Hacettepe University
Graduate School of Social Sciences
Department of English Linguistics

GENDER-PREFERENTIAL LANGUAGE USE IN THE WRITING STYLE OF TEENAGERS

Melike Baş

Master's Thesis

Ankara, 2009

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_____

Melike Baş

To my parents,
Emine and Mehmet Akif Baş,
with heartfelt gratitude
for their love, care and support

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ÖZET

BAŞ, Melike. *Ergenlerin Yazı Üsluplarındaki Toplumsal Cinsiyet Tercihli Dil Kullanımı.* Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara, 2009.

Toplumsal cinsiyet insanların sadece sahip oldukları bir özellik değildir, aynı zamanda farklı bağlamlarda oynadıkları bir roldür. Bireylerin toplumsal cinsiyet kimlikleri, sosyalleşme sürecinde edindikleri cinsiyet kalıp yargıları ile şekil kazanır, ancak her bireyin kişisel özellikleri veya toplumsal cinsiyet rolü kimliği biyolojik cinsiyeti ile örtüşmeyebilir. Bu görüşten yola çıkarak, bu çalışma, ergenlerin toplumsal cinsiyetleri ve yazılı dil kullanımları arasındaki ilişkiyi üç bağımsız değişken (biyolojik cinsiyet, psikolojik cinsiyet ve konu) aracılığıyla çözümlemek ve tanımlamak amacıyla yürütülmüştür.

İdeal arkadaş ve küresel ısınma konularında 13-14 yaşlarındaki 35 kız ve 35 erkek öğrencinin yazdığı kompozisyonlar, geçmiş çalışmalarda kadınlar ve erkekler arasında farklılık gösteren yedi adet kadınlarca daha fazla tercih edilen dil değişkenleri (duygusal anlatılar, sorular, niteleme sıfatları, anlamı güçlendirici sözcükler, eğretileme ve benzetme, üçüncü kişi göndermeleri ve kesinlik bildirmeyen ifadeler) ve yedi adet erkeklerce daha fazla tercih edilen dil değişkenleri (miktar bildiren sözcükler, örneklemeler, yazım hataları, yer-yön bildiren ifadeler, odaklayıcı belirteçler, birinci kişi göndermeleri, kesinlik bildiren ifadeler) açısından incelenmiştir. Öğrencilerin toplumsal cinsiyet rolü özellikleri (erkeksi, kadınsı, androjen, belirsiz) Bem Cinsiyet Rolü Envanteri kullanılarak tespit edilmiştir.

Ki-kare analiz sonuçları, dilsel değişkenlerin frekanslarının sadece biyolojik cinsiyet açısından değil aynı zamanda psikolojik cinsiyet ve konuya göre de değişiklik gösterdiğini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bazı dil kodları kızlar tarafından daha fazla kullanılırken bazıları erkekler tarafından daha fazla tercih edilmiştir. Benzer biçimde, dil kodlarının kullanımının katılımcıların kadınsı veya erkeksi kişilik özelliğini benimsemelerine göre de değiştiği görülmüştür. Kadınlarca

tercih edilen dil öğeleri ideal arkadaş metinlerinde daha fazla kullanılırken erkeklerce tercih edilen dil öğeleri küresel ısınma konusunda daha fazla kullanılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: biyolojik cinsiyet, psikolojik cinsiyet, konu, toplumsal cinsiyet tercihli dil, cinsiyet/toplumsal cinsiyet rolleri, Bem Cinsiyet Rolü Envanteri

ABSTRACT

BAŞ, Melike. *Gender-Preferential Language Use in the Writing Style of Teenagers*. Master's Thesis, Ankara, 2009.

Gender is not something people possess but something they "do" in specific contexts. The sex/gender stereotypes which are acquired in the socialization process shape the gender identity of a person, however, the personal characteristics or the gender role identity of a person may differ from her/his biological gender. Starting out from this view, the present research was conducted to analyze and describe the relationship between gender and written language use of teenagers via three independent variables: biological gender, psychological gender and topic.

The compositions written on ideal friend and global warming topics by 35 female and 35 male students aged 13-14, were coded for the frequency and percentages of seven female-preferential (references to emotion, questions, qualificative adjectives, intensifiers, metaphors& simile, third person pronouns and expressions of uncertainty) and seven male-preferential (references to quantity, illustratives, errors, locatives, focus adverbials, first person references and expressions of certainty) language devices which were found to differ between females and males in the previous studies. Gender role characteristics (masculine, feminine, androgynous, undifferentiated) of the students were identified with the Bem's Sex Role Inventory.

Chi-square analysis results showed that the frequencies of the linguistic variables differed not only according to the biological gender, but also to the psychological gender and the gender-type of the topic. While some language codes were more frequently used by the girls, some others were more often preferred by the boys. Similarly, the use of the language codes differed according to the subjects' adoption of either feminine or masculine trait. More

female-preferential items were employed in the ideal friend passages whereas more male-preferential items were used in the global warming topic.

Key Words: biological gender, psychological gender, topic, gender-preferential language, sex/gender roles, Bem' Sex Role Inventory

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BSRI : Bem's Sex Role Inventory

FP : Female-Preferential

MP : Male-Preferential

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PRELIMINARY REMARKS

The relationship between gender and language first began to take my interest in the state primary school where I was working. Since I was the only female teacher in the school, I had to spend all my time with the male teachers of different ages and branches. During this period, most of the time I initiated the conversations, shared my own ideas, and sometimes I just listened to them especially when they were talking about politics, football, cars and their army memories. Then, I wondered what would happen if there were a chance to substitute all these male teachers with the female ones. How would the use of the words change? To what extent the topics would diverge and converge? Questions like these directed me towards this gender study.

During this short but prolific period, I also had a chance to observe the students from the first grade to the eighth grade talking and playing together. While girls prefer to jump rope, play hand-ball, or just sit together and title-tattle, boys would rather play football, fight (do karate as one of the seven-year-old boy told me) or tease the girls. As an educator and a student of linguistics, I wondered how teenagers construct and reconstruct their genders in their verbal behaviours as well as how they leave their gender-prints in their writings in the school setting. I think we need to know more about the ways the young students/adolescents portray their masculinity and femininity in particular contexts so that maybe we, as the educators, can be more cautious about the word selection of them, and be more conscious in decoding these language devices. I hope this study will be a pioneer to take attention to the biological and psychological genders of the individuals as well as the role of the topic.

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1. INTRODUCTION TO THESIS FOCUS

As a research area, the relationship between language and gender, which is the subject matter of sociolinguistics if narrowly categorized, has taken the interest of many researchers since the beginnings of 1970s, especially when the feminist studies came into being, and shows the characteristics of interdisciplinarity by bringing together other fields such as anthropology, sociology, psychology, education, women's studies, discourse analysis, social psychology, literary theory, and media studies (Aries 1987; Mesthrie, Swann, Deumert,& Leap 2000).

Gender, which is most of the time used interchangeably with sex as a term, but different from it, affects how we act in the world, as much as how the world behaves us, including the language we use and the language used about us to a great extent. In addition to social class, age and ethnicity, sex is one of the most frequently used "social demographic categories", thus grouping people into males and females has been a traditional practice in the social sciences so far (Cheshire 2002, http://webspace.qmul.ac.uk/jlcheshire/sex%20and%20gender.pdf). From the first moment a baby is brought into this world, it is treated (named, clothed, talked) according to its sex. Determined by chromosomes and prenatal hormones, sex is a biological endowment, so each person is born having a biological sex (Rice& Dolgin 2005:184), which leads to the terms *male* and *female*, *woman* and *man*, *girl* and *boy*. Gender, on the other hand, is "a psychological and cultural term" (Basow 1992:2) that is socially constructed and learned as the individuals grow up and interact with others (Talbot 1998:7). *Feminine* and *masculine*, and *womanly* and *manly* are the

gender terms indicating the socially determined views of women and men (Wood 1996:5).

It seems easy to make a distinction between sex and gender at first sight; however, it is not always so painless to differentiate whether something is based on sex or gender especially when the focus is on language. Few biological differences between females and males such as women's "less likely to have reading disabilities, or to stutter, or to be aphasic" have been certified (Chambers 2003:119). Recent research on gender and language emphasize to dwell neither on the biological differences between women and men nor on the culturally created division of gender, instead "on the diverse realizations of the dynamic dimensions of masculinity and femininity" (Holmes 1997:217), since personal characteristics of an individual may diverge from her/his sex or as more recently called biological gender. In other words, a man may have the feminine characteristics, and a woman may have the masculine characteristics (Demirtaş 2002, http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_hb1390/is_2_3/ai_n28974797). Therefore, it is impossible to rely solely on the biological gender or sex of the people to comment on their behaviours. Bem (1981) put forth the theory of gender schema with which she intended to explain the individuals' cognitive perception of what is appropriate or inappropriate for their sexes. Accordingly, she claimed that an individual may have both the masculine (instrumental) and the feminine (expressive) traits which led to the concept of androgyny. An androgynous person can be "a male who is assertive (masculine) and sensitive to others' feelings (feminine), or a female who is dominant (masculine) and caring (feminine)" (Santrock 2005:216). Bem's Sex Role Inventory was constructed to classify individuals according to their gender role orientations (masculine, feminine, androgynous, undifferentiated) which revealed their psychological gender. In other terms, as Wood puts it, "we experience gender as part of personal identity, and it guides how we think, feel and act" (1996:9), therefore psychological gender is how we perceive ourselves on the continua of masculinity and femininity no matter what our biological gender is. Hence, the psychological gender may give us more trustworthy information in explaining

the language use of people. Gender, in the present research, will be examined within two dimensions; one is the socio-biological dimension that will be termed as biological gender, and the other one is the socio-psychological dimension that will be termed as psychological gender.

It is an undeniable fact that “men and women speak the same language” in every society, and that “men and women speak that language differently” (Mulac 1998, qtd. in Mulac et. al. 2001:121). Either coming with birth or acquired through the process of socialization, the forms of language women and men use differ. Some of the words men use are understood by women but are not used by them, likewise men don’t mention about some of the words women use, either (König 1992:27). West and Zimmerman (1985) define gender difference in language as gender preferential which means that “males and females are equally capable of using various linguistic strategies and features, but certain strategies or features may be more commonly used by one gender in certain situations” (qtd in Coates& Johnson 2001:455-456). Research scholars have tried to discover and depict these verbal and nonverbal differences, and to put forth hypotheses on the sources and consequences of these differences by leaving a great number of articles and books behind them.

One of these studies is the article of Janssen& Murachver (2004b) which serves as the starting point of the present study. In their article, Janssen& Murachver (2004b) investigated gender-preferential language use of university students in terms of twenty language items which differ between females and males. They tried to discover the effects of the biological gender, psychological gender and the topic on the writers’ selection of the female- and male-preferential language devices. Despite some methodological alterations such as data analyses and linguistic coding, in the present study we adopted the article of Janssen& Murachver (2004b) as a model study. In the process of being a female or a male, the stage of early adolescence which criss-crosses with the critical period is selected for investigation.

Gender studies have taken the interest of linguists in Turkey since the early 1990s, and from that time on a growing research has been accomplished. This study, too, deals with gender and language, but it doesn't disregard the role of the topic, since as Janssen& Murachver (2004b:345) put it "gender does not exist in a vacuum". Today it is widely accepted that it is the context which brings into existence or exterminates gender differences between females and males. Gender is an accomplishment that is created and re-created in social interaction, thus it is individuals who enact their genders in different situations (West& Zimmerman 1987:126). This research study addresses how teenagers 'do' their gender in their writing, and whether it changes according to the passage topic.

The layout of the study is as follows: This chapter is the set stage for introducing the focus, aim and method of the study. Chapter Two, firstly, supplies the background information concerning gender related terms in general needed for the rest of the study, and then, presents the literature review of the previous studies both in Turkey and other countries. Chapter Three provides the data analysis and discusses the results to check whether the research questions are answered satisfactorily. And the final part is on conclusion and implications for future research as well as the scope and limitations of the study.

1.2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A short review of literature shows that most of the researchers in Turkey focused on different aspects of the relationship between gender and language and mostly tried to depict the effects of gender on language use (Acar-Türker 2000; Ağaçsaban 1989; Aliefendioğlu 1994; Baysal 1997; Bayyurt 2000; Günay M. 2000; Günay, V., D. 1991; Kilecioğlu 2001; Özçalışkan 1994; Subaşı-Uzun 1996) in general terms, while some of them, especially the more recent ones examined it within more specific contexts (Açıkalın 2000, 2003; Ercan 2003; Şen 2003). Ağaçsaban's (1989) thesis is the unique example presenting the gender-linked differences between female and male teenagers in written

language; however, it lacks a context-bound analysis. One of the aims of this study is to emphasize the role of the topic as a determinant of the gender-triggered language use since it is the topics, tasks, addresses or other contextual factors which result in different linguistic usages. For example, while Ağaçsaban (1989) concludes that girls use abstract nouns and boys use concrete nouns most, or females use denotative pronouns more than males, Günay (2000) claims that her results show the opposite. However, Günay's and Ağaçsaban's studies differ in many aspects such as the medium of language, age cohort and topic, thus it is natural to come up with findings which show inconsistency. However, no previous research that directly examined the role of the topic in gender-preferential language use of teenagers was found in the Turkish published literature.

Additionally, researchers have mostly focused on the adult participants in gender studies both in Turkey and abroad so far, thus very few studies can be found which examine the gender differences in the discourse of adolescents. In the present research, the teenagers who are in a transition period between childhood and adulthood are dealt with to see if same differences will also be observed in their writings. Moreover, the available literature generally examines gender on biological terms by dividing individuals as females and males, and comparing their language use. On the other hand, there has been no previous research in Turkey which concentrates on the psychological gender roles of the individuals. Our study is important in the sense that it is the first study in the Turkish language and gender research that highlights the importance of assessing gender as a psychological construct.

It is expected that the current study fills these gaps in the literature, and contributes to the understanding of the gender differences in the writing style of teenagers in relation to topic along with their gender role identities.

1.3. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Previous research has shown that there are differences in the frequencies of language devices which women and men make use of while writing and that topic determines the way males and females construct their writings by using either female or male preferential language devices. Moreover it was shown in the study of Janssen& Murachver (2004b) that psychological gender is as effective as the biological gender in the preference of particular language items. Within this framework, we will focus on the description of the revelation of biological gender, psychological gender and topic in adolescent authors' written language style. Setting out from the claim that "non-professional writers differ in their language use between genders" as proposed in Janssen and Murachver's study (2004b:347), this study aims to analyze and describe the gender-preferential language use in the writing styles of Turkish teenagers.

The primary purpose of this research study is to see if there is a relation between preferential language use and gender among teenagers, and to find out if they adjust their language to each passage topic. In this sense, the present study may be significant in providing data not only for the collective stylistic features differentiating female from male prose but also for the impact of topic on the writing style of teenagers as well as the representation of the psychological gender roles.

This study also seeks the following objectives:

- To investigate if there is a significant difference between the biological gender groups' use of linguistic variables
- To investigate if there is a significant difference among the psychological gender groups' use of linguistic variables
- To investigate if there is a significant difference between the descriptive ideal friend topic and the controversial global warming topic in terms of the frequencies of fourteen language devices

1.4. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Within the overall frame of the general research question “Does gender-preferential language use exist in the writings of Turkish adolescents?” the following research questions are addressed in this study:

1. How do the participants make use of male and female preferential linguistic codes in their compositions according to their biological gender?
    a. Do female and male students differ in the frequencies of the language devices they employ in their writings?
    b. Are female-preferential variables used more frequently by the females?
    c. Are male-preferential variables used more frequently by the males?

2. How do the participants make use of male and female preferential linguistic codes in their compositions according to their psychological gender?
    a. Which linguistic codes does the masculine group use more frequently?
    b. Which linguistic codes does the feminine group use more frequently?
    c. Which linguistic codes does the androgynous group use more frequently?
    d. Which linguistic codes does the undifferentiated group use more frequently?

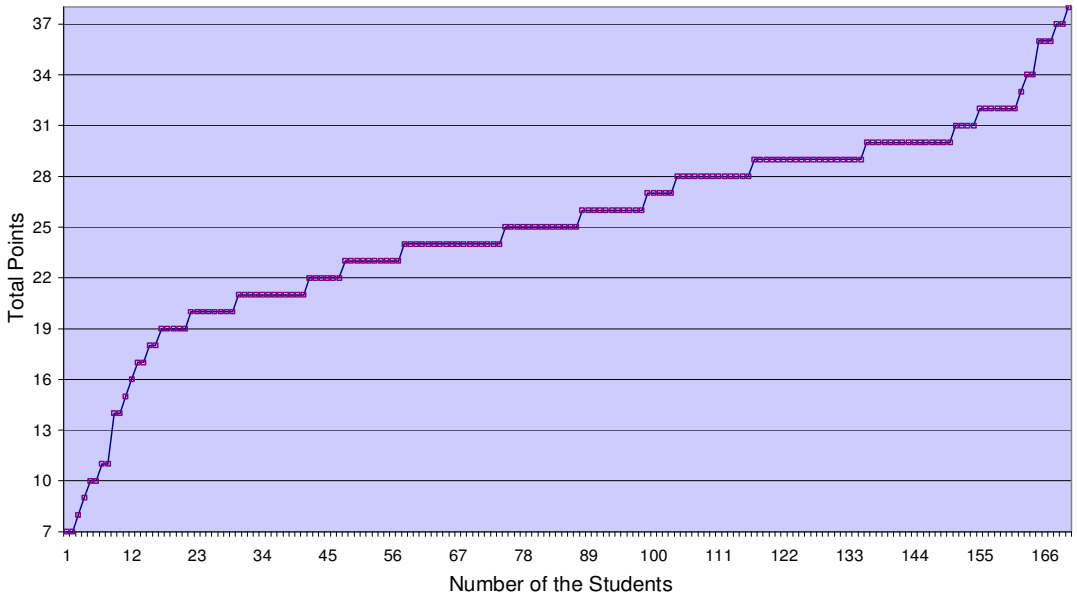
3. How do the participants make use of male and female preferential linguistic codes in their compositions according to the topic?
    a. Are the female-preferential variables used more frequently in a descriptive/expressive topic?
    b. Are the male-preferential variables used more frequently in a debatable/controversial topic?

1.5. METHODOLOGY

1.5.1. Participants

35 male and 35 female students who are having education at the 7th and 8th grades at Bahçeleriçi Primary School in 2007-2008 academic year, one of the most prominent state primary schools in central Amasya, participated in the study. Their ages varied between 13 and 14 which are viewed as a transition period between childhood and puberty. These students were selected according to their socio-economic backgrounds and the marks in their Turkish lessons. A demographics questionnaire was also prepared in accordance with the questionnaires used by E. Aydın (1999) and Damarlı (2006) (see Appendix-1). The results of the questionnaire were calculated in the excel program, the answers of each question were given points, and summed up, then the median (*m*=25) was found. Figure-1 shows the general distribution of the students according to the questionnaire results:

Figure-1 Distribution of the Socio-Economic Questionnaire Scores



Seventy students, who got the points at around the median, thus have nearly the same socio-economic background (medium stratum) and academic

success, were selected randomly. Therefore, the subjects show a homogenous structure. Turkish is the native tongue of all participants, and they have a mean age of 13, 50 years (females=13.51, males=13.49).

1.5.2. The Individual Difference Measure

Previous literature indicates that it is not enough to know whether a person is male or female. In addition to her/his biological gender one should also take into consideration how gender-typed she/he is. In this study, the students were asked to complete the Turkish version of the 60-item Bem's Sex Role Inventory in order to measure the individual differences in terms of their psychological gender role orientation. Bem's Sex Role Inventory (henceforth BSRI) consists of 20 masculine (e.g., saldırgan/aggressive), 20 feminine (e.g., sadık/loyal), and 20 neutral (e.g., güvenilir/reliable) items (see Appendix-2). Students were asked to rate themselves along a 7 point scale, according to how true each adjective was in describing themselves.

Bem defines her Sex Role Inventory as "an instrument that identifies sex-typed individuals on the basis of their self-concepts or self-ratings of their personal attributes" (1981:354) which in turn may mislead the researcher. In other words, it is questionable whether people's actual behaviors are predictable from self-reported likelihoods of engaging in behaviors. Especially with respect to the teenagers, who are in a transition period, they may not reflect their own personal thoughts of themselves but to show just what they want to be. In order to diminish such a limitation we applied the BSRI two times to the same students after a two-week interval to check the test's reliability, and we got consistent results.

1.5.3. Stimulus Materials

In order to find out the differences in writing styles of teenagers which is triggered by their genders, the participants were given two topics, and asked to

write compositions for about 40 minutes on each topic. The first topic is a descriptive and expressive one. It is “Hayalinizdeki ideal arkadaşla ilgili duygularınızı ifade eden bir kompozisyon yazınız” (Write a composition that expresses your feelings about the ideal friend in your dreams). This topic is in the form of personal narration, thus as Rubin& Greene explains, it can be “a vehicle especially well suited for female-typical modes of understanding and influencing the world” (1992:12). Since this topic covers imagination, senses and personally perceived experiences or relationships (http://www.essay-paper.net/descriptive_essay.html), we hypothesized that it would be more likely to elicit the linguistic devices like references to emotion or third person pronouns from the students which were the characteristics of female preferential language.

On the other hand, the second topic is a more politic and debatable issue. It is “Küresel ısınma nedir? Küresel ısınmanın Türkiye’ye zararları nelerdir? Bu zararları önlemek için sizce neler yapılmalıdır? Bu konuyla ilgili görüşlerinizi kompozisyon bütünlüğü içerisinde açıklayınız” (What is global warming? What are the damages of global warming on Turkey? What must be done in order to prevent these damages in your opinion? Explain your views in a composition style of arrangement). For Rubin& Greene (1992:13), the argumentative type of writing embodies “a male-typical mode of confronting positions”. Stating one’s views on global warming requires the writer to convince the reader that one’s position is a better one by reasoning, giving definite facts or arriving at a conclusion based on evidences, therefore it is more likely to elicit the male-preferential language devices like illustratives or references to quantity or place from the students. These topics were selected and put into words by taking the students’ age, ability and interest into account with the help of the Turkish teachers.

1.5.4. Data Collection Procedure

After taking permission from the school administration, students were given brief information about the procedure and content of the study. 7th and 8th graders completed a short demographics questionnaire including questions about their socio-economic background, age, Turkish lesson marks and gender with the leadership of the Psychological Counselling and Guidance teacher of the school. Then, students wrote the compositions with a month interval; one lesson hour (40 minutes) was given by the teachers for each topic. The students were instructed that these compositions would be evaluated as a part of their performance mark by their Turkish teachers so that they were encouraged to write whatever they think on each topic with obeying the composition writing rules that they learned in Turkish courses. According to the socio-economic questionnaire results, some of the compositions were eliminated, and as a last step BSRI was applied to the selected 70 students. These students were asked to complete BSRI two weeks later for the test-retest reliability.

1.5.5. Linguistic Coding

To assess the use of gender-preferential language in passages describing ideal friend and views on global warming, we used 14 linguistic variables which had previously been shown empirically to differentiate between females' and males' communication. Mulac, Bradac& Gibbons (2001:124) define these variables as the "features that clearly and consistently were found, across studies, to be used more by male than by female communicators" and vice versa. The coding model was basically adapted from the study of Janssen& Murachver (2004b). In their model they presented twenty language items such as personal information, self-derogatory statements, positive comments about a third person, hedges, second person pronouns, opinions, humour or sarcasm, qualifiers and nonessentials. Among these, twelve (references to emotion, intensifiers, questions, third-person pronouns, first-person pronouns, references to quantity

or place, illustratives, focus adverbials, adjectives, metaphor or simile and errors) were included in the current study, and some alterations were made when required in order to adapt Turkish language structure. Different from theirs, the place references were examined as a separate variable under the heading of 'locatives' in accordance with the studies of Janssen& Murachver (2004a) and Mulac, Bradac& Gibbons (2001). Since the variable 'hedge' consists of various items and different researchers examined different codes under the heading of hedge, it would be difficult to include all of them. Thus, in order to limit this variable it was changed as 'uncertainty expressions' including four sub-variables by making use of the studies of Crosby& Nyquist 1977, Mulac, Studley& Blau (1990), Poole (1975), Rubin& Greene (1995) and Rubin& Nelson (1983). As an opposite variable, 'expressions of certainty' including four sub-variables was added in accordance with the views of Lakoff (1975) and Coates (1986).

The variables were labelled as either female-preferential (FP) or male-preferential (MP) according to the findings of past research, e.g. Mulac, Studley& Blau 1990, Poole 1979; Rubin& Greene 1992. Accordingly, the references to emotion, questions, qualificative adjectives, intensifiers, third person references and expressions of uncertainty are the female-preferential linguistic variables which will be used more the female subjects while the references to quantity, illustratives, errors, locatives, focus adverbials, first person references and expressions of certainty are the male-preferential linguistic variables which will be preferred more by the male subjects. Moreover, we anticipated that the FP variables will be more frequently used in the ideal friend passages both by the male and female subjects whereas MP codes will be more frequently used in the global warming passages.

In order to avoid any miscoding due to lexical and grammatical differences between Turkish and English, first the linguistic categories were translated, defined and exemplified elaborately. Since in Turkish most of the words may gain different meanings in different contexts, before finding the Turkish

equivalents of these linguistic codes and content analyzing the passages, the studies carried out by Turkish writers were examined. In this research, the following studies were reviewed for the purpose of the study: Csato 1988; Göksel& Özsoy 2003; Güven 2001; Hacıeminoğlu 1968; İpek 2005; Kocaman 1988; Kornfilt 1997; Lewis 2000; Ruhi 2002; Ruhi, Zeyrek,& Osam 1997; Şener& İşsever 2003; Taylan 2001; Yarar 2001, 2002; Yükseker 2003. The linguistic codes that are adapted for Turkish language are presented below:

1.5.5.1. Female-Preferential Linguistic Variables

References to emotion: Expressions which are used to denote the basic emotions of happiness, love, anger, sadness, fear and surprise as well as the complex emotions of hate, loneliness, worry, regret, guilt, jealousy, etc. were called references to emotion in the study. (Allen& Haccoun 1976; Fabes& Martin 1991). Some examples in Turkish which express emotionality are *üzülmek* (to feel sorry)*, kızmak* (to get angry)*, mutlu olmak* (to be happy)*, sevmek* (to love)*,* etc.

Questions: All kinds of interrogative sentences, which mostly end with a question mark, basically requesting for information, and also including rhetorical and tag questions, were involved in the analyses. In Turkish we usually form questions with the help of wh-question words (5N 1K words) such as *ne, neyi* (what), *nereye, nerede* (where), *nasıl* (how), *kim* (who), *kimi* (whom), *hangi* (which), *ne zaman* (when/what time), *kaç* (how many/much) as well as yes-no questions using the interrogative particle *mI* (Doğan 2007; Underhill 1987). For example, *Hangi kitabı okuyorsun?* (Which book are you reading?); *Kitabımı gördün mü?* (Did you see my book?). The rhetorical questions don't seek for any reply such as *Bu havada dondurma yenilir mi?* (How can one eat ice-cream in this weather? *-expressing disapproval meaning* "is it reasonable to eat ice cream in such a bad weather")*,* and tag questions are constructed by adding the expression "*değil mi?*" at the end of the sentence (Keskin 2003) *(e.g. İstanbul güzel, değil mi?* / İstanbul is beautiful, isn't it?).

Qualificative adjectives: The words that qualify/modify the nouns by specifying their inner or outer characteristics like condition, shape, age, size, attitude, place, colour, taste, smell, capability or habit of them (Korkmaz 2003; Özünlü 1984) are called qualificative adjectives in Turkish. The qualificative adjectives shortly denote how the nouns are by answering the question of "how" (Altun 2007). Some of the Turkish qualificative adjectives are *tahta* masa/*wooden table, dayanılmaz sıcaklık/unbearable heat, kırmızı güller/red roses, ihtiyar çoban/old shepherd, alıngan insanlar/touchy people* and so on.

Intensifiers: Intensifiers are the words that reinforce the meaning of the following word by denoting superiority, intensity and abundance. The basic intensifiers that are commonly used in previous studies are "very, so, too, really, a lot, quite, right too, strongly" (Janseen& Murachver 2004a, 2004b; Mulac, Bradac& Gibbons 2001; Mulac et al. 1988; Rubin& Nelson 1983; Rubin& Greene 1992). For our Turkish corpus, we selected the intensive adverbs like "*çok (very, so, too), pek (quite, too), en (most), daha (more)*," which correspond to their English equivalents as well as some other words which were found to emphasize or intensify the meaning in the context they were used such as *epey (many, much, quite), gayet (very), hiç (any, not at all), oldukça (pretty, quite), gerçekten (really), iyice (greatly, really)* and so on (Korkmaz 2003; Yarar 2002).

Metaphor and simile: Metaphor and simile are two items of the figurative language that describe a comparison between two things. While a metaphor makes an implied comparison of two unlike things which result in a complex relationship of word and meaning (e.g. Jim's head is full of rocks), a simile makes the comparison explicitly by using the words *like* or *as* that corresponds to the *gibi* particle in Turkish (Carter et al. 1997; Kilecioğlu 2001) (e.g. drinking like a fish, as sweet as honey). An example to the metaphor from Turkish can be given as *ömrümün hazanı* (the fall of my life) which refers to the old age, and a simile can be exemplified with the phrase a*y gibi parlak yüz* (the face as shiny as a moon).

3rd person references: All 3rd person pronouns including the ones with inflectional suffixes which were used overtly in the sentences (e.g. she, their, him, herself) (Lewis 2000) were included in the study. The following table shows the Turkish 3rd person references in relation to the case markers:

Table-1 Third Person References in Turkish

Case Markers	Singular 3rd P.	Plural 3rd P.	Reflexives
Nominative	O	Onlar	Kendi/-leri
Accusative	Onu	Onları	Kendini/-lerini
Genitive	Onun	Onların	Kendinin/-lerinin
Dative	Ona	Onlara	Kendine/-lerine
Locative	Onda	Onlarda	Kendinde/-lerinde
Ablative	Ondan	Onlardan	Kendinden/-lerinden

(Adapted from Kornfilt 1997)

Expressions of uncertainty: This category involves four sub-categories. The first one is **the potential mood *–Ebil*** which has different functions in discourse such as the ability, possibility or permission functions (Güven 2001; Özsoy 1999) that can be exemplified as *olabilir (it can/may be), olamaz (it cannot/ may not be)*. The second one is **the lexical modal markers** such as *galiba/probably, ola ki/may be, herhalde/in any case, belki/perhaps, nerdeyse/almost* (Güven 2001; Kocaman 1988; Ruhi, Zeyrek,& Osam 1997) that assign indefiniteness and ambiguity to the expression. Third, **the possibility predicates** like *mümkün/possible, olanaklı/possible, olası/likely* (Kocaman 1988; Yarar 2002), and fourth, **the optative (subjunctive)** that expresses a wish for something to come about (Kornfilt 1997), and that involves the speaker in the suggested action (Coates 1986:107) by adding the suffix –(y)E to the verbs. The optative can be illustrated with the following table:

Table-2 The Optative in Turkish

verb	*1st P. Sng.*	*2nd P Sng.*	*3rd P. Sng.*	*1st P. Plr.*	*2nd P. Plr.*	*3rd P. Plr.*
Gitmek (Go)	gideyim	gidesin	Gitsin or Gide	gidelim	Gidesiniz	Gitsinler or gideler

(Adapted from Underhill 1987)

These expressions make the statements more subjective and indicate lack of confidence by decreasing the statements' declarative force, since women are believed to be more reluctant to force their views on other people (Lakoff 1975; Newman et al., in press) thus, they are considered to be hedges or softeners by some researchers (Mulac, Studley& Blau 1990; Rubin& Greene 1995; Yarar 2001).

1.5.5.2. Male-Preferential Linguistic Variables

References to quantity: The words or phrases which refer to the amount of things are called quantity references in the present study such as *2'5 tall, $40, or most of the area*. When Turkish is considered, in addition to the number words, (e.g. 5 ton su/5 tons of water, iki arkadaş/two friends) or numerical expressions (e.g. yarı/half, yarım/half, çeyrek/quarter, buçuk/half or yüzde/percentage) (Underhill 1987) which directly refer to the quantity of things, the quantifiers were also included in the study, which show the amount of things clearly in the context they are used and answer the questions *kaç?* (how many/many) and *ne kadar?* (how much). Some of them can be exemplified as *biraz* (a little), *birçok* (many-a lot), *birkaç* (a few*), her bir* (each-every) and so on (Csato 1988; Kornfilt 1997; Lewis 2000; Özsoy 1999; Yükseker 2003).

