistics as the study of the characteristics of language systems or dialects at given periods in their histories while he describes the

historical or comparative linguistics which studies the changes in language systems over periods of time and the familial and genealogical relationships of languages.

Historical linguists try to determine what the changes were, and then to understand how and when they occurred. They also try to explain why the changes took place. Language change studies include phonological change, morphological change, lexical change, semantic change and syntactic change. This study also focuses on lexical changes and interactions between English and Turkish.

Sapir (1921, 192) explained why languages had to change:

“ the necessities of intercourse bring the speakers of one language into direct or indirect contact with those of neighboring or culturally dominant languages... it may move on the humdrum plane of business and trade relations or it may consist of a borrowing or interchange of spiritual goods- art, science, religion...”

According to Bloomfield (1933, 13) languages change in the course of time... if a language is spoken over a large area, or thanks to migration, in several separate areas, then it will change differently in different places, and the result will be a set of related languages... these languages form different groups of languages and they resemble to each other in the course of time. This explanation is especially about the historical times when people used to fight more and had to migrate as the result of wars and diplomatic relations. The conditions and circumstances in which human beings live change. In line with these changes, which could be of physical, psychological or sociological nature, the language used will unavoidably change too. (Çelik:2009, 311)

Many linguists have used the metaphor of waves to explain how linguistic changes spread through a community... social factors such as age, status, gender and region affect the rates of change and the directions in which the waves roll most swiftly. (Holmes, 1992, 200)

According to Holmes (1992, 200-201) the change spreads from one style to another... while at the same time it spreads from one individual to another within a social group, and subsequently from one social group to another. Holmes (1992, 208) gives an answer to which social groups introduce linguistic changes seems to be that:

“... a linguistic change may enter a speech community through any social group, but that different types of change are associated with different groups.

Members of the group with most social status, for example, tend to introduce changes into a speech community from neighbouring communities which have greater status and prestige in their eyes.”

Martinet (1960, 163) also claims that it is a fact, however, that every language is at every moment in the process of evolution. People who interact with other people from other countries or from other parts of his own country play a role in the process of this evolution.

According to Fromkin and Rodman (1988, 296) all living languages change with time. It is fortunate that they do so rather slowly compared to the human life span. It would be inconvenient to have to relearn our native language every twenty years. ... if we were to turn on a radio and miraculously receive a broadcast in our “native language” from the year 3000, we would probably think we had tuned in some foreign language station; yet from year to year we hardly notice any change in our language.

According to Leech (1974, 35) language is only a mental straightjacket if we allow it to become one. The semantic system, like any other system relating to human society, is continually being extended and revised. In a language new concepts are introduced in large numbers day by day and week by week and in every little time (owing to modern mass communications) become familiar to many people. These new concepts are eventually not felt to be strange, but are fully assimilated into the language and so become part of our standard mental equipment the technique by which the new concepts are introduced is lexical innovation.

Bolinger (1968, 91) thinks that the main cause why changes occur in a language is something related with the cultural diffusion:

“Loan words from a foreign language usually ride in on a wave of cultural diffusion. The wave may be an inpouring of commercial goods with their inventories, assembling instructions, and service manuals

packed with terms that have no equivalents in the native language but must be adopted if the goods are to be put to use. Or it may be a new religion or philosophical system employing concepts difficult to translate and accordingly taken over wholesale.”

Çelik (2009, 360) mentions about the psycholinguistic causes of linguistic change. The reasons could be insufficient attention to forms, laziness, regularization, the desire to map fresh semantic areas, and change of ways of seeing the world.

When a change occurs in a language, it is impossible to fluctuate its waves through just one pattern of the language. Along with the vocabulary change in the language, word patterns, then sentence and grammatical patterns and meaning experience the change in different aspects. Martinet (1960, 163/164) explains what changes in a language:

“Everything may change in a language: the form and the meanings of the monemes, that is the morphology and vocabulary; the order of monemes in the utterance, in other words; syntax; finally, the nature and conditions of use of the distinctive units, that is phonology.”

According to Fromkin & Rodman (1988, 330) all parts of grammar may change. That is, phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical and semantic changes occur. Words, morphemes, phonemes, and rules of all types may be added, lost or altered. The meaning of words and morphemes may expand, narrow, or shift.

When people of different linguistic communities come to contact with each other either at the national boundaries as neighbours or for purposes of friendship... marriage, migration, colonialism, wars and so forth, they feel the need to use a common means for communication. (Çelik, 2009, 295) This causes a change that is obligatory after the span of interaction between two or more languages.

Due to various reasons of contact between nations, changes in the language become unavoidable and are mostly seen in the vocabulary system of the changing languages. That change is sometimes called as “lexical innovation” which implies that change in a language is natural and necessary. Changes in the lexicon of a language occur through borrowing words from other languages and as a result, the vocabulary items develop or

double, as a new word may be borrowed although it has an equivalence in the borrowing language. In the next section, the reasons and results of borrowing words from other languages are explained.

### **2.6.1. Borrowing**

When one language acquires features from another, the development which is known as borrowing happens... the effects of borrowing are most apparent in the lexicon. (Tercanlıoğlu,2000, 151) Especially words are borrowed from other languages as they are most suitable language units for changing. Morphological and syntactic changes cannot happen as easily as lexical changes due to the fact that they are like the essential bones of a certain language that has been used for centuries. We can resemble the language to hair in the sense that it can be dyed, shortened, shaped or changed as the language can be shortened, coloured or cluttered with many foreign words, shaped or changed morphologically or semantically.

According to Sapir (1921, 193) the simplest kind of influence that one language may exert on another is the “borrowing” of words. When there occurs a cultural borrowing there is always the possibility that the associated words may be borrowed, too.

Borrowing occurs when one language takes a word or morpheme from another language and adds it to its lexicon. Most languages are borrower, so the lexicon can be divided into native and nonnative words (often called loan words) a native word is one whose history (or etymology) can be traced back to the earliest known stages of the language.(Fromkin & Rodman, 1988, 308-309) whereas a borrowed word is the word that is loaned from another language.

Şekerci (2007, 151) thinks that English vocabulary, which is one of the most extensive among the world’s languages contains an immense number of words of foreign origin.

Jespersen (1922, 210) explains some of the reasons of borrowing words from other languages:

“When one nation has imbibed for centuries the cultural influence of another, its language may have become so infiltrated with words from the other language that these are found in most sentences, at any rate in nearly every sentence dealing with things above the simplest material necessities. The best known examples are English since the influx of French and classical words, and Turkish with its wholesale importations from Arabic.”

The borrower may adopt the donor’s word along with the object or practice: the new form in the borrower’s speech is then a loanword. (Hockett: 1958:408)

Şekerci (2007, 155) explains that from the perspective of English language, a native word is a word which belongs to the, as known from the earliest available manuscripts of the old English period. Borrowings, on the other hand, are taken over from another language and modified in sounding, spelling, and paradigm or meaning. The acquisition of a loan word constitutes in itself a lexical change and probably ... it constitutes or entails a semantic change. (Hockett:1958:408)

According to Bloomfield (1933, 449) the borrowed word, aside from foreign sounds, often violates the phonetic pattern... generally adaptation of the phonetic pattern takes place together with adaptation of morphological structure. For example; the final [ʒ] of the word “garage” is replaced by [ɑ] and the accent shifted in the form [gareɑ], which conforms to the suffixed type of “cabbage, baggage, image.”

The borrowed form is subject to the phonetic changes that occur after its adoption. This factor is distinct from phonetic substitution and other adaptive changes. (Bloomfield, 1933, 450) There are some languages which are pronounced as how they are written, and some languages which have different rules of pronunciation. As a result, if the change is from the first language mentioned to the latter one, a change in phonology also occurs. Almost all the words that are cognates in Turkish are pronounced differently from the original phonology of the words. E.g: the pronunciation of the word “objective” in English is “/əbdʒektɪv/ English (Oxford Dictionary: 2000, 804) whereas in Turkish where the words are pronounced in written forms, is “objektif”.

According to Tercanlıoğlu (2000, 140) one result of borrowing words from other languages is developing the lexicon in the language... new words may also enter

the language through word formation processes like compounding, derivational processes, acronyms, clipping, abbreviations etc. (Some of the word formation processes in Turkish is listed in the Appendix C.) Borrowed words are usually adapted to the speaker's first language. They are pronounced and used grammatically as if they were part of the speaker's first language. There are many examples of this kind of borrowing from many languages in Turkish (Holmes: 1992, 42). Most of the borrowed words have equivalences in English language. Eg: "terminal" is written in the same way both in Turkish and English but pronounced differently; [tɛ:miɳl] in English (Oxford Dictionary ,2000,1235) and [terminal] in Turkish.

People also tend to use foreign words when they are talking even in their mother tongue. They may want to show off that they know a foreign language or seem fashionable or different from the people they talk to. This habit generally adds to the rise in borrowed words. Jespersen (1960, 210) explains why people tend to borrow words from other languages:

“when a nation has once got into the habit of borrowing words, people will very often use foreign words where it would have been perfectly possible to express their ideas by means of native speech-material, the reason for going out of one's own language being in some cases the desire to be thought fashionable or refined through interlarding one's speech with foreign words, in other simply laziness, as is very often the case when people are rendering thoughts they have heard or read in a foreign tongue.”

According to Martinet (1960, 163) no person ... gets the impression that the language which he himself speaks changes during his own lifetime or that the different generations living together do not express themselves in a uniform manner. There are many words and expressions that we used years ago, but now we do not even remember and there are also many words and expressions that we did not even know but now use in our daily speaking. The latter one is not something related with the increasing capacity of the vocabulary a person knows but also related with the increasing amount of borrowed words. According to Holmes (1992, 42) people may also borrow words from another language to express a concept or to describe an object for which there is



no obvious word available in the language they are using. Borrowing of this kind generally occurs due to new developments in science and technology and involves single words –mainly nouns- and it is motivated by lexical need.

People sometimes have to use the borrowed word in spite of the fact that there is a native language correspondence of a word or an expression. This results from the technical, economical or scientific obligation for the use of the words. For example they have to use “miting” not “toplantı”, “kompüter”, not “bilgisayar” or “anemi” not “kansızlık” in Turkish language. This also causes increasing amount of borrowed words from other languages. Martinet (1960, 164) claims that the evolution of a language depends on changes in the needs of communication of the group which uses it. The evolution of these needs is of course directly dependent on the intellectual, social, and economic evolution of the group.

As the technology develops in time, there are new inventions that are used by people all over the world. According to Martinet (1960, 165) the need to designate new objects or new experiences will bring about not only an enlargement of vocabulary but essentially an increase in the complexity of utterance. So new objects, new experiences contribute to the large use of borrowed words. Fromkin & Rodman (1988, 324) explain it with an example: the reasons for some changes are relatively easy to understand. Before television there was no such word as “television”. It soon became a common lexical item. Borrowed words, too, generally serve a useful purpose and their entry into the language is not mysterious.

Jespersen (1922, 208) thought that no language is entirely free from borrowed words, because no nation has ever been completely isolated. Contact with nations inevitably causes to borrowings, though their number may vary very considerably. According to Odlin (1989, 6) language contact situations arise whenever there is a meeting of speakers who do not all share the same language and who need to communicate. This necessity results in the use of common words which are borrowed from one another in time.

Grammatically the borrowed form is subjected to the system of the borrowing language, both as to syntax... and as to the indispensable inflections... and fully current, “living” constructions of composition... and word formation (Bloomfield,

1933, 453). For example; in Turkish “kültür” and “apartman” are borrowed words from the English uses “culture” and “apartment” and they constitute an expression of “apartman kültürü” which is transformed to Turkish language with a change by inflections and word formation.

According to Bloomfield (1933, 455) if many loans have been made from some one language, the foreign structure may even attract native words in the way of adaptation. We can exemplify the “- tion” suffix as adaptations “siyon or syon” in Turkish language. The words “action, formation, mutation” are adapted to Turkish as “aksiyon, formasyon, mutasyon”. The table below shows the list of some English prefixes and suffixes that are conformed to Turkish words. (edited from the list retrieved 3rd June,2011, from ([prefixsuffix.com/rootchart.php](http://prefixsuffix.com/rootchart.php).)

Table 2.4.

*The list of Prefixes and Suffixes in English and their Equivalences in Turkish*

The Prefixes and Suffixes in English	Examples	Turkish Equavalance of the Prefixes and Suffixes	Examples
Anti-	Antibacterial	Anti-	Antibakteriyel
Auto-	Automobile	Oto-	Otomobil
Bio-	Biology	Biyo-	Biyoloji
Dis-	Disadvantage	Dez-	Dezavantaj
Eco-	Economy	Eko-	Ekonomi
Electr-	Electricity	Elektr-	Elektrik
Inter-	Internet	Inter-	Internet
Kilo-	Kilobyte	Kilo-	Kilobayt
Maxi-	Maximum	Maksi-	Maksimum
Meta-	Metaphysics	Meta-	Metafizik
Micro-	Microphone	Mikro-	Mikrofon

Tablo 2.4 (continuation)

Milli-	Milligram	Mili-	Miligram
Mini-	Minibus	Mini-	Minibüs
Multi-	Multimedia	Multi-	Multimedya
Post-	Postmodernism	Post-	Postmodernizm
Super-	Supermarket	Süper-	Süpermarket
Tele-	Television	Tele-	Televizyon
Trans-	Transformation	Trans-	Transformasyon
Ultra-	Ultraviolet	Ultra-	Ultraviyole
-al	Professional	-el	Profesyonel
-ance / -ence	Referance	-ans	Referans
-ise	Stabilise	-ize	Stabilize
-ism	Marxism	-izm	Marksizm
-ive	Sportive	-if	Sportif
-tion	Action	-siyon	Aksiyon

The degree of semantic and/or orthographic overlap between words in different languages is assumed to facilitate or interfere with the transmission of the intended messages. In cases where facilitation usually, but not necessarily always, occurs at the lexical level, researchers very frequently mention *cognates*, defined as words that possess the same or a similar form and meaning in two or more natural languages.

On the other hand, when two words from different languages have similar forms but do not have the same meaning, there occurs the case of false cognates, also recognised as *interlingual homographs*, *false friends*, *homographic non-cognates*, *pseudocognates*, *deceptive cognates*, *misleading cognates*, or *form-identical interlingual homographs* in literature. In the next part, an outline of cognates and false cognates is given.

## 2.7. Cognates and False Cognates

Cognates and false cognates have caught the attention of researchers since the subject has significant implications for translation, interpretation, and foreign language learning and teaching. For language instruction, lexicography, and other practical activities a systematic understanding of lexis is important, and the neglect is all the more curious and unjustified. (Stern, 1983:132) Vocabulary is the main parts of a speech act and without it, any language is lacking. Recognizing the words and understanding what they mean equal to understanding the language.

### 2.7.1. Cognates

Cognates are the words that derived from a foreign word in a different language. They are thought to be contributors in learning the vocabulary of the different language. Cognates are generally considered to be etymologically similar word patterns. (Lado: 1964, Escribano:2004) Cognates share a similar meaning, spelling, and pronunciation. Lado (1957, 82) described cognates as the words that are similar in form and in meaning. He noted that:

“If the two words are not related in origin they are called as cognates if they are similar in form and meaning. Similarly, if two words have the same origin but are now so different that speakers of the two languages do not identify them as similar, they are not considered cognates.”

Cognate words are opportune translation equivalents that sound highly similar across two languages (e.g: English *cactus*, German *Kaktus*) and provide processing advantages for bilinguals. Cognate words are the words that have the same origin as another word or language: ‘Haus’ in German is cognate with ‘House’ in English. (Oxford Dictionary, 2000, 582). According to Escribano (2004, 94) a cognate is a word in one language, which is similar both in form and meaning to a word in another language due to the same etymology and use.

According to Odlin (1989, 83) cognates can provide not only semantic but also morphological and syntactic information, and while some of the information may be

misleading, some can facilitate acquisition. There are few English-Turkish cognates, and those are mainly words that share French or Latin roots. Not surprisingly, researchers who study first and second language acquisition have found that students benefit from cognate awareness. Cognate awareness is the ability to use cognates in a primary language as a tool for understanding a second language. For example a person who knows that “poly” means “much” in several languages can guess that when it is used at the beginning of a word it means something much in quantity as in the examples of “polygon, polysemous, polytheism etc.”

Escribano (2004, 96) thinks that through the cognitive mechanisms of association and transfer, the human brain is capable of identifying cognates in their adequate context, in a foreign language, even though the reader might not have met the word before. Linguistic input reaches the brain through the senses: sight or hearing. Through association mechanisms, mental representations are recalled and verbal labels are appended. When we come across a cognate in a second language, our brain automatically tends to match it with the meaning we already know from our mother tongue...

Lado (1957, 83) confirms that numerous cognates can be found between English and Japanese and between English and Chinese, and between many other languages which are quite unrelated to each other. There are many words which have circled the globe, and many more that have extended far beyond the boundaries of any one language or any one culture. Here is an example of the word “star” which has many cognates in different languages: (retrieved from [en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cognate](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cognate) in 28th May, 2011)

Table 2.5.

*The Examples of Cognates of the Word “star” in Indo-European Languages:*

<b>Sanskrit</b>	Str-	<b>Hindi-urdu</b>	Tara
<b>French</b>	Étoile	<b>Greek</b>	astēr
<b>Italian</b>	Stella	<b>Romanian/Venetian</b>	Stea
<b>Gothic</b>	Stairno	<b>Armenian</b>	Astl
<b>German</b>	Stern	<b>Dutch/Afrikaans</b>	Ster
<b>Scots</b>	Starn	<b>Norwegian/Danish</b>	Stjerne
<b>Icelandic</b>	Atjarna	<b>Swedish</b>	Stjärna
<b>Faroese</b>	Stjørna	<b>Persian</b>	Setāre
<b>Pashto</b>	Stoorei	<b>Welsh</b>	Seren
<b>Cornish</b>	Steren	<b>Catalan</b>	Etsel
<b>Spanish</b>	Estrella	<b>Asturian/Leonese</b>	Estrella
<b>Portuguese/Galician</b>	Estrela	<b>Kurdish</b>	estêre or stêrk

As seen in the table the word “star” has many equivalences similarly in different languages. It can result from having the same origin or extended country relationships. In Turkish “star” is also used in the mass media to refer to artists as “megastar, süperstar”.

Several researches point out that there are differences between what etymological, linguistic and synchronic analysis reveal as being word parts...(Nation,2001, 269) Strategies for the use of cognates has also proven to be important for L2 readers, but often only after learners receive explicit instruction in recognizing and using potential cognates. Turkish is a language that deciphers whether a word belongs to itself or from another language. By the vowel harmony method, the word is found out whether it is originally Turkish or not. If a word has the vowels “a,i,o,u” (eg: kapı, odun) or “e,i,ö,ü” (eg: esin, kömür) it is a Turkish word, if a word has the vowels randomly “a,e,i,i,o,ö,u,ü” (eg: organizasyon, kooperatif) then it is often a borrowed word or a cognate word from another language. As it is given in the Table2.4, using suffixes and prefixes may help students to recognize potential cognates.

According to Nation (2001, 280) the study of cognates and loan words may be useful for some learners, especially where there are significant changes to the form of words after they have been borrowed. It facilitates learning the words in L2 and makes the vocabulary acquisition faster.

Second language (L2) learners are often quick to take advantage of the similarities found in cognates and transfer knowledge from their first language (L1) to facilitate vocabulary acquisition and understanding in the L2. (Sunderman & Schwartz) There are many words which have cognate equivalences in many languages and this makes transfer of words and knowledge from the first language to the second.

A well-known psycholinguistic model of the bilingual lexicon, the bilingual interactive activation (BIA) model (Dijkstra, Van Heuven, Grainger, 1998) represents visual word recognition by bilinguals. The assumption of the BIA model is that, when a proficient bilingual sees a letter string, several words may be activated, regardless of language.

An extensive body of research supports the predictions of the BIA model and shows that bilinguals activate information about words in both languages in parallel, regardless of their intention to function within one language alone. Some of the evidence for the BIA model comes from studies using cognates. According to Sunderman & Schwartz, the BIA Model has consistently demonstrated that bilinguals are faster at recognizing words that are cognates than at recognizing noncognates, an effect known as *facilitation*. On the other hand, it has been recognized that monolinguals show none of these effects.

A study by Dijkstra et al. (1998) indicates that cross-linguistic competition between form-similar and meaning-similar words does indeed occur. In a series of experiments, Dutch-English bilinguals were tested with English words varying in their degree of orthographic (O), phonological (P), and semantic overlap (S) with Dutch words. Thus, an English word target could be spelled the same as a Dutch word and / or could be a near-homophone of a Dutch word. Whether such form similarity was accompanied with semantic identity (translation equivalence) was also varied. This led to six different test conditions exemplified by the following words: 'hotel' (overlap in S,O and P codes.), 'type' (S,O), 'news' (S,P), 'step' (O,P), 'star' (O), and 'note'(P).

The first three conditions contain “interlingual homographs” or “ interlingual homophones.” Lexical decisions were facilitated by cross-linguistic orthographic and semantic similarity relative to control words that belonged only to English. However phonological overlap produced inhibitory effects. This study indicates that a presented word form leads to the activation of all representations that it is associated with, irrespective of the target language.

Even in the case of highly similar cognate translations, words in two languages rarely have an identical pronunciation, so language must be known if performance is to be error-free. Sunderman & Schwartz explains that when bilinguals access their mental lexicons to retrieve a word that is a cognate, the overlap of form and meaning between the two languages speeds the retrieval process. Thus, shared meaning or convergence in meaning across languages helps performance.

Cunningham & Graham (2000) explains a different aspect in vocabulary learning about cognates. They claim that children’s immersion in a second-language (L2) environment can improve native language (L1) vocabulary via cognates learned in the L2. Children can be taught to use cognates as early as preschool. As students move up the grade levels, they can be introduced to more sophisticated cognates, and to cognates that have multiple meanings in both languages.

The facilitative effect of the L1 is evident in other aspects of L2 acquisition. In many cases,... as when two languages share a large number of cognates (for example, English and French) thus giving learners a head start in vocabulary. (Ellis, 1994, 304). Japanese students who study Chinese as a foreign language has the foremost advantage over the English learners due to the similar writing systems of Japanese and Chinese, similar word forms and grammatical patterns.

As cognates are the words that are similar in form and meaning in two or more languages, they are considered as facilitative elements of vocabulary teaching in the target language.



### 2.7.2. False Cognates

False cognates are the words that seem to belong to the same language but have different meanings and uses. So learners can be mistaken by the false cognates. False cognates are pairs of words in the same or different languages that are similar in form and meaning but have different roots. That is, they appear to be, or are sometimes considered, cognates, when in fact they are not.

Lado (1957, 83) defines false cognates as *deceptive cognates*. Eg: Japanese borrowed the word “milk” from English but restricted its meaning to “canned milk” the form of the word in Japanese is similar to the English word but the meaning is only partly similar since it does not include fresh milk. He claims that deceptive cognates are words that are similar in form but mean different things. They constitute a special group very high on a scale of difficulty. Lado labels them as difficult and calls them as fire traps.

According to Escribano, (2004, 94) false cognate is a word that has the same or very similar form in two languages but with different meanings; they may have the same etymology, but their meaning has evolved differently in both languages.

Cognates need not have the same meaning, which may have changed as the languages developed separately. For example, English ‘starve’ and Dutch ‘sterven’ (to die) both from Proto-Germanic *\*ster-* (“die”). English ‘dish’ and German ‘Tisch’ (table), with their flat surfaces, both come from Latin ‘discus’, but it would be a mistake to identify their later meanings. Such potentially misleading cognate pairs are known as false friends.

Odlin (1989, 79) states that there are ... pitfalls in the form of “faux amis” the “false friends” notorious to many language teachers. For example although the French *prévenir* and English *prevent* seem to as reliable signals of a cognate relation, *prévenir* means “to warn”. Lexical transfer can also occur when there is no morphological similarity between words that appear to be semantically equivalent. For example a Turkish student who learns that “*dil*” means “*language*” can say “I bit myself in the language” instead of “I bit myself in the tongue”. This example error is also possible for Finnish in which “*kieli*” means both “*language*” and “*tongue*”. Research on contrastive lexical semantics show that recognition of cognates is often a problem. Learners may

not always note the formal similarities that mark a cognate relation, and they may not always believe that there is a real cognate relationship.

Sunderman & Schwartz claim that words that are seemingly similar across languages may in fact be quite different. Sometimes learners encounter words in an L2 that are similar in form to those in their L1, but do not share meaning. These words are called as False Cognates. At other times, learners encounter words that are similar in form but differ in the degree to which they share meaning. This causes learners to make mistakes or to guess the meaning of a word wrongly. It may also affect learners psychologically not to take risks lest they do not make mistakes in guessing the meaning of a word. E.g: the word “camera” in English is used for the device that takes photos, the cognate form of it is “kamera” and is used to label the device that records video in Turkish. However “kamera” of Turkish is in fact “video camera” in English.

Due to cognates’ high form-level similarity, L2 cognate acquisition may rely heavily on existent L1 representations. Semantic access of L2 cognates may proceed through L1 representations for a longer time. When direct form-meaning links are established in L2, parallel semantic access through the strong L1 pathway (and onto shared representations) may prevail (Dijkstra & Van Hell, 2002).

According to a research made by Sunderman & Schwartz, individuals processed cognates more quickly and accurately than they processed noncognate control words. The overlap of form and meaning across languages for the cognates facilitated lexical access. So they suggest that when teaching cognate forms for reading, L2 teachers focus not only on building strong connections to meanings that are shared across L1 and L2 but also to meanings that are not shared.

Sunderman & Schwartz also suggest that vocabulary teachers might first focus on shared semantic values before introducing values that are not shared. In the case of values that are not shared, learners will be faced with the competing meaning representations of the cognate and will be forced to reconcile themselves gradually to the need to make a choice, which may be contextually determined.

Blumenfeld and Marian (2003) made a study to examine the effects of cross-linguistic overlap and language proficiency on bilingual parallel language and they compared recognition of cognates with recognition of non-cognates in English and

German. According to the study of bilingual parallel language activation, findings with cognate targets, non-cognate targets, and varied phonological overlap suggest that proficiency levels, as well as overlap between languages, determine the extent of parallel language activation. They suggest that the pathway of second language word learning relies on form similarity to translation equivalents in the native language and shapes within-language and between-language representations. In turn, these mappings in the bilingual lexicon influence the nature of parallel language activation.

Awareness of false cognates should help to avoid misunderstandings or mistranslations. It can also help individuals to acquire a foreign language by making them more conscious linguistically. Another reason for investigating these words is that it is believed that they can help to reveal how the bilingual lexicon is organised and accessed during the processing of multiple languages (Dijkstra et al. 1998)

## **2.8. Contrastive Analyses Hypothesis**

Contrastive Analyses Hypothesis which was first introduced by Lado (1957) gives us a detailed view of the roles of language transfer in second language acquisition.

Contrastive Analyses Hypothesis by Robert Lado in his book *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957) studies a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. Robert Lado was the first to explain the significance of the basic facts for the building of efficient valid measures of achievement and progress in mastering a foreign language. He produced a variety of tests that are built upon a careful systematic comparison of the descriptive structural analysis of two languages – the native language of a group of students and the foreign language these students were striving to master. He found similar “blind spots” throughout the whole range of linguistic – social – cultural features- “blind spots” that must be overcome if sound intercultural understanding was to be achieved- the fundamental objective of all language teaching.

The procedure in CAH followed description, selection, comparison and prediction levels in comparing two languages with each other. In its strongest form, the CAH claimed that all L2 errors could be predicted by identifying the differences between the learners’ native language and the target language.

According to Lado (1957, 2) the elements that are similar to the native language will be simple for the learners, and the elements that are different will be difficult. On his suggestions to language teachers, he explains that the moment the teacher selects a random vocabulary sample in a foreign language, the teacher immediately discovers that some words are easy because they resemble native language words, while others present various kinds of difficulties because they differ from the native language in various ways.

Lado (1957, 77) thinks that meanings are the same in all languages, that languages differ only in the forms used for those meaning. Any substance reminds people the same figures and meaning, however they are named differently in different languages. Lado (1957, 81) also suggests that we simply cannot ignore the native language of the student as a factor of primary importance in vocabulary, just as we cannot ignore it in pronunciation and grammatical structure. So, the native language of the student is considered to be the basis foundation in foreign language teaching. Not only vocabulary, but also phonological and grammatical structures in L1 are helpful elements in teaching L2.

## **2.9. Language transfer**

Transfer is considered to be a habit of previously learned items and it can occur consciously or unconsciously. Lado (1964, 222) defines transfer as the extension of a native language habit into the target language with or without the awareness of the learner. When the transferred habit is acceptable in L2 learning, it is assumed to be *facilitation* whereas the transferred habit is not acceptable in the target language, it is assumed to be an *interference* force which causes an extra learning burden in learning.

Transfer of learning occurs when learning in one context or with one set of materials impacts on performance in another context or with other related materials. (Perkins and Salomon, 1992, 3) For example a person who can ride a bicycle can learn riding a motorbike easily and more quickly than a person who cannot ride a bicycle and starts with a motorbike.