Illustratives: Words or phrases that are used to give examples are titled as illustratives in our study. The most common illustratives in Turkish are *örneğin* and *mesela* (for example, for instance). There are also some less commonly used phrases in Turkish which can also be put into the category of illustratives, and refer to the same meaning such as *örnek olarak, söz gelimi* and *diyelim ki.*

Errors: Any lexical form that is not accepted to be standard Turkish is considered to be in the error category. While checking the correct forms of words the following sources are made use of whenever necessary: Aksoy 1996; Püsküllüoğlu 2004, Turkish Language Association Online Orthography Guide 2008 and Yeniçeri 2005.

Locatives: References indicating the location or position of objects, in addition to the other geographical names and references are accepted to be locatives in our study (e.g. in the background, next to the window, America). In Turkish, the locative case suffix -DE is used basically "to indicate at which an action occurs, or the place at, in, or which an object is located" (Underhill 1987:79) (e.g. evde/at home, sınıfta/ in the classroom, kuzey kutbunda/ in the North Pole). Additionally, the place adverbials such as *bura/here, şura/this-that place, ora/that place, iç(eri)/inside-into, dış(arı)/outside-out, yukarı/above-over, aşağı/down-below, sağ/right, sol/left, üst/on, alt/under, ön/front, arka/back, yan/beside-next, karşı/opposite, üzeri/on, ara(sı)/between, civar/around-near* were also included in the study which may exist in the absolute, locative or dative forms, and even in possessive, objective or genitive forms (Doğan 2007; Lewis 2000; Kornfilt 1997; Underhill 1987; Yarar 2002).

Focus adverbials: Words that are used to narrow or direct the focus of a statement such as only, even, precisely, mostly, just, in addition, at least, at most, predominantly, simply (Janssen& Murachver 2004b) are gathered under the title of focus adverbials. In Turkish some examples of focus particles can be given as follows: *yalnızca* (only, simply)*, sadece* (just, only)*, bile* (even), *dahi* (even)*, da* (also), *tek* (only, just), *hatta* (even), *ne…ne* (neither..nor), *çoğunlukla* (mostly*), özellikle* (particularly)*,* and so on (Göksel& Özsoy 2003; Hacıeminoğlu 1968; İpek 2005; Korkmaz 2003; Şener& İşsever 2003; Taylan 2001).

1st person references: All overt expressions of first person pronouns including the ones with case inflections (e.g. I, we my, us, myself) (Lewis 2000) were

included in the study. The following table presents the Turkish 1st person references in relation to the case markers:

Table-3 First Person References in Turkish

Case Markers	Singular 1st P.	Plural 1st P.	Reflexives
Nominative	Ben	Biz	Kendim/-iz
Accusative	Beni	Bizi	Kendimi/-izi
Dative	Bana	Bize	Kendime/-ize
Locative	Bende	Bizde	Kendimde/-izde
Ablative	Benden	Bizden	Kendimden/-izden
Genitive	Benim	Bizim	Kendimin/-izin

(Adapted from Kornfilt 1997)

Expressions of Certainty: This category consists of four subtitles, first, **the debitive mood *–mElI*** which generally expresses obligation to do something such as *olmalı (it must/has to/should be),* or prohibition with its negative use such as *olmamalı (it mustn't/shouldn't be)*. The second one is **the lexical modal markers** such as *mutlaka/by all means, kesinlikle/definitely, zorunlu/necessary, sakın/beware, şüphesiz/undoubtedly, kuşkusuz/doubtless* (Kocaman 1988; Ruhi 2002; Ruhi, Zeyrek,& Osam 1997) which assign certainty and declarative force to the expression. Thirdly, **the predicates** that indicate obligation such as *lazım/necessary, gerek(li)/required, mecbur/obliged to, şart/essential* (Özsoy 1999), and fourth, **the directives** (imperatives) which are the speech acts that are used to get somebody to do something or to impose things to others (Coates 1986) (e.g. dur(un-uz)/stop, çiçeğe dokunma(yın-ız)/don't touch the flower).

1.5.6. Analyses

The passages written by the students were content analyzed in terms of the 14 gender-discriminating language features described above, and their frequencies were counted by hand. The data were first entered on the computer with the

excel program, and the frequencies and the percentages were calculated. The statistical values of the linguistic codes were identified using the SPSS (Statistical Program for Social Sciences), and a comparison of the frequencies was done between the genders of the writer and the sex role characteristics of them as well as the topic of writing via the Chi-square (X^2) analysis. The statistical values that are below the $p<0.05$ level were considered to be worth commenting on. Each student was given a number from 1 to 70, rather than identifying by their names, so that students from number 1 to 35 were males, and from 36 to 70 are females throughout the study.

CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. GENDER RELATED CONCEPTS

2.1.1. Gender Socialization and Stereotypes

Gender differentiation occurs gradually as children learn to be masculine or feminine according to culturally settled gender identification expectations and their interpretations of them (Trepanier-Street, Romatowski,& McNair 1990). “When a new-born child is identified on the basis of anatomy as either a girl or a boy, it is only the beginning of a long process of induction in which it will learn quite contrasting kinds of gender role and identity” (Montgomery 1995:148). An individual’s own feelings and consciousness of whether she/he is a woman or a man, a girl or a boy constructs the gender identity of that person; and the set of expectations about the behaviours considered to be appropriate for each gender constructs the gender role of individuals (Garrett 1992:20). Gender role and sex role can be used interchangeably in the terminology.

Gender identity is a significant part of the individual’s own identity, and it begins to develop long before puberty (probably around 3-4 years of age). During childhood girls and boys learn to distinguish themselves with one group or the other by demonstrating their membership of the group with their use of sex-appropriate behaviour, which includes “sex-appropriate linguistic behaviour”. This process of learning how to be a proper girl or a proper boy is the attainment of gender identity (Coates 1986:122). When children enter the early adolescence period, their concept of gender role has already developed thoroughly (Huston-Stein& Welch 1995:256). During the puberty period the individual makes adjustments about what kind of a woman or man she/he is,

and this process of adjustment continues afterwards in each life period with another dimension (Dökmen 2004:13).

Socialization, including gender socialization, manifests itself via specific agents that starts with linguistic labels, including the infant's own name, and continues with parents, peers, toys, clothes, hairstyles, media (television programmes and advertisements), teachers, education, curriculum, textbooks and other social institutions (Archer& Lloyd 1985; Lindsey 2005; Zammuner 1987), all of which provide children the information they need to act in society. Lindsey (2005:73) defines socialization as a process by which individuals learn culture and become performing social members, and gender socialization as the "expected cultural behaviours related to masculinity and femininity". Considering the fact that "learning to speak is learning to be a member of a particular culture" (Coates 1986:121), socialization plays a vital role in acquiring gender appropriate language.

Tannen (1986) who believes that women and men have passed through different experiences in the socialization process, expresses that adults behave differently to male and female children from the babyhood, and they use different speech styles while they are speaking with them, and as a result boys and girls acquire different types of behaviour and speech even though they grow up in the same house. Since boys and girls socialize in different sub-cultures, they develop two distinct speech styles and when they become adults, they interpret the same message in different ways with their pre-formed separate speech rules (cited in König 1992:32). This view is supported by other findings; for example Key (1975) talks about concrete evidences which prove that adults talk differently to male and female children, likewise, for Gleason (1990), adults utter more negative statements and prohibitions to boys than to girls. According to the findings of Lewis& Cherry (1977), at the age of two female infants are subjected to more questions while male infants receive more directives, or mothers are more repetitive, approve more child answers and take

more turns with their female infants; shortly daughters are addressed to more maternal utterances of a longer length (cited in Owens 1996:186).

According to König (1992:31), children learn to communicate with others between the ages of 5 to 15 not from their parents, but from their peers. In this period, children usually select their friends from their own genders, thus acquire varied types of speech by proceeding through different socialization processes (König 1992:31). At the period of puberty, adolescents move away from their family "to replace an ascriptive identity based on place in the family with the one based on their characteristics as individuals in relation to a broader society" (Açıkalın 1989:8). As stated by Walt and Fasold (1974), "how the parents speak has little effect on their language, because adolescent norms are determined usually by the peer reference group" (qtd. in Açıkalın 1989:8). Uchida (1998) emphasizes the role of socialization with both same- and cross-sex peers stating that

> No matter how much time children spend interacting with their same-sex peers, they are not completely segregated from the other sex. While they're learning the rules for friendly conversation from their peers, they are also open to the pattern of interaction of their opposite-sex peers, to that between their parents, and other various conversations, real or fictional. They internalize the culturally prescribed sex-role stereotypes, learning how girls and boys are supposed to differ in the ways they behave and interact (1998:283-284).

In the course of socialization girls and boys learn to differentiate various objects, activities, games, professions and even personality characteristics to be appropriate or inappropriate for their gender roles (Dökmen 2004:16). As they acquire this information about the world and their roles in it, they also acquire gender or sex role stereotypes. Gender/sex role stereotypes are the pre-formed sets of beliefs about the personal features of women and men. These beliefs are "normative" in a sense since they entail the idea that gender-linked traits are both present and desirable (Basow 1992:3).

Then, what are these gender stereotypes of women and men? Masculinity is generally connected to "competency, instrumentality, and activity", while femininity calls to mind "warmth, expressiveness, and nurturance" (Basow 1992:4). Basow adds that women are marked as *communal*, namely, *other-oriented*, and men are seen *agentic*, namely, *achievement-oriented* (1992:4). Broverman et al. list the common stereotypes in a table. For example, women are described as emotional, subjective, home-oriented, dependent, gentle, tactful, passive, enjoying art and literature, on the other hand, men are characterized as aggressive, objective, worldly, independent, rough, blunt, active, and competitive (1972:63). This list goes on with many other stereotypic sex role descriptors ascribed to women and men. Broverman et al. conclude that "women are perceived as relatively less competent, less independent, less objective, and less logical than men; men are perceived as lacking interpersonal sensitivity, warmth, and expressiveness in comparison to women" (1972:75). These stereotypes can be considered as the same in Turkey. While women are expected to be emotional, attractive, devoted, practical, patient, elegant, good-mannered, loyal, obedient, productive, graceful, men are expected to be independent, brave, durable, strong, self-confident, determined, honourable, enterprising, cool, bossy, and so on (Altan 1993, cited in Dökmen 2004:113). Having examined the stereotypical gender roles in Turkish society, Girginer (1994:106) also concludes that the traditional roles that are generally defined for women and men show similarities with the roles that of our society. For instance, child-rearing and house-works are seen as womanly roles, while making decisions concerning the financial conditions of the house are perceived as manly roles.

Society has some sanctions on its participants which are differentiated according to the genders, prescribing dos and don'ts, and these sanctions operate along the socialization. When a little girl "talks rough" like a boy, she is generally blamed or censured, and "in this way society, in the form of a child's parents and friends, keeps her in line, in her place" (Lakoff 1975:5).

Expressions like ‘Little girls don’t say that’ mean that children are taught the sex-appropriateness of some linguistic items. Key (1975:63) asserts that even nursery rhymes, fairy tales as well as the toys, colours of clothes and play equipment establish behaviour differences. Maltz& Borker (1982) state that football teaches boys to be assertive and competitive while the games that girls play such as jump rope and house reinforce cooperation and responsiveness to others (cited in Wood 1996:12). “Communication in schools further fortifies social views of the sexes by rewarding girls for being cooperative and quiet and boys for competing and asserting themselves” (Wood 1996:13). Course books studied at schools were also found to include gender ideologies which reinforce gender stereotyping (Arslan 2000; Girginer 1994; Helvacıoğlu 1996; Özdoğru et al. 2004; Sivaslıgil 2006). For example, the stereotypic pictures or playing activities revealed that there is a strong tendency towards representing women as a housewife doing housework of all kinds, on the other hand man earns money, he is a wise father; he watches TV, reads and repairs. While girls are tidy and docile, help their mother, play with their dolls, boys are untidy and naughty; they help their father and play with their ball (Kaya 2003). As children grow up, these stereotypes establish firmly as the inconvertible beliefs of adolescents’ self-concept. Passing through such a process it would be inevitable to think that girls’ and boys’ (hence men’s and women’s) language differs.

2.1.2. Approaches to Gender

Dökmen (2004) mentions about several theories such as Psychoanalytic Theory, Biological Theory, Socio-biological Theory, Social Learning Theory, Social Cognitive Theory, Gender Schema Theory, Social Role Theory, Self-presentation Theory and Multi-factorial Gender Identity Theory all of which aim to explain gender, its acquisition and gender differences from their own point of view.

Among these theories, Archer& Lloyd (1985) mention about two leading theoretical perspectives which they think that efforts to answer the question of how stereotypical messages are transmitted to the children have usually pursued one of them, namely, social learning and cognitive developmental perspectives. The social-learning approach is based on the behaviourist school's principles of classical and operant conditioning, observation, imitation, reward and punishment, through which gender-appropriate responses are learned. The cognitive developmental approach, on the other hand bases on the interactionist theory, integrating nature and nurture. In this view the children are the active agents of learning and organizing their behaviours constantly in accordance with their gender identity which is in interaction with their environment.

Gender Schema Theory, proposed by Sandra Lipsitz Bem (1981) is the combination of the tenets of social learning and cognitive development theories which should be added as the third influential theory in explaining how children acquire sex-related thoughts and behaviours. According to the Gender Schema Theory, sex-typing derives from the child's being ready to code and organize all the information including the child's self-concept, in accordance with the culture's definition of being a women and a man. In this sense it resembles cognitive developmental theory. Additionally, it basically accepts that sex-typing is a learned process that can be avoided and changed. In this sense it resembles the social learning theory (Dökmen 2004:64).

Schemas are the cognitive structures, and they are the networks of associations that organize and direct the individual's perceptions. With the help of these developing schemas the child learns to codify and arrange the new information systematically (Dökmen 2004:65). Sex-typing, in Bem's words, "is the process through which a culture transforms male and female children into masculine and feminine adults" (1987:251). In the course of sex-typing the child learns to categorize the "skills, personality attributes, behaviours, and self-concepts prescribed by the culture as appropriate for his or her sex" (1987:251). The

children who grow up in a society which reinforces the differences between women and men will inevitably learn to process information about their own selves, the others and even the objects and events according to these sex associations (Dökmen 2004:66). As a result, while some individuals portray higher instrumental-active traits and lower nurturant-expressive traits who are called masculine-sex typed, some others can be high on nurturant-expressive traits and low on instrumental-active traits who are called feminine-sex typed. In addition to these types there are some others called undifferentiated who got low on both sorts of traits, and androgynous individuals who got high on both traits. Androgynous people are considered to act more flexible and display more harmonious gender role behaviours in several conditions. This fourfold typology is important in the sense that it separates biological gender from psychological gender (Basow 1992:12-13).

According to Levy, Barth& Zimmerman (1998), gender/sex role development is multi-directed, thus for a better explanation of gender role development, more than one theory should be considered rather than relaying on just one theory, since each of them has points that it can and cannot explain (qtd. in Dökmen 2004:93-94).

2.1.3. Biological Gender and Psychological Gender

Knowing that someone is male or female isn't always enough to make judgements about them, since as West& Zimmerman argue gender is not something we are, but it is something we do. They maintain that "gender is not a set of traits, nor a variable, nor a role, but the product of social doings of some sort" (1987:129). Likewise, Eckert& McConnel-Ginet see gender as something humans do or perform in a complicated array of social practices rather than seeing it as something static that speakers have, and that can be analyzed either in isolation from other aspects of social identity or in interaction with them (1992:484). People act differently in different situations, and how they enact their gender may depend on many factors such as the current environment, the

participants, interlocutors, personal needs and motives and the characteristics of the communicators. Communication styles are one of the ways individuals portray their gender. Thus, before exploring gender-linked impacts on language use in communication, displays of gender beyond biological sex should be studied, and a further examination of gender is needed.

Because sex differences are apparent, they are habitually assumed as the independent variable which is connected to the linguistic variables, however, most of the time, they are taken for granted to be 'gender' differences without any attention to gender roles in the community (Chambers 2003:118). Claiming that there are gender differences in particular areas doesn't mean that all members of a gender category manifest similar behaviours all the time. Each person within a gender category has their own idiosyncrasies such as personality traits, self-concepts, experiences, beliefs or standpoints related to gender. According to Bem (1974) individuals are supposed to adopt the culturally allocated roles of men and women in a given society, but not everybody does so to the same extent, rather they may "hold varying positions on continua of femininity and masculinity, irrespective of their biological sex" (qtd. in Janssen& Murachver 2004b:347). Thus, most of the researchers now emphasize that in addition to the biological sex, one needs to know how gender typed they are, their attitudes toward each gender category, and their sexual orientation all of which are potential contributors to gender displays (Janssen& Murachver 2004b; Carothers& Allen 1999; Kim& Aune 1997; Wells 1989). Davies (1999:49) reports that some biological males can be socialized as female and vice versa, and that male-female distinction is never absolute. Janssen& Murachver (2004b:345) state that

> Gender is a biological category. It is also a way of being. In the first instance, gender is physical. In the second, the emphasis is on the psychological. Often the two are related—but not always.

Biological gender is most of the time used interchangeably with biological sex, but for some researchers they differ. Kim& Aune (1997) state that they prefer to

use biological gender to refer to the two groups designated by biological distinctions (i.e., women/girls/females vs. men/boys/males), and psychological gender when referring to the general social structure of characteristics and relationships of those two groups. According to Rubin (2007), “some authors would say that even biology is socially constructed, therefore the matter of chromosomal sex should still be considered a kind of gender, not sex” (e-mail from D. Rubin, 7 August 2007). Likewise, Murachver (2008) thinks that “some English speakers might want to use the term "gender" even when referring to something that is biologically-based, because the term "sex" refers both to a biologically-determined category of female or male AND the activity of sexual intercourse. It certainly is helpful to be able to talk about being biologically female or male without having to use a term so strongly associated with a behaviour that isn't very relevant” (e-mail from T. Murachver, 10 February 2008).

Several studies revealed that psychological gender predicts behaviour more than biological sex. Carothers& Allen (1999), for instance, found that environmental factors such as employment and social role pressures in addition to the gender-role characteristics contribute to the use of influence tactics above the effects of biological gender. Similarly, Drass (1986) observed that regardless of the person’s sex, the more male like a person’s gender definition, the greater the risk that the person overlaps or interrupts the speech of another. Wells (1989) also found that sexual orientation of people influence their use of words related to sex. Kim& Aune (1997) showed that regardless of their biological sex, participants’ concern for conversational constraints changed according to their gender-role orientation gauged by Bem’s Sex Role Inventory. These entire findings made us suspect that psychological gender, in addition to the biological gender, has an impact on language use. Setting out from the study of Janssen& Murachver (2004b), who found that although weak, psychological gender is a better predictor of written language use than is biological gender, this study seeks to find out if it plays a significant role in

determining the use of linguistic codes when teenagers are considered within Turkish context.

2.1.4. Bem's Sex Role Inventory

The Bem Sex Role Inventory which is one of the most favourite measurements used to determine the gender/sex roles is designed by Sandra L. Bem (1974, 1981) to assess the individuals' gender role perceptions. Bem bases her inventory on the Gender Schema Theory as explained in the previous section. It is a widely used instrument in psychology and other fields since it is based on the approach that views femininity and masculinity as a two-dimensional structure which are independent of each other (Dökmen 1999:28). It can reliably distinguish gender-schematic individuals from gender-aschematic ones (Schmitt& Millard 1988), and is able to supply a measure of androgyny, and has adequate psychometric properties (Holt& Ellis 1998). Psychologists have been engaged in measurement of masculinity and femininity since the 1930s. In the early measures it was assumed that masculinity and femininity lie along a single, bipolar dimension ranging from extreme masculinity at the one end to extreme femininity at the other. According to this approach masculinity and femininity are mutually exclusive, so that a person who is masculine is, by definition, not feminine (Dökmen 2004:69). Bem asserts that "masculinity and femininity are not two ends of the same spectrum, but rather two unrelated modes of behaviour" (Hovdesven 2006, http://www.associatedcontent.com/article/72057/bem_sex_role_inventory_can_you_measure.html). Drass, who rejects putting maleness and femaleness into a classic categorical distinction, also sees it as a continuum of meaning along which individuals vary in terms of self-definition, and asserts that "an individual's location along this continuum should reflect his/her history of interaction with others, particularly important agents of socialization in society" (1986:300). Therefore, unlike the previous scales, an individual can take place both in femininity and masculinity dimensions. Namely, individuals may differ in the extent to which they subscribe to traditional definitions of gender. For instance, while some individuals are sex-

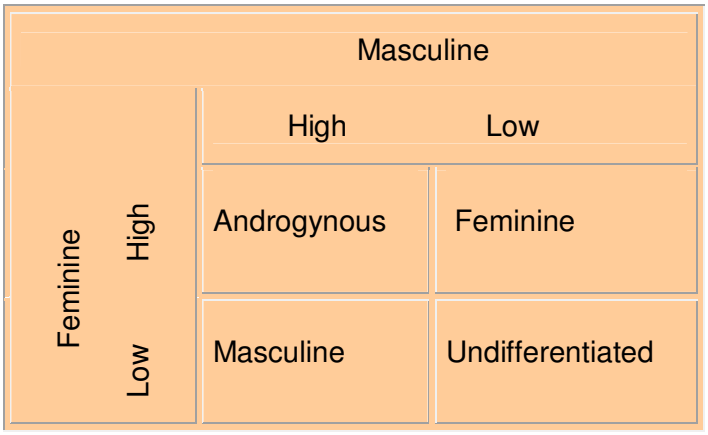
typed (masculine men, feminine women), some others are cross-gendered (masculine women, feminine men), or the others are aschematic or non-sex-typed (Bem 1981).

The BSRI consists of a list of 60 personality traits including twenty feminine, twenty masculine and twenty neutral characteristics. These traits were selected by Bem and her students among 400 traits according to the ratings of males and females, that is, if both males and females assessed a given trait significantly more desirable for one sex-type (Hovdesven 2006, http://www.associatedcontent.com/article/72057/bem_sex_role_inventory_can_you_measure.html). The items which were found to be masculine traits are *independent, assertive, strong personality, forceful, defend my own beliefs, have leadership qualities, willing to take risks, dominant, willing to take a stand, aggressive, self-reliant, athletic, analytical, make decisions easily, self sufficient, individualistic, masculine, competitive, ambitious, act as a leader*; while the feminine traits are *affectionate, sympathetic, sensitive to needs of others, understanding, compassionate eager to soothe hurt feelings, warm, tender, love children, gentle, yielding, cheerful, shy, flatterable, loyal, soft-spoken, gullible, childlike, do not use harsh language, feminine*. In addition to these, ten positively valued and ten negatively valued socially desirable items were chosen as the neutral characteristics which are *conscientious, moody, reliable, jealous, truthful, secretive, adaptable, conceited, tactful, conventional, helpful, unsystematic, inefficient, theatrical, happy, unpredictable, solemn, likeable, sincere*, and *friendly*. As a self-administered test, when taking the BSRI, a person is asked to indicate on a 7-point scale, how much each of the 60 characteristics they believe to describe herself or himself. The scale ranges from 1 ("Never or almost never true") to 7 (Always or almost always true") (see Appendix-2).

“The concept of gender-role classification involves a personality-trait-like categorization of a person” (Santrock 2005:217). According to the test results the individuals are categorised into four gender roles, namely, feminine,

masculine, androgynous and undifferentiated. If the score is high in masculinity and low in femininity, then one is considered to be masculine; if it is low in masculinity and high in femininity, then one is feminine; if the score is high in both masculinity and femininity one is androgynous; and if the score is low in both masculinity and femininity one is called undifferentiated. Figure-2 displays the classification of the psychological gender roles which are gauged by the BSRI:

Figure-2 Gender Role Classification



(Adapted from Santrock 2005:216)

The first attempt in adjusting the BSRI for Turkish society was fulfilled by Kavuncu in 1987. She translated the adjectives into Turkish, and changed some of them which weren't appropriate for the Turkish culture with the help of a group of scholars (Kavuncu, 1987). In addition to the validity studies of BSRI conducted abroad (see Schmitt& Millard 1988), Dökmen (1999) who re-tested the reliability and validity of Kavuncu's Turkish form of BSRI with an age range of 13 to 66 found that it is reliable and valid enough to be used in Turkish culture. Lajunen& Özkan (2005) who studied the gender stereotypes in Turkish cultural context also made use of Kavuncu's BSRI and came up with similar findings. In the present study, Kavuncu's Turkish version of BSRI was used to assess the teenagers' gender role characteristics in order to find out how these roles are distributed and are related to their writing styles.

2.1.5. Genderlect and Gender Preferential Language Use

Either consciously or subconsciously, women and men make choices while speaking and writing; and when these choices are investigated empirically, some systematic results can be found out. The notion that there are gender-triggered differences which affect not only the content but also the style of language leads to a new term, namely, genderlect. For Stockwell (2002:16) genderlect refers to "the different lexical and grammatical choices that are characteristically made by men and women". Tannen (1990) who sees the communication between men and women as cross-cultural communication also mentions about genderlect instead of different dialects. On the contrary, Poynton (1989) who believes that there is no stereotype of how women and men speak, defines the term genderlect as a *postulated separateness.* She sees genderlect in the following terms:

> The genderlect interpretation, … simply aggregates all features that have been identified in the speech of women and men and postulates separate women's and men's languages, … even when this postulated separateness is seen as related to the different circumstances of men's and women's lives. The embarrassing fact is that women and men do not speak separate languages, that they all use the same linguistic resources, though undoubtedly with different frequencies in many cases (Poynton 1989: 68).

As clearly seen in the quotation, for Poynton it is not the words, phrases or other linguistic sources but only the frequencies of them which cause the difference. This description matches with the definition of Sara Mills who defines genderlect or sex-preferential usage as the "language choices which are made more frequently by one gender than another" (1995:207). Similarly, for Cheshire (2002, http://alpha.qmul.ac.uk/~uglv003/sex%20and%20gender.pdf) either women or men in a community use one variant more frequently than the other, and she calls it sex-preferential variation. Coates, too, name the variations in male/female language as sex-preferential differences, and she expounds that "while women's and men's language differs, there are no forms associated exclusively with one sex; rather there is a tendency for women and men to

prefer a certain form" (1986:40). It is generally stated that in pre-literate and non-industrialized societies where the sex roles are differentiated clearly there are more likely to be sex-exclusive linguistic differences. On the contrary, in the literate and highly industrialized societies where sex roles overlap or are much less rigidly structured, it is more common to observe sex preferential differences (Holmes 1991, cited in Davies 1999; Coates 1896).

Eckert& McConnel-Ginet (1992:464) has recently proposed to investigate the "community of practice" which they define as "an aggregate of people who come together around mutual engagement in an endeavour". According to them, the practices include the "ways of doing things, ways of talking, beliefs, values, power relations" which appear during that shared attempt while the communities include the families, teams, workplaces and so on (1992:464). In different communities of practice which individuals participate in, gender is generated and regenerated, therefore diversity in women's and men's language should be considered in terms of these communities. The view of community of practice gives further support to the gender-preferential language use of women and men which shows variations in different contexts. In other words, both women and men are capable of using various linguistic strategies and features within different contexts.

Since the previous studies demonstrated that both genders have tendencies to prefer particular usages more than the other in specific contexts, this study seeks to provide further evidence to gender preferential language use.

2.2. GENDER DIFFERENCES IN LANGUAGE USE

When the empirical literature is reviewed thoroughly (e.g. Mulac, Bradac & Gibbons 2001), gender differences in language use of women and men becomes clear. Lakoff (1975) is one of the first researchers who studied systematically the speech differences between women and men. She took attention in the literature by pointing to certain features she identifies as

women's talk which is also called the *deficit model.* Lakoff's identification of the features that she calls women's speech such as super polite forms, tag questions, indirect speech, expressions of uncertainty, hedges, rising intonation, intensifiers and expletives was later on either supported, added new points, criticized or refused at all by various researchers. Later on, in her book Women, Men and Language, Jennifer Coates (1986) took attention from these speech differences to communication differences. For her, women and men have different sets of norms for conversational interaction, while women's speech is based on cooperation, men's are based on competition; as a result women and men are parts of "distinct speech communities" (Coates 1986:177).

Another linguist Deborah Tannen (1990) who views gender differences in language similar to the cultural differences proposes the *cultural differences model.* Akin to the view of Coates, this model regards the differences as two distinct conversational styles both of which are equally valid. For example, in her bestseller book *You Just Don't Understand*, Tannen (1990) mentions about the differences between rapport and report styles of speech that she claims is derived from the different socialization of female and male children, which in turn result in miscommunication between women and men. Rapport talk, Tannen explains, is "a way of establishing connections and negotiating relationships" for most women, and report talk is "a means to preserve independence and negotiate and maintain status in a hierarchical social order" for most men (1990:77). Men and women adopt these diverse conversational styles because they are trained to perceive and operate spoken discourse differently as part of being socialized for different roles in society. Women are trained to look for connection in their interactions, they make an effort to get others to talk and to equalise speakers' turn, even downplaying their own subject knowledge in the process; on the contrary, men are trained to look for power in their interactions, they compete to control topics even when their own subject knowledge is poor (1990:95). According to Holmes (1993), there may be universals including that "females are more attentive to the affective function of conversation and more prone to use linguistic devices that solidify relationships"

(qtd in Argamon et. al 2003, http://www.cs.biu.ac.il/~koppel/papers/male-female-text-final.pdf). Women talk about their feelings and relationships, while men leap from topic to topic, competing to tell anecdotes about their achievements, but they hardly ever talk about their feelings or personal problems (Romaine 1994:124). As a result, when they are brought together in mixed-sex situations, they can contradict and cause misunderstandings because the participants are operating different rules.

These explanations are consistent with the notion that women and men generally act out their stereotypical gender roles when communicating. It is more likely for women to show socioemotional focus, using communication to initiate and carry on rapport and to express their feelings; however, men use communication as a medium to solve problems, discuss issues, express opinions and report facts (Janssen& Murachver 2004b:345).

The topics of the discourse that women and men prefer to talk about also differ. “Men focus their conversations more on sports, work, or issues external to the individual” (Aries 1987:162). Günay (1991:73) who makes a distinction of topic and word-groups between the speech of men and women in homogeneous groups, states that while women make use of the word-groups related to fashion, beauty, clothing, housework and child-rearing more frequently, the word-groups related to politics, drink, games, cars, trade, economy are more commonly, encountered in the language of men in Turkey. These topics point out the division of labour between women and men in Turkish society.

According to the questionnaire results of Tanrıtanır (2005:44), who makes a distinction between typical women-focused and men-focused expressions, statements like *bulaşık yıkamayı sevmiyorum* (I don’t like washing the dishes), *erkeklerin dünyası* (the world of men), *çok şirin* (so sweet), *ev işini sevmiyorum* (I don’t like housework), *çok kaba* (very rude), *sokakta rahat yürünmüyor* (one cannot walk freely on the street), *olur şekerim* (that’s okay honey) are found to be women-focused, whereas *beş tane oğlum var* (I have got five sons), *benimle*

evlenir misin? (will you marry me?), *kıyak fikir* (swell idea), *tıraşı kes* (stop talking large), *yok yav!* (no kidding), *tüh be!* (damn!), *bana eşlik eder misin?* (will you accompany me?) are men-focused. For Tanrıtanır, social conditioning, value judgements, moral values, social tendencies and traditions determine language use of genders to a great extent in Turkish (2005:47).

Several statistical studies have been carried out which supply fairly stable analyses across a variety of contexts. For example, females were found to speak more about relationships than do males (Aries& Johnson 1983; Tannen 1990), give more compliments and ask for apologies (Holmes 1988; Holmes 1989, cited in Argamon et al. 2003) and use more facilitative tag questions (Holmes 1984, cited in Argamon et al. 2003). Moreover, women seem to make use of more mean length sentences (Mulac, Lundell& Bradac 1986; Poole 1979), references to emotion, tentative language and questions (Baysal 1997; Carli 1990; Fabes& Martin 1991; Mulac, Lundell& Bradac 1986; Simkins-Bullock& Wildman 1991), hesitate more (Günay 2000; Mulac& Lundell 1986), speak more politely (Bayyurt 2000), use more intensifiers and exaggerations (Aries 1982; Crosby& Nyquist 1977; Fitzpatrick, Mulac& Dindia 1995; Lapadat& Seesahai 1977; Mulac et al. 1988; Mulac& Lundell 1986), offer more minimal responses (Aries 1982; Mulac et al. 1988); and use more uncertainty verbs and hedges (Crosby& Nyquist 1977; Poole 1975) than men in conversation.

Men, on the other hand, are more likely to swear (Mehl& Pennebaker 2003; Newman et al. in press; Özçalışkan 1994); focus on clarity, facts, and conveying their opinions (Aries 1982; Mulac, Bradac& Gibbons 2001; Tannen 1990), dominate conversations by taking longer turns, and produce greater amount of talk (Günay 2000; Herring, Johnson& DiBenedetto 1995; Swacker 1975, cited in Goddard & Patterson 2000; Simkins-Bullock& Wildman 1991); use more specifiers (determiners, quantifiers, cardinal numbers), big words (words more than six letters long), negative emotion and anger words, and fewer fillers and discrepancy words (Argamon et al. 2003; Mehl& Pennebaker 2003); refer more to geographical locations and quantities (Mulac et al. 2001; Mulac &Lundell

1986); interrupt and overlap more (Baysal 1997; Carli 1990; Mulac et al. 1988; Zimmerman & West 1975); and are more likely to disagree (Carli 1990) and use more direct forms of speech (Mulac et al. 1988; Baysal 1997; Lapadat& Seesahai 1977; Mulac et al. 2001) than women.

Nonverbal communication is another language feature that women and men reflect their gender. For instance, in the study conducted by Hall (1987) females were found more competent in nonverbal communication skills including the ability to judge the affective meanings of nonverbal cues accurately. Hall showed that females smiled and gazed more, had much more expressive faces than males; they touched more, showed more involved, expressive, and self-conscious body movements; made fewer speech errors (e.g. tongue slips, false starts); and used fewer pause-fillers (e.g. “er”, “ah”, “um”) while speaking.

The findings suggest that there are “gender stereotypes of women as more nurturing and relationship focused and men as more objective and agentic”, and both men and women usually carry on their previously acquired stereotypical gender roles in the course of interaction (Janssen& Murachver 2004b:345). Then, one can ask whether these patterns used in verbal communication are also used in written communication.

2.3. GENDER AND WRITING

Writing is both a communicative act which is a social event between the writer and audience and a cognitive act carried out by a “writer whose audience is only as immediately present as the writer’s imagination, knowledge and experiences allow” (McCutchen 2006:115). Biber (1995:5) defines written language as “structurally elaborated, complex, formal, and abstract, while spoken language is concrete, context-dependent and structurally simple”. Researchers who dealt with gender and writing development believed that in all ages writers established gender identities via their writing since “writing is a

social practice that shapes and is shaped by gender meanings" (S. Peterson 2006:320).

When compared with speaking, writing is a more time consuming act, on the other hand in this extra time the writer is enabled to plan and reformulate the statements that she/he seeks to convey. In addition to these, since the writers are generally left unidentified, they cannot be given feedback for their words on the nail, which in turn let the writers feel free from the gender stereotypes (Janssen& Murachver 2004b). Does this emphasize or lessen the role that author gender plays in language use? The answer to this question comes from the research into gender and writing which has indicated similarities to studies of gender and conversation. After examining several novels written by different authors and the studies conducted by other researchers on literary styles of some of well-known male and female writers, Livia (2003:156) concludes that "there are conventions of masculine and feminine style which any sophisticated writer, whether male or female, can follow". Other studies conducted on adults show that women exceed men in terms of the use of hedges (Crosby& Nyquist 1977; Ercan 2003; Newman et al. in press), third person pronouns (Colley& Todd 2002; Janssen& Murachver 2004a, 2004b), auxiliaries of possibility and shorter sentences (Rubin& Greene 1995), politeness markers (Rubin& Greene 1992), intensifiers, adjectives and compliments (Janssen& Murachver 2004a) than males in their writing, On the other hand, men tend to use more references to quantity, locative and geographical references (Gleser et al. 1959; Sause 1976; Mulac& Lundell 1994, cited in Mulac (n.d.); Janssen& Murachver 2004a), more illustratives and focus adverbs (Rubin& Greene 1992; Janssen& Murachver 2004a).

In addition to the informal writing samples, written texts gathered from computer-mediated communication which is the most popular way of sharing information recently has also been examined to check if one could come up with similar results. Examination on blogging (personal weblogs) showed that women have a significantly more contextual style of writing than men, and men

use more articles and fewer pronouns, but also more nouns, prepositions and fewer verbs. Male n-grams* appear to consist of mostly function word combinations (e.g. [*on a*] and [*of the*]), while females are characterised by phrases with content words (Nowson& Oberlander 2006, http://www.ics.mq.edu.au/~snowson/papers/SS0603NowsonS.pdf).

Graffiti from the men's and women's toilets showed clear differences in topic and more subtle differences in language style. Men wrote more about politics and homosexuality, and the inscriptions contained more insults and racist remarks. However, women wrote more inscriptions discussing sex and relationship issues and about religion and philosophy. As the stylistic differences, females were found to use more hedging devices, subordinate clauses, pronouns, prepositions, conjugations of the verbs *be, do, have*, and they revealed more personal information and made more emphatic references than males (Green 2003:292).

Exclamation points are also another feature that women and men are found to differ in their informal writing (written) and electronic discourse. Women use exclamations significantly more than do males (Colley& Todd 2002; Rubin& Greene 1992; Waseleski 2006; Winn& Rubin 2001). Moreover, women use more graphic accents (e.g. emoticons or smiley faces) than men in their computer mediated discourse (Witmer& Katzman 1997).

Research on younger subjects such as children and adolescents also show similar tendencies in the characters, topics, themes and linguistic codes selected. Researchers who used writing to identify the sex-role stereotypes that

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* N-gram model is a type of probabilistic model for predicting the next item in a sequence especially used in text categorization while dealing with long documents in electronic forms (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/N-gram).

school-age children hold observed that boys included more aggressive events in their stories than did girls, male characters predominate in both genders' writings; female characters are portrayed as passive and powerless which can also be seen as an evidence of strong sex role stereotypic thinking of children (Gray-Schlegel& Gray-Schlegel 1996; Romatowski& Trepanier-Street 1987; Trepanier-Street, Romatowski,& McNair 1990). Having examined the texts written by children aged 7/8; Marschall (1997:304) concludes that there are "marked gender differences in the topics which children wrote about, their use of characterizations, and the focus and intention of their writing". While boys mostly "wrote about space, sport, monsters and activities which suggested open, outrageous defiance, girls mainly wrote about gentle worlds inhabited with fairies, babies and friendly animals" (Marschall 1997:305). Similarly, Swann (2003:625) observed that boys and girls differ in their speaking styles and reading choices; and they write about different topics in diverse ways. Boys generally concentrate on outer scenes with graphic and visual details in their writing; however, girls rely on inner experience and other sensory images (Rogers 1996, cited in S. Peterson 2006). Boys' and girls' thematic choices also showed differences according to the gender. The boys' themes were more about physical death, murder mysteries, war, fires and the activities related to men beyond the home and school while girls' themes were centred on the family, classroom and holidays (Graves 1973:1101-1102). Levine& Geldman-Caspar (1997) examined the gender differences in science related writing tasks, and found out that girls' writing was more detailed, personalized and included more references to emotion, they preferred to write about plants, animals and topics relevant to their lives, on the contrary boys' writing was more objective, condensed and formal, they gave more technical information under the influence of TV and movies.

Kanaris (1999) examined student compositions written about a school excursion In terms of some linguistic features including number of sentences, words per sentences, number of adjectives and pronouns. Results showed that girls generally wrote longer, more complex and more internally cohesive texts. They

used 3rd person references (e.g. "*the bus driver* told us about *the shrine*. *He* said *it* was very important" 1999:257) to place themselves as observers in their narratives, used a wider range of verbs and adjectives, and focused on detail and description, in contrast boys framed their texts in terms of material processes. They generally constructed identities as actors by using more 1st person pronouns, and their writing tended to be more egocentric and event oriented (1999:266).

Temur (2006) found that girls used more different kinds of words and more words in number after an examination of the written discourse of 4th and 5th grade students in Turkey.

In another example, Mulac, Studley,& Blau (1990) examined the impromptu essays of the students at the fourth (9-10 years of age), eighth (13-14 years) and twelfth (17-18 years) grades in terms of nineteen selected language variables, and they found considerable between-gender differences in the language use of primary and secondary school students. For instance, at the fourth grade while boys used more action verbs, rhetorical questions, contractions, judgemental phrases and longer mean length sentences, girls used hedges, relative clauses, references to emotion, fillers and sentence initial adverbials. On the other hand, the language used by students of all three levels doesn't show consistent distinctions but a "cross-gender syntactic/semantic overlap" (1990:461). Boys at the eighth level were observed to use more references to quantity or place, justifiers, judgemental phrases, and girls used more action verbs, references to emotion, rhetorical questions, progressive verbs, subordinating conjunctions, and contractions; and at the twelfth grade, boys used more uncertainty verbs, subordinating conjunctions, judgemental phrases and sentence initial adverbials while girls used more progressive verbs and fillers. They conclude that "because the objectively coded language differences between the male and female writers seem generally consistent with sex role stereotypes, it is also possible that those stereotypes could play some

part, indirect though it might be, in students' acquisition of gender consistent language behaviour by the time they reach the 4th grade" (1990:465).

Past findings make clear that from the early years of life, women and men differ in their language use both orally and written. The present study seeks to replicate these findings on Turkish context claiming that male and female students will diverge in the frequencies of language features they employ in their compositions.

2.4. GENDER, WRITING AND TEENAGERS

Human beings pass through several stages on their road of/to becoming adults. One of these stages which is the period of psychological, social and physical transition between childhood and adulthood is adolescence. Researchers' common definition of adolescence is that it is the psychosocial-biological stage of development that begins with the first symptoms of puberty, and lasts until the growing stops with physical, sexual and psychological maturity when the person has achieved the partial independence from his/her parents (Offer et. al. 1988; Yörükoğlu 1989). According to Eckert (2000:15), "adolescence is the pivot between childhood and adulthood, between a place in society, based on parents' place and one's own". Although some researchers claim that it is hard to give the exact age at which a young person enrols in adolescence, and even more difficult to resolve the termination of it (Sebald 1968), this period roughly covers the ages 11-21 embracing the puberty and teenage period (Yörükoğlu 1989; Kulaksızoğlu 1998; Şemin 1992). Puberty is a special life stage during which the child matures into an adult as a result of physical, hormonal, sexual, social, emotional, personal and mental transformation and development (Kulaksızoğlu 1998:31). It is defined as the first two or three-year-part of the preadolescence period when the sexual properties of boys and girls begin to appear because of rapid growth between the ages 12-15, and in this period individuals are called preadolescent or pubescent child (Hurlock 1973;

Yörükoğlu 1989). Researchers (Berk 2005; G., R. Holmes 1995; Koç 2004; Steinberg 1999) commonly divide adolescence into three phases:

1. Early adolescence, from 11 to 14 for girls, and 13 to 15 for boys
2. Middle adolescence, from 14 to 16 for girls, and 15 to 17 for boys
3. Late adolescence (youth), from 16 to 21 for girls, and 17 to 21 for boys

According to Yavuzer (1986) who claims that in Turkey pubertal development begins at earlier ages than the western countries, puberty begins at around the ages 10-12 for girls and 12-14 for boys.

The word “teenage” in English stands for the adolescence period between the ages 13 and 19 (Yörükoğlu 1989). In the present study, the term *teenagers* refers to the group of students at the age of 13 and 14, studying at the 7th and 8th grades at the primary school. Falling at the early years of adolescence and intersecting with the beginning of puberty, these years are highly critical for both boys and girls in terms of language ability and use. With the improved capacity for reflective thought, abstraction and metalinguistic awareness; lexical, grammatical and pragmatic developments in language are observed during adolescence (Berk 2005). They are now able to grasp figurative language, use a variety of abstract words, construct longer sentences with a greater number of subordinate clauses, vary their language style according to the situation and comprehend the grammatical rules (B. Aydın 2005; Berk 2005). B. Aydın (2005) states that the writing skill which is quite poor in childhood manifests significant improvement after puberty. While writing, it is necessary to organize the thoughts and to present them in a hierarchical and logical order. The adolescent whose composition writing skill has developed to a great extent, can now write by constituting the introductory, progressive and conclusive paragraphs without much difficulty (B. Aydın 2005:181).

Taking into consideration the developmental changes during these ages, teenagers are expected to show linguistic behaviours which are not only

peculiar to them but also change according to the gender of the teens. For example, Chambers (1995), believes that for the study of variation, adolescence is a vital stage, since this age group leads all other age groups in sound change, and more generally in the use of the vernacular (cited in Eckert 2000:4). Açıkalın (1991) states that in adolescence period, the adolescent who estranges from his/her family, begins to use a language deviating from the standard one under the influence of his/her peer group. Her research shows that Turkish teenagers use special parlances, argots or clichés which are distinct from those that are used around the home (Açıkalın 1989).

From the preschool period to early adolescence the sexes are very similar in their verbal abilities. At about age 11 through the high school years they begin to diverge, and girls outscore boys at many verbal skills and tasks involving analogies, comprehension of different written material or creative writing (Maccoby& Jacklin 1974:351).

Researchers also highlight the importance of the adolescence period for studying language and gender. For Eckert (2003:381) "adolescence is a critical site for the study of language and gender", because

> … it is a life-stage at which a tremendous amount of identity work is being done, and gender is perhaps more salient in this work than at any other life-stage. Adolescents are moving away from identities based in the family to identities based in a newly organized and newly heterosocial peer social order, and this heterosociability both makes gender more salient, and changes its construction (2003:281).

Santrock supports Eckert's views by proposing that during early adolescence, "with the onset of puberty, girls and boys experience an intensification in gender-related expectations" and gender role attitudes "because of increased socialization pressures to conform to traditional masculine and feminine gender roles" (2005:220); and as they grow older, these stereotypic gender behaviours begin to vanish. Dörtköşeoğlu (2002) demonstrated that teenagers aged 12-15 are highly affected by the traditional gender roles imposed by the society.

Although girls are more modern, boys are more conservative in terms of adopting this traditional viewpoint. Their choices of career and games show diversity. While girls are under the influence of the protagonists in stories or films which display and reinforce the woman's passivism, boys more approve of the film, cartoon or soap opera protagonists who are strong and charismatic. Likewise, Peters (1994, http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m2248/is_n116_v29/ai_16477249) claims that gender differences generally reach the acme in the adolescent years by exemplifying that males crave to be macho and attend to competitive sports, while females are interested in cosmetics and fashion. Language use is one of the ways to show their masculinity and femininity, thus they will be inevitably expected to use gendered language while speaking and writing.

Previous research evidenced that teenagers differ in the linguistic devices they prefer which is compatible with the preferences of adults (see Mulac et al. 1990, 8th graders' essays). In Turkey, although limited, studies that investigated the relationship between gender and language differences of teenagers found some differences, too. Bostancı (2003) whose actual aim is to find out the effects of socio-economic conditions on language use also made use of teenagers to compare the written language of students of two socio-economically distinct schools, namely, a private school and a state vocational high school. When the girls in both schools are compared with boys, girls were found to use more different adjectives and words, and to make less spelling errors and expression disorders. Moreover, Bostancı concluded that girls used the word *thing* (şey) and the adjective *every* (her) more, while the boys used the denotative adjective *this* (bu) more than the girls.

Kırbaş (2006) made a comparison between the writing skills of male and female students studying at the 8th grade, and found girl students to be more successful in terms of finding the appropriate heading, writing relevant to topic, the appropriateness of the conclusion paragraph, writing words correctly (less

spelling errors), and the correct use of full-stop, yet boy students were found to know the use of the question mark better.

Ağaçsaban (1989) whose study is the first example/model dealing with the gender differences in the language of teenagers examined ten male and female high school students' compositions, and specified some language differences between the genders according to the types of words and sentence structures. According to her results females wrote more sentences and used longer sentences, more nouns, especially the abstract nouns, more active, passive and auxiliary verbs, more adjectives and personal and demonstrative pronouns, more compound sentences and relative clauses, more expressions of uncertainty (e.g. I think, I suppose), emotional expressions and standard language. On the other hand, males made use of more concrete nouns and nouns that denote action, more simple sentences, more coordinated sentences, and more complex sentences most of which consist of conditional clauses. Even though this study is a pioneering work in this field and may seem to have similarities with the current study, it has some shortcomings. First of all, the number of the participants is too few to make reliable generalizations. Secondly, the topic of the writing which determines the linguistic preferences of the language users wasn't given any importance; hence as Winn& Rubin (2001:398) put it, such a study is "guilty of a 'sex difference' approach to simply cataloguing stylistic features of men's and women's writing". In addition to these, Ağaçsaban applied a questionnaire to investigate how close the students' gender to their views of sex-role stereotypes, yet the results of the questionnaire weren't compared with the texts to see to what extent the students' adoption of sex-role stereotypes is related to the language use of boys and girls.

The current study tries to find and describe the correlation between the writing style and gender of adolescents who are in their critical period of life. In this period the children take the first step to be an adult. Thus, they may show variability both in their speech and writing. It is aimed in this study to provide

further evidence to talk about gender differences in the writing style of teenagers.

2.5. THE ROLE OF CONTEXT

Historically, researchers who dealt with gender differences in language, have coded features from the observed speech of men and women, which showed that female speech is different from male speech without remembering the fact that language is "a process whereby people adapt their language to fit the situation" (Thomson, Murachver& Green 2001:171). Today it is believed by many of the scholars that contextual factors have more impact on language use than any other factors. One of them is Swann (2003:625) for whom gender is not a binary distinction or a social attribute any more, rather it is something that is done in context since language is "inherently context-dependent". Mesthrie et al. (2000:246) also propose that gender is not an unchanged, a priori category related to language use, but it is something that is reshaped in the course of everyday language use in several ways. Moreover, Coates& Johnson (2001) don't believe in taxonomy of differences between men and women just as a natural consequence of biology or socialization since "language and communication are integrally tied to the context in which they occur" (Gallois& Pittam, 1995:10, qtd in Coates and Johnson, 2001:455). Therefore, it will be illogical to claim that all men and all women speak differently all the time whatever the situation is. Furthermore, different from the previous models that highlight the acquisition, socialization or heredity, Deaux& Major (1987) propose a new model in order to explain gender-linked differences focusing on social interaction where the expectations of others and the goals of the individuals converge. In this immediate context, either sex differences or sex similarities occur.

In her article on Gender Similarities Hypothesis, Hyde makes use of the meta-analyses of gender to re-test the most reputed gender differences such as mathematics performance, verbal ability and aggressive behaviour, and finds

that in spite of Maccoby& Jacklin's (1974) and Tannen's (1990) proclamations, gender differences in most facets of communication are small, and asserts that "gender differences can be created, erased, or reversed depending on the context" (2005:589).

Social role and status, occupational and educational experiences, the degree of intimacy of the participants, the interaction setting, and the sex of the participants are the parts of the social context that have all been found to have impacts on communication processes (Aries 1987). For instance, in the police station study of Crosby& Nyquist (1977), the clients were found to use the language devices of Lakoff's "the female register" more frequently than the police personnel. According to the Bayyurt's (2000) results while men's and women's use of terms of address show similarities in the home setting, it differs in the downtown/outside environment. Mulac, Seibold& Farris (2000:404) examined the linguistic devices which female and male managers and career professionals use while giving criticism, and saw that they used language counter-stereotypically while role-playing a criticism to a co-worker.

The role of the context is best described by the *Communication Accommodation Theory* which assumes that depending on their social objectives people shift their linguistic selections throughout communication to fit the situations (Winn& Rubin 2001). Since language "is a process whereby people adapt their language to fit the situation", "participants in a conversation not only change the situation but also are changed by it" (Thomson, Murachver& Green 2001:171). Depending on whom they are communicating with, women and men are capable of using a wide range of language styles. For example, in face to face communication gender-linked language differences are greater in same-sex groups than mixed-sex groups (Bilous & Krauss 1988; Fitzpatrick, Mulac, & Dindia 1995, cited in Thomson 2006; Mulac, Wiemann, Widenmann, &Gibson 1988). As another example, Reid (2005) found that women use more minimal responses generally in same-sex pairs, but in mixed sex pairs this is neutralized

due to the need of interactants to converge with their interactants' speech to display solidarity.

Then, context, including task, relationship between interactants, topic, situation, and aim of discourse should be considered in understanding social behaviour. In different relationships and situations, communicators are obliged to play different roles. For instance, Yaeger-Dror (1998) notes that message senders usually match their speech patterns according to not only the social goal of the message, but also the speech patterns of their interlocutors (cited in Winn& Rubin 2001). Thomson makes a distinction between gender-specific topics such as fashion, shopping, celebrity gossip for women, and sports, cars, computers for men which he claims "make gender salient and create gender-based identity differentiation" and concludes that "participants are more likely to use female-preferential language when discussing female-stereotypical topics and male-preferential language when discussing male-stereotypical topics" (2006:175).

In the study conducted by Şen (2003), the interactional differences between gender and occupational status of the interactants in the same and cross-gender dyadic conversations of university students and their tutors were investigated. Participants' conversational behaviour is affected more than by status than by gender in cross-gender dyads. It was found that in the accommodation patterns of students, gender was observed much salient in same-status dyads, while the effect of status becomes more powerful on the speech behaviour of students in mixed status interactions. On the other hand, the effect of status result in a balance in the accommodation patterns of tutors by supporting each other equally with overlaps, back-channels, laughter and pauses in same status dyads, and in mixed-status interactions gender was found more powerful on tutors' speech behaviour in same and cross-gender dyads.

In speech, language cannot be thought without a situational context, and in each situation the interactants are required to obey specific rules for initiation,

termination or turn taking (Aries 1987:157). Then, how about the context of writing? The effects of the role of the communicators do also exist in writing in terms of the reader factor. In their study, Rubin& Green (1992) asked their participants to write about the same issue for two different audiences. While some wrote to a close friend in an expressive way, the others wrote to a university official in an argumentative manner. Despite the writer gender, those who wrote to a friend revealed many of the styles imputed to women such as subjective emotional expression, while messages to the official displayed typically masculine traits such as complex sentence structure. This study also exemplifies the effect of the mode of writing (i.e. argumentative vs. expressive) as another contextual factor affecting language, since it was found that differences due to the mode of discourse were more widespread than differences due to gender. Many of the differences in men's and women's language vanish when writing in formal, conventionalized modes (Rubin& Greene 1992). For Rubin& Greene (1995) the writing task is a more powerful determinant of gender-typed style than is gender itself. As an example of this view, Shelby& Reinsch (2003) who studied the letters written to a senator found that women wrote less directly than men in gun control letters but not in health care letters.

Topic, as a part of context is now believed to affect the writing style by many researchers. In the article of Janssen& Murachver (2004b:350) which directed the present study, it is stated that issue being discussed is often predictive of language use since writers accommodate their writing style to the topic unconsciously. For Janssen& Murachver, "certain topics and activities elicit certain behaviours and styles of talk", and while some topics require an appeal to more opinions and facts, others may require emotion, compliments and personal information. In other words, topic determines the way women and men construct their writings by using either male or female typed language devices (2004b:350). Their findings show that the effect of biological gender is very low, and with a slight difference psychological gender plays a better role than the biological gender. On the other hand, passage topic plays the greatest role in

language use of non-professional writers. According to the results, the participants preferred to use language in accordance with the gender orientation of the topic rather than enacting their own genders.

Like topic, the gender orientation of the written material can shape the way of writing. According to the results of the study of Lynch& Strauss-Noll (1987) females gave more explicit, detailed depiction of the feminine object (mauve velour fabric), while males gave more definite depiction of the masculine object (metal household washer). In accordance with Lakoff's (1975) statement females made more precise discriminations in naming colours than do men. The literary genre (fiction& non-fiction) was also observed to include different types of linguistic devices which were found to be typical of either female or male authors. Determiners, quantifiers, cardinal numbers (specifiers) which were detected to be the strong indicators of male-authored texts were also found prevalent in non-fiction texts. On the other hand, pronouns, which were found strong indicators of female-authored texts were discovered more prevalent in fiction texts (Argamon, Koppel, Fine,& Shimoni 2003).

Shortly, past research makes clear that context plays the leading role both in speech and writing, therefore examining gender without considering the topic factor can be deceptive.

CHAPTER 3
DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The present study, which aimed to find out the gender preferential language use in the writing style of teenagers, was applied to 35 female and 35 male students with an age range of 13-14. The compositions written by the students were examined in terms of three independent variables. These are, namely, the biological gender of the subjects that were assumed to be either male or female, the psychological gender which was determined by the Bem's Sex Role Inventory, and the topics which were selected as the ideal friend (descriptive) and global warming (debatable). The dependent variables are the 14 linguistic devices coded in each passage seven of which are called female-preferential (references to emotion, questions, qualificative adjectives, intensifiers, metaphor and simile, third person references, and uncertainty expressions), while the other seven are called male-preferential (references to quantity, illustratives, errors, locatives, focus adverbials, first person references, certainty expressions).

The results are examined under three titles. While the first two parts show the effects of biological and psychological gender on the preferred use of linguistic devices, the third part includes the effect of topic on these codes. The statistical data are presented within tables under the related titles. Some extra findings were added in Appendix-5 such as the distribution of the frequencies of uncertainty and certainty sub-variables, and the chi-square results of the frequencies of linguistic codes across topics. The findings were illustrated with the example sentences extracted from the students' compositions, and their translations were attached in Appendix-4. The discussions of the findings were added to the related titles in order to display the consequences of independent variables on the linguistic codes. After presenting the results, an overall discussion of the findings were also carried out.

3.1 BIOLOGICAL GENDER EFFECT

As stated in the introduction section, from the early years of life we are treated differently according to our genders. Whether a person is a male or female determines its process of socialization which in turn results in distinct language uses in women and men, as well as girls and boys (König 1992; Tannen 1990). In her study, Ağaçsaban concluded that although they haven't got any differences apart from their physical characteristics, boy and girl students are put into distinct role stereotypes, and their cognitive abilities are allowed to develop only in the direction of these stereotypes, and as a result, such inclinations are reflected in their language use (1989:57). In this first part, we aimed to check whether the frequencies of the language devices that female and male students use in their passages differ according to their biological gender.

In order to assess the biological gender effect, the total frequencies of each linguistic variable were counted and summed up for both genders separately and their percentages were estimated. Then, X^2-Test was applied to see if there is significant difference between the results of the two groups. The results were examined under two titles; that is, female-preferential linguistic variables and male-preferential linguistic variables. Next, the findings were summarized briefly in the discussion part.

3.1.1. Female-Preferential Linguistic Variables

For the purpose of determining the role of biological gender in relation to the choice of the linguistic codes in the passages, first of all, the linguistic codes which are claimed to be preferred by the females more than the males were examined. Table-4 shows the frequency and percentages of these variables used by the girls and the boys, in addition to the chi-square (X^2) test results of these usages per number.

Table-4 Frequencies, Percentages and the Chi-Square Test Results of Female-Preferential Linguistic Codes According to Biological Gender

	Linguistic Variables	***MALES (n=35)***	***FEMALES (n=35)***	***TOTAL (n=70)***	***df***	***X^2***
1	References to Emotion	31 **(32.63 %)**	64 **(67.37 %)**	95 **(100 %)**	1	11.46**
2	Questions	31 **(27.93 %)**	80 **(72.07 %)**	111 **(100 %)**	1	21.63**
3	Qualificative Adjectives	336 **(43.47 %)**	437 **(56.53 %)**	773 **(100 %)**	1	13.20**
4	Intensifiers	198 **(39.36 %)**	305 **(60.64 %)**	503 **(100 %)**	1	22.76**
5	Metaphor and Simile	24 **(42.86 %)**	32 **(57.14 %)**	56 **(100 %)**	1	1.14
6	Third Person References	133 **(47.33 %)**	148 **(52.67 %)**	281 **(100 %)**	1	0.801
7	Expressions of Uncertainty	177 **(45.50 %)**	212 **(54.50 %)**	389 **(100 %)**	1	3.15

*** There is significant difference between groups at 0.01 level (p<0.01)*
X^2= Chi-square Test
df= degree of freedom

3.1.1.1. References to Emotion

Any mention of an emotion or feeling was identified as the reference of emotion in the present study. Of the 21,959 total words used in the compositions, 95 words were identified as emotional references. Among them 31 (32.63 %) words belong to boys and 64 (67.37 %) words belong to girls which show significant difference according to the X^2-Test. This finding is consistent with the previous studies, and leads us to the conclusion that girls are more apt to put their feelings into words. For instance, Fabes& Martin (1991:538) found that "females (particularly adolescents and adult females) were perceived to express (but not experience) both basic and nonbasic emotions significantly more often than males". Similarly, Mulac et al. (1990) observed in their study that female adolescents are emotionally more expressive than the males. Moreover, having examined fourteen thousand text files covering spoken and written samples, Newman et al. (in press) state that women use more affect words than men in order to express their feelings. Below, there are some example sentences of references to emotion in our corpus used by the female students:

Example (1) Şimdi o benden çok uzakta, onu çok *özlüyorum*. (S43-F; TI)

Example (2)* Aslında burdan şu çıkıyor, biz birşeyleri yaşayıp *pişman olduktan* sonra düşünüyoruz artık dikkatli olmamız gerektiğini. (S47-F; TII)

According to Allen& Haccoun, it is the socialization of males which discourages their emotional expression (1976:720), and since women are more interpersonally oriented than men, women "report a relatively high incidence of interpersonal situations as stimulating emotion" (1976:712). In accordance with this view, our finding reveals strong gender stereotyping which imposes females with high emotionality while putting males into the category of hiding emotions or not emotional at all (Basow 1992; Broverman& Broverman 1972). Such characteristics are also observed on Turkish adults (Altan 1993, cited in Dökmen 2004; B. Aydın 2005). According to Fişek (1994) "women are allowed to express their negative feelings more easily than men, whereas men are expected to 'be strong' and provide emotional support when needed" (qtd. in Lajunen& Özkan 2005). Although males in our study also express their feelings, they don't do it as much as females do. Hence the present findings support the view of greater female emotionality. The following sentences exemplify some of the males' emotional expressions:

Example (3) Hayalimdeki arkadaşım şimdi gerçekti ve ben çok *mutlu*ydum. (S14-M; TI)

Example (4) Türkiye'de birçok göl kurumuştur. Bu da bizi çok *endişelendirmekte*dir. (S8-M; TII)

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* The example sentences were taken from the students' compositions without making any changes in the spelling errors. Some grammatical errors were corrected (written in parentheses) in some of the following examples wherever the meaning is ambiguous.