According to Odlin (1989, 27) transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired.

Powell's explanation about how transfer between L1 and L2 began is that structurally different areas of the two languages involved would result in interference. This term was used to describe any influence from the L1 which would have an effect on the acquisition of the L2.

According to Odlin (1989, 3-4) transfer is indeed a very important factor in second language acquisition...there are a number of reasons for language teachers and linguists to consider more closely the problem of transfer. Teaching may become more effective through a consideration of differences between languages and between cultures. The learner transfers the sound system of his native language and uses it instead of that of the foreign language without fully realizing it. The transfer of the native sound system occurs in the phonemes, allophones, and their distribution. (Lado:1964)

Odlin (1989, 23) indicates that first, transfer can occur in all linguistic subsystems, including morphology and syntax; and second, other influences besides transfer affect all subsystems. Much of the influence of the native language (or of some other previously learned language) can be very helpful, especially when the differences between two languages are relatively few. For example, the number of Spanish-English cognates ... is far greater than the number of Arabic in the acquisition of English vocabulary.

Language distance is a factor that affects transfer. While similarity between languages can create special problems, such as error involving false cognates, similarity often confers important advantages. To give an example, we can take an English student who wants to learn Spanish and Chinese. As it is mentioned that Spanish language is very similar to English language in vocabulary, morphology and sound systems. However Chinese is far different from those languages with its special alphabet system, and it has a very different morphological, phonological and grammatical structure. As it is also exemplified in *Table 2.6* that, we can predict that our student can learn Spanish more quickly and easily than Chinese. Koda (in Coady and Huckin, 1997, 38) also

explains that some languages are more similar than others, the linguistic distance between a learner's L1 and L2 varies widely among individuals... then the degree of linguistic property similarity in the learner's two languages is highly correlated with that in processing procedures. It follows therefore, that the use of L1 processing mechanisms that are typologically similar will result in better and more efficient performance.

Transfer occurs in all linguistic subsystems. Much of the skepticism about transfer has been with regard to cross-linguistic influences involving morphology and syntax as opposed to influences involving phonetics, phonology, and lexical semantics. (Odlin, 1989: 152) According to Powell, only certain structures or forms seem to be transferable from the L1 and the identification of these items is further complicated by the variables of context and the individual in question. On the other hand, transfer of the vocabulary items between L2 and L1 depends on the phonological and morphological style of the transferred language. Although there were not any words that has endings like “-siyon, tif, ; transferred forms of the suffixes –tion, -tive” ; now Turkish language has many words that ends with them. Due to the effect of positive transfer, it facilitates learning the similar words that have similar endings.

As it is explained in /eltworld.net/.2011 transfer may be conscious or unconscious. Consciously learners or unskilled translators may sometimes guess when producing speech or text in a second language, because they have not learned or have forgotten its proper usage. On the other hand, they may not realize that the structures and internal rules of the languages are different and this results in an unconscious transfer.

In the foreword to *Linguistics Across cultures, on Contrastive Analyses Hypothesis* by Lado (1957), Fries stated :

Learning a second language...constitutes a very different task from learning the first language. The basic problems arise not out of any essential difficulty in the features of the new language themselves but primarily out of the special “set” created by the first language habits. Native language influence was thus the influence of old habits, some potentially harmful.

Fries thought that L2 learning is shaped by the L1 habits that the learner already has. The influence of old habits can cause both positive effects and negative effects which he considered to be harmful and could cause problem on learning L2.

Ellis (1990, 335) explains that a theory of transfer is likely to also be a general theory of L2 acquisition, in that the role of the L1 cannot easily be separated from other factors that influence development. The theory then must explain how L1 knowledge interacts with input in shaping the learner's interlanguage system and also how both L1 and interlanguage knowledge are drawn on in L2 production. Such a theory would then explain the basic method in the acquisition of L2.

While transfer is primarily a psychological phenomenon, its potential effect on acquisition may be large or small depending on the complex variations of the social setting in which acquisition takes place. (Odlin, 1989, 14) Odlin gives a list of the maximum lengths of intensive language courses at the Foreign Service Institute (1985) of the U.S. State Department.

Table 2.6.

*Maximum Lengths of the Intensive Language Course*

<i>Language</i>	<i>Number of weeks</i>
Afrikaans	24
Amharic	44
Arabic	44
Bengali	44
Bulgarian	44
Burmese	44
Chinese	44
Czech	44
Danish	24
Dari	44
Dutch	24
Finnish	44

Tablo 2.6 (continuation)

<i>Language</i>	<i>Number of weeks</i>
French	20
German	20
Greek	44
Hebrew	44
Hindi	44
Hungarian	44
Indonesian	32
Italian	20
Japanese	44
Korean	44
Lao	44
Malay	32
Norwegian	24
Pilipino	44
Polish	44
Portuguese	24
Rumenian	24
Russian	44
Serbo-Croatian	44
Spanish	20
Swahili	24
Swedish	24
Thai	44
Turkish	44
Urdu	44

In all of the FSI language courses listed, the aim is to develop students' linguistic skills to a high level of proficiency that is comparable in each of the languages. The students know English as their native language and want to learn one of



the target languages on the list. For example students who take a course of twenty weeks studying (German, Italian, Spanish) are expected to be as proficient as students who spend forty-four weeks studying (Chinese, Greek, Turkish). As seen in the list, the least difficult languages are those that are similar to English in many aspects (historical root, structure, vocabulary, syntax...) and the most difficult languages are those that share fewer structural similarities to English. (Odlin, 1989, 36)

Transfer is grouped as *positive transfer*, *negative transfer*, *borrowed transfer* and *subtraum transfer*.

### **2.9.1. Positive transfer**

Positive transfer is considered to be a facilitating factor by many linguists. (Odlin: 1989; Perkins and Salomon:1992; Ellis:1994) According to Odlin (1989, 26) positive transfer... is the facilitating influence of cognate vocabulary or any other similarities between the native and the target languages. Perkins and Salomon (1992, 3) define positive transfer occurring when learning in one context improves performance in some other context. For instance, speakers of one language find it easier to learn related than unrelated second languages... Learners commonly assimilate a new language's phonetics to crude approximations in their native tongue... According to Powell positive transfer has a facilitative impact on learning L2.

Positive transfer occurs when learning in one context improves performance in some other context. For instance, speakers of one language find it easier to learn related than unrelated second languages. ..Learners commonly assimilate a new language's phonetics to crude approximations in their native tongue and use word orders carried over from their native tongue. (Perkins and Salomon, 1992, 4)

Powell states that positive transfer occurred where there was concordance between the L1 and L2. In such a situation, acquisition would take place with little or no difficulty.

Odlin (1989, 36) sums the influence of positive transfer on learning the target language:

“...similarities between native language and target language vocabulary can reduce the time needed to develop good reading comprehension... similarities between vowel systems can make the identification of vowel sounds easier. Similarities between writing systems can give learners a head start in reading and writing in the target language and similarities in syntactic structures can facilitate the acquisition of grammar: learners speaking a language with a syntax similar to that of the target language tend to have less difficulty with articles, word order, and relative clauses.”

In sum, the more similar the two languages are, the more the learner is aware of the relation between them, the more positive transfer will occur. (www.elworld.com)

### **2.9.2. Negative transfer**

Negative transfer occurs where there is some sort of dissonance between the L1 and L2. In this case, acquisition of the L2 will be more difficult and take longer because of the ‘newness’ (hence, difficulty) of the L2 structure. Within the theory of contrastive analysis ... the greater the differences between the two languages, the more negative transfer can be expected. (retrieved from /eltworld.net/.2012)

### **2.9.3. Borrowing Transfer**

Borrowing transfer refers to the influence a second language has on an acquired language (which is typically one’s native language.) (Odlin, 1989, 12) In borrowing transfer L2 influences L1. (Ellis, 1994, 310)

### **2.9.4. Substratum Transfer**

Substratum transfer involves the influence of a source language (typically, the native language of a learner) on the acquisition of a target language, the “second” language regardless of how many languages the learner already knows. (Odlin, 1989, 12) In substratum transfer L2 influences L1. (Ellis, 1994, 310). We can give the

immigrant Turkish people in Netherlands who have influence on the language of Dutch as an example.

Transfer is a key concept in education and learning theory because most formal education aspires to transfer. The ends of education are not achieved unless transfer occurs. Transfer is all the more important in that it cannot be taken for granted. (Perkins and Salomon, 1992,3) It is applicable to many areas of education and science. If the items that should be learnt are similar to those that have been learnt before, they are understood more easily and quickly than those students never encountered. A student who is very good at Maths is expected to do well at Physics and a student who likes reading is expected to be good at Literature. Transfer is also an important factor in language studies. By many linguists, it is assumed that transfer of L1 facilitates learning L2.

## **2.10. Conclusion**

In this chapter, a detailed literature review of interlingual relationships between native language and foreign language was given. Facilitating factors that influence vocabulary learning in a foreign language were explained in detail. The reasons of language change and language transfer and their exceeding results on vocabulary systems of L1 and L2 were mentioned with examples. It is seen that due to various reasons of contact between nations, changes in the language become unavoidable and these changes can be seen in the morphological, syntactic, semantic and lexical levels of languages. It is also understood that language changes and language transfer influence vocabulary systems of two or more languages that somehow interact with each other. When there is similarity in the vocabulary items of two languages, learning vocabulary becomes easier; whereas when there is less or no similarity, learning vocabulary becomes a burden and gets more difficult. Similarity of L1 has facilitative effect on L2 learning not only in vocabulary but also in grammatical structures, morphological, phonological and semantic patterns. If the two languages are far different from each other, then learning becomes straining and difficult.

Frederick the Great prided himself on his good French, and in his French writings we do not find a single German word, but whenever he wrote German his

sentences were full of French words and phrases. (Jespersen, 1922, 208) It is revealed that he never wanted to let foreign words to intrude in his mother tongue. However, in these days if any Turkish person writes in English, it is not much possible to find Turkish rooted words, but when he/she writes in Turkish it is certain that many English words will be used. In other words, there many borrowed words which are settled in Turkish language. As a detailed research of my study, I found out many cognates that are used commonly in daily life by using Turkish and English dictionaries and made a list of 1485 cognate words. The list does not include much of the cognates that are used in science, medicine, economics and technology due to the fact that it would be too long to include the terms of these lands. As the study tries to find out the influence of cognate words in teaching vocabulary in English to students, I did not need to include all the cognate words of different study fields used in Turkish. As all the foreign words used in Turkish language are not just cognates of English, all the words of English are not their own words or word patterns. There are so many foreign words that are borrowed from other languages like Latin, Spanish, German, French, etc. in English. The change in language forms and vocabulary items in a language cannot be hindered, it is unavoidable to have changes in big or small amounts. A language is not destroyed when it borrows a foreign word, but it corrupts when it takes the grammatical patterns and structures and starts using them in the native language. However we should be more careful about using foreign words instead of using our own words. We can behave more consciously while choosing words when we speak and write. We cannot change some of the settled words, but, when there is valid meaning of a word in our own language, we can use our own vocabulary items instead of cognates. A language means the life of a nation. As Sinanoğlu said in the title of his book “Bye-bye Türkçe”; if Turkish passes away, then Turkey passes away.

The list of Turkish- English cognates is given in Appendix A.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **3. METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1. Introduction**

In the previous chapter, a review of literature on learning a language, the reasons of language changes, cognates, borrowed words, false cognates, the cognate relations between a first language and a second language in vocabulary learning and teaching, and the influence of language transfer between L1 and L2 was given. In this chapter the methods used in the tests, the model of the study, population of the study and the study groups will be introduced.

#### **3.2. The Model of the study**

The research is a survey. The aim of a survey is to obtain information which can be analysed and patterns extracted and comparisons made. It enables the researcher not only to describe, but also to compare the data, to relate one characteristic to another and to demonstrate that certain features exist in certain categories.

The research is also a quantitative study that is most commonly expressed by numbers. In the study I tried to find out the correct answers given to the cognate word equivalence tests applied to the students and the results are analysed according to the quantitative data taken from the test results.

In the study I tried to describe the effect of cognates in vocabulary teaching in learning a second language by comparing Turkish and English cognates. Cognates are found to be related to learning positively in second language learning. I also tried to demonstrate that certain features in cognates make vocabulary learning and teaching easier and quicker.

The reason why this topic was chosen is that there are many similar words in English and Turkish, these similar words are especially cognates. It was proven that

similarity and positive transfer in a teaching psychology facilitates learning, I wanted to search the influence of cognate words in teaching a foreign language. There are many similar words which are especially cognates or borrowed words in Turkish and a great majority of the borrowed words in Turkish have similar English equivalences. I have always noticed that, in the vocabulary tests applied to students at schools, those English words that have similar equivalences in Turkish are answered correctly by almost all of the students even when they are not so good at English. I thought that this may result from the similarity of words; however I have not encountered with much study about the influence of cognates in ELT and decided to make the research about the influence of cognates in learning and teaching vocabulary in a second language.

I wanted to obtain information from a representative selection of 6th grade students at Yıldızkent İMKB Primary School in the first term of the 2010-2011 Education Year and that sample of students was expected to be able to present the findings as being representative of the population as a whole.

### **3.3. The Population and the Study Group**

The survey is applicable to all foreign and second language learners. However I studied the survey in learning English as a foreign language with Turkish students. There are two samples of my study. Each samples consisted of 50 students from the 6th grade in a governmental school in Turkey. There are numerous learners of English language from every level in Turkey. Nevertheless, my sample group includes starter level of the 6th grade students (aged about 11-12) in a school called Yıldızkent İMKB Primary School in Erzurum.

### **3.4. Data Collecting Materials and the Collection of the Data**

#### **3.4.1. Instruments**

The instruments of this study consisted of two different tests about cognates. The first test included 50 Turkish – English cognates which the students may have encountered them before in Turkish, but do not know the English meaning for them.

The students were asked to guess the meaning of the words and they were asked to answer by looking at the similarity of the English words to any word in Turkish. The second test also included 50 Turkish – English cognates different from the previous test. At first students are wanted to guess the meanings of the given English words which in fact seem similar to their Turkish equivalences (in fact Turkish cognates) After the test, they are handed out the answers and wanted to study the words for one day. They are applied the same test the next day and the correlation between the pre-test and post- test is analysed in terms of differences and correctness of the answers given to the same test.

I firstly used a monolingual dictionary of English to English to search for the cognate words that seem similar to Turkish both phonologically and semantically. Later I used a bilingual dictionary of Turkish to English. I made a list of 1485 cognate words that are similar to Turkish uses. I also made a list of 150 cognate words that are semantically the same in Turkish as in English.