3.1.1.2. Questions

For the second linguistic variable, all kinds of interrogative sentences in Turkish were included in the study. The frequency of questions was identified as 111 in the compositions. Within this total frequency, 31 questions belong to boys with the 27.93 percentage and 80 questions (72.07 %) belong to girls. The X^2-test analysis computed for the two groups revealed that there is significant difference between female and male subjects in the use of questions. This finding is consistent with the findings of Mulac et al. (1990) who observed that the 8th grade female students preferred more rhetorical questions in their writings. Baysal (1997) also found that women asked more questions in their speech when compared to men in Turkey. She accounts for her findings with the men's adoption of a more direct way of expressing themselves since asking questions is an indirect way of expression. The present study proves that females make use of interrogative forms not only in their spoken but also in their written discourse. Here are some examples of the questions used by the male students:

Example (5) Televizyonlarda gördüğümüz Kurtuluş savaşı arkadaşlıkları artık film gibi, *nerde* o arkadaşlıklar, *nerde* o arkadaşlıkları kuracak yürekler, *nerede*…? (S5-M; TI)

Example (6) İnsanlar *neden* o ozon tabakasını delecek parfümler kullanıyorlar? (S1-M; TII)

Fishman (1980) analyzed the couples' use of questions in conversation, and observed that the women used three times as many tag and yes/no questions as the men (qtd in Coates 1986:105). Coates comments on this finding as the women's aim to keep the conversation going because of their weakness in interactive situations. Thus, the reason of girls' higher use of questions can be related to their intention to keep their writings more effective. Bearing in mind the fact that questions require a response from the addressee, females may

also make use of questions as part of an interpersonal process where they not only express their own views but also establish a connection with their reader(s). While asking a question they know the answer, nevertheless they have their addressee think on their question by imposing with cognitive responsibility, therefore they create a more effective, emphatic and interactive style of writing. Examples below illustrate this view clearly:

Example (7) Neymiş su kaybının çok olmaması için kendilerinin ürettiği çamaşır makinesi, bulaşık makinesi. Sizce bu ürünleri çıkarmak için biraz geç kalmadınız *mı*? (S47-F; TII)

Example (8) Size göre de en önemli en gerekli şey *değil mi*? Bir düşünün arkadaşınızın sizin eleştirinizi yüzünüze karşı *mı* söylemesini istersiniz? Yoksa arkanızdan konuşmasını *mı*? (S49-F; TI)

3.1.1.3. Qualificative Adjectives

Qualificative adjectives are commonly used to give the qualification of the noun that they precede. With the 773 total frequency identified in the passages, this variable is found to be the most commonly used linguistic device in our study. When the use of adjectives is examined in terms of the biological gender, it is seen from Table-4 that boys' frequency is 336 with the 43.47 percentage whereas girls have 437 adjective uses with the 56.53 percentage. According to the X^2-test results the difference in frequencies shows significance. This finding agrees with the previous research. For instance, Bostancı (2003) and Kanaris (1999) observed that female children and teenagers use wider range of adjectives which is also more in number, and Ağaçsaban (1989) and Poole (1979) found that female adolescents' use of adjectives is greater than the males'. The following are some examples from our corpus that were identified in the compositions of girls:

Example (9) Aslında bu ısınma, dünya iklim sisteminde *köklü* değişikliklere ve *aşırı* sıcaklara yol açacak, öyle ki dünyanın bazı ülkelerinde kasırgalar, seller ve taşkınlar gibi hava olaylarının şiddeti ve sıklığı artarken, bazı bölgelerde de *uzun süreli, şiddetli* kuraklar ve çölleşme olayları etkili olacak. (S55-F; TII)

Example (10) *Temiz kalpli, iyi yürekli, anlayışlı, çalışkan, başarılı*, her şeyimi, sırlarımı, dertlerimi hiç düşünmeden anlatabileceğim bir arkadaş istiyorum. (S38-F; TI)

Since adjectives give extra information about the nouns they are attached to, they make the statements more detailed, subjective, abstract, colourful and vivid which is considered to be peculiar to females. Females like to make more precise discriminations of the things they deal with (Lynch& Strauss-Noll 1987) by giving the details of things which they are talking or writing about. Even within a science context girls seemed to write in greater detail while boys' approach was more objective and detached (Levine& Geldman-Caspar 1997). Some of the adjectives that boys used in their compositions are exemplified below:

Example (11) Liseye gidince geceleri çarşıya çıkabileceğim, *siyah saçlı, kahverengi gözlü* bir çocuk olmalı. (S10-M; TI)

Example (12) *Çeşitli zehir dolu* atıkların havaya bırakılması, parfümlerin içindeki sera gazları, ev ve iş yerleri bacalarından çıkan *zehirli, azotlu* atıklar vb. etkiler ozon tabakasının delinmesine yol açmıştır. (S9-M; TII)

3.1.1.4. Intensifiers

The adverbs which are used to intensify the meaning of the sentences such as *çok (very, so), en (most)* or *pek (quite, too),* are generally called as intensifiers

in this study. Intensifiers are the third most frequently used linguistic items by the females in the present study with the 305 frequency when the biological gender is considered. The girls' percentage of 60.64 is much higher than the boys' percentage of 39.36. According to the X^2-test girls make use of intensive adverbs significantly more than the boys in accordance with the available literature. For example, Lapadat& Seesahai (1977) worked on university students' group discussions, Crosby& Nyquist (1977) and Mulac et al. (1988) searched for adults' dyadic interactions, Mulac& Lundell (1986) examined children and adults' oral descriptions of photographs, and Mulac, Lundell& Bradac (1986) analyzed university students' public speeches, all of whom came up with the conclusion that females use intensive adverbs more often than males. Some examples of the males' use of intensifiers are given below:

Example (13) Şimdi çevreme bakıyorum, böyle bir arkadaşı bulmak *gerçekten ama gerçekten çok* zor. (S5-M; TI)

Example (14) Bunun devlet üzerindeki etkisi *oldukça* büyük. (S20-M; TII)

Intensifiers add the sentences exaggeration and emphasis. In Lakoff's terms, rather than saying "*I like him*", saying that "*I like him very much*" expresses one's strong emotions about someone implying that one like somebody to a great extent (1975:55); therefore strengthen the meaning of love. According to J. Holmes, women feel that their words are not taken seriously when they don't "boost the force of their utterance" (1995:317). Consistent with these views, the probable reason for the female adolescents' higher use of intensifying devices is to enhance the persuasiveness of their views or to take the attention of the readers to their writings. The following examples show some of the intensive adverbs used by girls in their compositions:

Example (15) Ben arkadaşlık konusunda *çok* hassasım. (S41-F; TI)

Example (16) Küresel ısınma(nın) su ihtiyacını da beraberinde getirmesi olayı *çok daha* büyük bir sorun haline getirdi. (S54-F; TII)

3.1.1.5. Metaphor and Simile

Metaphors and similes are the linguistic devices which are used to express similarity between two things; therefore they are the instruments of indirect way of writing. As seen from Table-4, only 56 metaphors and similes were found among 21.959 words in the sample. While girls used 32 (57.14%) of these words/phrases, boys used 24 (42.86%) words/phrases. Because the total is relatively few and the numerical distributions of the two groups are close to each other, no significant difference was found. This finding is in line with the finding of Kilecioğlu (2001) who didn't find any significant difference between the genders in terms of the use of metaphor, either. Thus, it is possible to conclude from the results that biological gender doesn't have any significant role in determining the use of this variable in the current study. Some related examples of the use of metaphor and simile are as follows:

Example (17) Sevdiğimiz kişiye değer vermezsek, aramızdaki sevgi bağı *sular altında kalan bir ada gibi* yavaş yavaş yok olur. (S20-M; TI) (simile)

Example (18) Barajlar kuruyacak, içmeye bile su bulamıycak hale gelince insanlar bu *cennet vatanın* değerini anlamaya başlayacaklar ama çok geç olacak, hatta çölleşmeye kurban gidecekler. (S32-M; TII) (metaphor)

Example (19) Arkadaş bizim her şeyimizi paylaştığımız, sorunlarımız olduğunda dertleştiğimiz, sevinçlerimizi, mutluluklarımızı beraber yaşadığımız, *canımızdan bir parça gibi*dir. (S40-F; TI) (simile)

Example (20) *Dünya'mızın içine düştüğü bu çukurdan* bizi kim çıkaracak? (S49-F; TII) (metaphor)

3.1.1.6. Third Person References

Another female-preferential variable, third person references include the third person singular and plural pronouns as well as the reflexive pronoun that refers to a third party. As seen from Table-4, girls' percentage of 52.67 is higher than the 47.33 percentage of boys. However, when the frequencies are compared Chi-square analysis does not reveal a significant difference between the girls' 148 words and the boys' 133 words. Unlike the finding of Kanaris (1999) who concluded that girls tend to use 3rd person references to position themselves as perceivers in their compositions, the teenagers in our study used nearly same amount of third person pronouns. Shortly, the use of 3rd person references doesn't differ in terms of the biological gender in the present study. The following examples indicate the use of third person pronouns found in the passages:

Example (21) Hep *kendi* çıkarlarını, menfaatlerini ve *kendi* işlerini nasıl bitirebileceklerini düşünürler. (S57-F; TI)

Example (22) *Onlara* da bizim yaşadığımız güzelliklerden sunmalıyız. *Onlar* da hak ediyor bu güzellikleri. (S40-F; TII)

Example (23) Dünyamızı sevelim, *onu* koruyalım. (S29-M; TII)

Example (24) *Onlarla* olmaktan mutlu olursun, *onların* yanında olmalarını istersin. (S35-M; TI)

3.1.1.7. Expressions of Uncertainty

Following the views of Lakoff (1975), it is believed by some researchers that women are more apt to have unassertive style of communication. The term *hedge* is commonly used with the meaning of "a class of devices that supposedly soften utterances by signalling imprecision and noncommitment" (Dixon& Foster 1997:90). Rather, we preferred to use the term "expressions of uncertainty" which include the potential mood, lexical modal markers and predicates that denote possibility, and the subjunctives in this study. Of the 21.959 total words, 389 words were identified as the uncertainty expressions, 212 of which pertain to girls with the 54.50% whereas 177 of them belong to boys with the 45.50%. The difference between the frequencies was not found to differ between the genders according to the chi-square analysis. Hence, it can be said that biological gender does not play a significant role in determining the use of uncertainty expressions in contrast to the past research. For instance, according to the finding of Ercan (2003) female newspaper columnists use more hedges than the males. Rubin& Greene (1992, 1995) found in their studies that auxiliaries of possibility like 'could' or 'might' are more commonly used by the females. Our results deviate from these findings. Some examples of the use of uncertainty expressions are given below:

Example (25) Arkadaşlarımızın kişiliğine biz karar *veremeyiz.* (S51-F; TI) (Potential Mood)

Example (26) İçine atlasan *belki* boyunu aşmaz. (S48-F; TII) (Lexical Modal Marker)

Example (27) Ben size başımdan geçen bir olayı *anlatayım.* (S18-M; TI) (Subjunctive)

Example (28) Dünya'da su için savaşlar *çıkabilir.* (S11-M; TII) (Potential Mood)

3.1.2. Male-Preferential Linguistic Variables

As the second part of the biological gender effect, the linguistic codes which are claimed to be preferred more by the males than the females were examined. Table-5 shows the frequency and percentages of these variables used by the girls and boys in our study in addition to the chi-square (X^2) test results of these usages per number:

Table-5 Frequencies, Percentages and the Chi-Square Test Results of Male-Preferential Linguistic Codes According to Biological Gender

	Linguistic Variables	***MALES (n=35)***	***FEMALES (n=35)***	***TOTAL (n=70)***	***df***	***X^2***
1	References to Quantity	215 **(50.23 %)**	213 **(49.77 %)**	428 **(100 %)**	1	0.009
2	Illustratives	58 **(56.31 %)**	45 **(43.69 %)**	103 **(100 %)**	1	1.64
3	Errors	368 **(56.97 %)**	278 **(43.03 %)**	646 **(100 %)**	1	12.54**
4	Locatives	267 **(52.77 %)**	239 **(47.23 %)**	506 **(100 %)**	1	1.55
5	Focus Adverbials	121 **(44.81 %)**	149 **(55.19 %)**	270 **(100 %)**	1	2.90
6	First Person References	256 **(41.29 %)**	364 **(58.71 %)**	620 **(100 %)**	1	18.81**
7	Expressions of Certainty	219 **(41.95 %)**	303 **(58.05 %)**	522 **(100 %)**	1	13.52**

*** There is significant difference between groups at 0.01 level (p<0.01)*
X^2= Chi-square Test
df= degree of freedom

3.1.2.1. References to Quantity

Any mention of an amount is identified as the reference to quantity in our study. When this linguistic device was examined in terms of biological gender, 428 references to quantity were found within the total of 21.959 words. Among these, 215 words (50.23%) belong to boys while 213 words (49.77%) belong to girls. Since the frequencies display an equal distribution, X^2 analysis does not manifest a significant difference between the two groups. Unlike the previous research which found that males tend to use more expressions referring to the amounts of things (Argamon et al 2003; Haas 1979; Mulac, Studley& Blau 1990; Mulac, Bradac& Gibbons 2001; Mulac& Lundell 1986; Rayson, Leech&

Hodges 1997) the biological gender is not found to affect the use of references to quantity in a statistically significant way in our study. Some examples of the use of references to quantity are as follows:

Example (29) Benim çevremde çok güzel huylu, alçak gönüllü (arkadaş) vardır; ama küfür etmeyen, kavga etmeyen ve kavgayı ayırmayan nadirdir. Belki *1/1.000.000*'dir. (S7-M; TI)

Example (30) *Çoğu* okula su deposu kuruldu. Tuz Gölünün *%60*'ı kurudu. (S21-M; TII)

Example (31) *4* kişilik *bir* aile banyodan *1* dakika erken çıkıp su tasarrufu etse *tonlarca* suyu kurtarmış oluruz. (S54-F; TII)

Example (32) Fazla olmasa da *on* sözünün *beşinin* içinde espiri olsun. (S41-F; TI)

3.1.2.2. Illustratives

Males are assumed to give more examples in their discourse (Janssen& Murachver 2004b; Rubin& Greene 1992) by using the words or phrases like 'for example' or 'for instance'. When the Table-5 is examined, it is seen that of the total 103 words used in the compositions, 58 were used by the boys with the 56.31 percentage, whereas 45 words were used by the girls with the 43.69%. Since there isn't much variance between the frequencies, no significant difference was found between the groups according to the chi-square analysis. Briefly, biological gender was not found to cause any difference in the use of illustratives in the present study. The following examples indicate the use of illustratives in the passages:

Example (33) Arkadaşlığın birden çok türü olabilir. *Örneğin*; okul arkadaşlığı, yolculuk arkadaşlığı gibi. (S63-F; TI)

Example (34) *Örneğin*; Diyarbakır'da son yılların en büyük karpuzları oluşmuştur. (S63-F; TII)

Example (35) *Mesela* diş fırçalarken veya tıraş olurken çeşmeyi açık bırakmamalıyız. (S13-M; TII)

Example (36) *Örneğin*; üzüm üzüme baka baka kararır örneği bunlardan sadece bitanesidir. (S25-M; TI)

3.1.2.3. Errors

Regarding the error category, with the total 646 orthographical errors identified in the compositions, it is the second most commonly encountered linguistic variable after the adjectives. Moreover, with the 368 frequency (56.97%) this variable is the most frequently observed male-preferential item by the boys. Girls had 278 error frequencies with the 43.03 percentage. When the two groups are compared, X^2-test found significant difference between these numbers. This finding is consistent with the available literature in that males make more spelling errors in their writings. For example, Kırbaş (2006) observed in the 8th grade-students' essays that girls wrote words more correctly. According to the finding of Ağaçsaban (1989) girls used more standard language which is an indication of fewer errors. Bostancı (2003) also detected that female adolescents make less writing errors and expression disorders in their writings. Some examples of the errors that students make in their passages are as follows:

Example (37) İkimizin*de* birçok ortak yönü olmalıdır. (S37-F; TI)

Example (38) *Tabikide* bu onun hayatı. (S57-F; TII)

Example (39) Kuraklıktan *kurbalar* ölecek. (S13-M; TII) (for *kurbağalar*)

Example (40) Kendini *mahfetmene* asla izin vermez. (S29-M; TI)

3.1.2.4. Locatives

As for the variable locatives which are used to denote the geographical place and location of things, 506 words are found in the compositions. While 267 of these words are used by the boys with the 52.77 percentage, 239 of them are used by the girls with the 47.23 percentage. Since the numbers are close to each other, the groups are not found to differ significantly according to the X^2 analysis. Thus, contrary to the previous studies of Mulac, Studley& Blau (1990) who studied 8th graders' impromptu essays and Mulac& Lundell (1986) who examined children and adults' oral descriptions, biological gender was not found to have an evident function in the choice of locatives in our study. The following are some examples of the locatives used in the compositions:

Example (41) Zor günümde, iyi günümde *yanımda* olmasını, mutluluğumu paylaşmasını, zor günlerimde *yanımda* olup beni teselli etmesini isterim. (S45-F; TI)

Example (42) *Türkiye'de* bazı göller kurumaya başlamıştır. (S36-F; TII)

Example (43) *Sınıfta* herkesin belli bir gurup arkadaşı var. (S2-M; TI)

Example (44) Ama *evimizin önünde* şu olayları görmekten sakınıyoruz. (S17-M; TII)

3.1.2.5. Focus Adverbials

When the frequencies of the words that are used to narrow the focus of a statement are compared between the genders, it is seen that among 270 words identified in the compositions, with the 149 words (55.19%) females made use

of more focus adverbials than males whose word frequency is 121 (44.81%). However, this diversity doesn't show significance according to the X^2-test. Thus the biological gender is not found to have an impact on the use of focus adverbials in the present study. Here are some of the instances of focus adverbials identified in the passages:

Example (45) Benim için arkadaş *sadece* tanımaktır. (S34-M; TI)

Example (46) *Tek* çare dikkat. (S33-M; TII)

Example (47) Bana gerçekten değer verene ben *de* veririm. (S51-F; TI)

Example (48) Ormanlarımız *bile* tükeniyor. (S53-F; TII)

3.1.2.6. First Person References

First person references include the first person singular and plural pronouns as well as the reflexive pronoun which denotes to the self of the speaker/writer. 1st person references are the third most frequently used linguistic code identified in the students' compositions as well as the second most frequently used code by the females.

Although some researchers claim that males refer to first person pronouns more than females because of their self-centredness (Haas 1979; Janssen& Murachver 2004a; Mulac, Bradac& Gibbons 2001; Mulac, Studley& Blau 1990; Kanaris 1999; Rubin& Greene 1992), there are also other findings which revealed that females used them more than males (Newman et al. in press; Mehl& Pennebaker 2003; Rayson, Leech& Hodges 1997). In the present study, 1st person references were considered to be male-preferential linguistic devices as claimed in the first view; however it is seen from Table-5 that females' frequency (*f*=364) with the 58.71% is higher than males' frequency (*f*=256) with 41.29 percentage among the total 620 first person references. This difference in

numbers shows significance according to the X^2-Test, and shows that in accordance with the second view females use more first person pronouns than the males. In other words, females tend to use first person references significantly more than the males in the current study which doesn't support the view of male egocentrism. Some examples of the first person pronouns used by the boys are presented below:

Example (49) Küresel ısınmanın zararları sadece *bizimle* kalmıyor. (S3-M; TII)

Example (50) Yani o arkadaşımla *kendimi* akraba, kardeş gibi hissederim. (S34-M; TI)

As stated by some researchers females have more tendencies to personalize their knowledge (Levine& Geldman-Caspar 1997; Rubin& Greene 1995). While talking or writing the use of first person references is a way to make the statements more subjective as the writer mentions about the self. Moreover, some other researchers put the phrases such as "I think, I believe, I guess" which include the first person singular pronoun, and the first person plural pronoun "we/us" into the category of hedges. They call such phrases as *I references* or *egocentric references* (Mulac, Bradac& Gibbons 2001; Rubin& Greene 1992-1995). According to Ercan (2003) these phrases express the writer's lack of self-confidence about the reliability of her/his proposition (e.g. bence, bana göre). In addition to this, the first person plural pronoun "biz" can be used to avoid the whole responsibility of what s/he writes by leaving the impression on the reader that her/his writing is not only her/his thoughts (Ercan 2003:16). In this sense, as our results also indicate, 1st person references can be claimed to be female-preferential language devices. The following sentences exemplify some of the first person references used by the females:

Example (51) Sadece *kendimizi* değil *bizden* sonra gelenleri de düşünmeliyiz. (S40-F; TII)

Example (52) Arkadaşlık *bana göre,* bir günde, bir ayda olacak bir şey değil. (S39-F; TI)

Example (53) *Bence* insanlar kendi sonlarını kendileri hazırlıyorlar. (S46-F; TII)

3.1.2.7. Expressions of Certainty

The last male-preferential variable is the expressions that denote the certainty of the writer. Researchers generally claim that males are more direct and straightforward while communicating (Mulac, Bradac& Gibbons 2001) since they adopt the report talk. In other words, they feel more comfortable in manifesting knowledge and conveying information (Tannen 1990:77). This variable consists of four sub-variables, that is, the debitive mood, lexical modal markers and predicates that indicate obligation and directives. Of the 21,959 words in the sample 522 words were found to be certainty expressions; among these words, 303 words belong to girls with the 58.05% percentage, and 219 words belong to boys with the 41.95% percentage. Such difference between the groups shows significance according to the X^2 analysis which demonstrates that biological gender has a prominent role in determining the use of expressions of certainty in the present study. The use of certainty expressions by the girls can be exemplified as follows:

Example (54) Bunlar benim hayal ettiğim arkadaşımda *muhakkak bulunmalı*. (S66-F; TI) (Lexical Modal Marker-Debitive Mood)

Example (55) Küresel ısınmayı önlememiz artık *şart* oldu. (S62-F; TII)

According to Lakoff, the speech of females appears to be more polite which she describes as “leaving a decision open, not imposing your mind, or views, or claims on anyone else” (1975:18). Imperatives, lexical modal markers and predicates that indicate certainty and the debitive mood in Turkish express prohibition, necessity or obligation, thus enforce restrictions on the readers.

These overt expressions put the speaker or writer in a higher position by giving the right to impose her/his beliefs to the addressee, therefore they are considered to be impolite. In contrast to the views of Lakoff for whom "politeness involves an absence of a strong statement, and women's speech is devised to prevent the expression of strong statements" (1975:19), we found that female adolescents use significantly more expressions of certainty than the males. Our finding not only refutes the hypothesis that certainty expressions are more preferred by the males but also that females are less assertive in their discourse. The following examples show some of the expressions of certainty used by the males:

Example (56) *Unutmayın* ki dostluk eskimeyen bir şeydir. (S25-M; TI) (Imperative)

Example (57) Bu zararları insanların önlemesi *gerekmekte*dir. (S10-M; TII) (Obligative Predicate)

3.1.3. Discussion of Biological Gender Effect

In this part, we examined the role of the biological gender in the use of fourteen linguistic variables by counting up the frequencies of them in the total 140 compositions. Table-4 and Table-5 show that the first three most frequently counted linguistic variables in the female students' compositions are qualificative adjectives, first person references and intensifiers, while they are errors, qualificative adjectives and locatives in the males' compositions.

We selected the teenage subjects for our research to check whether they have a stable way of using the variables which are considered to be preferred more by the females or males. Adolescence is the transition period "from childhood to adulthood and from the family social sphere to a peer-based social order" (Eckert 2000:4), therefore not only the age but also the gradually changing social environment may modify the preferences of the language uses.

Therefore, we suspected that the lexical preferences may change or be influenced from one another or from the other gender group. Findings indicated that while their preferences change significantly in certain variables, they do not in some others.

The results also show that these variables are not performed exclusively by either sex, but are used by the two sexes with different frequencies. When the female-preferential linguistic codes are examined in terms of the percentages and frequencies used by the female and male students, it is seen from Table-4 that girls' percentages exceed boys' in all of the language devices. When the male-preferential linguistic variables are inspected, Table-5 demonstrates that while boys' percentages of the references to quantity, illustratives, errors and locatives are higher than that of girls, the percentages of focus adverbials, first person references and expressions of certainty are found to be higher in girls than boys.

In short, when we examine the role of the biological gender in determining the use of fourteen linguistic codes we found that seven of them showed significant difference. Chi-square comparisons of the linguistic variables' frequencies uncovered that female adolescents made use of significantly more references to emotion, questions, qualificative adjectives, intensifiers, first person references and expressions of certainty in their compositions. On the other hand, male adolescents were found to make significantly more errors than the females in their compositions. Among these variables, five of them were found to differ significantly in the presupposed way, and they are in agreement with the previous research. However, two variables, first person references and expressions of certainty, were detected to occur in the unanticipated direction. Having adopted the view of male egocentrism, we anticipated that males would use more 1st person references. Quite the opposite of our suppositions, females were found to refer to the self in their writings to personalize their propositions as explained in section 3.1.2.6.

According to Lakoff (1975), who is the pioneer on gender and hedging studies, women's discourse lacks authority because in order to become feminine, women learn to take on an unassertive style of communication, as a result they pick up to diminish the declarative force of their statements. However, we did not come up with such results that support this view with our teenage females. On the contrary of the common belief that females use more hedges and are less confident in their discourse when compared to males, the female teenagers in our study were found to be more assertive in expressing their views. While girls showed themselves to be more likely than boys to submit directives as proposals (e.g. El ele verelim/*Let's cooperate* (S60F; TII)), nevertheless, they proved themselves to be able to use assertive, imperative forms (e.g. Uyan dünya/*Get up world!* (S49-F; TII)). This distinction can be bound to the age of the participants as well as the context of writing.

Still, the other seven variables, metaphors and similes, third person references, expressions of uncertainty, references to quantity, illustratives, locatives and focus adverbials, were not found to differ significantly according to the biological gender. Nevertheless, the results demonstrate that the teenagers in our study weave stereotypical views of gender roles and relationships into the fabric of their writings.

While mentioning about the biological gender effect, it is necessary to touch on some observations related to the content of the passages which give some hints on the subjects' adoption of stereotypes in Turkish culture. Some traces of the sex role stereotypes ascribed for women and men in our society can be observed in students' compositions. In the depiction of an ideal friend topic, both gender groups seek for an ideal friend, who is self-sacrificing, witty and merciful, and never tells lies, yet their choices of words reflect on their adoption of the stereotypes. For example, boys write about friends who don't swear, steal or fight, who is honest, and against unfairness, and who can play football well. However, for girls being reliable, respectful, tidy, loyal, good-mannered, decent, affectionate, virtuous, not jealous or can understand her thoughts and feelings,

and will never gossip about her are the more preferred characteristics. Both genders emphasize the common interests and sharing things together, but what they prefer to share again diverges. For boys, their best friends should side with them and defend them, play football or computer games together, should even give their own blood or life. As an example, while one of the boys writes that he longs for the friendship in the War of Independence, another one wants to have a friendship as in the Turkish war films. On the other hand, girls give importance to the social relationships more. They give importance to friends with whom they will laugh and cry, help one another, share sorrows or watch films together. Moreover, boys tend to mention more about personal experiences in order to give examples to solidify the topic. Chodorow (1978) explains that when male students write about relational topics, “they tend to focus on relationships with fathers or brothers, especially episodes that help the writer define his sense of individuality or maturity and that allow what psychologists call ‘positional identification with aspects of the masculine role’” (qtd. in L., H. Peterson 1991:174). Similarly, Murphy (1988) denotes that girls are more prone to ‘express their feelings about phenomena’ whereas boys provide ‘more episodic, factual and commentative detail’ (qtd in Swann 1992:141). Also, in her study Gillian (1982) found that while describing the relationship between themselves and others, her male subjects “focused on individuation and individual achievement and on personal autonomy”. On the other hand, females dealt with “the conflict between the individual self and relationships to others” (qtd in Keroes 1990:245). As in these previous observations, boys in this study are more likely to narrate stories of their own lives, and relate their ideas or feelings to the outside world. As for the passages on global warming, both girls and boys express their worries about global warming, explain how it affects the world and Turkey, and see the humans as the main source of it. However, what they concentrate on in their compositions again diverged. Girls focused more on the problems caused by global warming in their passages, describing the present situation more and emphasizing their concerns for the future generations with a more pessimistic view. In other words, the message content of the girls is more relationship centred and tentatively expressed which is defined as feminine or

rapport style of communication (Tannen 1990; Taylor et al. 2007). On the other hand, boys wrote more about the possible solutions of it expressing their opinions and offering more varied resolutions in order to reduce the negative effects of global warming which conforms with the previous findings that males make use of more opinions (Aries 1982; Janssen& Murachver 2004b; Tannen 1990). In short, these findings are consistent with the views of Gillian (1982) who proclaims that females and males "perceive and respond to the world in identifiably different ways" (Keroes 1990:245). Additionally, more words and phrases which can be put into the category of informal language like "*süper/super, ispiyonlamak/to sneak, satmak/to ditch, adam gibi adam/a real man, direkmen/directly, matrak/scoff, kaale almak/to take heed, terslenmek/to rebuff, zibidi/nuts* or *adam/guy*" are encountered in the passages of males.

3.2. PSYCHOLOGICAL GENDER EFFECT

As stated earlier, psychological gender is the degree that females and males feel about themselves on the continuity of two levels, namely, masculinity and femininity (Bem 1981). It is widely believed that gender is not something we have, but something we do in particular contexts (West& Zimmerman 1975) and that gender related behaviours are not fixed by sex (Carothers& Allen 1999:376), therefore it was assumed that knowing gender role orientations of the participants is also necessary in explaining the gender displays on their writings.

In order to gauge the possible impact of psychological gender roles on the students' use of linguistic devices, they were asked to complete Kavuncu's (1987) Turkish version of Bem's Sex Role Inventory including twenty feminine, twenty masculine and twenty gender-neutral items. According to the self-ratings of their personal attributes, a mean femininity and masculinity score was calculated for each participant and the median was found 5.15 for both masculinity and femininity scales of the BSRI. The students were labelled as masculine, feminine, androgynous and undifferentiated according to their

scores for masculinity and femininity. If only their masculinity score was above 5.15, they were called masculine, if only their feminine score was above 5.15, then they were identified as feminine. If both of their scores were higher than the median they were called androgynous. Lastly, when both masculinity and femininity scores were below 5.15, they were labelled as undifferentiated. The test-retest reliability (~2-week interval) coefficient for both scales are r = .85 ($p<0.01$). Table-6 and Table-7 show the BSRI scores of the female and male subjects:

Table-6 BSRI Results of the Female Subjects

Subjects	Masculinity Score	Femininity Score	Psychological Gender
Subject 44	5,25	4,85	1
Subject 65	6,35	4,75	1
Subject 67	6,45	4,85	1
Subject 68	6,45	4,7	1
Subject 69	5,35	5,05	1
Subject 36	4,6	5,55	2
Subject 37	5	5,15	2
Subject 39	4,25	5,9	2
Subject 42	4,8	6	2
Subject 43	4,95	5,85	2
Subject 46	4,1	5,5	2
Subject 47	4,8	5,15	2
Subject 50	3,85	5,65	2
Subject 51	5	5,85	2
Subject 53	4,6	5,4	2
Subject 54	4,15	5,5	2
Subject 56	4,75	5,55	2
Subject 57	4,85	6,05	2
Subject 59	4,7	5,95	2
Subject 61	5	5,3	2
Subject 62	4,4	5,35	2
Subject 63	4,9	5,45	2
Subject 66	5,05	5,3	2
Subject 38	5,3	6,25	3
Subject 40	5,4	6,15	3
Subject 45	5,2	5,6	3
Subject 48	5,35	5,5	3
Subject 41	3,9	5	4
Subject 49	4,6	4,75	4
Subject 52	4,8	4,85	4
Subject 55	4,65	4,6	4
Subject 58	5,1	4,65	4
Subject 60	4,95	4,95	4
Subject 64	4,65	4,8	4
Subject 70	4,7	4,55	4

NOTE: The mean score is 5.15 for both masculinity and femininity.

1 stands for Masculinity
2 stands for Femininity
3 stands for Androgynous
4 stands for Undifferentiated categories of Psychological Gender

Table-7 BSRI Results of the Male Subjects

Subjects	Masculinity Score	Femininity Score	Psychological Gender
Subject 5	6,4	4,9	1
Subject 6	5,85	4,35	1
Subject 12	5,45	4,15	1
Subject 14	5,55	4,35	1
Subject 15	5,15	3,5	1
Subject 17	5,5	4,35	1
Subject 20	5,25	4,35	1
Subject 21	5,65	4,75	1
Subject 22	5,55	4,8	1
Subject 25	5,2	4,85	1
Subject 30	6,15	4,5	1
Subject 32	5,3	4,7	1
Subject 33	5,15	4,2	1
Subject 35	6,3	4,6	1
Subject 13	3,65	5,25	2
Subject 1	5,9	5,7	3
Subject 2	6	5,9	3
Subject 3	5,65	5,8	3
Subject 4	6,05	5,75	3
Subject 10	5,2	5,9	3
Subject 16	5,5	5,4	3
Subject 18	6,2	6,05	3
Subject 19	5,6	5,9	3
Subject 23	6,4	6,05	3
Subject 24	5,65	5,9	3
Subject 28	6,4	5,5	3
Subject 29	5,25	5,9	3
Subject 31	5,6	5,25	3
Subject 34	5,95	5,45	3
Subject 7	5,1	4,95	4
Subject 8	5,1	4,9	4
Subject 9	4,55	4,7	4
Subject 11	4,9	5	4
Subject 26	4,25	4,85	4
Subject 27	5	4,6	4

NOTE: The mean score is 5.15 for both masculinity and femininity.