The information about how cognates work in L2 vocabulary learning is gathered through tests which contain vocabulary tests of Turkish-English cognates.

As I study the effects of cognate words in L2 learning, I have seen the vocabulary tests to be the most suitable tests for my study. I need to find out whether students will guess the meaning of the cognate words as they are similar to the words in their mother tongue.

The tests need be reliable and valid because the study needs to be applicable and correct.

It can be concluded from the test results that students guess the meanings of cognate words correctly if they have encountered the words before in their mother tongue.

### **3.5. The Analysis of the Data**

There are two tests applied to the selected group of students. In the first test, 50 students are wanted to write the Turkish meanings of the given English words that are in fact cognates. The students are informed that the correct meanings of the words resemble to Turkish words and are wanted to write what they think the answers can be.

This test is chosen, because the cognate words are the words that have the same origin and can have similar equivalences in many languages. So, the students are wanted to guess the meanings of the words to test how recognizable cognates, even when they are encountered for the first time by the students. The analysis of the first test is done mechanically. I myself counted the correct answers given to the words and wrote the correct answer mark on the list. It is shown in table 4.1. According to the results of the test, it can be understood that recognizing words that are similar in two languages may help learning them and whether cognate words in a language help students to use cognate recognizing methods which can be done with the specific knowledge of features of vocabulary patterns in a foreign language. For instance, the list of prefix and suffixes in Table 2.4 may help students to recognize cognate words.

In the second test, there are fifty students and firstly they are wanted to write Turkish meanings of English words which are again cognates. The students are informed that the correct meanings of the words resemble to Turkish words and are wanted to write what they think the answers can be. When the students are all finished, their papers are collected and given the same test with their answers immediately and are wanted to study them for one day and informed that they will have the same test again. The next day, they are applied the same test and the results of two tests, first applied without informing and the second after studying. The analysis of this test is done in computer programming called SPSS with the pre-test post-test method. The results are shown in table 4.2. where the summary of pre-test and post- test results of the second group of tests is listed. According to the pre-test / post-test results, whether recognizing cognates and studying the word groups that are considered to be easy due to the fact that they are similar to their Turkish equivalences have any influence on learning cognate words which are assumed facilitative in vocabulary teaching in L2.



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **4. FINDINGS**

#### **4.1. Presentation**

The problem of the study is to find out whether cognates have any effects in second language learning. I have found out 1810 cognate words by looking up and scanning the dictionaries. I have chosen some of them and made a study with the 6th grade students of a Turkish government school where the students learn English as a foreign language. The study is applied to only 6th grade students whose level is starter. Out of 1810 cognates in Turkish and English, totally 100 cognates are used in the tests. However, the level of students may have been various and more cognates may have been asked in tests, then the result would have been more reliable and valid.

In the previous part, the subjects, instruments and procedures of the study were give in details. In this part a detailed analysis of the data collected from the administrations of the tests will be introduced.

#### **4.2. Statistical Analysis**

A wide range of vocabulary analysis from dictionaries has been done and a lot of cognate words have been found out from the English dictionary and the Turkish-English dictionary. I made a long list of cognate words, chose fifty cognates for the first one and fifty other cognates for the second test and applied them to my study group.

##### **4.2.1. The Analysis of Test 1: Recognizing the Cognates Test**

The first test is applied to 50 (fifty) 6th grade students at a primary school in Turkey. At first the students are wanted to guess the meanings of the words given. They are informed that these may be similar to Turkish equivalents in meaning. Students gave

answers to the test even when they do not have any idea about the meaning of the words in their native language. The test is given in Appendix D.

The results of the test show that students are able to guess the words they have heard or seen before. If they have not heard or seen any of the word before in their mother tongue, they could not even guess the meanings of the words. The list below shows the number of true answers given by the students. The test analysis is done mechanically, because only the number of the correct answers given to each word is necessary for the analysis of this test.

Table 4.1.

*The Number of True Answers Given by the Students*

<b>The Word</b>	<b>Number Of True Answers</b>
ABACUS	50
ALCOHOL	48
BASKETBALL	50
BOMB	45
CANARY	31
CONTROL	44
DETERGENT	49
DISCIPLINE	48
ECONOMY	46
ENCYCLOPEDIA	38
FACTOR	50
FOLKLORE	43
GENTLEMAN	19
GUARANTEE	26
HELICOPTER	50
HOBBY	48
INFECTION	16

Tablo 4.1 (continuation)

<b>The word</b>	<b>Number Of True Answers</b>
ITALIC	16
JELL	43
KANGAROO	48
KETCHUP	48
LEADER	28
LOLLIPOP	46
MATERIAL	17
MICROPHONE	25
MOSAIC	28
NEGATIVE	46
NUCLEAR	34
ORGANIC	42
OZONE	38
PACKET	39
PHOTOCOPY	33
PUDDING	47
QUALITY	3
RADIATION	23
RENAISSANCE	6
SCANDAL	43
SKELETON	12
SYMBOL	35
TECHNOLOGY	46
TOILET	44
TURQUISE	21
UNIFORM	46
UNIVERSITY	48

Tablo 4.1 (continuation)

<b>The Word</b>	<b>Number Of True Answers</b>
VIRUS	50
VOLCANO	42
WAGON	47
YOGHURT	50
ZEBRA	47
ZIGZAG	44

The table 4.2.1 shows that almost all of the words are answered correctly in general. They all guessed the meanings of the words “abacus, basketball, factor, helicopter, virus and yoghurt.” This shows that they can guess the meanings of the words which they are much familiar. The words “alcohol, bomb, canary, control, detergent, discipline, economy, encyclopedia, folklore, guarantee, hobby, jell, kangaroo, ketchup, leader, lollipop, microphone, mosaic, negative, nuclear, organic, ozone, packet, photocopy, pudding, scandal, symbol, technology, toilet, uniform, university, volcano, wagon, zebra, zigzag” are answered correctly by the majority of the students. This result shows that students are more familiar with these words and have encountered them in their mother tongue and are able to recognize them when they see the words in a different context. The words “gentleman, infection, italic, material, quality, renaissance, skeleton, turquoise” are answered correctly by the minority of the students. It can be understood from this result that those words seem them unfamiliar. E.g: There are only 6 students of 50 who guessed the word “Renaissance” correctly. When they are asked about why they could not guess the word, they replied that they had not seen the word before and they even did not know its meaning in their mother tongue.

Moreover, the word “italic” answered as “İtalya” by nineteen of the fifty students. In spite of the fact that I had not aimed to find out the influence of false cognates in the test, although in a little sense, words that are more similar to a different word apart from their correct equivalences can cause some mistakes which are considered as errors.

The test generally shows that the words that are almost the same as the usage in the native language of the students are always recognized and can be learned easily. Words that are similar in their native language are recognized and guessed correctly in general. Words that the students are not much familiar and had not encountered before in their native language are answered correctly by the minority of the students. As seen in the example those unfamiliar words can also cause wrong guesses of the words which are called false cognates.

#### 4.2.2. The Analysis of Test 2: Pre-test / post-test

The second test about the effect of cognates in vocabulary learning applied to the same group of students is analysed by the pre-test / post- test method. The analysis is done in the computer programming SPSS. At first the students are asked to guess the meanings of a selected group of English cognates. After the test, they are given the correct answers and are wanted to study the meanings of the words. The next day they are asked the same selected group of English cognates, which they have studied. The results are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2.

*Sum of Correct Answers for Pre-Post Test*

	<b>Pretest</b>		<b>Post Test</b>	
	<b>Sum Of True Answers</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>Sum Of True Answers</b>	<b>Sd</b>
AGENCY	20,00	,49487	45,00	,30305
ANALYSIS	43,00	,35051	48,00	,19795
AQUARIUM	23,00	,50346	49,00	,14142
BILLIARD	36,00	,45356	48,00	,19795
BOMBARDMENT	24,00	,50467	41,00	,38809

Tablo 4.2 (continuation)

	<b>Pretest</b>		<b>Post Test</b>	
	<b>Sum Of True Answers</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>Sum Of True Answers</b>	<b>Sd</b>
CAMPAIGN	11,00	,41845	40,00	,40406
CHATEAU	2,00	,19795	32,00	,48487
COLUMN	3,00	,23990	34,00	,47121
CONSULTATION	,00	,00000	17,00	,47852
DIETICIAN	9,00	,38809	34,00	,47121
FLUORESCENT	9,00	,38809	40,00	,40406
FUNCTION	3,00	,23990	27,00	,50346
GENDARME	22,00	,50143	44,00	,32826
GENTLEMEN	17,00	,47852	36,00	,45356
GUARANTEE	10,00	,40406	28,00	,50143
INFECTION	19,00	,49031	34,00	,47121
INSTITUTION	1,00	,14142	21,00	,49857
INTRICACY	,00	,00000	13,00	,44309
LAVA	3,00	,23990	40,00	,40406
LILAC	1,00	,14142	40,00	,40406
MATERIAL	25,00	,50508	39,00	,41845

Tablo 4.2 (continuation)

	<b>Pretest</b>		<b>Post Test</b>	
	<b>Sum Of True Answers</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>Sum Of True Answers</b>	<b>Sd</b>
LIQUEUR	,00	,00000	16,00	,47121
PARENTHESIS	21,00	,49857	39,00	,41845
PORCELAIN	32,00	,48487	44,00	,32826
PORTMANTEAU	3,00	,23990	21,00	,49857
QUALITY	8,00	,37033	28,00	,50143
RADIATION	30,00	,49487	39,00	,41845
RENDEZVOUS	21,00	,49857	34,00	,47121
SKELETON	23,00	,50346	43,00	,35051
SYMPTOM	2,00	,19795	17,00	,47852
SYRINGE	,00	,00000	23,00	,50346
TERRACE	12,00	,43142	31,00	,49031
TOURNAMENT	7,00	,35051	25,00	,50508
TURQUOISE	14,00	,45356	37,00	,44309
UNANIMOUS	,00	,00000	27,00	,50346
SUM OF TRUE ANSWERS	454,00	4,61515	1174,00	7,91857

The table shows the relations of pre-test and post-test and the standard deviations of the results. It is generally seen that the number of correct answers of all the words in the pre-test rose in the post-test.

So it can be understood that although the learners do not know the meanings of the words, which are similar to their native language as equivalence – in fact cognates- after a short time of studying, a clear result of learning can be expected from the students.

Some words although at first answered correctly by a small number of students, the number of correct answers rose considerably in the post-test. As it is given in the Table 4.2.2.1 the word “aquarium” is answered correctly by 23 students in the first test, however in the second test almost all of the students wrote the meaning of the word correctly.

Table 4.3.

*An Example of the Pre-test Post-test Result*

<b>Pretest</b>		<b>Post Test</b>	
<b>Sum Of True</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>Sum Of True</b>	<b>Sd</b>
<b>Answers</b>		<b>Answers</b>	
AQUARIUM 23,00	,50346	49,00	,14142

The table above shows that, even if the students do not know the meaning of a cognate word, they can be able to learn the word in a short time of studying or after recognizing the equivalence of the word for the first time.

The table below shows some of the examples of pre-test / post-test results. There is no correct answer in the pre-test, but there is an improvement in the post test.



Table 4.4.

*The Examples of Zero Correct Answers in Pre-test and their later result in Post- test Results*

	<b>Pretest</b>		<b>Post Test</b>	
	<b>Sum Of True Answers</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>Sum Of True Answers</b>	<b>Sd</b>
CONSULTATION	,00	,00000	17,00	,47852
INTRICACY	,00	,00000	13,00	,44309
LIQUEUR	,00	,00000	16,00	,47121
SYRINGE	,00	,00000	23,00	,50346
UNANIMOUS	,00	,00000	27,00	,50346

Table 4.2.2.3 shows that although at first none of the students guessed the meaning of the words “Consultation, Intricacy, Liqueur, Syringe and Unanimous” correctly, after studying for one day, many of the students wrote the meanings of the words correctly.

This result also shows the positive transfer of learning in a language. Those words which are considered to be different or difficult can be learned after recognizing that they are similar to their equivalences in their native language.

Table 4.5. shows some of the examples of the words which are answered considerably in the post-test.

Table 4.5.

*The Examples of Words That are Answered Correctly in the Similar Rates Both in Pre-test and Post- test Results*

	<b>Pretest</b>		<b>Post Test</b>	
	<b>Sum Of True</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>Sum Of True</b>	<b>Sd</b>
	<b>Answers</b>		<b>Answers</b>	
ANALYSIS	43,00	,35051	48,00	,19795
BILLIARD	36,00	,45356	48,00	,19795
MATERIAL	25,00	,50508	39,00	,41845
PORCELAIN	32,00	,48487	44,00	,32826
RADIATION	30,00	,49487	39,00	,41845

The above table shows that, the given words are at first guessed truly at least by half of the students and later in the second test it is answered correctly by almost all of the students.

This shows a positive correlation between cognate words and facilitative learning of vocabulary in L2.

The table below shows the results of the words that were answered by a rate of under 10 of the students which made a considerable progress in the post-test.

Table 4.6.

*The Examples of the Words That are Considerably Progressed in the Post-Test*

CHATEAU	2,00	,19795	32,00	,48487
COLUMN	3,00	,23990	34,00	,47121
DIETICIAN	9,00	,38809	34,00	,47121
FLUORESCENT	9,00	,38809	40,00	,40406
FUNCTION	3,00	,23990	27,00	,50346
INSTITUTION	1,00	,14142	21,00	,49857
LAVA	3,00	,23990	40,00	,40406
LILAC	1,00	,14142	40,00	,40406
PORTMANTEAU	3,00	,23990	21,00	,49857
QUALITY	8,00	,37033	28,00	,50143
SYMPTOM	2,00	,19795	17,00	,47852
TOURNAMENT	7,00	,35051	25,00	,50508

As seen in the table above, words which are answered by a few of the students, are answered correctly in the post-test.

This result again shows that although at first the students do not know the meanings of the words, when they recognize that they have similar equivalences in their native language, they can learn their meanings in a limited short time of studying. This result, too, shows the influence of positive transfer in learning the items that are similar to the items they already know.

The table below shows the words that doubled in the post-test in view of correctness.

Table 4.7

*The Examples of the Words that doubled in correctness in the post-test*

AGENCY	20,00	,49487	45,00	,30305
BOMBARDMENT	24,00	,50467	41,00	,38809
CAMPAIGN	11,00	,41845	40,00	,40406
GENDARME	22,00	,50143	44,00	,32826
GENTLEMEN	17,00	,47852	36,00	,45356
GUARANTEE	10,00	,40406	28,00	,50143
INFECTION	19,00	,49031	34,00	,47121
PARENTHESIS	21,00	,49857	39,00	,41845
RENDEZVOUS	21,00	,49857	34,00	,47121
SKELETON	23,00	,50346	43,00	,35051
TERRACE	12,00	,43142	31,00	,49031
TURQUOISE	14,00	,45356	37,00	,44309

The table above shows that the correct answers given by the students almost doubled or surpassed the correct answers in the pre-test.

This result also shows that when words are recognized that they are similar in the native language can be learned easily after studying for a short time. The influence of positive transfer can also be seen in this result that when there is concordance between the L1 and L2, acquisition takes place with little or no difficulty.

### **4.3. Conclusion**

A detailed analysis of the test results have been presented above. According to the two analyses of the tests, it is understood that cognate words when recognized that they have similar equivalences in the native language of the learners can be a facilitative way of teaching vocabulary to students learning a foreign language.

Positive transfer, which has a positive impact on learning conditions can be referred as useful and facilitative. When there is more similarity between L1 and L2 learning becomes easy and quick. As demonstrated by Lado (1964:119) the chief source of both ease and difficulty in learning the vocabulary of a second language is in their similarity to and difference from the first language.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter has three sections. In the first section findings of the study will be discussed, in the second section pedagogical implications and conclusions will be introduced and in the third section suggestions about teaching and learning vocabulary in L2 will be made.

#### 5.1. Conclusion

As it is explained in Chapter Four, when students recognize cognate words to be familiar to their equivalences in their target language, they learn the words more quickly and easily. Cognate words play a facilitative role in learning vocabulary in L2.

As the test results show that although the students may not know the meaning of a cognate word or had not encountered the words before, they are able to guess the meanings of cognate words and find them facilitative as they are similar in their native language. When they could not associate the meanings of the cognate words correctly, after a short time of studying to learn their meanings, the students made considerable progress in learning them. This result also supports the view that cognate words can be learned easily and quickly. In other words, the similarity of the vocabulary patterns in L1 facilitates learning vocabulary in L2. In a general expression we can say that when there is much similarity between L1 and L2, L2 acquisition gets easier.

It is also understood that the pedagogical elements of positive transfer, which has an important role in learning any new thing can be seen in learning a foreign language. As learning a foreign language is considered to be the habits of L1, transfer of L1 helps learning L2 positively. Learning L2 cannot be considered apart from L1.

In short it is seen in the test results that, cognate words are easy to learn in the vocabulary system of L2. It is also seen that interlingual transfer influences vocabulary development positively in the acquisition of L2.

## **5.2. Pedagogical Implications**

As demonstrated by Lado (1964:119) the chief source of both ease and difficulty in learning the vocabulary of a second language is in their similarity to and difference from the first language. Lado (1964, 120) also states that easy words ... resemble those of the first language in form, meaning and distribution. Words of normal difficulty ... have a form that does not resemble that of the first language. The findings of the test results conform to the expressions above that words that are similar to their native language equivalences i.e. cognates, are learned easily by foreign language learners.

Positive transfer occurs when learning in one context improves performance in some other context. As Odlin (1989: 26) stated positive transfer... is the facilitating influence of cognate vocabulary or any other similarities between the native and the target languages. It has also been understood that positive transfer plays an important role in the acquisition of vocabulary items in L2 when they are similar to their native language equivalences.

## **5.3. Suggestions**

The teachers teaching a foreign language should accept that cognates, when described carefully are effective in vocabulary learning in second language acquisition. The teachers can give a list of cognate words about the subject they study.

Teachers can also organize activities about cognates or can use cognates in classroom activities. Teachers should explain the concepts; cognates and false cognates and take their attention to be careful about false cognates. A description of classroom strategies for teaching cognate is given below.

Students should try to guess the meanings of words which seem that they are derived from a foreign language. This can also be understood by prefixes and suffixes added to the cognate. There is a list of some prefixes and suffixes which are translated to Turkish as similar as in English in Table 2.4.

### **5.3.1. Classroom Strategies For Teaching Cognates**

#### **5.3.1.1. Read Aloud**

The teacher reads aloud to students, asks them to raise their hand when they think they hear a cognate. Then the teacher stops the reading and discusses the cognate with the students. The teacher points out the subtle differences he/she hears between L1 and L2 words. If there is a French, Italian, or Portuguese speaker in the class, the teacher invites them to contribute cognates in that language.

#### **5.3.1.2. Student Reading**

As the students read their text, the teacher asks them to find three or four cognates and write them on sticky pads. Then the teacher collects notes and puts them on an OUR COGNATES laminated chart. Before the class ends, the teacher reads or has the students read them to the class. After that the teacher discusses spellings or sounds that are the same and different between cognates.

#### **5.3.1.3. Word Sort**

The teacher pairs the students and gives each pair a set of cognate cards: one card has the L1 cognate and the other has the L2 cognate.

The teacher has students sort the words. Then he/she asks them what the word pairs have in common and write responses on the board.

#### **5.3.1.4. Circle Differences**

The teacher asks the students to indicate which letters are different between cognates by circling the letters. Then, the teacher alternates between having them call out differences with the teacher circling and occasionally having students come up and circle the differences themselves.



### 5.3.1.5. False Cognates

The teacher writes examples of false cognates on the board. For example: pasta (macaroni in English) / pasta (cake in Turkish) and pie (a kind of baked food in English) /pie (portion in Turkish). Then the teacher warns the students that they might run into some words that are false cognates. These are words that look alike or are pronounced in the same way both in Turkish and English but do not have the same meaning. The teacher asks the students:

-Does anyone know what pie means in Turkish? What does the word pie mean in English?

-Another example of a false cognate is the word pasta in English and pasta in Turkish. What does pasta mean in English? Does anyone know what pasta means in Turkish?

-The teacher gives the students some cognates and false cognates and ask them to identify each.

-The teacher asks the students to work with a partner to find as many cognates and false cognates as they from a given list of words. After they finish, the teacher asks partners to share one example of each with the class.

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## APPENDICES

## Appendix A : The List of English- Turkish Cognates

THE USE OF THE WORD IN ENGLISH	THE USE OF THE WORD IN TURKISH
<b>A</b>	
Abacus	Abaküs
Abscess	Apse
Absorb	Absorbe (etmek)
Absorbent	Absorban
Abstract	Abstre
Absurd	Absürt
Academic	Akademik
Accessory	Aksesuar
Acetone	Aseton
Acid	Asit
Acne	Akne
Acoustic	Akustik
Action	Aksiyon
Acrobat	Akrobat
Acrobatic	Akrobatik
Active	Aktif
Actor	Aktör
Actress	Aktris
Actual	Aktüel
Acupuncture	Akupunktur
Acute	Akut
Adapt	Adapte
Adaptation	Adaptasyon
Adapter	Adaptör
Address	Adres
Admiral	Amiral

Adrenaline	Adrenalin
Advance	Avans
Advantage	Avantaj
Aerobics	Aerobik
Aesthetic	Estetik
Agency	Acente / Ajans
Agent	Ajan
Aggressive	Agresif
Album	Albüm
Alcohol	Alkol
Allergic	Alerjik
Allergy	Alerji
Almanac	Almanak
Alphabet	Alfabe
Alternative	Alternatif
Amateur	Amatör
Ambergris	Amber
Ambulance	Ambulans
Ameba	Amip
Ammonia	Amonyak
Ampere	Amper
Analogy	Analoji
Analysis	Analiz
Anarchist	Anarşist
Anarchy	Anarşi
Anatomical	Anatomik
Anatomy	Anatomi
Anecdote	Anekdöt
Anemia	Anemi
Anesthesia	Anestezi
Angary	Angarya
Animation	Animasyon
Anise	Anason

Annals	Anal
Announcement	Anons
Anomally	Anomali
Antelope	Antilop
Antenna	Anten
Anthology	Antoloji
Antique	Antika
Anti-biotic	Antibiyotik
Anti-freeze	Antifriz
Anti-bacterial	Anti bakteriyel
Antipathetic	Antipatik
Antipathy	Antipati
Antiseptic	Antiseptik
Anti-social	Anti sosyal
Antropology	Antropoloji
Apartment	Apartman
Apostrophe	Apostrof
Apparatus	Aparat
Appendicitis	Apandisit
Appendix	Apandis
Aquarium	Akvaryum
Arabesque	Arabesk
Archæology	Arkeoloji
Archieves	Arşiv
Arctic	Arktik
Aria	Arya
Aristocracy	Aristokrasi
Arithmetic	Aritmetik
Arsenic	Arsenik
Artery	Arter
Artesian	Artezyen
Aseptic	Aseptik
Asphalt	Asfalt

Aspirator	Aspiratör
Assistant	Asistan
Asthma	Astım
Astrologer	Astrolog
Astrology	Astroloji
Astronaut	Astronot
Astronomer	Astronom
Astronomy	Astronomi
Atmosphere	Atmosfer
Athlete	Atlet
Athletic	Atletik
Atomic	Atomik
Authentic	Otantik
Authority	Otorite
Authoritarian	Otoriter
Autistic	Otistik
Autism	Otizm
Autobahn	Otoban
Autobiography	Otobiyografi
Autocracy	Otokrasi
Automatic	Otomatik
Automation	Otomasyon
Automobile	Otomobil
Automotive	Otomotiv
Autopsy	Otopsi
Avocado	Avokado
Axle	Aks
Azalea	Açelya
Azrael	Azrail
<b>B</b>	
Bacteriologist	Bakteriyolog
Bacteriology	Bakteriyoloji
Bacterium	Bakteri



Baggage	Bagaj
Baguette	Baget
Baklava	Baklava
Balance	Balans
Ballet	Bale
Ballerina	Balerin
Balloon	Balon
Balm	Balsam
Bamboo	Bambu
Bamia	Bamya
Band (1)	Bando
Band (2)	Bant
Bandage	Bandaj
Bank	Banka
Banker	Bankacı
Banknote	Banknot
Barbecue	Barbekü
Barber	Berber
Barometer	Barometre
Barracks	Baraka
Barrage	Baraj
Barricade	Barikat
Barrier	Bariyer
Baseball	Beysbol
Basketball	Basketbol
Battery	Batarya
Bazaar	Pazar
Beefsteak	Biftek
Beige	Bej
Benzene	Benzin
Beret	Bere
Billiards	Bilardo
Biography	Biyografi

Biological	Biyolojik
Biologist	Biyolog
Biology	Biyoloji
Biophysics	Biyofizik
Biosphere	Biyosfer
Biscuit	Bisküvi
Bison	Bizon
Block	Blok
Blockade	Abluka
Blouse	Bluz
Blue jeans	Blucin
Bluff	Blöf
Boat	Bot
Body-guard	Badigart
Bomb	Bomba
Bombardment	Bombardıman
Bonnet	Bone
Boomerang	Bumerang
Bordeaux	Bordo
Botanical	Botanik
Boulevard	Bulvar
Bouquet	Buket
Bourgeois	Burjuva
Bourgeoisie	Burjuvazi
Boutique	Butik
Boxer	Boksör
Boycott	Boykot (etmek)
Branch	Branş
Briefing	Brifing
Bronze	Bronz
Brooch	Broş
Brother	Birader
Buddhism	Budizm

Buddhist	Budist
Buffet	Büfe
Bulldog	Buldok
Bulldozer	Buldozer
Bulletin	Bülten
Bungalow	Bungalov
Bureau	Büro
Bureaucracy	Bürokrasi
Bureaucrat	Bürokrat
Burnoose	Bornoz
Bust	Büst
Byzantine	Bizans
<b>C</b>	
Cabin	Kabin
Cabinet	Kabine
Cable	Kablo
Cabotage	Kabotaj
Cachet	Kaşe
Cactus	Kaktüs
Cadaver	Kadavra
Cafeteria	Kafeterya
Caffeine	Kafein
Caique	Kayık
Cake	Kek
Caliph / Calif	Halife
Calorie	Kalori
Calcium	Kalsiyum
Camellia	Kamelya
Camera	Kamera
Cameraman	Kameraman
Camouflage	Kamuflaj
Camp	Kamp
Campaign	Kampanya

Canal	Kanal
Canary	Kanarya
Canoe	Kano
Canteen	Kantin
Canyon	Kanyon
Caoutchouc	Kauçuk
Cap	Kep
Capacity	Kapasite
Capital	Kapital
Capitalist	Kapitalist
Capitulation	Kapitülasyon
Caprice	Kapris
Capsule	Kapsül
Captain	Kaptan
Caramel	Karamel
Caravan	Karavan
Carbon	Karbon
Carbonate	Karbonat
Carbon dioxide	Karbondioksit
Carburetor	Karbüratör
Card	Kart
Cardiograph	Kardiyograf
Cardiologist	Kardiyolog
Cardiology	Kardiyoloji
Career	Kariyer
Cargo	Kargo
Caricature	Karikatür
Caricaturist	Karikatürist
Carnival	Karnaval
Cartography	Kartografi
Cashier	Kasiyer
Cashmere	Kaşmir
Cassette	Kaset

Catalogue	Katalog
Catalytic	Katalitik
Cataract	Katarakt
Category	Kategori
Cathedral	Katedral
Catholic	Katolik
Caviar	Havyar
Cedar	Sedir
Celluloid	Selüloit
Cellulose	Selüloz
Cement	Çimento
Censor	Sansür
Centigrade	Santigrat
Centigramme	Santigram
Centilitre	Santilitre
Centimetre	Santimetre
Ceramic	Seramik
Ceremony	Seremoni
Certificate	Sertifika
Channel	Kanal
Chaos	Kaos
Chapel	Şapel
Character	Karakter
Characteristic	Karakteristik
Charbon	Şarbon
Charge	Şarj
Charger	Şarjör
Charlatan	Şarlatan
Charisma	Karizma
Charleston	Çarliston
Charter	Çarter
Chateau	Şato
Chauffeur	Şoför

Cheeseburger	Çizburger
Cheetah	Çita
Chemotherapy	Kemoterapi
Chepue	Çek
Chiffon	Şifon
Chiffonier	Şifonyer
Chimpanzee	Şempanze
Chlorine	Klor
Chlorophyll	Klorofil
Chocolate	Çikolata
Choir	Koro
Cholera	Kolera
Cholesterol	Kolesterol
Choreographer	Koreograf
Choreography	Koreografi
Christian	Hristiyan
Christianity	Hristiyanlık
Chrome	Krom
Chromosome	Kromozom
Chromosphere	Kromosfer
Chronic	Kronik
Chronology	Kronoloji
Cigarette / Cigara	Sigara
Cinema	Sinema
Circassian	Çerkez
Circular	Sirküler
Circulation	Sirkülasyon
Circus	Sirk
Cirrhosis	Siroz
Civilian	Sivil
Clan	Klan
Clarinet	Klarnet
Classic	Klasik