1 stands for Masculinity

2 stands for Femininity

3 stands for Androgynous

4 stands for Undifferentiated categories of Psychological Gender

According to the results, of the 70 students, 19 were found to be Masculine, the other 19 were found to be Feminine, 18 were identified as Androgynous, and 14 were diagnosed to be Undifferentiated. Table-8 presents the numerical distribution of the students according to their gender role orientations:

Table-8 Numerical distribution of the subjects' gender roles

	Masculine	Feminine	Androgynous	Undifferentiated
Male (n=35)	14	1	14	6
Female (n=35)	5	18	4	8

In order to calculate the effect of psychological gender, the total frequencies of each linguistic variable were counted and summed up for the four gender roles separately and their percentages were estimated. Then, X^2-Test was applied to see if there is significant difference among the results of the four groups. The results were examined under two titles; namely, female-preferential linguistic variables and male-preferential linguistic variables. Next, the findings were summarized briefly in the discussion part.

3.2.1. Female-Preferential Linguistic Variables

For the purpose of determining the role of the psychological gender in relation to the preference of the linguistic codes in the passages, the linguistic items which are claimed to be preferred more by the females than the males were examined first. Table-9 shows the frequency and the percentages of these variables used by each gender role orientations, in addition to the chi-square (X^2) test results of these usages per number:

Table-9 Frequencies, Percentages and the Chi-Square Test Results of Female-Preferential Linguistic Codes According to Psychological Gender

	Linguistic Variables	***Mas.***	***Fem.***	***Andr.***	***Undiff.***	***TOTAL***	***Df***	***X^2***
1	References to Emotion	22 **(23.16%)**	31 **(32.63%)**	17 **(17.89%)**	25 **(26.32%)**	95 **(100%)**	3	4.33
2	Questions	31 **(27.93%)**	26 **(23.42%)**	20 **(18.02%)**	34 **(30.63%)**	111 **(100%)**	3	4.06
3	Qualificative Adjectives	173 **(22.38%)**	232 **(30.01%)**	179 **(23.16%)**	189 **(24.45%)**	773 **(100%)**	3	11.04*
4	Intensifiers	135 **(26.84%)**	166 **(33%)**	95 **(18.89%)**	107 **(21.27%)**	503 **(100%)**	3	23.88**
5	Metaphor and Simile	15 **(26.79%)**	13 **(23.21%)**	16 **(28.57%)**	12 **(21.43%)**	56 **(100%)**	3	0.71
6	Third Person References	90 **(32.03%)**	78 **(27.76%)**	57 **(20.28%)**	56 **(19.93%)**	281 **(100%)**	3	11.80*
7	Expressions of Uncertainty	105 **(26.99%)**	129 **(33.16%)**	98 **(25.19%)**	57 **(14.65%)**	389 **(100%)**	3	27.65**

** There is significant difference between groups at 0.05 level (p<0.05)*
*** There is significant difference between groups at 0.01 level (p<0.01)*
X^2= Chi-square Test
df= degree of freedom

3.2.1.1. References to Emotion

When the first female-preferential linguistic item, references to emotion is examined in terms of the psychological gender, it is seen from Table-9 that with the frequency of 31, the feminine group has the highest percentage. While the undifferentiated group follows it with the 25 frequency, the masculine group has 22 and the androgynous group has 17 frequencies of the total 95 emotional references identified in the passages. However, this difference doesn't show significance according to the chi-square test, because of the almost equal distribution of the frequencies. Thus, we can state that the psychological gender doesn't play a determining role in the selection of the emotional linguistic codes.

3.2.1.2. Questions

With respect to the variable titled questions, Table-9 shows similar frequencies among the four groups. The undifferentiated group has the highest frequency of 34, whereas the masculine have the second highest score of 31, the feminine follow it with the 26 frequency, and last the androgynous group was found to

use 20 interrogatives. When the distribution of the frequencies is examined, the X^2 test results show that the psychological gender was not found to have a critical function on the preferred use of questions while writing.

3.2.1.3. Qualificative Adjectives

When the distribution of the adjectives' frequencies in terms of the psychological gender is examined, it is seen from Table-9 that the feminine group has the highest score of 232 with the 30.01%. The second highest score belongs to the undifferentiated group with the 189 frequency while the androgynous group is the third with the frequency of 179. The masculine group has the smallest value with the frequency of 173. These differences between the frequencies display significance according to the X^2-test which shows us that the psychological gender plays a determining role in the use of the qualificative adjectives. Thus, it is possible to conclude that the more feminine the subjects are the more qualificative adjectives they use in their compositions.

3.2.1.4. Intensifiers

In the next variable intensifiers, the feminine subjects have the highest frequency of 166 when compared to the other groups. The masculine display the next highest frequency with the 135 usage while the undifferentiated group show 107 usages. The subjects who identified themselves as androgynous were observed to use 95 intensifiers which is the least value. According to the chi-square test results there is significant difference among the groups which may lead us to conclude that the more feminine the subjects are the more intensifiers they use in their passages.

3.2.1.5. Metaphor and Simile

Out of the 56 metaphors and similes found in the passages, 16 were used by the androgynous, 15 were used by the masculine, 13 were used by the feminine and 12 were used by the undifferentiated subjects. Since the numbers are close to one another, no significant difference was found by the chi-square analysis. Thus, we can infer that the psychological gender doesn't have a determining role in the metaphor and simile usage in the current study.

3.2.1.6. Third Person References

As for our next variable, the masculine were found to have the most frequent use of 3rd person references with 90 words. While the feminine have the second highest frequency with 78 words and the androgynous are third with 57, the undifferentiated subjects are last with 56 words. The X^2 analysis demonstrates that the difference among the groups is significant which points out that the masculine used significantly more 3rd person pronouns than the other gender categories. We may draw the conclusion that the more masculine the subjects are the more third person references they use in their passages.

3.2.1.7. Expressions of Uncertainty

When the use of uncertainty expressions are examined in terms of the psychological gender types, it was found that the feminine group have the highest frequency with 129 words. The masculine subjects used 105 words, the androgynous subjects had 98 words and the undifferentiated subjects used 57 uncertainty expressions. The differences among the frequencies of four groups show significance according to the X^2 test which reveals that the psychological gender plays an outstanding role in the choice of uncertainty expressions. In other words, the more feminine the subjects are the more expressions of uncertainty they use in their passages.

3.2.2. Male-Preferential Linguistic Variables

As the second part of the psychological gender effect, the linguistic codes which are claimed to be preferred more by the males than the females were examined. Table-10 shows the frequency and the percentages of these variables used by the masculine, feminine, androgynous and undifferentiated subjects in our study in addition to the chi-square (X^2) test results of these usages per number:

Table-10 Frequencies, Percentages and the Chi-Square Test Results of Male-Preferential Linguistic Codes According to Psychological Gender

	Linguistic Variables	***Mas.***	***Fem.***	***Andr.***	***Undiff.***	***TOTAL***	***Df***	***X^2***
1	References to Quantity	125 **(29.21%)**	104 **(24.30%)**	115 **(26.87%)**	84 **(19.63%)**	428 **(100 %)**	3	8.65*
2	Illustratives	31 **(30.10%)**	24 **(23.30%)**	21 **(20.39%)**	27 **(26.21%)**	103 **(100 %)**	3	2.13
3	Errors	234 **(36,22%)**	111 **(17.18%)**	134 **(20.74%)**	167 **(25.85%)**	646 **(100 %)**	3	53.21**
4	Locatives	161 **(31.82%)**	110 **(21.74%)**	123 **(24.31%)**	112 **(22.13%)**	506 **(100 %)**	3	13.32*
5	Focus Adverbials	76 **(28.15%)**	67 **(24.81%)**	66 **(24.44%)**	61 **(22.59%)**	270 **(100 %)**	3	1.73
6	First Person References	172 **(27.74%)**	167 **(26.94%)**	150 **(24.19%)**	131 **(21.13%)**	620 **(100 %)**	3	6.67
7	Expressions of Certainty	127 **(24.33%)**	175 **(33.52%)**	90 **(17.24%)**	130 **(24.90%)**	522 **(100 %)**	3	27.84**

** There is significant difference between groups at 0.05 level (p<0.05)*
*** There is significant difference between groups at 0.01 level (p<0.01)*
X^2= Chi-square Test
df= degree of freedom

3.2.2.1. References to Quantity

When the expressions that denote quantity are examined in terms of the psychological gender roles, Table-10 shows that the masculine have the highest frequency with 125 quantity references while the feminine have 104, the androgynous have 115, and the undifferentiated have 84 references to quantity in their passages. The X^2 test results indicate significant difference between these frequencies. Therefore, in consistent with the finding of Rubin& Greene

(1992), we can conclude that there is a positive relationship between the masculine gender role and the references to quantity usages.

3.2.2.2. Illustratives

Out of the total 103 illustratives identified in the passages, 31 were found to be used by the masculine with the highest frequency. The undifferentiated were observed to use 27; the feminine used 24 and the androgynous group used 21 explicit example markers. Because the distribution of the numbers is close to one another no significant difference was found among the gender types. Therefore, psychological gender does not have an eminent impact on the subjects' use of examples in the compositions.

3.2.2.3. Errors

With respect to the errors, the masculine were observed to have the highest frequency of 234. The undifferentiated subjects had the second highest frequency of 167, whereas the androgynous had 134 and the feminine group had 111 orthographical errors. Chi-square analysis exhibits significance among the frequencies of the groups. This demonstrates us that the psychological gender has an important role in the occurrence of the errors in that the masculine gender role orientation is directly proportioned to making more errors.

3.2.2.4. Locatives

When the expressions of place are investigated in terms of gender role orientations, we see that with 161 uses, the masculine again have the highest frequency. The androgynous have the second highest frequency of 123, whereas the undifferentiated used 112 and the feminine group used 110 locatives in their compositions. The difference among the groups shows

significance according to the X^2 test. Thus, we can conclude that masculine gender role is positively related to the use of locatives in the present study.

3.2.2.5. Focus Adverbials

With respect to the expressions that constrict the centre of what is being said, we met the highest frequency in the compositions of the masculine (*f*=76). The second highest score belongs to the feminine (*f*=67) which is similar to the androgynous subjects (*f*=66). The undifferentiated are the last with the 61 frequency. Because the numbers are close to one another no significant difference was found among the groups in terms of the psychological gender role orientations of the students. Hence, psychological gender does not have a critical effect on the preference of focus adverbials in our study.

3.2.2.6. First Person References

Under this category, we observed that the masculine have the highest frequency of 172 first person references when compared to the other gender roles. The feminine have the second highest overt use of first person references (*f*=167) while the androgynous are the third (*f*=150) and the undifferentiated are the last with the use of 131 pronouns. However, when the total number of the 620 words is considered, the difference among the groups does not differ in a meaningful way according to the chi-square analysis. Unlike the finding of Rubin& Greene (1992) who found that writers with more masculine orientations were more likely to refer to themselves in the first person, in the present study no significant difference was found among the four gender roles. This distinction can be caused by the younger age of our participants.

3.2.2.7. Expressions of Certainty

With respect to our last variable, the feminine were found to use certainty expressions with the highest frequency of 175 words. While the undifferentiated have 130 uses, the masculine have 127 uses. The androgynous group was found to be the last with the 90 frequency. The X^2 test found significant difference among the groups which show us that the psychological gender has a significant role in the preference of the expressions of certainty. According to Taylor et al. (2007:291), "competitive interactions, assertive statements, and confidently expressed conclusions" do typify the masculine communication style. Unlike this view, the present findings indicated that the more feminine the subjects are the more certainty expressions they use in their passages.

3.2.3. Discussion of the Psychological Gender Effect

Winn& Rubin (2001:397) argue that "because language use is socio-culturally conditioned, where gender differences do exist, they are more likely due to differences in gender role schemata than to biological sex". Likewise, according to Kim& Aune (1997:396) researchers in the social sciences and communication researches have begun to give up the use of biological sex as the only variable in the 'gender differences' studies. The notion of psychological gender refers to the conventionalized masculine and feminine behaviours internalized by the individuals irrespective of their biological sex, for this reason rejects the dichotomization of individuals merely on biological sex. Taking into consideration these views, in the present study, in addition to the biological gender effect, we also aimed to detect the degree to which one's psychological gender role influences one's written language production.

When the tables are examined in terms of the first three most frequently counted linguistic variables, the variable with the highest frequency is errors identified in the compositions of the masculine whereas the second most frequently occurred variable is qualificative adjectives found in the feminine

subjects' passages, and the third one is the expressions of certainty observed in the compositions of the feminine.

Briefly, when we examine the role of the psychological gender in determining the use of fourteen linguistic codes which were identified to be either female or male preferential, we found that eight of them showed significant difference. Chi-square comparisons of the variables' frequencies uncovered that the teenagers who identified themselves as feminine made use of significantly more qualificative adjectives, intensifiers, expressions of uncertainty and expressions of certainty in their compositions. On the other hand, the adolescents who identified themselves as masculine were observed to have significantly more third person references, references to quantity, errors and locatives in their compositions than the other gender roles.

While Table-9 demonstrates that the feminine subjects use significantly more expressions of uncertainty, Table-10 exhibits that the feminine subjects use significantly more expressions of certainty. This contradiction can be caused by the age of the students. Since they are in the early adolescence period, their gender role schemas may not have been established completely, and their gender identities do not entirely show consistency as is observed in adults. Moreover, the third person references were found to be used significantly more by the masculine subjects. The topic may have an effect on these contradicting results. Whatever the reasons are, findings reveal that the subjects are still under the influence of the psychological gender in their selection of the linguistic variables. As Kramarae (1981:76) puts it "youngsters become *gradually* aware of what 'masculine' and 'feminine' talk should be as they approach adulthood, rather than experiencing intense awareness at puberty". Therefore, these findings manifest that our subjects have not developed a stable feminine (or masculine) identity yet, but their gender identities have begun to differentiate.

"It is through the adolescent years that identity development and answering the question 'Who am I?' becomes crucial" (Erickson 1963, qtd in Esch 2003:15).

Because the socialization pressures enhance especially during the early-adolescence, psychological and behavioural diversities between girls and boys enhance in order to adjust the traditional masculine and feminine gender roles (Santrock 2005:220). In the current study, within seventy subjects, nineteen students identified themselves to be masculine. This group consisted of five female and fourteen male students. Another nineteen students identified themselves to be feminine. This group consisted of eighteen females and only one male. Of the four gender role orientations, the highest frequencies were observed to gather on the masculine and feminine ends. On the other hand, the androgynous subjects who had higher mean scores on both masculinity and femininity, or the undifferentiated subjects who got lower scores on both masculine and feminine traits from BSRI did not show the highest frequency in any of the variables. This shows us that in the two dimensions of femininity and masculinity, subjects who have two extreme traits, namely, masculine or feminine gender identities, tend to differ significantly in their linguistic preferences. Similar to the findings of Dörtköşeoğlu (2002) who concluded from her research that despite the recent changes and developments in our society, most of the early-adolescents with an age range of 12-15 were found to preserve the traditional gender roles, most of our subjects were generally found to grow up in the traditional gender stereotypes, and to adopt the male or female preferential linguistic codes accordingly.

3.3. TOPIC EFFECT

Another fundamental factor that commonly predicts the use of language is the subject of discussion; therefore we adopted the view that particular styles of writing and speaking are produced in congruence with the topic we are involved in. We believed that certain topics are more closely associated with one gender category than the other, for example describing one's ideal friend correlates more to a female-typed topic since it shows the characteristics of expressive writing and refers to the personal matter of relationships (Rubin& Greene 1992). On the other hand, positing views on global warming is more male-typed as it is

concerned with more controversial and persuasive matters (Janssen& Murachver 2004b). In the present part, we aimed to check the hypothesis that female-preferential language devices are more frequently used in the ideal friend compositions than in the global warming compositions, whereas male-preferential language devices are more frequently used in the global warming compositions than in the ideal friend compositions.

In order to assess the topic effect, the total frequencies of each linguistic variable in the compositions were counted and summed up for both topics separately and their percentages were estimated. Then, X^2-Test was applied to see if there is significant difference between the results of the two groups. The results were examined under two titles; namely, female-preferential linguistic variables and male-preferential linguistic variables. Next, the findings were summarized briefly in the discussion part.

3.3.1. Female-Preferential Linguistic Variables

For the purpose of determining the role of topic in relation to the preference of the linguistic codes in the passages, the linguistic items which are claimed to be preferred by the females more than the males were examined first. Table-11 shows the frequency and percentages of these variables used by the girls and the boys, in addition to the chi-square (X^2) test results of these usages per number:

Table-11 Frequencies, Percentages and the Chi-Square Test Results of Female-Preferential Linguistic Codes According to Topic

	Linguistic Variables	***TOPIC I***	***TOPIC II***	***TOTAL***	***df***	***X^2***
1	References to Emotion	85 **(89.47 %)**	10 **(10.53 %)**	95 **(100 %)**	1	59.21**
2	Questions	44 **(39.64 %)**	67 **(60.36 %)**	111 **(100 %)**	1	4.77*
3	Qualificative Adjectives	527 **(68.18 %)**	246 **(31.82 %)**	773 **(100 %)**	1	102,15**
4	Intensifiers	294 **(58.45 %)**	209 **(41.55 %)**	503 **(100 %)**	1	14.36**
5	Metaphor and Simile	35 **(62.50 %)**	21 **(37.50 %)**	56 **(100 %)**	1	3.50
6	Third Person References	246 **(87.54 %)**	35 **(12.46 %)**	281 **(100 %)**	1	158.44**
7	Expressions of Uncertainty	205 **(52.70 %)**	184 **(47.30 %)**	389 **(100 %)**	1	1.134

** There is significant difference between groups at 0.05 level (p<0.05)*
*** There is significant difference between groups at 0.01 level (p<0.01)*
X^2= Chi-square Test
df= degree of freedom

3.3.1.1. References to Emotion

The effect of the topic on the emotional references is clearly seen from Table-8 in that of the total 95 emotional words, 85 were identified in the ideal friend topic with the 89.47 percentage whereas the global warming topic covered just 10 words with the percentage of 10.53. Chi-square analysis reveals a significant difference between the frequencies. This finding leads us to the conclusion that the dependent variable references to emotion is more frequently used in the ideal friend topic than in the global warming topic. The results show consistency with the finding of Janssen& Murachver (2004b) who also found that the descriptive passages included significantly more pieces of references to emotion. Below, there are some example sentences of references to emotion used in Topic I:

Example (58) Bazen ben de ağlarım o zaman kendimden çok *nefret ederim*.
(S68-F; TI)

Example (59) Sınıfta herkesin belli bir gurup arkadaşı var. Ama benim yok. Eskiden bu duruma çok *üzülürdüm*. Ama artık değil. (S2-M; TI)

References to emotion are the least used variable in Topic II; among these ten words, eight were used by the females, and only two were used by the males. The following examples show the emotional references used by the students in their passages for the global warming topic:

Example (60) Ben bu işe çok *kızıyorum.* Her gün kaç ton su doluyor o havuzlara. (S66-F; TII)

Example (61) İlerde etkilerini gördüklerinde yaptıklarından *utanç duyacaklar*. (S20-M; TII)

3.3.1.2. Questions

In the view of questions, of the total number of 111 interrogative sentences distinguished in the passages, Topic II was found to include higher rates of questions (60.36%) than Topic I (39.64%). When the frequencies are compared with the chi-square analysis a significant difference was found between the two topics which means that the global warming topic contains significantly more questions than the ideal friend topic. We assumed in the beginning of our study that as one of the female-preferential language devices, questions would occur more in the ideal friend topic since this topic was considered to be female-typed. Quite the opposite, our finding is interesting in that although it is the females who asked significantly more questions in their passages as discussed in the first part, they used it more in the global warming passages (among 80 questions 51 were used in Topic II) which were presupposed to include fewer questions when compared to the ideal friend passage. Our finding doesn't agree with the result of Rubin& Greene (1992) who found that expressive passages written by the university students about their feelings to a friend, consisted of more questions than the argumentative passages written to a vice-

president. On the other hand, it shows similarity with the finding of Janssen& Murachver (2004b) who identified more questions in the descriptive passages rather than the controversial passages. One possible reason of this finding can be the girls' less familiarity with the second topic. In other words, because their knowledge is limited they tried to apply for the readers' approval, since some of their questions in their writing seek for support of their views as shown in the examples:

Example (62) Ormanlar, sular, barajlar ve göller birbirlerini küresel ısınmadan kurtarmak için desteklerken bizim hiç bir şey yapamamamız tuhaf *değil mi?* (S38-F; TII)

Example (63) Bir yerde çölleşme varken diğer yerde sel oluyor. *Sizce bu normal mi?* (S52-F; TII)

Example (64) İstanbul'da ise proje üstüne proje, o nehirlerin çayların suyu bitince *ne olacak?* (S17-M; TII)

Of the 44 interrogative sentences identified in the ideal friend topic, 15 were used by the males, and 29 were used by the females. The use of questions in the first topic can be exemplified as follows:

Example (65) Çünkü, bütün kararlar ortak alınıp, hiç farklı düşünmeyen iki kişinin dostluğu *nasıl ve ne kadar* sürer ki? (S65-F; TI)

Example (66) Böyle bir arkadaş tanıyor *musunuz?* Yoksa bu sizin arkadaşınız *mı?* (S29-M; TI)

3.3.1.3. Qualificative Adjectives

With the 527 qualificative adjectives out of the total 773 adjectives, this variable is the most frequently used female preferential linguistic item in Topic I with the

percentage of 68.18. The frequency is 246 in Topic II with the 31.82 percentage. This difference in numbers shows a significant difference according to the X^2 analysis. In a similar line with the finding of Janssen& Murachver (2004b), the subjects preferred to use more adjectives in their ideal friend passages than in their global warming passages. Here are some examples of qualificative adjectives used in the first topic:

Example (67) Hayatta bir emeli olan insanlar her zaman ne istediğini bilen, *kararlı, güvenilir, cesaretli, özgüvenli* insanlardır. (S52-F; TI)

Example (68) *Yeni* arkadaşıma öyle bir sır verdimki benim için çok *önemli* bir sırdı o. (S14-M; TI)

The following are some examples of the qualificative adjectives used in the global warming passages:

Example (69) Böylece *sağlıksız* nesiller yetişecek. Her gün *yeni yeni* hastalıklar ortaya çıkacak. (S48-F; TII)

Example (70) *Verimli* topraklar azalıyor. (S6-M; TII)

3.3.1.4. Intensifiers

As for our fourth variable, intensifiers are the third most frequently used linguistic item in the first topic. Topic I was observed to cover more intensifiers in number (*f*=294) with the 58.45 percentage, while Topic II contains 209 intensive adverbs with the 41.55 percentage. Topic was observed to have the effect on the use of intensifiers, too, since the comparison of the frequencies with the X^2 test showed a significant difference. Both boys and girls tended to write more intensifiers in Topic I than in Topic II. Some examples of the use of intensifiers in the ideal friend topic are given below:

Example (71) Bana kötülük eden *hiç* sevmediğim bir arkadaşım bile olsa, ona yine yardım ederim. (S53-F; TI)

Example (72) Böyle iyi arkadaşlarım olduğunu görünce onlara *daha çok* değer vermeye başladım. (S18-M; TI)

Some instances of the intensifiers used in the global warming passages are as follows:

Example (73) Küresel ısınma Türkiye'ye ve Dünya'ya *pek çok* zarar vermektedir. (S43-F; TII)

Example (74) Amerika araştırmalara göre küresel ısınmayı *en çok* artıran ülkedir. (S18-M; TII)

3.3.1.5. Metaphors and Simile

Among 56 total metaphors and similes identified in the compositions, 35 were found in Topic I (62.50%) and 21 were found in Topic II (37.50%). Chi-square analysis indicates marginally significant difference between the frequencies (p=0.061) which means that with a slight difference the statistical finding is above the significance level of 0.05. Nevertheless, it may show us that topic plays marginally significant role in determining the use of metaphors and similes. According to Goatly (1997:1), metaphor is "an unusual or deviant way of using language, a minority interest or something you do in literature class". In this sense, it is more natural to identify metaphors and similes in the descriptive passages where the ideal or best friends are portrayed rather than the persuasive global warming passages where the focus is on opinions. The following examples indicate the use of metaphor and similes in the ideal friend passages:

Example (75) *Gerçek dost yıldızlara benzer*. Karanlık çökünce ilk onlar gözükür. (S38-F; TI) (simile)

Example (76) Arkadaşlarımızı iyi seçmeliyiz. Şüphesiz ki *onlar bizim aynamız*dır. (S22-M; TI) (metaphor)

On the contrary of our findings, the controversial passages examined by Janssen& Murachver (2004b) were found to have more metaphor or simile than the descriptive passages. Since they are often used in creative writing such as short stories and poetry, it is more natural to find them in the expressive, descriptive compositions. The use of metaphor and similes in the debatable global warming passages can be exemplified as follows:

Example (77) Nasıl olsa biz ölüp gidicez diyorlar. *Öbür tarafta* su vardır demi? (S41-F; TII) (metaphor)

Example (78) Türkiye'nin *tahıl ambarı* Konya'da buğday yetişmez oldu. (S21-M; TII) (metaphor)

3.3.1.6. Third Person References

When we look at the use of 3rd person references in terms of topics, it is seen from Table-8 that of the 281 total references, 246 were labelled in the first topic whereas only 35 words were found in the second topic. When the two groups are compared according to the X^2 test, the difference between the topics was perceived to differ significantly. Similar to the finding of Janssen& Murachver (2004b), the ideal friend topic was found to include more references of third person. Here are some examples of third person references written in ideal friend passages:

Example (79) *Onunla* ilgili hiç kötü şeyler düşünmezdim. *Onu* her zaman severdim. (S43-F; TI)

Example (80) Arkadaş olmazsa insan *kendini* yapayalnız hisseder herkes *onun* üstüne geliyomuş gibi sanar. (S24-M; TI)

Both females and males were found to use third person references with the lower frequencies in their global warming compositions. The following examples indicate the use of the third person pronouns found in the passages:

Example (81) Ozon tabakası zamanla *kendi kendini* onarıyor ama insanlar kullandıkları zararlı maddelerle bunu engelliyor. (S64-F; TII)

Example (82) İki üç yıldan beri Dünyamızı iyice sarmaya başlayan bir illet *onun* adı küresel ısınma. (S28-M; TII)

3.3.1.7. Expressions of Uncertainty

In the view of the linguistic variable expressions of uncertainty, the ideal friend topic has the frequency of 205 with 52.70%, and the global warming topic includes 184 uncertainty expressions with the 47.30 percentage. Although the frequency of Topic I seems to be higher than that of Topic II mathematically which shows that the ideal friend topic consists of more uncertainty expressions, comparison of two groups doesn't show significance according to X^2 analysis. Our finding doesn't overlap with the results of Rubin& Greene (1992) who identified significantly more modal adjuncts (e.g. maybe, probably, hopefully) and auxiliaries of possibility (e.g. could, may) in the expressive writing than in the argumentative writing. The probable reason of this distinction is the age difference between the university students and secondary school student. Some examples of the use of uncertainty expressions in the descriptive ideal friend topic are given below:

Example (83) İyi günde sevinçlerini, kötü günde acılarını *paylaşabildiği* kişilere insanoğlu her daim yanında görmek istediği için, insana sosyal bir varlık da *diyebiliriz.* (S59-F; TI)

Example (84) *Herhalde* birbirlerine arka çıkanlara da "arkadaş" denilmiştir. (S16-M; TI) (Lexical Modal Marker)

The following are some examples of the expressions of uncertainty used in the global warming passages:

Example (85) Lütfen sularımızı *kirletmeyelim*, havayı *kirlemeyelim*, ekmeklerimizi *değerlendirelim*. (S42-F; TII) (Subjunctive/Obtative)

Example (86) Yanlış yerlere ateş *atmayalım*, insanlığı kayba *uğratmayalım.* (S19-M; TII) (Subjunctive/Obtative)

3.3.2. Male-Preferential Linguistic Variables

As the second part of the topic effect, the linguistic codes which are claimed to be preferred more by the males than the females were examined. Table-12 shows the frequency and the percentages of these variables used in Topic I and Topic II in our study in addition to the chi-square (X^2) test results of these usages per number:

Table-12 Frequencies, Percentages and the Chi-Square Test Results of Male-Preferential Linguistic Codes According to Topic

	Linguistic Variables	***TOPIC I***	***TOPIC II***	***TOTAL***	***df***	***X^2***
1	References to Quantity	136 **(31.78 %)**	292 **(68.22 %)**	428 **(100 %)**	1	56.86**
2	Illustratives	28 **(27.18 %)**	75 **(72.82 %)**	103 **(100 %)**	1	21.45**
3	Errors	245 **(37.93 %)**	401 **(62.07 %)**	646 **(100 %)**	1	37.67**
4	Locatives	155 **(30.63 %)**	351 **(69.37 %)**	506 **(100 %)**	1	75.92**
5	Focus Adverbials	98 **(36.30 %)**	172 **(63.70 %)**	270 **(100 %)**	1	20.28**
6	First Person References	463 **(74.68 %)**	157 **(25.32 %)**	620 **(100 %)**	1	151.03**
7	Expressions of Certainty	291 **(55.75 %)**	231 **(44.25 %)**	522 **(100 %)**	1	6.90*

** There is significant difference between groups at 0.05 level (p<0.05)*
*** There is significant difference between groups at 0.01 level (p<0.01)*
X^2= Chi-square Test
df= degree of freedom

3.3.2.1. References to Quantity

With respect to the first male-preferential linguistic code, the references to quantity variable is the third most frequently used linguistic item in Topic II which shows much higher frequency with 292 quantity items whereas the ideal friend topic has 136 quantity items. There is significant difference between Topic I and Topic II according to the chi-square test, therefore it can be stated that the topic of the compositions plays an influential role in determining the use of quantity references. Some examples of the use of references to quantity in the sample of ideal friend are as follows:

Example (87) Avucumuzu sıkarsak kum taneleri yavaş yavaş akıp gider. Belki *birazını* tutmayı başarırsınız ama ne fayda *çoğu* zaten akıp gitmiştir. (S49-F; TI)

Example (88) Hayal ve arkadaşlık. Bence *iki üç* noktada birleşen *iki* olgudur. (S26-M; TI)

Regardless of the writer's gender, references to quantity were observed to be used more frequently in the global warming passage which is consistent with the finding of Janssen& Murachver (2004b). Here are some of the instances of references to quantity identified in the global warming passages:

Example (89) Bu sene Diyarbakır'da en büyük karpuz *47,5 kilo* idi. (S63-F; TII)

Example (90) İnsan vücut ısısının *1^{o}C* artması insanı halsiz ve solgun bırakır. (S25-M; TII)

3.3.2.2. Illustratives

For illustratives, of the 103 total uses, 75 words occurred in Topic II with the 72.82 percentage while only 28 words occurred in Topic I with the 27.18 percentage. The difference between the frequencies was found to be significant according to the X^2 test which showed us that topic plays an important role in determining the use of illustratives. In congruence with our assumptions, the argumentative and controversial passages included more illustratives than the descriptive passages. The following examples indicate the use of illustratives in the ideal friend passages:

Example (91) *Örneğin* iyi bir okul arkadaşı başka yerlerde okumaya gitse de arkadaşını unutmaz. (S58-F; TI)

Example (92) *Mesela* benim Ahmet diye bir arkadaşım var okul bahçesinde konuşuyoruz diyelim. (S23-M; TI)

Illustrative references help the users to support their views by making their opinions more objective and concrete. Both female and male students preferred to use illustratives more in the global warming passages than in the ideal friend compositions because they need more examples in order to strengthen their arguments and to persuade the reader while discussing the causes and results

of global warming. This finding shows similarity with the finding of Janssen& Murachver (2004b) who also found more illustratives in the university students' controversial passages in comparison to the descriptive ones. The use of illustratives in the global warming passages can be exemplified as follows:

Example (93) En çok sevdiğimiz balık *mesela.* (S50-F; TII)

Example (94) *Örneğin* Amerika sanayileşmenin en çok olduğu ülkedir. (S18-M; TII)

3.3.2.3. Errors

With the 401 frequency, errors are the most frequently noticed linguistic variable in Topic II. Topic I, on the other hand, includes 245 errors. The X^2-test analysis computed for the two groups revealed that there is a significant difference between the topics which shows us that the global warming passages include more spelling errors than the ideal friend passages. This finding shows consistency with the study of Janssen& Murachver (2004b) who also found that passages that inform viewpoints consist of more spelling errors. This can be caused by the writers' less familiarity with the topic or more technical terms can be required in these topics. Some examples of the errors that students most frequently made in their ideal friend passages are as follows:

Example (95) Arkadaşlarımızla *tabiiki* paylaşacağız, yardımlaşacağız ama böyle *hısız*, böyle dolandırıcılarla değil. (S70-F; TI) (for *hırsız*)

Example (96) Ben size başımdan geçen bir *hikaye'yi anlatıyım.* (S15-M; TI)

As in the ideal friend passages, some of the errors were caused by not obeying the Turkish orthography rules as exemplified above, and additionally most of the other errors were brought about by the confusion of the letters. Some of these errors can be exemplified as follows:

Example (97) Biliyorum, çünkü haberlerde *ropörtaj* yapan *spikerlerinsorduğu* insanlar kendileri itiraf ettiler. (S65-F; TII) (for *röportaj*)

Example (98) Örneğin; *eksoz* gazından olmayacak, ormana zarar vermeyecek. (S27-M; TII) (for *egzoz*)

3.3.2.4. Locatives

With respect to the locative expressions, 155 words were identified in Topic I with the 30.69 percentage, while 351 words were identified in Topic II with the 69.37 percentage. This variable is the second most frequently used linguistic item in Topic II. The diversity between the topics was found to be significant according to the X^2 test. The following are some examples of the locatives used in the ideal friend passages:

Example (99) Her ilişki gibi arkadaşlıkta *avucumuzun içindeki* kum taneleri gibidir. (S49-F; TI)

Example (100) O yaz *hastanenin kantininde* çalıştığım için Uğur amcayı sık sık görüyordum. (S28-M; TI)

It was highlighted in the study of Janssen& Murachver (2004b) that references to place is one of the male-preferential linguistic codes that were more frequently used in the debatable topics. Similar to this finding, locatives were found in this study to be preferred more in the global warming passages.