Clinical	Klinik
Clip	Klips
Clique	Klik
Clup	Kulüp
Coach	Koç
Coalition	Koalisyon
Cobalt	Kobalt
Cobra	Kobra
Cocaine	Kokain
Cockpit	Kokpit
Cocktail	Kokteyl
Cocoa	Kakao
Code	Kod
Codex	Kodeks
Coffee	Kahve
Cognac	Konyak
Coke	Kok (kömürü)
Cola	Kola
College	Kolej
Collection	Koleksiyon
Collective	Kolektif
Colloquium	Kolokyum
Cologne	Kolonya
Colony	Koloni
Column	Kolon
Coma	Koma
Comedy	Komedi
Comedian	Komedyen
Comforts	Konfor
Comic	Komik
Command	Komut
Commando	Komando
Commission	Komisyon

Committee	Komite
Commode	Komodın
Communication	Komünikasyon
Communism	Komünizm
Communist	Komünist
Compartment	Kompartıman
Compass	Kumpas
Complex	Kompleks
Complication	Komplikasyon
Compliment	Komplıman
Complot	Komplo
Compost	Komposto
Composition	Kompozisyon
Concentration	Konsantrasyon
Concept	Konsept
Concert	Konser
Concerto	Konçerto
Coccordat	Konkordato
Condition	Kondisyon
Conductor	Kondüktör
Cone	Koni
Confederation	Konfederasyon
Confederative	Konfederatif
Conference	Konferans
Confetti	Konfeti
Congress	Kongre
Conic	Konik
Conservatory	Konservatuar
Console	Konsol
Consultation	Konsültasyon
Contrabass	Kontrbas
Contract	Kontrat
Contrast	Kontrast



Control	Kontrol
Convoy	Konvoy
Cooperative	Kooperatif
Coordinate	Koordinat
Coordination	Koordinasyon
Coordinator	Koordinatör
Copy	Kopya
Cordon	Kordon
Corner	Korner
Cornice	Korniş
Corrosion	Korozyon
Corsair	Korsan
Corset	Korse
Cosmic	Kozmik
Cosmologic	Kozmolojik
Cosmology	Kozmoloji
Cosmonaut	Kozmonot
Cosmopolitan	Kozmopolit
Cosmos	Kozmos
Costume	Kostüm
Couchette	Kuşet
Council	Konsey
Count	Kont
Coupon	Kupon
Courier	Kurye
Court	Kort
Couscous	Kuskus
Cousin	Kuzen
Cowboy	Kovboy
Cracker	Kraker
Cramp	Kramp
Crater	Krater
Cravat	Kravat

Cream	Krem
Credit card	Kredi kartı
Crepe	Krep
Crepon	Krepon
Cricket	Kriket
Crisis	Kriz
Criterion	Kriter
Critical	Kritik
Crocodile	Krokodil
Croquis	Kroki
Crypto	Kripto
Crystal	Kristal
Cube	Küp
Cubic	Kübik
Cubist	Kübist
Culture	Kültür
Cumulus	Kümüls
Cup	Kupa
Cure	Kür
Cylinder	Silindir
Cyst	Kist
Czar	Çar
<b>D</b>	
Dance	Dans
Decor	Dekor
Dean	Dekan
Decipher	Deşifre
Decorate	Dekore (etmek)
Decoration	Dekorasyon
Decorator	Dekoratör
Defence	Defans
Deformation	Deformasyon
Democracy	Demokrasi

Democrat	Demokrat
Democratic	Demokratik
Deodorant	Deodorant
Displacement	Deplasman
Deposit	Depozito
Depot	Depo
Depression	Depresyon
Depressive	Depresif
Dermatologist	Dermatolog
Dermatology	Dermatoloji
Dervish	Derviş
Despotic	Despot
Detail	Detay
Detective	Dedektif
Detector	Detektör
Detergent	Deterjan
Diabetes	Diyabet
Diagram	Diyagram
Dialogue	Diyalog
Dialysis	Diyaliz
Diaphragm	Diyafram
Dictate	Dikte (etmek)
Dictator	Diktatör
Diction	Diksiyon
Didactic	Didaktik
Diesel	Dizel
Diet	Diyet
Dietician	Diyetisyen
Diffusion	Difüzyon
Digital	Dijital
Dinosaur	Dinozor
Diphtheria	Difteri
Diplomacy	Diplomasi

Diplomatic	Diplomatik
Direct	Direkt
Directive	Direktif
Director	Direktör
Disadvantage	Dezavantaj
Disc	Disk
Discharge	Deşarj
Discipline	Disiplin
Disco	Disko
Discuss	Disk
Disinfected	Dezenfekte
Diskette	Disket
Disqualified	Diskalifiye
Distributor	Distribütör
Doctor	Doktor
Doctorate	Doktora
Doctrine	Doktrin
Document	Doküman
Documentary	Dokümanter
Dogmatic	Dogmatik
Dollar	Dolar
Dominoes	Domino
Dose	Doz
Dosage	Dozaj
Dossier	Dosya
Double	Duble
Dozen	Düzine
Drama	Dram
Dramatic	Dramatik
Double	Duble
Dubbing	Dublaj
Duel	Düello
Duet	Düet

Duke	Dük
Duplex	Dubleks
Dynamic	Dinamik
Dynamite	Dinamit
Dynamo	Dinamo
Dysentery	Dizanteri
<b>E</b>	
Ecology	Ekoloji
Economic	Ekonomik
Economy	Ekonomi
Ecosystem	Ekosistem
Eczema	Egzama
Edition	Edisyon
Editor	Editör
Effect	Efekt
Effort	Efor
Elastic	Elastik
Electricity	Elektrik
Electrode	Elektrot
Electron	Elektron
Electronic	Elektronik
Electroshock	Elektroşok
Elite	Elit
Elixir	İksir
Ellipse	Elips
Elliptic	Eliptik
Embargo	Ambargo
Embryo	Embriyon
Emission	Emisyon
Encyclopedia	Ansiklopedi
Energy	Enerji
Entente	Antant
Enzyme	Enzim

Epic	Epik
Epilepsy	Epilepsi
Equator	Ekvator
Equatorial	Ekvatorial
Equinox	Ekinoks
Equipment	Ekipman
Ergonomic	Ergonomik
Erosion	Erozyon
Essence	Esans
Etiquette	Etiket
Ether	Eter
Ethic	Etik
Ethnic	Etnik
Etnography	Etnografya
Ethnology	Etnoloji
Etimology	Etimoloji
Eurasia	Avrasya
Euthanasia	Ötenazi
Excellency	Ekselans
Exhaust	Egzoz
Exotic	Egzotik
Extra	Ekstra
Express	Ekspres
<b>F</b>	
Fable	Fabl
Fabrication	Fabrikasyon
Factor	Faktör
Faculty	Fakülte
Faience	Fayans
Fair	Fuar
Family	Familya
Fanatic	Fanatik
Fantastic	Fantastik

Fantasy	Fantezi
Fascicle	Fasikül
Fascism	Faşizm
Fascist	Faşist
Fault	Fay
Favourite	Favori
Fax	Faks
Federate	Federe
Federation	Federasyon
Feet	Fit
Feminism	Feminizm
Fermentation	Fermantasyon
Ferry-boat	Feribot
Feudal	Feodal
Fez	Fes
Fiasco	Fiyasko
Figure	Figür
Filament	Filaman
Fillet	Fileto
Filter	Filtre
Finance	Finanse (etmek)
Financial	Finansal
Fiord / Fjord	Fiyort
Firm	Firma
Firman	Ferman
Flannel	Flanel
Flash	Flaş
Flirt	Flört (etmek)
Flourescent	Florasan
Flouride	Flüorür
Flute	Flüt
Fobby	Fobi
Foil	Foya

Folklore	Folklor
Football	Futbol
Forceps	Forseps
Formality	Formalite
Formation	Formasyon
Formula	Formül
Forward	Forvet
Fossil	Fosil
Foul	Faul
Free kick	Frikik
Frequency	Frekans
Function	Fonksiyon
Fund	Fon
Fondant	Fondan
Foulard	Fular
Foundation	Fondöten
<b>G</b>	
Gaffe	Gaf
Galaxy	Galaksi
Gallery	Galeri
Gallon	Galon
Galosh	Galoş
Gamma	Gama
Gangrene	Kangren
Garage	Garaj
Gargle	Gargara
Garniture	Garnitür
Garrison	Garnizon
Gas	Gaz
Gas-mask	Gaz maskesi
Gastritis	Gastrit
Gazette	Gazete
Gazi /Ghazi	Gazi



Gehenna	Cehennem
Gene	Gen
Gendarme	Jandarma
Gelatin	Jelatin
General	Genel
Generator	Jeneratör
Genetic	Genetik
Gentleman	Centilmen
Geography	Coğrafya
Geology	Jeoloji
Geometric	Geometrik
Geometry	Geometri
Geophysics	Jeofizik
Gesture	Jest
Gladiator	Gladyatör
Gladiola	Glayöl
Glocose	Glikoz
Gluten	Glüten
Glycerin	Gliserin
Goal	Gol
Goiter / Goitre	Guatr
Gondola	Gondol
Gorilla	Goril
Gothic	Gotik
Gouache	Guvaş
Grader	Greyder
Graffiti	Grafiti
Gram / Gramme	Gram
Grammar	Gramer
Grapefruit	Greyfurt
Graphic	Grafik
Gravure	Gravür
Grease	Gres (yağı)

Grey	Gri
Grippe	Grip
Group	Grup
Guarantee	Garanti
Guarantor	Garantör
Guard	Gardiyan
Guerilla	Gerilla
Guitar	Gitar
Guitarist	Gitarist
Gymnast	Jimnastikçi
Gymnastics	Jimnastik
<b>H</b>	
Hadith	Hadis
Haematology / Hematology	Hematoloji
Haemophilia / Hemophilia	Hemofili
Hajj / Hadj	Hac
Hajji / Hadji	Hacı
Hallucination	Halüsinasyon
Halogen	Halojen
Halvah	Helva
Hammock	Hamak
Handball	Hentbol
Handicap	Handikap
Harmony	Armoni
Harsh	Haşin
Hashish	Haşış
Hectare	Hektar
Helicopter	Helikopter
Helium	Helyum
Hemorrhoid	Emoroit
Heroin	Eroin
Heterogeneous	Heterojen
Hierarchy	Hiyerarşi

Hittite	Hitit
Hobby	Hobi
Hockey	Hokey
Hodja /Khoja	Hoca
Homogeneous	Homojen
Honour	Onur
Hormone	Hormon
Hostess	Hostes
Hovercraft	Hoverkraft
Humanism	Hümanizm
Humanist	Hümanist
Hydraulic	Hidrolik
Hydroelectric	Hidroelektrik
Hydrogen	Hidrojen
Hydrology	Hidroloji
Hydrosphere	Hidrosfer
Hygiene	Hijyen
Hygienic	Hijyenik
Hydroelectric	Hidroelektrik
Hypermarket	Hipermarket
Hypnosis	Hipnoz
Hypothesis	Hipotez
Hyppodrome	Hipodrom
Hippopotamus	Hipopotam
<b>I</b>	
Iceberg	Aysberg
Icon	İkon
Ideological	İdeolojik
Ideology	İdeoloji
Illusion	İllüzyon
Image	İmaj / İmge
Imagine	İmge(lemek)
Imitation	İmitasyon

Imperialism	Emperyalizm
Imperialist	Emperyalist
Impose	Empoze (etmek )
Index	Endeks
Industry	Endüstri
Industrial	Endüstriyel
Infection	Enfeksiyon
Influenza	Enflüanza
Information	Enformasyon
Injection	Enjeksiyon
Inorganic	İnorganik
Institution	Enstitü
Instrument	Enstrüman
Insulation	İzolasyon
Insulin	Ensülin
Integrated	Entegre
Integration	Entegrasyon
Intellect	Entelekt
Interesting	Enteresan
Intricacy	Entrika
Inventory	Envanter
Irony	İroni
Isobar	İzobar
Isolation	İzolasyon
Italic	İtalik
<b>J</b>	
Jackal	Çakal
Jacket	Ceket
Jacuzzi	Jakuzi
Jargon	Argo
Jazz	Caz
Jeep	Cip
Jehad	Cihat

Jell	Jel
Jockey	Cokey
Jungle	Cengel
Jupiter	Jüpiter
Jury	Jüri
<b>K</b>	
Kangaroo	Kanguru
Kelt / Celt	Kelt
Keltic / Celtic	Keltçe
Kephir	Kefir
Ketchup	Ketçap
Khan	Han
Khanjar / Handjar	Hançer
Kilobyte	Kilobayt
Kilometer	Kilometre
Kilowatt	Kilovat
Kinetics	Kinetik
Kiwi	Kivi
Koran	Kuran
Kosher	Kaşar
Kumiss	Kımız
<b>L</b>	
Laboratory	Laboratuar
Labyrinth	Labirent
Lactose	Laktoz
Lady	Leydi
Lagoon	Lagün
Laicism	Laiklik
Lamp	Lamba
Launch	Lanse (etmek)
Laser	Lazer
Lava	Lav
Lavatory	Lavabo

Lavender	Lavanta
Leader	Lider
League	Lig
Lecturer	Lektör
Lemon	Limon
Lemonade	Limonata
Leopard	Leopar
Leukemia	Lösemi
Licence	Lisans
Lilac	Leylak
Limousine	Limuzin
Liqueur	Likör
Liquid	Likit
Liret	Lira
List	Liste
Literature	Literatür
Lithium	Lityum
Lithosphere	Litosfer
Llama	Lama
Lobby	Lobi
Local	Lokal
Lockout	Lokavt
Locomotive	Lokomotif
Logarithm	Logaritma
Logistics	Lojistik
Lollipop	Lolipop
Lord	Lort
Lotion	Losyon
Luxury	Lüks
Lycra	Likra
Lymph	Lenf
Lynch	Linç (etmek)
Lyric	Lirik

Lyricism	Lirizm
<b>M</b>	
Macaroni	Makarna
Machine	Makine
Machinist	Makinist
Mafia	Mafya
Magazine	Magazin
Magnesium	Magnezyum
Magnetic	Manyetik
Magnetism	Manyetizma
Magnolia	Manolya
Majesty	Majeste
Major	Majör
Malaria	Malarya
Manager	Menajer
Mandate	Manda
Mandatory	Mandater
Maneuver	Manevra
Manganese	Manganez
Maniac	Manyak
Manicure	Manikür
Manifest	Manifesto
Mannequin / Manikin	Manken
Maquette	Maket
Maquis	Maki
Marathon	Maraton
March (1)	Marş
March (2)	Mart
Margarine	Margarin
Mark	Marka
Marmalade	Marmelat
Marshal	Mareşal
Mascara	Maskara

Mascot	Maskot
Massage	Masaj
Masseur	Masör
Material	Materyal
Materyalism	Materyalizm
Materialist	Materyalist
Mathematics	Matematik
Mausoleum	Mozole
Maximum	Maksimum
Mayonnaise	Mayonez
Mazout	Mazot
Mechanics	Mekanik
Mechanism	Mekanizma
Medal	Madalya
Medallion	Madalyon
Media	Medya
Meeting	Miting
Megabyte	Megabayt
Megaphone	Megafon
Melamine	Melamin
Melancholic	Melankolik
Melodrama	Melodram
Melancholy	Melankoli
Melody	Melodi
Meningitis	Menenjit
Meniscus	Menüsküs
Menthol	Mentol
Menu	Menü
Mercury	Merkür
Meridian	Meridyen
Merino	Merinos
Message	Mesaj
Metabolism	Metabolizma



Metallic	Metalik
Metaphysics	Metafizik
Meteorologist	Meteorolog
Method	Metot
Methodology	Metodoloji
Meteorology	Meteoroloji
Metropolis	Metropol
Microbe	Mikrop
Microbiology	Mikrobiyoloji
Microphone	Mikrofon
Microscope	Mikroskop
Microscopic	Mikroskobik
Mignon	Minyon
Migraine	Migren
Mile	Mil
Milenium	Milenyum
Militant	Militan
Militarism	Militarizm
Milligram	Miligram
Milliliter	Mililitre
Million	Milyon
Millionare	Milyoner
Mimic	Mimik
Minaret	Minare
Mine	Mayın
Miniature	Minyatür
Minibus	Minibüs
Mission	Misyon
Mitosis	Mitoz
Mixer	Mikser
Mode	Mod
Module	Modül
Molecule	Molekül

Monarchy	Monarşi
Monastery	Manastır
Monitor	Monitör
Monotonous	Monoton
Monsoon	Muson
Montage	Montaj
Morpheme	Morfem
Morphine	Morfin
Morphology	Morfoloji
Morse Alphabet	Mors Alfabeti
Mosaic	Mozaik
Motivation	Motivasyon
Motorcycle	Motosiklet
Moussaka	Musakka
Mucus	Mukus
Muezzin	Müezzin
Mujahedin	Mücahit
Mummy	Mumya
Museum	Müze
Music	Müzik
Musical	Müzikal
Musician	Müzisyen
Muslim	Müslüman
Mutation	Mutasyon
Myopia	Miyop
Mystic	Mistik
Mythologic	Mitolojik
Mythology	Mitoloji
<b>N</b>	
Naphthalene	Naftalin
Narcissus	Nergis
Narcosis	Narkoz
Narcotic	Narkotik

Natural	Natürel
Naturalism	Natüralizm
Naturalist	Natüralist
Nauruz	Nevruz
Nay	Ney
Nectar	Nektar
Negative	Negatif
Neptune	Neptün
Neurologist	Nörolog
Neurology	Nöroloji
Neuron	Nöron
Neutral	Nötr
Neutron	Nötron
Nicotine	Nikotin
Nostalgia	Nostalji
Nostalgic	Nostaljik
Notary	Noter
Note (1)	Not
Note (2)	Nota
Nuance	Nüans
Nuclear	Nükleer
Nuclear energy	Nükleer enerji
Numismatics	Nümizmatik
<b>O</b>	
Object	Obje
Objective	Objektif
Office	Ofis
Offset	Ofset
Offside	Ofsayt
Okay	Okey
Oligarchy	Oligarşi
Olimpic	Olimpiyat
Omelette	Omlet

Oncology	Onkoloji
Opaque	Opak
Operation	Operasyon
Operator	Operatör
Optics	Optik
Optimistic	Optimist
Option	Opsiyon
Oratorio	Oratoryo
Orchestra	Orkestra
Orchid	Orkide
Organic	Organik
Organization	Organizasyon
Organism	Organizma
Orientation	Oryantasyon
Origin	Orijin
Original	Orijinal
Originality	Orijinalite
Orthodox	Ortodoks
Oxide	Oksit
Oxygen	Oksijen
Ozone	Ozon
<b>P</b>	
Packet	Paket
Pact	Pakt
Palette	Palet
Pancreas	Pankreas
Panic	Panik
Pantaloons	Pantolon
Panther	Panter
Papyrus	Papirüs
Parachute	Paraşüt
Paragraph	Paragraf
Parallel	Paralel

Parameter	Parametre
Paranoia	Paranoya
Paranoiac	Paranoyak
Parasite	Parazit
Parcel	Parsel
Parenthesis	Parantez
Parchment	Parşömen
Parliament	Parlamento
Parliamentarism	Parlamentarizm
Parliamentary	Parlamenter
Parquet	Parke
Particle	Partikül
Party	Parti
Pass	Pas
Passage	Pasaj
Passive	Pasif
Passport	Pasaport
Pasteurization	Pastörizasyon
Pasteurize	Pastörize
Pastille	Pastil
Pastorale	Pastoral
Pastrami	Pastırma
Path	Patika
Pathologist	Patolog
Pathology	Patoloji
Pedagogics	Pedagoji
Pedagogist	Pedagog
Pediatrics	Pediatri
Pedicure	Pedikür
Pelican	Pelikan
Penalty	Penaltı
Penguin	Penguen
Penicillin	Penisilin

Pension	Pansiyon
Performance	Performans
Perfume	Parfüm
Perfumery	Parfümeri
Period	Periyot
Periodic	Periyodik
Perm	Perma
Permutation	Permutasyon
Perron	Peron
Personnel	Personel
Perspective	Perspektif
Peruke	Peruk
Pessimist	Pesimist
Petroleum	Petrol
Phaeton	Payton
Philology	Filoloji
Philosopher	Filozof
Phonetic	Fonetik
Phonology	Fonoloji
Photocopy	Fotokopi
Photograph	Fotoğraf
Physical	Fiziksel
Physics	Fizik
Physiotherapy	Fizyoterapi
Physioterapist	Fizyoterapist
Piano	Piyano
Pianist	Piyanist
Pickup	Pikap
Picnic	Piknik
Pilaf	Pilav
Pipette	Pipet
Placement	Plasman
Plantation	Plantasyon

Plaquette	Plaket
Plasma	Plazma
Plastic	Plastik
Plateau	Plato
Platinum	Platin
Platonic	Platonik
Pluto	Plüton
Polemic	Polemik
Police	Polis
Policy	Polçe
Politician	Politikacı
Politics	Politika
Pollen	Polen
Polyphonic	Polifonik
Polyphony	Polifoni
Pomade	Pomat
Pompom	Ponpon
Popular	Popüler
Popularity	Popülarite
Population	Popülasyon
Porcelain	Porselen
Portfolio	Portfolyo
Portion	Porsiyon
Portmanteau	Portmanto
Portrait	Portre
Position	Pozisyon
Positive	Pozitif
Post	Posta
Potassium	Potasyum
Potato	Patates
Potential	Potansiyel
Prefabrication	Prefabrikasyon
Prehistoric	Prehistorik

Premature	Prematüre
Press	Pres
Prestige	Prestij
Prince	Prens
Princess	Prenses
Principle	Prensip
Prism	Prizma
Procedure	Prosedür
Production	Prodüksiyon
Professional	Profesyonel
Professor	Profesör
Profile	Profil
Project	Proje
Projection	Projeksiyon
Projector	Projektör
Promotion	Promosyon
Prospectus	Prospektüs
Prosthesis	Protez
Protest	Protesto
Protocol	Protokol
Provocateur	Provokatör
Provocation	Provokasyon
Psychiatry	Psikiyatri
Psychiatris	Psikanalist
Psychoanalysis	Psikanaliz
Psikoanalyst	Psikanalist
Psychiatrist	Psikiyatr
Psychiatry	Psikiyatri
Psychologist	Psikolog
Psychology	Psikoloji
Psychopath	Psikopat
Psychotherapy	Psikoterapi
Pudding	Puding



Pump	Pompa
Pyjamas	Pijama
Pyramid	Piramit
Python	Piton
<b>Q</b>	
Quality	Kalite
Quarantine	Karantina
Qur'an	Kur'an
<b>R</b>	
Rachitis	Rařitizm
Radiation	Radyasyon
Radiator	Radyatör
Radical	Radikal
Radicalism	Radikalizm
Radio	Radyo
Radioactive	Radyoaktif
Radiology	Radyoloji
Radiotherapy	Radyoterapi
Radium	Radyum
Rail	Ray
Rally	Ralli
Ramp	Rampa
Rapporteur	Raportör
Rational	Rasyonel
Rationalism	Rasyonalizm
Rationalist	Rasyonalist
Reaction	Reaksiyon
Real	Reel
Realism	Realizm
Reality	Realite
Reanimation	Reanimasyon
Reception	Resepsiyon
Record	Rekor

Rector	Rektör
Reference	Referans
Refinery	Rafineri
Reflector	Reflektör
Reflex	Refleks
Regime	Rejim
Rehabilitation	Rehabilitasyon
Renaissance	Rönesans
Rendezvous	Randevu
Repertory	Repertuar
Report	Rapor
Reportage	Röportaj
Reservation	Rezervasyon
Resin	Reçine
Resonance	Rezonans
Restaurant	Restoran
Restoration	Restorasyon
Retouch	Rötuş
Rhapsody	Rapsodi
Rheumatism	Romatizma
Rhythmn	Ritim
Roast beef	Rozbif
Rocket	Roket
Roentgen	Röntgen
Role	Rol
Roll	Rulo
Romantic	Romantik
Romanticism	Romantizm
Roof	Ruf
Rosette	Rozet
Rotation	Rotasyon
Round	Raunt
Route	Rota

Rugby	Rugbi
<b>S</b>	
Sabotage	Sabotaj
Saffron	Safran
Salad	Salata
Salami	Salam
Samovar	Semaver
Samurai	Samuray
Sanatorium	Sanatoryum
Sandals	Sandalet
Sandwich	Sandviç
Sapphire	Safir
Sauce	Sos
Sausage	Sosis
Saxophone	Saksafon
Scandal	Skandal
Schema	Şema
Schematic	Şematik
Schizophrenia	Şizofreni
Scenario	Senaryo
Score	Skor
Season	Sezon
Secretary	Sekreter
Sector	Sektör
Sedimentation	Sedimantasyon
Seismology	Sismoloji
Self-service	Selfservis
Semester	Sömestr
Seminar	Seminer
Senate	Senato
Sensation	Sansasyon
Sensational	Sansasyonel
Sepia	Sepya

Serenade	Serenat
Series	Seri
Serpentine	Serpantin
Service	Servis
Sesame	Susam
Shah	Şah
Shaman	Şaman
Shamanism	Şamanizm
Shampoo	Şampuan
Shock	Şok
Shorts	Şort
Show	Şov
Showman	Şovmen
Showroom	Şovrum
Shrapnel	Şarapnel
Signal	Sinyal
Silhouette	Siluet
Sinus	Sinüs
Sinusitis	Sinüzit
Siphon	Sifon
Skeleton	İskelet
Skeptical	Septik
Sketch	Skeç
Slide	Slayt
Social	Sosyal
Socialism	Sosyalizm
Socialist	Sosyalist
Society	Sosyete
Sociologist	Sosyolog
Sociology	Sosyoloji
Socket	Soket
Sodium	Sodyum
Solarium	Solaryum

Soloist	Solist
Spaghetti	Spagetti
Spasm	Spazm
Special	Spesiyal
Speculation	Spekülasyon
Speculative	Spekülatif
Spiritualism	İspirizma
Spontaneous	Spontane
Sport	Spor
Sportsman	Sportmen
Spray	Sprey
Stadium	Stadyum
Standard	Standart
Statics	Statik
Station	İstasyon
Status	Statü
Steppe	Step
Sterile	Steril
Sterilization	Sterilizasyon
Stock	Stok
Stretegical	Stratejik
Strategy	Strateji
Stratosphere	Stratosfer
Stress	Stres
Striptease	Striptiz
Studio	Stüdyo
Style	Stil
Stylistics	Stilistik
Subject	Süje
Subjective	Sübjektif
Sulfate	Sülfat
Sulfide	Sülfür
Super	Süper

Surf	Sörf
Surprise	Sürpriz
Sweater	Süveter
Symbol	Sembol
Symbolic	Sembolik
Symmetrical	Simetrik
Symmetry	Simetri
Sympathetic	Sempatik
Sympathizer	Sempatizan
Sympathy	Sempati
Symphonic	Senfonik
Symphony	Senfoni
Symposium	Sempozyum
Symptom	Semptom
Syndrome	Sendrom
Synonym	Sinonim
Syntax	Sentaks
Synthesis	Sentez
Synthetic	Sentetik
Syphon	Sifon
Syringe	Şırınga
Syrup	Şurup
System	Sistem
Systematic	Sistematik
<b>T</b>	
Tableau	Tablo
Taboo	Tabu
Tactic	Taktik
Tambourine	Tamburin
Tape	Teyp
Tartlet	Tartölat
Taxi	Taksi
Taximeter	Taksimetre

Taxonomy	Taksonomi
Technical	Teknik
Technician	Teknisyen
Technological	Teknolojik
Technology	Teknoloji
Tectonic	Tektonik
Telecommunication	Telekomünikasyon
Teleferic	Teleferik
Telegraph	Telgraf
Telepathy	Telepati
Telephone	Telefon
Telescope	Teleskop
Television	Televizyon
Tennis	Tenis
Tension	Tansiyon
Term	Terim
Terminology	Terminoloji
Terrace	Teras
Terror	Terör
Terrorist	Terörist
Tetanus	Tetanos
Textile	Tekstil
Theatre	Tiyatro
Theme	Tema
Theoretical	Teorik
Theory	Teori
Therapist	Terapist
Therapy	Terapi
Thermal	Termal
Thermic	Termik
Thermometer	Termometre
Thermos	Termos
Thermosphere	Termosfer

Thinner	Tiner
Thyroid	Tiroit
Tights	Tayt
Toast	Tost
Toilet	Tuvalet
Tolerance	Tolerans
Tomato	Domates
Tombola	Tombala
Tone	Ton
Tonic	Tonik
Torpedo	Torpedo
Tour	Tur
Touring	Turing
Tourism	Turizm
Tourist	Turist
Touristic	Turistik
Tournament	Turnuva
Tourniquet	Turnike
Toxic	Toksik
Toxin	Toksin
Tractor	Traktör
Traffic	Trafik
Tragedy	Trajedi
Tragic	Trajik
Tragi-comedy	Traji-komedi
Train	Tren
Tramway	Tramvay
Trapeze	Trapez
Trauma	Travma
Traumatology	Travmatoloji
Tribune	Tribün
Trigonometry	Trigonometri
Trillion	Trilyon