Example (101) *Irmaklarda* ve *göllerde* hiç su kalmadı. (S44-F; TII)

Example (102) Bizim toplumumuz çok su harcayan bir toplum olduğu için hergün araba yıkama, halı yıkama, evinin *önünü* temizleme, bunların hepsi ayda bir yapılmalıdır. (S24-M; TII)

3.3.2.5. Focus Adverbials

When we examine the use of focus adverbials in terms of the topic factor, we clearly see from Table-12 that Topic II has much higher rates of focus adverbials (63.70%) with 172 words, whereas Topic I has 98 words with the percentage of 36.30. Chi-square test results show a significant difference between the frequencies which proves that topic plays a determining role in the use of this variable. Some examples of the use of focus adverbials in the ideal friend passages are given below:

Example (103) Çünkü eğer benim başarılarımda benimle sevinmiyorsa başarılarımı kıskanıyorsa o benim yanımda eziyet çeker o zaman aramızda *ne* arkadaşlık kalır *ne* dostluk. (S52-F; TI)

Example (104) Örneğin, *sırf* derslerinde başarılı olduğu için, bir öğrenciyle birlikte olmak istiyebilirler. (S16-M; TI)

The X^2 analysis reveals that the debatable global warming passages did contain more focus adverbials than the descriptive ideal friend passages. Here are some of the instances of focus adverbials identified in Topic II:

Example (105) Doğanın katili *yalnızca* "İNSANLAR" dır. (S67-F; TII)

Example (106) Kutuplarda denize giren insanlar *bile* oldu. (S31-M; TII)

3.3.2.6. First Person References

Although we previously considered 1st person references to be male-preferential language device which was expected to be more frequently used in the debatable global warming topic (as explained in the method section), this variable was not only preferred more by the females but also it was used much

more in the descriptive ideal friend topic. It is the second most frequently used linguistic item in Topic I with the 463 first person pronouns (74.68%). On the other hand, Topic II covered 157 references of first person (25.32%). The comparison of the frequencies with the X^2 analysis reveals significant difference between the two groups. Females were observed to use more first person pronouns both in Topic I (*f*=264) and in Topic II (*f*=100) which differ from the males in a significant way. Some examples of the first person pronouns used in the global warming passages are presented here:

Example (107) *Bana* göre ilk önce yapılması gereken insanları bilinçlendirmek. (S39-F; TII)

Example (108) Ama *bizim* ülkemizde adam yarım litre suyu ihtiyacı kadar içiyor ve çöpe atıyor. (S30-M; TII)

The use of 1st person pronouns is relatively more in the passages describing ideal friend as was found in the study of Janssen& Murachver (2004b). The possible reason for this result can be that since students talk about their own ideal friends they prefer using more references to first person. Thus, we can talk about the topic effect, but not in the sense presupposed before. The following examples indicate the use of first person pronouns in the first topic:

Example (109) Yalanlarıyla *beni* kandırmayan, güvenirsizliğiyle hiç bir şeyimi emanet edemedi(ği)m, kötü kalpli olup *beni* arkamdan vuran, ahlaksız ve terbiyesizliğiyle *beni* yanında küçük düşüren bir arka(da)şı *benim* istemediğim gibi hiçkimse istemez. (S62-F; TI)

Example (110) *Bizim* arkadaşlığımız da o kadar uzun sürecek, *bizim* arkadaşlığımız çok iyi bitmesini istemem. (S4-M; TI)

3.3.2.7. Expressions of Certainty

As for our last variable, 291 certainty expressions were found in the ideal friend topic, whereas the global warming passages had 231 certainty words. Comparison of the frequencies according to X^2 test shows significant results which show us that on the contrary of our presuppositions students preferred to use more expressions of certainty in the descriptive topic rather than the debatable topic. The following sentences exemplify some of the uncertainty expressions in the ideal friend topic:

Example (111) Ama dost dediğin böyle *olmamalı* onun her anında her halinde yanında *olmalı.* (S61-F; TI) (Debitive Mood)

Example (112) İyi kişilerle arkadaşlık kurmak için ilk önce bir öneleme süreci *gereklidir.* (S12-M; TI) (Obligative Predicate)

In the biological gender part we came up with the conclusion that girls make use of more expressions of certainty when compared to the boys. In this part it was found that the descriptive ideal friend passages contain more pieces of certainty references than the controversial global warming passages. Moreover, of the 231 uncertainty expressions identified in Topic II, 137 are used by the females whereas 94 are used by the males, and these numbers differ significantly. Therefore, we can infer that expressions of certainty are not male typical language devices which are more frequently preferred in the debatable passages in the current study. The use of certainty expressions in the global warming passages can be exemplified as follows:

Example (113) Lütfen biraz da çocuğunuzu, torununuzu *düşünün.* (S45-F; TII) (Imperative)

Example (114) Hayatımızın daha erken bitmemesi ve hayvanların daha erken ölmemesi için fabrikalar *durun*. (S23-M; TII) (Imperative)

3.3.3. Discussion of Topic Effect

Gender-preferential language does not always appear as a fixed characteristic of an individual, but as a dependent variable of the context. As Rubin& Greene (1995:146) express “writing is one behaviour through which people do the work of constructing gender identities for themselves, one behaviour through which people impose definitions of gender on contexts”. We hypothesized that the writing itself is affected by the nature of the topics, and our findings revealed to be a positive function of our hypothesis.

Table-11 and Table-12 show that the first three most frequently counted linguistic variables in the ideal friend compositions are the qualificative adjectives, first person references and intensifiers. On the other hand, errors, locatives and references to quantity are the first three most commonly identified variables in the global warming compositions.

When the female-preferential linguistic codes are examined in terms of the percentages and frequencies used in Topic I, it is seen from Table-11 that except for the questions, all the other language devices show higher frequency than Topic II. When the male-preferential linguistic variables are inspected, Table-12 demonstrates that while the first topic’s percentages of the first person references and expressions of certainty are higher than that of the second topic, the percentages of references to quantity, illustratives, errors, locatives and focus adverbials are found to be higher in Topic II than Topic I.

Shortly, chi-square comparisons of the linguistic variables’ frequencies unearthed that of the fourteen linguistic devices examined in the texts, twelve were found to differ as a function of the passage topic. In contrast to the passages on global warming, the passages describing ideal friend included significantly more references to emotion, qualificative adjectives, intensifiers, third person references, first person references and expressions of certainty.

Conversely, passages indicating views on global warming had significantly more pieces of questions, references to quantity, illustratives, errors, locatives and focus adverbials.

Two variables which were not found to differ significantly between the topics according to the chi-square analysis are the expressions of uncertainty although the difference between the numbers is suggestive, and the metaphors& similes although X^2 results indicated marginally significance value. On the other hand, questions, first person references and the expressions of certainty were found to differ in the unanticipated direction. As discussed in section 3.3.1.2., one possible reason of the students' more use of questions in the second topic is their less familiarity with the global warming topic, hence they tend to rely on questions to create a more emphatic style and to get support to their opinions. Since they talk about themselves and their own ideal friends in Topic I, they are more likely to use first person references. As a result it is more natural to observe these usages in the ideal friend topic than the global warming topic. Moreover, they feel free to write in a more definite and assertive manner about a topic that they are familiar with which may also affect the use of certainty expressions in the ideal friend topic more.

Our results show that there is a considerable effect of topic. The students are more likely to use female-preferential language devices when writing on ideal friend topic, and male-preferential language devices when discussing global warming topic. Topic determines the lexical preferences of the subjects no matter what their genders are.

3.4. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

In order to describe gender preferential language use of teenagers, fourteen linguistic variables were analysed in terms of three independent variables: (1) Biological Gender; (2) Psychological Gender; (3) Topic. The analyses lead us to several findings.

Firstly, when biological gender is considered, of the 14 gender-discriminating language features, 7 of them were found to differ between female and male subjects, which give us important clues about the displays of the genderlect in teenagers' impromptu writings. Among these seven variables, six of them (*References to Emotion, Questions, Qualificative Adjectives, Intensifiers, First Person References, Expressions of Certainty*) were used by the girls with a greater frequency. This supports the notion that females are more tentative, interested in interacting with their audience, and socio-emotionally focused in their communicative style than men. References to Emotion, Questions, Qualificative Adjectives and Intensifiers are female-preferential codes, and these findings are consistent with the past research. First Person References and Expressions of Certainty are male-preferential codes. The use of 1st Person References is consistent with the findings of Newman et al. in press; Mehl& Pennebaker 2003; Rayson, Leech& Hodges 1997, as explained in section 3.1.2.6; however, the only contrary finding is the Expressions of Certainty variable. This might be caused by the age of the subjects who are in a transition period. On the other hand, boys made *Errors* more often in their writings, yet no other variables were found to identify male style. Shortly, it can be inferred that our subjects made use of the linguistic variables with different frequencies to express themselves, which in turn determined the features of written style that differentiate female from male teens. We can conclude from our findings that at this critical age, biological gender cannot be expected to make as great difference in the adolescents' writing styles as is observed in adults' writing. Nevertheless, it can be inferred that as Janssen& Murachver put it "(biological) gender is difficult to hide" in their writings (2004a:200).

Secondly, when psychological gender is considered, of the 14 linguistic codes, 8 of them were found to differ among the masculine, feminine, androgynous and undifferentiated subjects. Among these eight variables, four of them (*Qualificative Adjectives, Intensifiers, Expressions of Uncertainty, Expressions of Certainty*) were used more often by the feminine. Qualificative Adjectives,

Intensifiers and Expressions of Uncertainty are female-preferential variables, and Expressions of Certainty is the male-preferential variable. The higher frequency of the certainty and uncertainty expressions in the feminine subjects' compositions may reveal that they do not have a consistent way of expressing themselves yet. Four variables (*Third Person References, References to Quantity, Errors, Locatives*) were found to be used more often by the masculine. Among these, References to Quantity, Errors and Locatives are male-preferential variables, but the Third Person References variable is female-preferential. The androgynous and the undifferentiated subjects were not found to use any of the linguistic items significantly more often. Shortly, we can infer that although the psychological gender has not been fully established at this transition period yet, we can still see the traces of it on the writings of our teens. Therefore, in gender studies the role of the psychological gender should also be taken into account.

Third, when topic is considered, of the 14 linguistic codes, 12 of them were found to differ between the ideal friend topic and the global warming topic. Among these twelve variables, six of them (*References to Emotion, Qualificative Adjectives, Intensifiers, Third Person References, First Person References, Expressions of Certainty*) were used more frequently in the ideal friend passages. Consistent with the past research, 57% of the language variables which were found significantly more frequent in descriptions of one's ideal friend were female preferential (References to Emotion, Qualificative Adjectives, Intensifiers, and Third Person References). The other six variables (*Questions, References to Quantity, Illustratives, Errors, Locatives, Focus Adverbials*) were used more frequently in the global warming passages. Similarly, 71% of the variables used significantly more frequently in passages on global warming were male-preferential (References to Quantity, Illustratives, Errors, Locatives and Focus Adverbials). These findings are also in agreement with the findings of Janssen& Murachver (2004b:358) who found that "positive comments about a third person, references to emotion, third-person pronouns, and adjectives" which are female-preferential, are more frequently used in the

descriptive passages, while male-preferential variables such as “opinions, references to quantity or place, illustratives, and errors” are more frequently used in debating passages.

Previous research has shown that when the individuals are given choices of what they are writing, their selection of topics differ most of the time according to their genders (e.g. Argamon et al. 2003; Levine& Geldman-Caspar 1997; Marschall 1997). Even the 4th grade students identified topics which were acceptable for females and males in the study of S. Peterson (2001). The students explained S. Peterson (2001) that girls usually wrote about friends, family, pets and personal experiences such as going to mall, taking dance lessons whereas boys usually wrote about sports, space, mythical creatures, adventure and animals. When the individuals are restricted with specific topics of discussion, their styles of writing and expressing themselves differ according to the topic (e.g. Thomson 2006). Therefore, topic is an important contextual factor which shapes the ways writers act out their genders. In the current study, students’ performance of gender was aimed to be investigated by two topics arranged beforehand. Our finding accords with the statement that “in the complex social contexts in which language is used, gender is only one factor that shapes the words” (Lynch& Strauss-Noll 1987:93).

Our aim in the study was to describe the roles of the biological gender, psychological gender and topic in terms of several language items. However, it is also possible to make a comparison among these three independent variables in terms of how many measured language features they influenced. Table-13 below summarizes significant and insignificant findings of the chi-square analysis:

Table-13 Summary of the Findings in Terms of the Linguistic Variables Affected by the Independent Variables

Linguistic Variables	Biological Gender	Psychological Gender	Topic
References to Emotion	✓	✗	✓
Questions	✓	✗	✓
Qualificative Adjectives	✓	✓	✓
Intensifiers	✓	✓	✓
Metaphor and Simile	✗	✗	✗
Third Person References	✗	✓	✓
Expressions of Uncertainty	✗	✓	✗
References to Quantity	✗	✓	✓
Illustratives	✗	✗	✓
Errors	✓	✓	✓
Locatives	✗	✓	✓
Focus Adverbials	✗	✗	✓
First Person References	✓	✗	✓
Expressions of Certainty	✓	✓	✓

✓*=Significant effect*
✗*=No Significant effect*

When the biological and psychological genders are compared in terms of the number of the variables differed in the passages, it is possible to state that psychological gender affects the use of the linguistic variables as much as biological gender does. As Table-13 indicates, seven variables differed notably in terms of biological gender whereas psychological gender determined the use of although not all, but eight of the linguistic variables significantly. This finding shows similarity with the finding of Janssen& Murachver (2004b) who had found that with a slight difference the psychological gender played a better role in the writers' language use. The variables that were found to differ significantly according to both biological and psychological genders are qualificative

adjectives, intensifiers, errors and expressions of certainty. Both female and feminine subjects were diagnosed to employ more adjectives, intensifiers and certainty expressions while both male and masculine subjects were identified to use errors in their compositions. This finding shows us that the feminine and the female styles, and the masculine and the male styles resemble each other.

Although considerable biological gender and psychological gender role effects were revealed which give us important insights on language and gender research in Turkey, no significant gender effects were noted for some of the items which had been proposed by previous studies carried out with different age groups. In other words, no biological gender effect was observed on metaphor and simile, third person references, expressions of uncertainty (hedges), references to quantity, illustratives, locatives and focus adverbials. Nor was psychological gender found to have an effect on references to emotion, questions, metaphor and simile, illustratives, focus adverbials, and first person references. The critical age of the students may have an effect on this finding as well as the topics.

Table-13 demonstrates that topic influenced more measured language features than biological and psychological gender since twelve variables differed when students wrote on different topics. Then, according to the results summed up in Table-13, it can be stated that the gender orientation of the topic of writing is more influential than the gender of the persons themselves. The more female-oriented the writing topic, the more female-preferential language devices are utilized in the passages. Similarly, the more male-oriented the writing topic, the more male-preferential language is used. Description of one's ideal friend is a task which is more closely aligned with female-typical concerns in communication, thus it is not surprising to see the features such as references to emotion, personal information, and comments about a third person more frequently in passages on ideal friend. On the contrary, in debating the causes and solutions of the global warming, one cannot surprise to see the features

such as more opinions, illustratives or references to place and quantity (Janssen& Murachver 2004b:361).

When the major research question of “Does gender-preferential language use exist in the writings of adolescents?” is revisited, according to the findings of this study, it can be stated that the adolescents under investigation do adopt preferential language use in their writings. Female adolescents were apt to write in one way, and males in another, however, their writings overlapped most of the time since as Swann express “there are no forms that are exclusively female or male” (1992:21). The students adapted their writing styles to the gender orientation of the topic easily. In other words, they preferred to exert certain linguistic devices in one of the topics than the other respectively. Therefore, as Janssen& Murachver state, this study showed that “when required, women and men are equally capable of communicating in styles more closely associated with the other gender” (2004b:362). Finally, with our present set of analyses, it can be concluded that

- The role of the biological gender on language use cannot be devalued
- Psychological gender appears to have as influential determining role on language use as does biological gender
- As a contextual factor, topic accounts for a larger number of effects
- Most of the gender effects are consistent with existing re search

CHAPTER 4
CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Language is not only a vehicle that transmits ideas but also a shaper of ideas, and more specifically, as Whorf (1976) puts it “it is the programme for mental activity” (qtd. in Spender 1980:139). Each language has the power to impose on its speakers the social norms of the culture it belongs to. In all societies people are divided into two groups at birth on the basis of their anatomical contrasts, and are laden with roles that they should obey throughout their lives. All children grow up with such stereotypical sex roles which instruct them how to speak in specific contexts which in turn reflect on their word selections. As quoted by Wood (1996:3) from a female historian “To be an ‘I’ at all means to be gendered”. When it is asked to describe ourselves, one of the first things that we mention would be our biological gender. Additionally, how we feel about our sex and gender is a vital part of our identity (Rice& Dolgin 2005:185). Each individual passes through a socialization process when she/he learns to place herself/himself onto the continua of masculinity and femininity identities, therefore each person has a psychological gender role orientation which may diverge or converge with her/his biological gender. For Eckert, adolescence is one of the places to investigate some of the most profoundly rooted notions about gender, since it is a significant crossroads for gender (2003:396) where one internalizes the society’s identification of her/his gender, and develops her/his own, therefore it is a crucial landmark in identity search.

Gender is not only something people accomplish but also something “constituted through interaction” (West& Zimmerman 1987:129). The speech behaviour of speakers changes not only according to the social class, region, ethnicity, age, occupation and sex, but also to the situation, topic, and roles (Thorne& Henley 1975:10). In speech, both men and women take into

consideration the topic, their interlocutors' gender and position and the aim of the speech, and regulate their speech accordingly. This is the reason why men tend to speak more polite when women are present around them (Aliefendioğlu 1994:16). Similarly, one cannot talk about the writing style of a person without a particular context. In the writing frame of reference, the issue being discussed is claimed to be an important factor that governs the gender performance of the author.

Within such a complex structure, this research tried to cover how teenagers differ in their linguistic preferences while writing according to their biological gender, psychological gender and the gender orientation of the topic. In order to investigate the aims of the study, 70 students were selected from a primary school in Amasya, Turkey. Bem's Sex Role Inventory was also administered, and their gender roles were identified. Then, two topics were assigned to them to describe the role of the topic in selection of the fourteen language features. Data from three independent variables were analyzed in terms of two titles, namely, female-preferential and male-preferential linguistic variables.

As the answer to our research questions related to biological gender, female and male students varied significantly in the frequencies of the seven language devices they employed in their writings. According to the findings, female teenagers have been found to have more tendencies to use references to emotion, questions, qualificative adjectives, intensifiers, first person references and expressions of certainty, whereas male teenagers seem more likely to make errors in their writings. Females used more female-preferential variables in their compositions, whereas males used only one male-preferential variable. Therefore, even though not entirely, the biological gender was found to reflect on the writings of teenagers. The results of the study revealed that both girls and boys have some tendencies while constructing their sentences, and that they partially build the gender stereotypes they learnt during the socialization process in their writings.

The results also highlighted that the psychological gender plays a significant role in the selection of some of the language devices. Concerning our second research question on psychological gender, the frequencies of the eight language devices the subjects employed in their writings differed according to their gender role traits. Students who demonstrated masculine gender role characteristics were more likely to use third person references, references to quantity and locatives, and to make errors. On the other hand, students with more feminine orientations reported a greater likelihood of using qualificative adjectives, intensifiers, expressions of uncertainty and expressions of certainty in their compositions. According to the findings, androgynous and undifferentiated students did not differ significantly in any of the language devices. This may show that the gender-schematic (feminine and masculine) subjects tend to be more conservative in using language features which are more closely associated with their own gender role orientation than the androgynous and undifferentiated subjects. Despite the finding that the students' psychological genders have not been precisely established yet, in accordance with the results of Janssen& Murachver (2004b) our findings suggest that gender identity (as opposed to biological sex alone) can be an important factor in the selection of particular language features.

As the answer to the third research question which inquired the use of female and male-preferential language devices in two topics, it can be stated that participants' preferences of the language variables varied in accordance with the gender type of the topics. Female-preferential language items were used more frequently in the descriptive/expressive ideal friend topic, whereas male-preferential language items were used more frequently in the debatable/controversial global warming topic. This finding shows us that the nature of the topics bear an influence on the selection of the lexical preferences of the writers.

Comparison of the number of the linguistic codes affected by the independent variables showed that 7, 8 and 12 language items differed as a function of the

biological gender, psychological gender, and topic respectively. This finding implies that topic is more influential on the preference of the language items than biological and psychological genders. Results also indicated that gender is not the one and only determiner of language use and that the gender role schemata and the focus of the writer needs exploration for a more comprehensive understanding of stylistic differences in language use. In sum, it can be concluded that individual differences as well as the contextual forces require an explanation in the survey of gender and language use in written discourse. The findings of the current study, though modest, puts forward some detailed interpretation of the ways in which teenagers 'do' their genders subconsciously in accordance with the topic they are involved in.

Like any research study, this study also has some limitations. First of all, as a statistical study, the present thesis provides clear-cut descriptions from a particular time and place with particular participants. In other words, the scope of the study is limited to the seventy 7^{th} and 8^{th} grade students studying in a primary school in a relatively small city of Anatolia. Therefore, the findings cannot be considered as universally acceptable. More studies are needed to make substantial generalizations on the writing styles of Turkish teenagers with respect to gender. Secondly, since the model of the study was originally developed for English language, its application to Turkish may bring out certain limitations.

We hope that this research study will be a beneficial example for the similar studies in the future by bringing a new perspective of gender and language studies with its emphasis on the factors of psychological gender and topic. As a recommendation for a future study, the number of the subjects can be increased by including teenagers from different cities in Turkey, or the age cohort of subjects can also include adults in order to come up with more general conclusions. Because of the limitations in time and place, the present study dealt with only fourteen language devices. Some new linguistic variables can be

added which have been found to be female- or male-preferential items in the previous studies.

As a final remark on education, it is important to note that “writing, like reading, is a learned social practice” which is basically acquired at schools (Kanaris 1999:263). Since the school environment is “a microcosm of society” (Romatowski& Trepanier-Street 1987:17), the attitudes and the teaching methodology of the teachers in addition to the education curriculum and the course books have a great responsibility in adolescents’ construction of gender role traits which in turn mirror on their writings. Rather than producing sex-typed individuals by focusing on the differences between the genders and fortifying the gender stereotypes, the educators can encourage their students to adopt the androgynous gender role which is the most appreciated type among the others (Bem 1981; Dökmen 2004; Santrock 2005) since the androgynous individuals are considered to be “more flexible and more mentally healthy than either masculine or feminine individuals” (Santrock 2005:216).

One should remember that females and males have more similarities than the differences in their language use, and contextual factors like topic have a large impact on communication style than gender. Therefore, rather than evaluating students as two different cultural outputs in the classroom, educators should bear in mind that linguistic behaviour, as a part of the gender behaviour, often changes across contexts. Since education is equal to both girls and boys, and is an institute where they are not only educated but also socialized, it is important to speed up the process of socialization without making discrimination between them, and to help them in gaining the standard norms of language use as well as the ability to express themselves adequately.

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APPENDIX-1

DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE

Adınız ve Soyadınız: Yaşınız:

Sınıfınız: Türkçe Dersi Notunuz:

1. Babanızın öğrenim durumu
   1. ( ) Hiçbir okul mezunu değil (0)
   2. ( ) İlkokul mezunu (1)
   3. ( ) Ortaokul/lise mezunu (2)
   4. ( ) Yüksek okul mezunu (3)
   5. ( ) İleri eğitim görmüş (master, doktora) (4)

2. Annenizin öğrenim durumu
   1. ( ) Hiçbir okul mezunu değil (0)
   2. ( ) İlkokul mezunu (1)
   3. ( ) Ortaokul/lise mezunu (2)
   4. ( ) Yüksek okul mezunu (3)
   5. ( ) İleri eğitim görmüş (master, doktora) (4)

3. Kendinize ait odanız var mı?
   1. ( ) Evet (3) 2. ( ) Hayır (0)

4. Evinizde oda sayısı (mutfak hariç)
   1. ( ) Tek oda (0)
   2. ( ) Tek oda ve salon (1)
   3. ( ) İki oda ve salon (2)
   4. ( ) Üç oda ve salon (3)
   5. ( ) 4 ve daha fazla oda ve salon (4)

5. Ailenizin ortalama aylık geliri
   1. ( ) 0 – 500 YTL (0)
   2. ( ) 500 – 1.000 YTL (1)
   3. ( ) 1.000 – 1.500 YTL (2)
   4. ( ) 1.500 – 2.000 YTL (3)

6. Babanızın mesleği
   1. ( ) İşçi (toprak, sanayi vb.) (0)
   2. ( ) Çiftçi (Kendi toprağında) (1)
   3. ( ) Memur (2)
   4. ( ) Esnaf/tüccar (3)
   5. ( ) Serbest meslek (doktor, avukat vb) (4)

7. Annenizin mesleği

1. ( ) Ev kadını (0)
2. ( ) İşçi (toprak, sanayi, vb.) (1)
3. ( ) Memur (2)
4. ( ) Esnaf/tüccar (3)
5. ( ) Serbest meslek (doktor, avukat vb.) (4)

8. Ailenizin sahip olduğu eşyalar (Birden fazla işaretleyebilirsiniz. Eğer aynı eşyadan birden fazla sahipseniz, eşyanın adının yanındaki parantez içinde sayısını belirtiniz)

1. ( ) Buzdolabı (1)
2. ( ) Çamaşır makinesi (1)
3. ( ) Televizyon (1)
4. ( ) Arsa-Arazi (1)
5. ( ) Video (1)
6. ( ) Bilgisayar (1)
7. ( ) Ev (daire) (1)
8. ( ) Araba (1)
9. ( ) Yazlık ev (1)

9. Sinemaya ne kadar sıklıkta gidersiniz?

1) ( ) Ayda bir kez (4)
2) ( ) Üç ayda bir kez (3)
3) ( ) Yılda iki kez (2)
4) ( ) Yılda bir kez (1)
5) ( ) Hiç gitmem (0)

10. Evinize düzenli olarak gazete girer mi?

1) ( ) Hayır (0)
2) ( ) Ara sıra (1)
3) ( ) Evet (2)

APPENDIX-2

BEM'S SEX ROLE INVENTORY

İSİM: SINIF:
YAŞ: CİNSİYET:

KENDİNİZİ TANIMLAYINIZ

Aşağıda sizi tanımlayan bazı sıfatlar ve bunların size uygunluk dereceleri vardır. Belirtilen her sıfatın yanına size uygunluk derecesini belirten rakamı lütfen soruları atlamadan yazınız.
Envanteri cevaplarken sonuçların yalnız size açıklanacağını bilerek, rahat ve gerçekçi olarak doldurunuz.

Bana göre kesinlikle doğru değil	1
Bana göre genellikle doğru değil	2
Bana göre bazen doğru	3
Bana göre ara sıra doğru	4
Bana göre çoğunlukla doğru	5
Bana göre genellikle doğru	6
Bana göre her zaman doğru	7

1	Kendine güvenen		22	Gözü pek		40	Erkeksi	
2	Sıkılgan		23	Başkalarının ihtiyaçlarına duyarlı		41	Namuslu	
3	Dürüst		24	Kibirli		42	Bencil	
4	Kendi inançlarını savunan		25	Ailesine karşı sorumlu		43	Saldırgan	
5	Fedakar		26	Yumuşak, nazik davranan		44	Sadık	
6	Kıskanç		27	Etrafına karşı saygılı		45	Hoşgörülü	
7	Girişken					46	Haksızlığa karşı tavır alabilen	
8	Boyun eğen		28	Otoriter		47	Sevecen	
9	Güvenilir		29	Merhametli		48	Sistemsiz, plansız	
10	Etkileyici, güçlü		30	Ne yapacağı belli olmayan		49	Kuralcı, katı davranan	
11	Ağırbaşlı, ciddi		31	Sözünde duran		50	Kaba dil kullanmayan	
12	Karamsar		32	Cana yakın		51	Dostça davranan	
13	Riski göze almaktan çekinmeyen		33	İşinde ciddi ve sorumlu olan		52	Baskın, tesirli	
14	Duygusal		34	İdealist		53	Anlayışlı	
15	Konuksever		35	İncinmiş duyguları tamir etmeye istekli		54	Yapmacık davranan	
16	Hırslı		36	Asık suratlı		55	Duygularını açığa vurmayan	
17	Gönül alan		37	Cömert		56	Hassas	
18	Dedikodu yapan		38	Tatlı dilli		57	Samimi	
19	Lider gibi davranan		39	Yardımsever		58	Mantıklı davranan	
20	Kadınsı					59	Çocukları seven	
21	Uyum sağlayabilen					60	Tutucu	

APPENDIX-3

SAMPLE COMPOSITIONS

İDEAL ARKADAŞIM

Hayatımdaki ideal arkadaş bana uyacak bir kişi olmasını her şeyi saklayıp sırdaş olmamızı ve top oynamayı bilmesi lazımdır.

Tabii her şey top demek değil ama ben topu çok seviyorum ve ben o alanla ilgilenirken onun canının sıkılmasını istemem. Bisiklet sürmeyi bilmesi ve benim ilgilendiğim alanlarla onun da ilgilenmesi lazım, acıma duygusu olması, yalan söylememesi, küfür etmemesi, beni bir başka arkadaşına satmaması, başkalarıyla alay etmemesi ve iç güzelliğinin olması lazımdır. Dış güzellik o kadarda önemli değil. Macera duygusunun ve hayal duygusunun gelişmiş olması lazımdır. Paylaşması ve paylaşım duygusunun gelişmiş olması beni etkileyen en büyük etkendir, maddi durumuda beni o kadar ilgilendirmez. Kavga etmeyi sevmediğim gibi onunda sevmemesi lazımdır. İçine kapanık değil, girişken olmalıdır. Benim gibi uzayı sevmeli ve araştırmacı olmalıdır. Tuttuğu takımın Beşiktaş olmasını isterim ama o kadar da gerekli değil, tembel olmayıp çalışkan olmalıdır.

Her zaman benimle yandaş olup beni tutmalıdır. Ve benim sırlarımı anneme bildirmemesi gerekir. Sırdaş olmakta zaten buna denir. Tabi anneme demediği zaman başkalarınada demesi anlamına gelmez. Kötü günde yanımda olmalıdır. Nede olsa:

"İyi dost kara günde belli olur."

TÜRKİYE ÇÖLLEŞMESİN !!!

Küresel ısınma nedeniyle, Dünya'da kuraklık başlamıştır. Kuraklık Dünya'nın kaçınılmaz sonu olmaya devam etmektedir. Küresel ısınma günümüzde birçok ülkenin sorunudur. Küresel ısınma Güneş'in zararlı ışınlarının Dünya'ya yansımasıdır.

Küresel ısınma bugün Türkiye'yi ayağı kaldıran önemli sorunlardan biridir. Güneş ışınlarının Dünya'ya yansımasıyla Dünya'nın ısısı artmaktadır. Türkiye birçok göl kurumuştur. Bu da bizi çok endişelendirmektedir. Küresel ısınma Türkiye ve Dünya'da birçok kişinin susuz kalması demektir. En önemli belirtilerinden biride buzulların erimesi, bunun en basit örneği ise gözümüzün önündeki Yeşilırmaktır. Bu küresel ısınma ozon tabakasınında delinmesinide tetiklemektedir. Ozon tabakasının delinmesi Dünya'nın sonu demektir. Küresel ısınma mevsimleride değiştirmektedir, bitkilerin kurumasını hatta sulak alanda yetişen bitkilerinde sonu demektir. Buna örnek pirinçtir. Pirinç sulak alanda yetişir. Ve en çok yenen yemeklerdendir.

Bu zararları önlemek için daha tasarruflu su kullanıp açık su gördüğümüz yerde kapatmalıyız. Fabrika atıklarını sulara atmamalıyız. Hava kirliliklerini engellemeliyiz. Ses kirliliği yaratmamalıyız. Sebze ve meyveleri yıkarken, yemek yaparken, tıraş olurken, banyo yaparken su tasarrufu yapmalıyız. Yoksa Türkiye'yi çölleştiririz.

S-8; TII

GERÇEK ARKADAŞLIK

Gerçek arkadaşımız üzüntülü günümüzde bizimle üzülebilen, sevinçli günümüzde bizimle sevinebilen kısacası sırtımızı dayayabileceğimiz bir kişidir.

Gerçek arkadaş bize karşı içten olan, gerektiği zaman sır paylaşa bileceğimiz bir kişidir. Ama böyle arkadaş olmak istiyorsak bizim de aynı şeyleri yapmamız samimi olmamız gerekir. Bir insanın iyi arkadaş olup olmadığı çok kolay anlaşılır. Örneğin:

- Bizim arkamızdan konuşuyorsa
- Bizim güvenimizi boşa çıkarıyorsa
- Bir zor anımızda "düşenin dostu olmaz" diyebiliyorsa

… böyle bir arkadaş gerçek düşünemez.

Ben size başımdan geçen bir olayı anlatayım:

Bir gün okulda maç oynarken yere düştüm kolum çok ağrıyordu arkadaşlarım beni hastaneye götürdüler evimi arayıp anneme haber verdiler. Böyle iyi arkadaşlarım olduğunu görünce ben de onlara daha çok değer vermeye başladım.

Bir gün Muğla'dan ayrılacağımız zaman ben tek bir arkadaşıma kaçta gideceğimi söylememe rağmen bütün arkadaşlarım beni yolcu etmeye geldiler.

Arkadaşlıklarımızı sağlam temellerle ve bazı kurallara uyarak kurarsak bunun karşılığını her zaman alırız.

S-18; TI

SUSUZ HAYAT HAYAT DEĞİLDİR

Küresel ısınma spreyler, fabrika bacaları gibi nedenlerle ortaya çıkan ozon tabakasının bu gibi nedenlerle delinmesi ve güneş ışınlarının hiç süzülmeden dünyaya yansıması sonucu oluşan ve buzulların erimesi suların çekilmesi ve sıcaklıkların artması gibi nedenlere sebep olan çağımızın en büyük sorunudur.

Küresel ısınmada bazı ülkeler çok etkili rol oynamıştır. Sanayileşmesi yüksek olan bol bol fabrikaların bulunduğu ve bunu anlamasına rağmen önlem almayan ülkeler küresel ısınmayı oluşturan ülkelerdir. Örneğin Amerika sanayileşmenin en çok olduğu ülkedir. Amerika araştırmalara göre küresel ısınmayı en çok artıran ülkedir.

Küresel Isınmayı birkaç ülke büyütür ama bundan bütün Dünya etkilenir. Bu ısınmanın ülkemize zararları çoktur. Bunlar;

- Ankara, İstanbul, İzmit gibi illerde suların azalması ve yağış olmadığından suların artmaması
- Yağmur yağmadığından tarımda verimin azalması
- Artık hayvanların (inek, koyun,…) beslenecekleri ot bulamayıp et, süt …vb. ürünlerinin kalitesinin azalması
- Okullarda verilen eğitimin bazı illerde ertelenmesi

Dünya bu olaylara halen sessiz kalıyor ve halen ülkelerinin sanayisini ve ordusunu güçlendirmeye çalışıyorsa buna sessiz kalmamak lazım. Eğer ilerde “SU SAVAŞLARI” ’nın olmasını istemiyorsak ülkemizi korumalıyız, ülkemizin coğrafi konumundan yararlanmalıyız ve ülkemizi yaşatmalıyız.

ARKADAŞLIK BU

Bir normal arkadaş vardır, bir de ideal arkadaş, yani dostun vardır. Arkadaşınla gezersin, eğlenirsin, sinemaya gidersin ama yardım edilecek zamanda senin yanında yoktur. Dostun ise her zaman ve ne koşulda olursa olsun senin yanındadır. Atalarımız da buna uygun bir söz söylemiş; “Dost kara günde belli olur.”

Benim ideal arkadaşım ise zorda olduğu zaman başkasına değil, bana gelmelidir. Bir arkadaşım bana “En sevdiğim arkadaşım, en iyi arkadaşım.” deyip başkasına gidiyorsa o benim dostum değildir. Dostumsa her türlü şartta bana gelir. Örneğin, annesi hastalanmıştır, götürecek araba bulamaz. Gelir benden ister. Ben de veririm. Çünkü hayattaki en iyi arkadaşım ve onun annesi. Benim de annem sayılır. Belki bir gün ben de onun düştüğü duruma düşeceğim ve o da bana yardım edecek.

Hayattaki ideal arkadaşlar çabuk kaybedilir. Benim de başıma geldi bu. 6. sınıftayken dostum “X” ti. Sorunlar oldu, görüşmemeye başladık. Şimdi en fazla ayda 1 kere görüşüyoruz. 7. sınıftayken “Y” idi. Araya yaz tatili girdi ve soğuduk. Onunla da ayda 1 kere ya görüşürüz, ya görüşemeyiz. 8. sınıfta ise “Z” oldu. Arkadaşlığımız güzelce sürüyor. Umarım ki bozulmaz.

Bazen de ideal arkadaşların çabuk bulunur. Mesela top oynarken bileğini burkarsın. Hiçbir arkadaşın yanına gelmez ama karşı takımdan sana soğuk davranan kişi gelir ve sana yardım eder.

Arkadaşlık bu. Bazen kolay kazanılıyor. Bazen kolay kaybediliyor. Bazen ise hiç bulamıyorsun. Biraz da bizim aptallığımız. Neden dostlarımızı kaybediyoruz?

Not: İsim vermek istemediğim için
X-Y-Z harflerini kullandım.

S-21; TI

KÜREMİZ ISINIYOR

Küresel ısınma mı dediniz? Buzulların erimesiyle başladı küresel ısınma. Önce kutuplardan başladı, sonra Ekvatora doğru gelmeye başladı.

Türkiye'yi de vurdu bu küresel ısınma. Mevsim değişiklikleri, barajların kuruması, bunun sonucuyla suların kesilmesi derken simdi yeşillik de kalmadı. Hayvanlar yiyecek ot, sanayiciler otomobil yıkamak için su bulamıyor. Konfeksiyon mağzaları ise ne yapacaklarını şaşırdılar. Ekim ayının ortasına geldik ama hâla kısa kollu kıyafetlerle dolaşıyoruz. Bu da ne üreteceklerini şaşırttı onlara.

Başkentimiz Ankara'da ise sular kesilmeye başladı. Aslında Türkiye'nin kalbi Ankara'da atıyor. Millet vekilleri, Başbakan, Cumhurbaşkanı da susuz kaldı. Okullar açılmadan önce çoğu okula su deposu kuruldu.

Tuz Gölü'nün %60'ı kurudu. Türkiye'nin tahıl ambarı Konya'da buğday yetişmez oldu. Buğdayların boyu sadece 30 cm'yi bulabildi. Bunun sonucunda un ve ekmeğe de zam gelir dedik ama fazla bir etkileşim olmadı.

Şimdi ise su sorununa yeni bir çare bulundu. Deniz veya nehir suyunu arıtarak saf su elde etmeye çalışıyorlar. Bu çözüm olur mu bilmiyorum ama su arıtma cihazları çok pahalı olduğu için çoğu kişinin almayacağını tahmin ediyorum. Bir de İstanbul ve çevresindeki otellerde bu uygulama başladı. Günlük 500 tona yakın su ihtiyacı olan bir otele gönderildi böyle bir cihaz.

İşte küresel ısınma böyle bir şey işte. Yediğimiz meyveden, sebzeden, içtiğimiz sudan zevk alamıyoruz. Gerisini siz düşünün. Küresel ısınmayla mücadelemizi ilan edelim mi?

S-21; TII

GERÇEK ARKADAŞ

Gerçek bir arkadaş zaten hep hayallerde olur. Gece gözlerimizi kapattığımızda ilk ideallerimiz sonra arkadaşımız en iyi arkadaşımız gelir. Tabi varsa. Hayalimdeki arkadaşımın nasıl olmasını isterdim?

Hayalimdeki ideal arkadaşım her zaman en kötü zamanımda bile yanımda olmalı. Temiz kalpli, iyi yürekli, anlayışlı, çalışkan, başarılı, her şeyimi, sırlarımı, dertlerimi hiç düşünmeden anlatabileceğim bir arkadaş istiyorum. Ben ağladığımda benimle birlikte ağlayacak, ben güldüğümde benimle birlikte gülecek, benim saçmalıklarıma, eğlenceyi seven, güleryüzlü, yalan söylemeyen bir arkadaş istiyorum. En çok üzülüp, ağladığım zamanda tek arayabileceğim kişinin o olması isterim.

Günler günleri kovalarken o hep benim yanımdaysa, yalan söylediğimde bile neden yalan söylediğimi anlıyorsa, birlikte gülerek komedi filmi izliyorsak o benim gerçek arkadaşımdır.

Gerçek dost yıldızlara benzer.
Karanlık çökünce ilk onlar gözükür…

S-38; TI

KÜRESEL ISINMA

Küresel ısınma insanların Dünya'nın doğal zenginliklerini bencilce kulnanması sonucunda oluşan, Dünya'yı ölümün eşiğine götüren en büyük sorundur. Güzel ülkemiz Türkiye bu sorunla şu anda savaşmaktadır insanların haberi olmasada.

Ormanlar, sular, barajlar ve göller birbirlerini küresel ısınmadan kurtarmak için desteklerken bizim hiç bir şey yapamamamız tuhaf değil mi? Bu güzel ülkeyi ve Dünyamızı hedef alan bu sorunla savaşmak bizim görevimizken biz bu sorunu sadece televizyonlardan izleyip, balık hafızamızdan siliyoruz. Aslında şöyle bir kafamızı kaldırıp sağımıza solumuza baksak bu sorunu televizyonlardan bakmamıza hiç gerek yok çünki bu sorun bizi içine almış ve çöllere götürmek üzere bu sorunla baş edebilmek için elektriği az kullanmak, ışıkları açık bırakmama, klima yerine valtilatör kullanmak, sularımızı yettiğinden fazla kullanmamak, hortumla sulama ve yıkama yapmamak, televizyonları bekleme durumuna bırakmamak bunlar sadece küresel ısınma ile savaşmanın yarısı bile değil. Ülkemizi korumak hepimizin görevi.

S-38; TII

İDEAL ARKADAŞLIĞIN TEMELİ

Arkadaşlık kavramı çok içten ve duygusal bir kavramdır. Arkadaşlarımızın sevinci bizim sevincimiz, üzüntüsü bizim üzüntümüzdür.

Arkadaşı bulmak zor kaybetmek kolaydır. Bir insana dost demişsek zaten o bizim kardeşimiz gibi olmuştur. Kalbimizdeki üzüntüyü paylaşmak, yeri geldiğinde ağlamak için omuzdur. İdeal arkadaşlıkta böyle olmalıdır. Çoğunlukla hayatımızdaki en güzel anılarımızı bile arkadaşlarımızla yaşıyoruz. Çünkü zamanımızın büyük bir kısmı onlarla geçiyor. İdeal arkadaş güvenilir, sadık, her zaman ve koşulda yanında olabilendir. İnsan tanımadığı kişiye dostum dememeli, tanıdıkça karar vermelidir. Çünkü gülerken herkes senle birlikte güler, ya ağlarken? O zaman her şey belli olur ve büyük bir hayal kırıklığına uğrayabiliriz. İdeal arkadaşlar güldüğünde de ağladığında da hep yanında olurlar.

Benim arkadaşlık tablom böyle. Gerçekten arkadaş dediğimiz kişileri iyi tanıyalım. İdeal arkadaşımızı iyi belirleyelim!

S-56; TI

ISINMA FACİASI

Küresel ısınma şimdilerde dünyanın en büyük sorunlarından. Gelecekte bizi çok kötü doğal şartlar bekliyor. Bunları önlemek elbette elimizde. Önemli olan gereken tedbirleri almak.

Bir çok ülke dünyamıza zararlı olduğunu bile bile kömür gibi yakıtları kullanmaktadır. Neden güneş, rüzgar gibi doğal kaynaklar varken zararlı olanlar? Kendi sonumuzu kendimiz hazırlıyoruz. Hiç bizden sonraki nesilleri düşünmüyoruz. “Aman biz bu dünyadan gidince bütün bu dedikleri olacak, niye ben önlem alıyorum ki?” diye düşünmeyin. Siz değil ama belki çocuklarınız, belki de torunlarınız bu acı olayları yaşayacak. Niye ne yapsam da bunların olmasını bir nebze de olsa önlesem denmiyor? Televizyonun fişini çekmeniz, dişinizi fırçalarken boşa su akıtmamanız, elektrikleri açık bırakmasanız her şey daha kolay olur. Çünkü bunlar bizler için önemli detaylar. Hiç buzullarda yaşayan kutupayılarını, fokları, penguenleri düşündünüz mü? Buzullar yok olursa onlar da yok olurlar. Ve buzullar erirse dünya sular altında kalır, insanlar, hayvanlar ve diğer canlılarda yok olur. Sıcaklar artarak devam etmekte önlemimizi almalıyız çünkü vakit azalıyor.

İnsanlar sadece fazla suyu akıtmamakla bile küresel ısınmayı biraz da olsa engel olabilirler. Sadece ben mi kurtaracağım dünyayı diye düşünmeyin. O an binlerce insan sizin gibi düşünüyor olabilir. Her biri suyu kapatırsa düşünün, ne güzel olur! Dünyamızı seviyorsak KÜRESEL ISINMAYA HAYIR!

S-56; TII

İyi Bir Arkadaş Nasıl Olur

Arkadaş nedir? Bence, arkadaş iyi gününde sevinçlerini kötü gününde acılarını paylaşandır. Herkes iyi bir arkadaşa sahip olmak ister. Bir kaç defa beraber olmayla o kişinin arkadaşı olduğunu sanır. Ama çoğu zaman yanılır.

Sizce iyi bir arkadaş nasıl olur? Bence iyi gününde arkadaşıyla birlikte sevinen kötü gününde acısını hafifletendir. Kötü gününüzde sizi acılarınızla baş başa bırakmayıp size destek çıkan gerçek arkadaşınız olmalıdır. Atalarımız ne demiş dost kara günde belli olur.

Bir arkadaşın sadece acıları paylaşması onun iyi bir arkadaş olduğunu göstermez. İyi bir arkadaş arkadaşının sırtından geçinmez. Arkadaşız deyip ona her istediğini aldırtmaz. Arkadaşının dedikodusunu yapmayan diğer arkadaşlarla arasını bozmayan sizin gerçek arkadaşınızdır.

İyi bir arkadaş aynı zamanda iyi de bir sırdaştır. Yoksa arkadaşının sırlarını başkasına söyleyen arkadaşına ihanet etmiş olur. Arkadaşlar hiç bir zaman bir birine yalan söylemez. Arkadaşından hiçbir şeyi saklamaz. Arkadaşını sırt üstü bırakmaz. İyi bir arkadaş arkadaşını hiç bir zaman unutmaz. Örneğin iyi bir okul arkadaşı başka yerlerde okumaya gitse de arkadaşını unutmaz. Onu daima arayıp sorar. Ara sıra ziyaretine gider.

Siz de iyi bir arkadaşınız olsun istiyorsanız önce kendinizden başlayın. Kendiniz iyi bir arkadaş olun. Sonra başkalarıyla arkadaşlıklarınıza değer verin. Sizi kötü yola saptıran arkadaşlarınızdan daima uzak durun.

S-58; TI

Küresel Isınmanın Zararları

Teknolojinin hızla gelişmesiyle oluşan gazlar ozon tabakasını deler. Güneşin zararlı ışınlarının oluşan delikten direk dünyaya direk gelmesi küresel ısınmaya neden olur.

Küresel ısınmayı sadece teknoloji değil bizlerde yapıyoruz. En kolayından kullandığımız parfümler, kalitesis kömürlerle oluşan zararlı gazlar, ormanların hızla yok olması ve bunlar gibi daha bir sürü örnek küresel ısınmaya neden olur.

Küresel ısınmanın her ülkeye olduğu gibi ülkemiz Türkiye'ye de zararları vardır. Yazın hepimizin gördüğü gibi ülkemizdeki barajların çoğu kuruma noktasına geldi. Başkentimiz susuz kaldı. Su sıkıntılarını çözmek için Kızılırmak'tan su getirildi. Tabi bir ırmağın suyu ne kadar arıtılsada bir kaynak suyu kadar iyi olamaz. Su iyi arıtılmayınca da kirli sulardan insanlara çeşitli hastalıklar geçecek. Susuzluğun insanlara olduğu gibi bitkilere de zararları var. Susuzluktan meyve sebze üretimleri düştü. Hal böyle olunca fiyatlar yükseldi. Mevsimlerde de sıkıntılar başladı. Yağmurlar yağmaz oldu. Kasırgalar, hortumlar arttı.

Küresel ısınmaya karşı önlemler alınmazsa dünyamız çok çabuk yok olucak. Önlemlerin başında da insanları eğitmek gelir. İnsanları eğiterek küresel ısınmanın zararlarından dünyamızı korumalıyız. Teknolojiyi ilerletirken dünyamızı bir çıkmaza sokmamalıyız. Bacalarımıza, egzoz borularımıza filtre taktırmalıyız. Çok fazla parfüm kullanmamalıyız. Tabi en önemli önlemde insanları eğitmek olacaktır.

S-58; TII

APPENDIX-4

TRANSLATION OF THE EXAMPLE SENTENCES

Example (1) Şimdi o benden çok uzakta, onu çok *özlüyorum*. (S43-F; TI)
She is very far away from me now; I *miss* her very much.

Example (2) Aslında burdan şu çıkıyor, biz birşeyleri yaşayıp *pişman olduktan* sonra düşünüyoruz artık dikkatli olmamız gerektiğini. (S47-F; TII)
Actually, it can be concluded from this that we think that we have to be careful experiencing something and *regretting* for it.

Example (3) Hayalimdeki arkadaşım şimdi gerçekti ve ben çok *mutlu*ydum. (S14-M; TI)
Now my friend in my dream was real, and I was very *happy*.

Example (4) Türkiye'de birçok göl kurumuştur. Bu da bizi çok *endişelendirmekte*dir. (S8-M; TII)
A great many of lakes got dry in Turkey. This has made us *worry*.

Example (5) Televizyonlarda gördüğümüz Kurtuluş savaşı arkadaşlıkları artık film gibi, *nerde* o arkadaşlıklar, *nerde* o arkadaşlıkları kuracak yürekler, *nerede…?* (S5-M; TI)
The War of Independence friendships that we see on television are like a film today; *where* are such friendships, *where* are the hearts that establish those friendships, *where…?*

Example (6) İnsanlar *neden* o ozon tabakasını delecek parfümler kullanıyorlar? (S1-M; TII)
Why do people use those perfumes that will make a hole in that ozone layer?

Example (7) Neymiş su kaybının çok olmaması için kendilerinin ürettiği çamaşır makinesi, bulaşık makinesi. Sizce bu ürünleri çıkarmak için biraz geç kalmadınız *mı*? (S47-F; TII)

What do they say?!!! The washing machines and dish washers which they have produced for not to waste too much water. *Don't you* think that you are quite late for launching these products?

Example (8) Size göre de en önemli en gerekli şey *değil mi?* Bir düşünün arkadaşınızın sizin eleştirinizi yüzünüze karşı *mı* söylemesini istersiniz? Yoksa arkanızdan konuşmasını *mı*? (S49-F; TI)

Isn't it the most important and necessary thing for you, either? Think for a while, *do* you want your friend to tell a criticism to your face? Or *do* you want her/him to talk behind you?

Example (9) Aslında bu ısınma, dünya iklim sisteminde *köklü* değişikliklere ve *aşırı* sıcaklara yol açacak, öyle ki dünyanın bazı ülkelerinde kasırgalar, seller ve taşkınlar gibi hava olaylarının şiddeti ve sıklığı artarken, bazı bölgelerde de *uzun süreli, şiddetli* kuraklar ve çölleşme olayları etkili olacak. (S55-F; TII)

Actually, this warming will give rise to *radical* changes in the world climate system, so much so that while the intensity and the frequency of the hurricanes, floods and overflows in some countries of the world increase, *long-timed, violent* draughts and desertification events will be effective in some others.

Example (10) *Temiz kalpli, iyi yürekli, anlayışlı, çalışkan, başarılı*, her şeyimi, sırlarımı, dertlerimi hiç düşünmeden anlatabileceğim bir arkadaş istiyorum. (S38-F; TI)

I want a *homespun, good-hearted, understanding, hardworking, and successful* friend to whom I will be able tell, my secrets, my sorrows and everything without hesitating for a moment.

Example (11) Liseye gidince geceleri çarşıya çıkabileceğim, *siyah saçlı, kahverengi gözlü* bir çocuk olmalı. (S10-M; TI)

He must be a *dark-haired* and *brown-eyed* boy with whom I can go out at nights at high school.

Example (12) *Çeşitli zehir dolu* atıkların havaya bırakılması, parfümlerin içindeki sera gazları, ev ve iş yerleri bacalarından çıkan *zehirli, azotlu* atıklar vb. etkiler ozon tabakasının delinmesine yol açmıştır. (S9-M; TII)

Releasing of *various poisonous* wastes into the air, greenhouse gases inside the perfumes, *poisonous* and *nitrous* wastes coming out of the chimneys' of the houses and work places etc. such effects have caused the leaking of the ozone layer.

Example (13) Şimdi çevreme bakıyorum, böyle bir arkadaşı bulmak *gerçekten ama gerçekten çok* zor. (S5-M; TI)

Nowadays I'm looking around, it is *really but really* very difficult to find a friend like that.

Example (14) Bunun devlet üzerindeki etkisi *oldukça* büyük. (S20-M; TII)

The effect of this on the state is *pretty* big.

Example (15) Ben arkadaşlık konusunda *çok* hassasım. (S41-F; TI)

I am *very* sensitive about the friendship.

Example (16) Küresel ısınma(nın) su ihtiyacını da beraberinde getirmesi olayı *çok daha* büyük bir sorun haline getirdi. (S54-F; TII)

Global warming('s) bringing of the water need with itself has made the event a *much* bigger problem.

Example (17) Sevdiğimiz kişiye değer vermezsek, aramızdaki sevgi bağı *sular altında kalan bir ada gibi* yavaş yavaş yok olur. (S20-M; TI) (simile)

If we do not value the person we love, the tie of love between us disappears gradually *like an island that remains under the water*.

Example (18) Barajlar kuruyacak, içmeye bile su bulamıycak hale gelince insanlar bu *cennet vatanın* değerini anlamaya başlayacaklar ama çok geç olacak, hatta çölleşmeye kurban gidecekler. (S32-M; TII) (metaphor)

The dams will get dry; when they no more be able to find some water even to drink, people begin to understand the value of this *paradise motherland*, but it will be too late, in fact they will be the victim of desertification.

Example (19) Arkadaş bizim her şeyimizi paylaştığımız, sorunlarımız olduğunda dertleştiğimiz, sevinçlerimizi, mutluluklarımızı beraber yaşadığımız, *canımızdan bir parça gibi*dir. (S40-F; TI) (simile)

A friend is *like a part of our heart* whom we share everything, pour out our grievances to one another; experience our joys and happiness together.

Example (20) *Dünya'mızın içine düştüğü bu çukurdan* bizi kim çıkaracak? (S49-F; TII) (metaphor)

Who will get us out of *this hole that our world fell in*?

Example (21) Hep *kendi* çıkarlarını, menfaatlerini ve *kendi* işlerini nasıl bitirebileceklerini düşünürler. (S57-F; TI)

They always think of *their own* profits, gains and of how they will be able to carry through *their own* works.

Example (22) *Onlara* da bizim yaşadığımız güzelliklerden sunmalıyız. *Onlar* da hak ediyor bu güzellikleri. (S40-F; TII)
We should present the beauties that we experience to *them*, too. *They* deserve these beauties, too.

Example (23) Dünyamızı sevelim, *onu* koruyalım. (S29-M; TII)
Let's love our world and protect *it*.

Example (24) *Onlarla* olmaktan mutlu olursun, *onların* yanında olmalarını istersin. (S35-M; TI)
You feel happy to be *with them*, you want *them* to be with you.

Example (25) Arkadaşlarımızın kişiliğine biz karar *veremeyiz.* (S51-F; TI) (Potential Mood)
We *cannot decide* on the personality of our friends.

Example (26) İçine atlasan *belki* boyunu aşmaz. (S48-F; TII) (Lexical Modal Marker)
If you jump into it, *maybe* it doesn't go beyond your height.

Example (27) Ben size başımdan geçen bir olayı *anlatayım.* (S18-M; TI) (Subjunctive)
Let me tell you an event that I have experienced.

Example (28) Dünya'da su için savaşlar *çıkabilir.* (S11-M; TII) (Potential Mood)
Wars *may break out* in the world for water.

Example (29) Benim çevremde çok güzel huylu, alçak gönüllü (arkadaş) vardır; ama küfür etmeyen, kavga etmeyen ve kavgayı ayırmayan nadirdir. Belki *1/1.000.000*'dir. (S7-M; TI)

There are (friends) around me who are very good-tempered and modest; however, the ones who don't swear, fight and stop a fight are rare. Maybe it is *1/1.000.000*.

Example (30) *Çoğu* okula su deposu kuruldu. Tuz Gölünün *%60*'ı kurudu. (S21-M; TII)
Cisterns were built into *many* schools. The *60%* of the Salty Lake got dry.

Example (31) *4* kişilik *bir* aile banyodan *1* dakika erken çıkıp su tasarrufu etse *tonlarca* suyu kurtarmış oluruz. (S54-F; TII)
If *a four*-member family economizes water by leaving the bath *1* minute earlier, we will save *tons* of water.

Example (32) Fazla olmasa da *on sözünün beşinin* içinde espiri olsun. (S41-F; TI)
Even if not being much, within *five of his ten* words there must be joke.

Example (33) Arkadaşlığın birden çok türü olabilir. *Örneğin*; okul arkadaşlığı, yolculuk arkadaşlığı gibi. (S63-F; TI)
There may be more than one kind of friendship. *For example*, school friendship, travel friendship and so on.

Example (34) *Örneğin;* Diyarbakır'da son yılların en büyük karpuzları oluşmuştur. (S63-F; TII)
For example, the biggest watermelons of the last years have grown in Diyarbakır.

Example (35) *Mesela* diş fırçalarken veya tıraş olurken çeşmeyi açık bırakmamalıyız. (S13-M; TII)
For instance, we mustn't leave the tap open while brushing teeth or shaving.

Example (36) *Örneğin*; üzüm üzüme baka baka kararır örneği bunlardan sadece bitanesidir. (S25-M; TI)

For example, the example of the grape, observing a grape, becomes black, is only one these.

Example (37) İkimizin*de* birçok ortak yönü olmalıdır. (S37-F; TI)

We both must have a lot of common attitudes.

Example (38) *Tabikide* bu onun hayatı. (S57-F; TII)

Of course this is her/his life.

Example (39) Kuraklıktan *kurbalar* ölecek. (S13-M; TII) (for *kurbağalar*)

The *frogs* will die because of the drought.

Example (40) Kendini *mahfetmene* asla izin vermez. (S29-M; TI)

She/He never allows you to *destroy* yourself.

Example (41) Zor günümde, iyi günümde *yanımda* olmasını, mutluluğumu paylaşmasını, zor günlerimde *yanımda* olup beni teselli etmesini isterim. (S45-F; TI)

I want her to be *beside me* in my hard days and good days, to share my happiness, and to cheer me up by being *beside me* in my hard days.

Example (42) *Türkiye'de* bazı göller kurumaya başlamıştır. (S36-F; TII)

Some lakes *in Turkey* have begun to dry.

Example (43) *Sınıfta* herkesin belli bir gurup arkadaşı var. (S2-M; TI)

Everybody has a certain group of friends *in the classroom*.

Example (44) Ama *evimizin önünde* şu olayları görmekten sakınıyoruz. (S17-M; TII)

However, we avoid seeing those incidents *in front of our houses*.

Example (45) Benim için arkadaş *sadece* tanımaktır. (S34-M; TI)

For me, a friend is *only* knowing (him/her).

Example (46) *Tek* çare dikkat. (S33-M; TII)

The *only* solution is attention.

Example (47) Bana gerçekten değer verene ben *de* veririm. (S51-F; TI)

I, *too*, value the person who really values me.

Example (48) Ormanlarımız *bile* tükeniyor. (S53-F; TII)

Even our forests run out.

Example (49) Küresel ısınmanın zararları sadece *bizimle* kalmıyor. (S3-M; TII)

The damages of the global warming do not affect only *us*.

Example (50) Yani o arkadaşımla *kendimi* akraba, kardeş gibi hissederim. (S34-M; TI)

In other words, I see *myself* like a relative or sibling with that friend.

Example (51) Sadece *kendimizi* değil *bizden* sonra gelenleri de düşünmeliyiz. (S40-F; TII)

We should think not only of *ourselves*, but also the ones who will come after *us*.

Example (52) Arkadaşlık *bana göre,* bir günde, bir ayda olacak bir şey değil. (S39-F; TI)

In my opinion, friendship is not something that can come about in a day or a month.

Example (53) *Bence* insanlar kendi sonlarını kendileri hazırlıyorlar. (S46-F; TII)
I think people prepare their own ends with their own hands.

Example (54) Bunlar benim hayal ettiğim arkadaşımda *muhakkak bulunmalı.* (S66-F; TI) (Lexical Modal Marker-Debitive Mood)
My friend whom I dream must certainly have these.

Example (55) Küresel ısınmayı önlememiz artık *şart* oldu. (S62-F; TII)
Now it *is essential* to prevent global warming.

Example (56) *Unutmayın* ki dostluk eskimeyen bir şeydir. (S25-M; TI) (Imperative)
Don't forget that friendship is a thing which does not become old.

Example (57) Bu zararları insanların önlemesi *gerekmekte*dir. (S10-M; TII) (Obligative Predicate)
People *are required to* prevent these damages.

Example (58) Bazen ben de ağlarım o zaman kendimden çok *nefret ederim.* (S68-F; TI)
Sometimes I cry too, then I *hate* myself very much.

Example (59) Sınıfta herkesin belli bir gurup arkadaşı var. Ama benim yok. Eskiden bu duruma çok *üzülürdüm*. Ama artık değil. (S2-M; TI)
Everybody has a certain group of friends in the classroom. But I don't have. I used to *feel sorry* for this in the past. But I don't any longer.

Example (60) Ben bu işe çok *kızıyorum.* Her gün kaç ton su doluyor o havuzlara. (S66-F; TII)

I *get angry* with this situation very much. Tons of water fills those pools everyday.

Example (61) İlerde etkilerini gördüklerinde yaptıklarından *utanç duyacaklar.* (S20-M; TII)

They will *be ashamed of* the things they have done when they see the effects in the future.

Example (62) Ormanlar, sular, barajlar ve göller birbirlerini küresel ısınmadan kurtarmak için desteklerken bizim hiç bir şey yapamamamız tuhaf *değil mi?* (S38-F; TII)

While the forest, water, dams and lakes back up one another in order to save from global warming, *isn't it* weird our not doing anything?