Tropic	Tropika
Tropical	Tropikal
Troposphere	Troposfer
Trumpet	Trampet
T-shirt	Tiřört
Tube	Tüp
Tuberculosis	Tüberküloz
Tumor	Tümör
Tunic	Tunik
Tunnel	Tünel
Turban	Türban
Turbine	Türbin
Turquoise	Turkuaz
Type	Tip
Typhoon	Tayfun
Typical	Tipik
<b>U</b>	
Ulcer	Ülser
Ultraviolet	Ultraviyole
Unanimous	Anonim
Uniform	Üniforma
Unit	Ünite
Universal	Üniversal
University	Üniversite
Uranium	Uranyum
Utopia	Ütopya
<b>V</b>	
Vacuum	Vakum
Vampire	Vampir
Vanilla	Vanilya
Variance	Varyans
Variant	Varyant
Variation	Varyasyon

Varnish	Vernik
Vase	Vazo
Vaseline	Vazelin
Vector	Vektör
Vegetarian	Vejetaryen
Ventilation	Vantilasyon
Venus	Venüs
Version	Versiyon
Veterinarian	Veteriner
Virus	Virüs
Visa	Vize
Viscose	Viskoz
Vocal	Vokal
Vodka	Votka
Volcanic	Volkanik
Volcano	Volkan
Volleyball	Voleybol
Voltage	Voltaj
Voltmeter	Voltmetre
<b>W</b>	
Wagon	Vagon
Wardrobe	Gardırop
<b>Y</b>	
Yoghurt	Yoğurt
<b>Z</b>	
Zaptieh	Zaptiye
Zigzag	Zikzak
Zinc	Çinko
Zoological	Zoolojik
Zoologist	Zoolog
Zoology	Zooloji

**Appendix B: Words That Are The Same Both In English And In Turkish**

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**WORDS THAT ARE THE SAME BOTH  
IN ENGLISH AND TURKISH**

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Adrenalin

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Alarm

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Amazon

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Arena

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Aroma

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Badminton

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Bank

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Bar

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Data

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Diploma

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Disk

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Divan

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Dogma

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Domino

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Dragon

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Drama

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Ego

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Egoist

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Element

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Fakir

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Fan

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Fauna

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Federal

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Feminist

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Festival

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Film

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Final

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Finalist

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Form

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General
Global
Golf
Idea
Ideal
Imam
Internet
Iris
Jaguar
Jet
Judo
Kilogram
Kilometre
Koala
Kung Fu
Latin
Lens
Liberal
Limit
Link
Litre
Logo
Lord
Madam
Mango
Manifesto
Market
Mega star
Melodram
Metal
Meteor
Metro
Metropolitan

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Mililitre

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Milimetre

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Minimum

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Model

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Modem

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Motif

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Motor

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Normal

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Opera

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Organ

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Orlon

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Oval

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Panda

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Panel

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Panzer

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Pardon

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Park

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Parka

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Partner

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Pastel

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Pastoral

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Patent

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Patron

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Petrol

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Pigment

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Pilot

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Piranha

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Pizza

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Plan

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Plaster

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Platform

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Poker

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Post

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Poster

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Problem

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Propaganda

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Protein

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Proton

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Puma

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Radar

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Rafting

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Realist

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Reform

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Revolver

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Risk

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Robot

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Rodeo

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Salep

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Salsa

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Samba

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Sandal

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Satanist

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Sauna

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Sensor

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Star

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Serum

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Siren

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Soda

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Sofa

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Spatula

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Spiral

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Sponsor

---

Step

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Sufi

---

Sultan

---

Suni

---

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Tablet
Tango
Tank
Tanker
Tartar
Teflon
Terminal
Test
Ton
Topaz
Tornado
Totem
Transfer
Tsunami
Tuna
Tundra
Urdu
Video
Vitamin
Volt
Yoga
Zebra

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### Appendix C : Cognates Of Countries And Nationalities In Turkish And English

COUNTRIES	ÜLKELER	NATIONALITIES	UYRUKLAR
Afghanistan	Afganistan	Afghan	Afgan
(South) Africa	(Güney) Afrika	Afrikan	Afrikalı
(South/ North)America	(Güney/Kuzey)Amerika	American	Amerikan
Angola	Angola	Angolan	Angolalı
Argentina	Arjantin	Argentinian	Arjantinli
Armenia	Ermenistan	Armenian	Ermeni
Australia	Avustralya	Australian	Avustralyalı
Austria	Avusturya	Austrian	Avusturyalı
Azerbaijan	Azerbaycan	Azerbaijani	Azeri
Bahrain	Bahreyn	Bahraini	Bahreynli
Bangladesh	Bangladeş	Bangladeshi	Bangladeşli
Belgium	Belçika	Belgian	Belçikalı
Bolivia	Bolivya	Bolivian	Bolivyalı
Bosnia- Herzegovina	Bosna-Hersek	Bosnian	Boşnak
Brazil	Brezilya	Brazilian	Brezilyalı
Britain	Britanya	British	Britanyalı
Bulgaria	Bulgaristan	Bulgarian	Bulgar
Cambodia	Kamboçya	Cambodian	Kamboçyalı
Cameroon	Kamerun	Cameroonian	Kamerunlu
Canada	Kanada	Canadian	Kanadalı
Chad	Çad	Chadian	Çadlı
Chile	Şili	Chilean	Şilili
China	Çin	Chinese	Çinli
Colombia	Kolombiya	Colombian	Kolombiyalı
Congo	Kongo	Congolese	Kongolu
Costa Rica	Kosta Rika	Costa Rican	Kosta Rikalı
Cuba	Küba	Cuban	Kübalı
Cyprus	Kıbrıs	Cypriot	Kıbrıslı



Denmark	Danimarka	Danish	Danimarkalı
Dominica	Dominik	Dominican	Dominikli
Ecuador	Ekvador	Ecuadorean	Ekvadorlu
England	İngiltere	English	İngiliz
Eritrea	Eritre	Eritrean	Eritreli
Estonia	Estonya	Estonian	Estonyalı
Ethiopia	Etiyopya	Ethiopian	Etiyopyalı
Finland	Finlandiya	Finnish	Finlandiyalı
France	Fransa	French	Fransız
Georgia	Gürcistan	Georgian	Gürcü
Ghana	Gana	Ghanaian	Ganalı
Guatemala	Guatemala	Guatemalan	Guatemalalı
Haiti	Haiti	Haitian	Haitili
Iceland	İzlanda	Icelandic	İzlandalı
India	Hindistan	Indian	Hint
Indonesia	Endonezya	Indonesian	Endonezyalı
Iran	İran	Iranian	İranlı
Iraq	Irak	Iraqi	Iraklı
Ireland	İrlanda	Irish	İrlandalı
Italy	İtalya	Italian	İtalyan
Jamaica	Jamaika	Jamaican	Jamaikalı
Japan	Japonya	Japanese	Japon
Kazakhstan	Kazakistan	Kazakh	Kazak
Kenya	Kenya	Kenyan	Kenyalı
Kuwait	Kuveyt	Kuwaiti	Kuveytli
Laos	Laos	Laotian	Laoslu
Lebanon	Lübnan	Lebanese	Lübnanlı
Libya	Libya	Libyan	Libyalı
Macedonia	Makedonya	Macedonian	Makedon
Madagascar	Madagaskar	Madagascan	Madagaskarlı
Malaysia	Malezya	Malaysian	Malezyalı
Maldives	Maldivler	Maldivian	Maldivli
Mali	Mali	Malian	Malili

Mexico	Maksika	Mexican	Meksikalı
Moldova	Moldova	Moldovan	Moldovalı
Mongolia	Moğolistan	Mongolian	Moğol
Mozambique	Mozambik	Mozambican	Mozambikli
Namibia	Namibya	Namibian	Namibyalı
Nepal	Nepal	Nepalese	Nepallı
Nigeria	Nijerya	Nigerian	Nijeryalı
Norway	Norveç	Norwegian	Norveçli
Pakistan	Pakistan	Pakistani	Pakistanlı
Panama	Panama	Panamanian	Panamalı
Paraguay	Paraguay	Paraguayan	Paraguaylı
Peru	Peru	Peruvian	Perulu
The Philippines	Filipinler	Philippine	Filipinli
Romania	Romanya	Romanian	Rumen
Russia	Rusya	Russian	Rusya
Rwanda	Ruanda	Rwandan	Ruandalı
Saudi Arabia	Suudi Arabistan	Saudi Arabian	Arap
Scotland	İskoçya	Scottish	İskoç
Senegal	Senegal	Senegalese	Senegalli
Serbia	Sırbistan	Serbian	Sırp
Singapore	Singapur	Singaporean	Singapurlu
Slovakia	Slovakya	Slovak	Slovak
Slovenia	Slovenya	Slovenian	Sloven
Somalia	Somali	Somali	Somalili
Spain	İspanya	Spanish	İspanyol
Sri Lanka	Sri Lanka	Sri Lankan	Sri Lankalı
Sudan	Sudan	Sudanese	Sudanlı
Sweden	İsveç	Swedish	İsveçli
Syria	Suriye	Syrian	Suriyeli
Taiwan	Tayvan	Taiwanese	Tayvanlı
Tanzania	Tanzanya	Tanzanian	Tanzanyalı
Tunisia	Tunus	Tunisian	Tunuslu
Turkey	Türkiye	Turkish	Türk

Turkmenistan	Türkmenistan	Turkmen	Türkmen
Uganda	Uganda	Ugandan	Ugandalı
Ukraine	Ukrayna	Ukrainian	Ukraynalı
Uruguay	Uruguay	Uruguayan	Uruguaylı
Uzbekistan	Özbekistan	Uzbek	Özbek
Venezuela	Venezuela	Venezuelan	Venezuelalı
Vietnam	Vietnam	Vietnamese	Vietnamlı
Yemen	Yemen	Yemeni	Yemenli
Yugoslavia	Yugoslavya	Yugoslav	Yogoslav
Zaire	Zaire	Zairean	Zaireli
Zambia	Zambiya	Zambiyen	Zambiyalı
Zimbabwe	Zimbabve	Zimbabwean	Zimbabveli

**APPENDIX D****The First Test: Recognizing the Cognates Test Applied to the Students****NAME:****GRADE:**

**This test aims at finding whether the similarities between Turkish and English words help you guess or learn a word that is written or pronounced similarly in the target language. Write the Turkish meanings of the words below.**

<b>THE WORD</b>	<b>THE MEANING OF THE WORD</b>
ABACUS	
ALCOHOL	
BASKETBALL	
BOMB	
CANARY	
CONTROL	
DETERGENT	
DISCIPLINE	
ECONOMY	
ENCYCLOPEDIA	
FACTOR	
FOLKLORE	
GENTLEMAN	
GUARANTEE	
HELICOPTER	
HOBBY	
INFECTION	
ITALIC	
JELL	
KANGAROO	
KETCHUP	

LEADER	
LOLLIPOP	
MATERIAL	
MICROPHONE	
MOSAIC	
NEGATIVE	
NUCLEAR	
ORGANIC	
OZONE	
PACKET	
PHOTOCOPY	
PUDDING	
QUALITY	
RADIATION	
RENAISSANCE	
SCANDAL	
SKELETON	
SYMBOL	
TECHNOLOGY	
TOILET	
TURQUISE	
UNIFORM	
UNIVERSITY	
VIRUS	
VOLCANO	
WAGON	
YOGHURT	
ZEBRA	
ZIGZAG	

**APPENDIX E**

**The second test: pre-test / post-test applied to the students**

**NAME:**

**GRADE:**

**This test aims at finding whether the similarities between Turkish and English words help you guess or learn a word that is written or pronounced similarly in the target language. Write the Turkish meanings of the words below.**

<b>THE WORD</b>	<b>THE MEANING OF THE WORD</b>
AGENCY	
ANALYSIS	
AQUARIUM	
BILLIARD	
BOMBARDMENT	
CAMPAIGN	
CHATEAU	
COLUMN	
CONSULTATION	
DIETICIAN	
FLUORESCENT	
FUNCTION	
GENDARME	
GENTLEMAN	
GUARANTEE	
INFECTION	
INSTITUTION	
INTRICACY	
LAVA	
LILAC	
MATERIAL	

LIQUEUR	
PARENTHESIS	
PORCELAIN	
PORTMANTEAU	
QUALITY	
RADIATION	
RENDEZVOUS	
SKELETON	
SYMPTOM	
SYRINGE	
TERRACE	
TOURNAMENT	
TURQUOISE	
UNANIMOUS	

**APPENDIX F****The Study Card Given to the Students After the Pre-test**

<b>THE WORD</b>	<b>THE MEANING OF THE WORD</b>
<b>AGENCY</b>	Acenta
<b>ANALYSIS</b>	Analiz
<b>AQUARIUM</b>	Akvaryum
<b>BILLIARD</b>	Bilardo
<b>BOMBARDMENT</b>	Bombardıman
<b>CAMPAIGN</b>	Kampanya
<b>CHATEAU</b>	Şato
<b>COLUMN</b>	Kolon
<b>CONSULTATION</b>	Konsultasyon
<b>DIETICIAN</b>	Diyetisyen
<b>FLUORESCENT</b>	Florasın
<b>FUNCTION</b>	Fonksiyon
<b>GENDARME</b>	Jandarma
<b>GENTLEMAN</b>	Centilmen
<b>GUARANTEE</b>	Garanti
<b>INFECTİON</b>	Enfeksiyon
<b>INSTITUTION</b>	Enstitü
<b>INTRICACY</b>	Enrika
<b>LAVA</b>	Lav
<b>LILAC</b>	Leylak
<b>MATERIAL</b>	Materyal
<b>LIQUEUR</b>	Likör
<b>PARENTHESIS</b>	Parantez
<b>PORCELAIN</b>	Porselen
<b>PORTMANTEAU</b>	Portmanto
<b>QUALITY</b>	Kalite
<b>RADIATION</b>	Radyasyon



<b>RENDEZVOUS</b>	Randevu
<b>SKELETON</b>	İskelet
<b>SYMPTOM</b>	Semptom
<b>SYRINGE</b>	Şırınga
<b>TERRACE</b>	Teras
<b>TOURNAMENT</b>	Turnuva
<b>TURQUOISE</b>	Turkuaz
<b>UNANIMOUS</b>	Anonim

## ÖZ GEÇMİŞ

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Doğum Yeri ve Tarihi : İncesu-30.10.1985

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