Example (63) Bir yerde çölleşme varken diğer yerde sel oluyor. *Sizce bu normal mi?* (S52-F; TII)

While there is desertification in a place, there is flood in another. *Do you think that this is normal?*

Example (64) İstanbul'da ise proje üstüne proje, o nehirlerin çayların suyu bitince *ne olacak?* (S17-M; TII)

Projects and projects in İstanbul, *what will happen* when the water of those rivers or brooks runs out?

Example (65) Çünkü, bütün kararlar ortak alınıp, hiç farklı düşünmeyen iki kişinin dostluğu *nasıl ve ne kadar* sürer ki? (S65-F; TI)

Because, *how and how long* does the friendship of two people who never think differently last?

Example (66) Böyle bir arkadaş tanıyor *musunuz?* Yoksa bu sizin arkadaşınız *mı?* (S29-M; TI)
Do you know such a friend? Or *is* this your friend?

Example (67) Hayatta bir emeli olan insanlar her zaman ne istediğini bilen, *kararlı, güvenilir, cesaretli, özgüvenli* insanlardır. (S52-F; TI)
Those who have an aspiration in the world are the *determined, reliable, courageous, self-confident* people who always know what they want.

Example (68) *Yeni* arkadaşıma öyle bir sır verdimki benim için çok *önemli* bir sırdı o. (S14-M; TI)
I gave such a secret to my new friend that it was a very *important* secret for me.

Example (69) Böylece *sağlıksız* nesiller yetişecek. Her gün *yeni yeni* hastalıklar ortaya çıkacak. (S48-F; TII)
So, *unhealthy* generations will grow up. *New* ailments will appear every day.

Example (70) *Verimli* topraklar azalıyor (S6-M; TII)
Fertile soils are being reduced.

Example (71) Bana kötülük eden *hiç* sevmediğim bir arkadaşım bile olsa, ona yine yardım ederim. (S53-F; TI)
Even if she is a friend of mine who did harm to me, and whom I don't like *at all,* I help her anyway.

Example (72) Böyle iyi arkadaşlarım olduğunu görünce onlara *daha çok* değer vermeye başladım. (S18-M; TI)
When I saw that I had such good friends, I began to value them *more*.

Example (73) Küresel ısınma Türkiye'ye ve Dünya'ya *pek çok* zarar vermektedir. (S43-F; TII)

Global warming has been giving *many* damages to Turkey and the world.

Example (73) Amerika araştırmalara göre küresel ısınmayı *en çok* artıran ülkedir. (S18-M; TII)

America, according to the research, is the country which increases the global warming *most*.

Example (75) *Gerçek dost yıldızlara benzer*. Karanlık çökünce ilk onlar gözükür. (S38-F; TI) (simile)

Real friends are like the stars. They are seen first when the darkness falls down.

Example (76) Arkadaşlarımızı iyi seçmeliyiz. Şüphesiz ki *onlar bizim aynamız*dır. (S22-M; TI) (metaphor)

We must select our friends carefully. Doubtlessly, *they are our mirrors*.

Example (77) Nasıl olsa biz ölüp gidicez diyorlar. *Öbür tarafta* su vardır demi? (S41-F; TII) (metaphor)

They say that they will die in any case. There is water in the *other world*, isn't it ?

Example (78) Türkiye'nin *tahıl ambarı* Konya'da buğday yetişmez oldu. (S21-M; TII) (metaphor)

In Konya, which is Turkey's *cereal depository*, wheat began not to grow.

Example (79) *Onunla* ilgili hiç kötü şeyler düşünmezdim. *Onu* her zaman severdim. (S43-F; TI)

I never used to think of bad things about *her*. I always loved *her*.

Example (80) Arkadaş olmazsa insan *kendini* yapayalnız hisseder herkes *onun* üstüne geliyomuş gibi sanar. (S24-M; TI)

If there is no friend, one feels lonely, and feels as if everybody came towards her/him.

Example (81) Ozon tabakası zamanla *kendi kendini* onarıyor ama insanlar kullandıkları zararlı maddelerle bunu engelliyor. (S64-F; TII)

The ozone layer renews *itself* in the course time, but people obstruct this with the harmful items they use.

Example (82) İki üç yıldan beri Dünyamızı iyice sarmaya başlayan bir illet *onun* adı küresel ısınma. (S28-M; TII)

A disease that has begun to wrap our world for two or three years thoroughly, *its* name is global warming.

Example (83) İyi günde sevinçlerini, kötü günde acılarını *paylaşabildiği* kişilere insanoğlu her daim yanında görmek istediği için, insana sosyal bir varlık da *diyebiliriz.* (S59-F; TI)

Because the human being always wants to see the people whom she/he *is able to share* her/his joys in good days and grief in bad days beside her/him, we *can* also *call* the human a social being.

Example (84) *Herhalde* birbirlerine arka çıkanlara da “arkadaş” denilmiştir. (S16-M; TI) (Lexical Modal Marker)

Probably, it was called “friend” to those who support each other.

Example (85) Lütfen sularımızı *kirletmeyelim*, havayı *kirlemeyelim*, ekmeklerimizi *değerlendirelim*. (S42-F; TII) (Subjunctive/Obtative)

Please, *let's not pollute* our water, *let's not pollute* the air, and *let's put* our bread to use.

Example (86) Yanlış yerlere ateş *atmayalım*, insanlığı kayba *uğratmayalım.* (S19-M; TII) (Subjunctive/Obtative)
Let's not throw fire to the wrong places, *let's not cause* the loss of humanity.

Example (87) Avucumuzu sıkarsak kum taneleri yavaş yavaş akıp gider. Belki *birazını* tutmayı başarırsınız ama ne fayda *çoğu* zaten akıp gitmiştir. (S49-F; TI)
If we tighten our palms the grains of sand glide slowly. Maybe you manage to keep *some of them* but unfortunately *most of them* have already glided.

Example (88) Hayal ve arkadaşlık. Bence *iki üç* noktada birleşen *iki* olgudur. (S26-M; TI)
Dream and friendship. I think they are *tw*o facts that combine in *two or three* points.

Example (89) Bu sene Diyarbakır'da en büyük karpuz *47,5 kilo* idi. (S63-F; TII)
The biggest watermelon in Diyarbakır was *47,5 kilos* this year.

Example (90) İnsan vücut ısısının *1^{o}C* artması insanı halsiz ve solgun bırakır. (S25-M; TII)
Increasing of human's body's heat *1^{o}C* makes the human weak and pale.

Example (91) *Örneğin* iyi bir okul arkadaşı başka yerlerde okumaya gitse de arkadaşını unutmaz. (S58-F; TI)
For example, even if a good school friend goes to other places to study, she/he doesn't forget her/his friend.

Example (92) *Mesela* benim Ahmet diye bir arkadaşım var okul bahçesinde konuşuyoruz diyelim. (S23-M; TI)

For instance, I have got a friend named Ahmet, and suppose that we are talking in the school garden.

Example (93) En çok sevdiğimiz balık *mesela.* (S50-F; TII)

The fish which we like most, *for instance*.

Example (94) *Örneğin* Amerika sanayileşmenin en çok olduğu ülkedir. (S18-M; TII)

For example, America is the country where there is industry most.

Example (95) Arkadaşlarımızla *tabiiki* paylaşacağız, yardımlaşacağız ama böyle *hısız*, böyle dolandırıcılarla değil. (S70-F; TI) (for *hırsız*)

Of course we will share everything with our friends and will help each other, but not with such those *lifters* and cheaters.

Example (96) Ben size başımdan geçen bir *hikaye'yi anlatıyım.* (S15-M; TI)

Let me tell you a *story* that I *experienced*.

Example (97) Biliyorum, çünkü haberlerde *ropörtaj* yapan *spikerlerinsorduğu* insanlar kendileri itiraf ettiler. (S65-F; TII) (for *röportaj*)

I know, because the people themselves confessed everything to whom the *announcers* who *interviewed* with them on the news *asked*.

Example (98) Örneğin; *eksoz* gazından olmayacak, ormana zarar vermeyecek. (S27-M; TII) (for *egzoz*)

For example, it won't be from the *exhaust* gas, it won't damage the forest.

Example (99) Her ilişki gibi arkadaşlıkta *avucumuzun içindeki* kum taneleri gibidir. (S49-F; TI)

Like every relationship, friendship is like the sand grains *inside our palm*.

Example (100) O yaz *hastanenin kantininde* çalıştığım için Uğur amcayı sık sık görüyordum. (S28-M; TI)

Because I worked *at the hospital's canteen* that summer, I saw uncle Uğur very often.

Example (101) *Irmaklarda* ve *göllerde* hiç su kalmadı. (S44-F; TII)

There was no water left *in the rivers and lakes*.

Example (102) Bizim toplumumuz çok su harcayan bir toplum olduğu için hergün araba yıkama, halı yıkama, evinin *önünü* temizleme, bunların hepsi ayda bir yapılmalıdır. (S24-M; TII)

Since our society is a society which spends much water, everyday washing the car, washing the carpets, cleaning the *front of* the house, all these should be done once a month.

Example (103) Çünkü eğer benim başarılarımda benimle sevinmiyorsa başarılarımı kıskanıyorsa o benim yanımda eziyet çeker o zaman aramızda *ne* arkadaşlık kalır *ne* dostluk. (S52-F; TI)

Because if she doesn't delight with my success with me, if she envies my success, she suffers pain near me, then *neither* friendship *nor* amity remains between us.

Example (104) Örneğin, *sırf* derslerinde başarılı olduğu için, bir öğrenciyle birlikte olmak istiyebilirler. (S16-M; TI)

For example, they may want to be together with a student *only* because she/he is successful with her/his lessons.

Example (105) Doğanın katili *yalnızca* “İNSANLAR” dır. (S67-F; TII)
The murderer of the nature is *only* the “PEOPLE”.

Example (106) Kutuplarda denize giren insanlar *bile* oldu. (S31-M; TII)
There were *even* people who went to sea-bathing in the poles.

Example (107) *Bana* göre ilk önce yapılması gereken insanları bilinçlendirmek. (S39-F; TII)
For *me*, the first thing to do is to make people conscious.

Example (108) Ama *bizim* ülkemizde adam yarım litre suyu ihtiyacı kadar içiyor ve çöpe atıyor. (S30-M; TII)
However, in *our* country a man drinks only the amount he needs of the half-liter water, and puts it to the litter.

Example (109) Yalanlarıyla *beni* kandırmayan, güvenirsizliğiyle hiç bir şeyimi emanet edemedi(ği)m, kötü kalpli olup *beni* arkamdan vuran, ahlaksız ve terbiyesizliğiyle *beni* yanında küçük düşüren bir arka(da)şı *benim* istemediğim gibi hiçkimse istemez. (S62-F; TI)
Not only I want a friend who tricks *me* with her/his lies, whom I cannot entrust any of my belongings because of her/his distrustfulness, who is bad-hearted and stab *me* in the back, and who humiliates *me* with his indecency and vulgarity but the others also don’t want.

Example (110) *Bizim* arkadaşlığımız da o kadar uzun sürecek, *bizim* arkadaşlığımız çok iyi bitmesini istemem. (S4-M; TI)
Our friendship will also last so long, our friendship is pretty good, and I don’t want it to end.

Example (111) Ama dost dediğin böyle *olmamalı* onun her anında her halinde yanında *olmalı.* (S61-F; TI) (Debitive Mood)

But the one that you call a friend *mustn't be* like this, she/he *must be* beside her/him in her/his every moment and every situation.

Example (112) İyi kişilerle arkadaşlık kurmak için ilk önce bir öneleme süreci gereklidir. (S12-M; TI) (Obligative Predicate)
First, a pre-selection process *is necessary* to strike up a friendship with nice people.

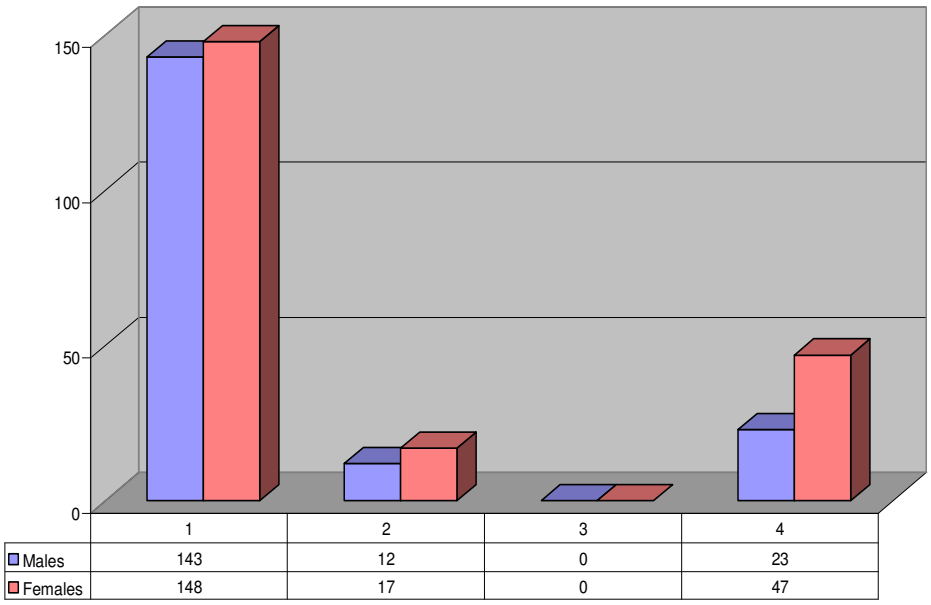
Example (113) Lütfen biraz da çocuğunuzu, torununuzu *düşünün.* (S45-F; TII) (Imperative)
Please consider your children and grandchildren a little.

Example (114) Hayatımızın daha erken bitmemesi ve hayvanların daha erken ölmemesi için fabrikalar *durun*. (S23-M; TII) (Imperative)
Factories stop! So as not to end our life earlier and not to die animals earlier.

APPENDIX-5

EXTRA FINDINGS

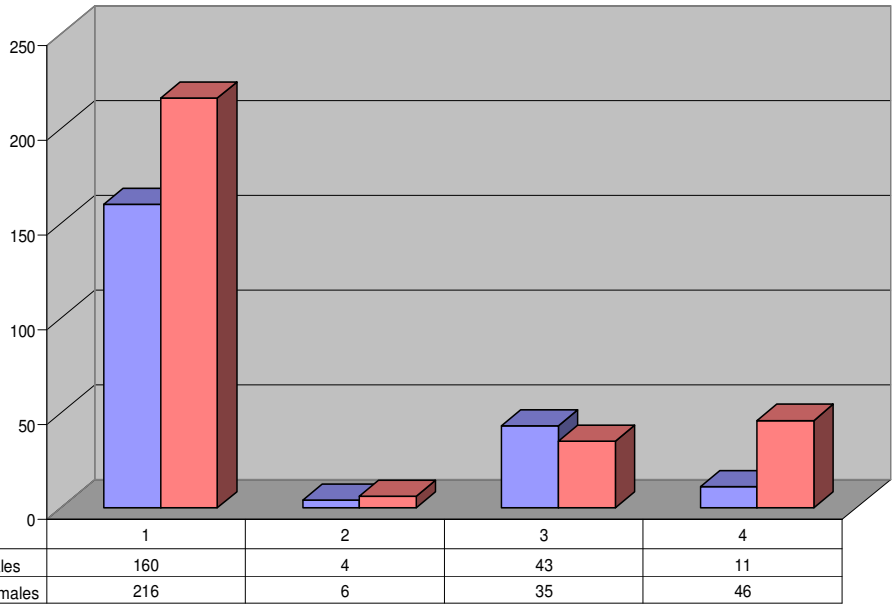
Distribution of the Frequencies of Uncertainty Expressions According to Biological Gender



	1	2	3	4
Males	143	12	0	23
Females	148	17	0	47

Expressions of Uncertainty
(1-Potential Mood; 2-Lexical Modal Markers; 3-Possibility Predicates; 4-Optative)

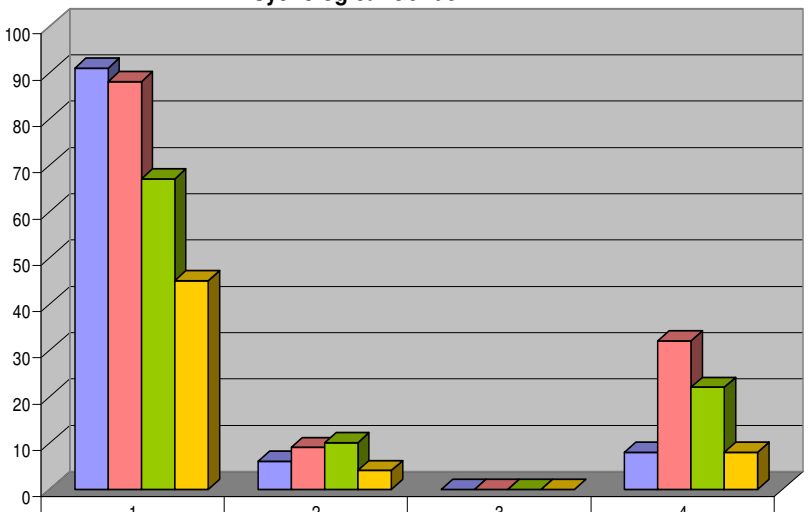
Distribution of the Frequencies of Certainty Expressions According to Biological Gender



	1	2	3	4
Males	160	4	43	11
Females	216	6	35	46

Expressions of Certainty
(1-Debitive Mood; 2-Lexical Modal Markers; 3-Obligative Predicates; 4-Directives)

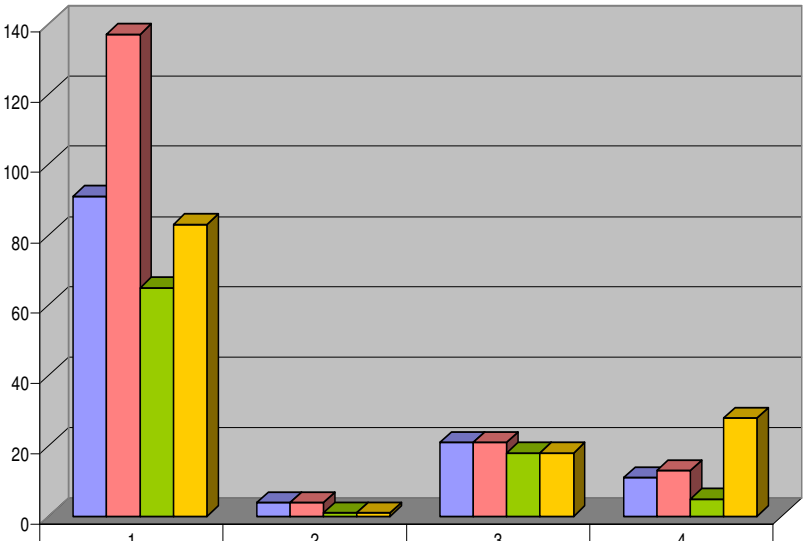
Distribution of the Frequencies of Uncertainty Expressions According to Psychological Gender



	1	2	3	4
Masculine	91	6	0	8
Feminine	88	9	0	32
Androgynous	67	10	0	22
Undifferentiated	45	4	0	8

Expressions of Uncertainty
(1-Potential Mood; 2-Lexical Modal Markers; 3-Possibility Predicates; 4-Optative)

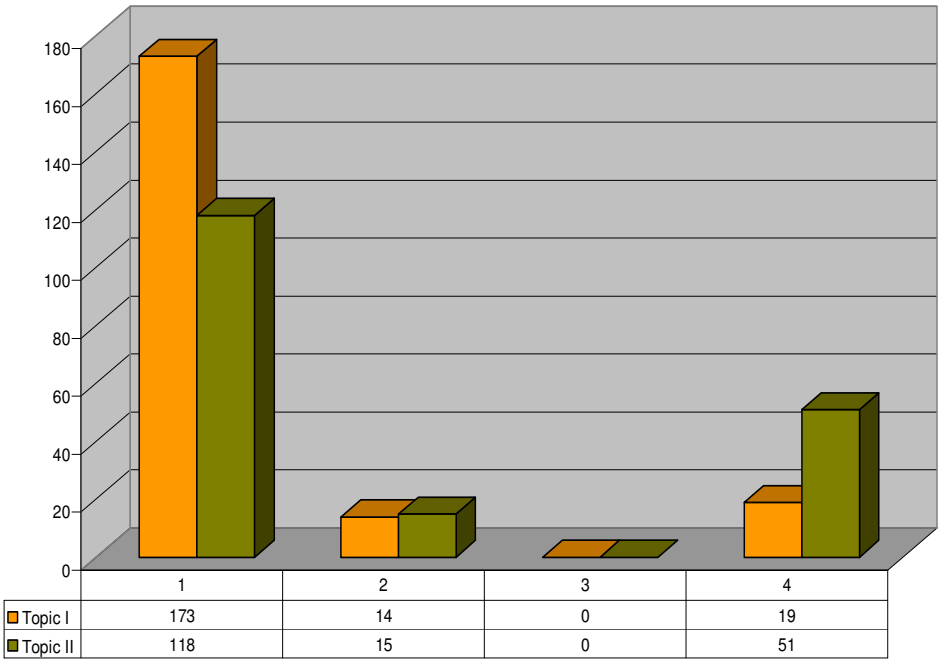
Distribution of the Frequencies of Certainty Expressions According to Psychological Gender



	1	2	3	4
Masculine	91	4	21	11
Feminine	137	4	21	13
Androgynous	65	1	18	5
Undifferentiated	83	1	18	28

Expressions of Certainty
(1-Debitive Mood; 2-Lexical Modal Markers; 3-Obligative Predicates; 4-Directives)

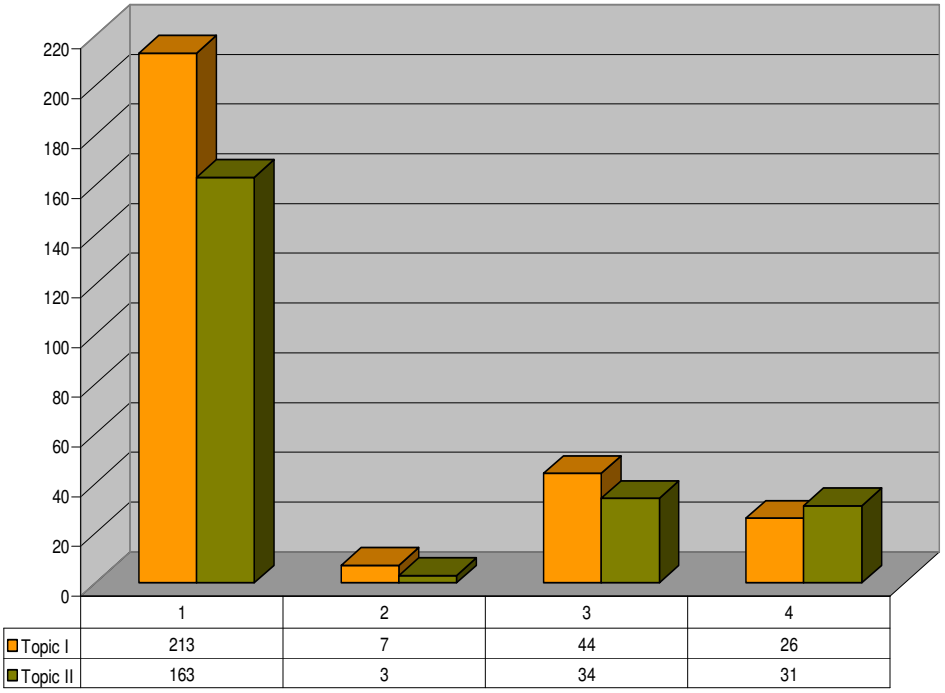
Distribution of the Frequencies of Uncertainty Expressions According to the Topics



	1	2	3	4
Topic I	173	14	0	19
Topic II	118	15	0	51

Expressions of Uncertainty
(1-Potential Mood; 2-Lexical Modal Markers; 3-Possibility Predicates; 4- Optative)

Distribution of the Frequencies of Certainty Expressions According to Topics



	1	2	3	4
Topic I	213	7	44	26
Topic II	163	3	34	31

Expressions of Certainty
(1-Debitive Mood; 2-Lexical Modal Markers; 3-Obligative Predicates; 4-Directives)

Frequencies and Percentages of Female-Preferential Linguistic Variables in Terms of Biological Gender across Topics

	Linguistic Variables	Males	Females	TOTAL	df	X^2
1	References to Emotion Topic I	29 (34.12 %)	56 (65.88 %)	85 (100%)	1	8.576*
	References to Emotion Topic II	2 (20.00%)	8 (80.00%)	10 (100%)	1	3.60
2	Questions Topic I	15 (34.09 %)	29 (65.91 %)	44 (100%)	1	4.455*
	Questions Topic II	16 (23.88 %)	51 (76.12 %)	67 (100%)	1	18.284**
3	Qualificative Adjectives Topic I	226 (42.88 %)	301 (57.12 %)	527 (100%)	1	10.67**
	Qualificative Adjectives Topic II	110 (44.72 %)	136 (55.28 %)	246 (100%)	1	2.748
4	Intensifiers Topic I	111 (37.76 %)	183 (62.24 %)	294 (100%)	1	17.63**
	Intensifiers Topic II	87 (41.63 %)	122 (58.37 %)	209 (100%)	1	5.861*
5	Metaphor and Simile Topic I	17 (48.57 %)	18 (51.43 %)	35 (100%)	1	0.029
	Metaphor and Simile Topic II	7 (33.33 %)	14 (66.67 %)	21 (100%)	1	2.33
6	Third Person References Topic I	121 (49.19 %)	125 (50.81 %)	246 (100%)	1	0.065
	Third Person References Topic II	12 (34.29 %)	23 (65.71 %)	35 (100%)	1	3.457
7	Expressions of Uncertainty Topic I	100 (48.78 %)	105 (51.22 %)	205 (100%)	1	0.122
	Expressions of Uncertainty Topic II	77 (41.85 %)	107 (58.15 %)	184 (100%)	1	4.89*

** There is significant difference between groups at 0.05 level (p<0.05)*

*** There is significant difference between groups at 0.01 level (p<0.01)*

Frequencies and Percentages of the Male-Preferential Linguistic Variables in Terms of Biological Gender across Topics

	Linguistic Variables	***Males***	***Females***	***TOTAL***	***df***	***X^2***
1	References to Quantity Topic I	68 (50%)	68 (50%)	136 (100%)	1	0.000
	References to Quantity Topic II	147 (50.34 %)	145 (49.66 %)	292 (100%)	1	0.014
2	Illustratives Topic I	15 (53.57 %)	13 (46.43%)	28 (100%)	1	0.143
	Illustratives Topic II	43 (57.33 %)	32 (42.67 %)	75 (100%)	1	1.613
3	Errors Topic I	140 (57.14 %)	105 (42.86 %)	245 (100%)	1	5.00*
	Errors Topic II	228 (56.86 %)	173 (43.14 %)	401 (100%)	1	7.544*
4	Locatives Topic I	86 (55.48 %)	69 (44.52 %)	155 (100%)	1	1.865
	Locatives Topic II	181 (51.57 %)	170 (48.43 %)	351 (100%)	1	0.345
5	Focus Adverbials Topic I	47 (47.96 %)	51 (52.04 %)	98 (100%)	1	0.163
	Focus Adverbials Topic II	74 (43.02 %)	98 (56.98 %)	172 (100%)	1	3.349
6	First Person References Topic I	199 (42.98 %)	264 (57.02 %)	463 (100%)	1	9.125*
	First Person References Topic II	57 (36.31 %)	100 (63.69 %)	157 (100%)	1	11.78**
7	Expressions of Certainty Topic I	125 (42.96 %)	166 (57.04 %)	291 (100%)	1	5.78*
	Expressions of Certainty Topic II	94 (40.69 %)	137 (59.31 %)	231 (100%)	1	8.004*

** There is significant difference between groups at 0.05 level (p<0.05)*
*** There is significant difference between groups at 0.01 level (p<0.01)*

Frequencies and Percentages of Female-Preferential Linguistic Variables in terms of the Psychological Gender Roles across Topics

	Linguistic Variables	*Masculine*	*Feminine*	*Androgynous*	*Undifferentiated*	*TOTAL*	*df*	X^2
1	References to Emotion T1	19 (22.35%)	26 (30.59%)	16 (18.82%)	24 (28.24%)	85 (100%)	3	2.953
	References to Emotion T2	3 (30%)	5 (50%)	1 (10%)	1 (10%)	10 (100%)	3	4.40
2	Questions T1	18 (40.91%)	6 (13.64%)	6 (13.64%)	14 (31.82%)	44 (100%)	3	9.82*
	Questions T2	13 (19.40%)	20 (29.85%)	14 (20.90%)	20 (29.85%)	67 (100%)	3	2.55
3	Qualificative Adjectives T1	125 (23.72%)	164 (31.12%)	118 (22.39%)	120 (22.77%)	527 (100%)	3	10.72*
	Qualificative Adjectives T2	48 (19.51%)	68 (27.64%)	61 (24.80%)	69 (28.05%)	246 (100%)	3	4.57
4	Intensifiers T1	84 (28.57%)	96 (32.65%)	59 (20.07%)	55 (18.71%)	294 (100%)	3	15.91**
	Intensifiers T2	51 (24.40%)	70 (33.49%)	36 (17.22%)	52 (24.88%)	209 (100%)	3	11.12*
5	Metaphor and Simile T1	12 (34.29%)	9 (25.71%)	10 (28.57%)	4 (11.43%)	35 (100%)	3	3.97
	Metaphor and Simile T2	3 (14.29%)	4 (19.05%)	6 (28.57%)	8 (38.10%)	21 (100%)	3	2.810
6	Third Person References T1	82 (33.33%)	68 (27.64%)	49 (19.92%)	47 (19.11%)	246 (100%)	3	13.48*
	Third Person References T2	8 (22.86%)	10 (28.57%)	8 (22.86%)	9 (25.71%)	35 (100%)	3	0.314
7	Expressions of Uncertainty T1	55 (26.83%)	68 (33.17%)	50 (24.39%)	32 (15.61%)	205 (100%)	3	13.01*
	Expressions of Uncertainty T2	50 (27.17%)	61 (33.15%)	48 (26.09%)	25 (13.59%)	184 (100%)	3	14.91*

* *There is significant difference between groups at 0.05 level (p<0.05)*

** *There is significant difference between groups at 0.01 level (p<0.01)*

Frequencies and Percentages of Male-Preferential Linguistic Variables in terms of the Psychological Gender Roles across Topics

	Linguistic Variables	*Masculine*	*Feminine*	*Androgynous*	*Undifferentiated*	*TOTAL*	*df*	X^2
1	References to QuantityT1	37 (27.21%)	38 (27.94%)	34 (25%)	27 (19.85%)	136 (100%)	3	2.176
	References to Quantity T2	88 (30.14%)	66 (22.60%)	81 (27.74%)	57 (19.52%)	292 (100%)	3	8.137*
2	Illustratives T1	9 (32.14%)	7 (25%)	5 (17.86%)	7 (25%)	28 (100%)	3	1.143
	Illustratives T2	22 (29.33%)	17 (22.67%)	16 (21.33%)	20 (26.67%)	75 (100%)	3	1.213
3	Errors T1	93 (37.96%)	46 (18.78%)	49 (20%)	57 (23.27%)	245 (100%)	3	23.00**
	Errors T2	141 (35.16%)	65 (16.21%)	85 (21.20%)	110 (27.43%)	401 (100%)	3	32.23**
4	Locatives T1	47 (30.32%)	36 (23.23%)	38 (24.52%)	34 (21.94%)	155 (100%)	3	2.548
	Locatives T2	114 (32.48%)	74 (21.08%)	85 (24.22%)	78 (22.22%)	351 (100%)	3	11.18*
5	Focus Adv T1	27 (27.55%)	26 (26.53%)	24 (24.49%)	21 (21.43%)	98 (100%)	3	0.857
	Focus Adv T2	49 (28.49%)	41 (23.84%)	42 (24.42%)	40 23.26%)	172 (100%)	3	1.163
6	First Person Reference T1	141 (30.45%)	126 (27.21%)	103 (22.25%)	93 (20.09%)	463 (100%)	3	12.92*
	First Person References T2	31 (19.75%)	41 (26.11%)	47 (29.94%)	38 (24.20%)	157 (100%)	3	3.382
7	Expressions of Certainty T1	79 (27.15%)	104 (35.74%)	42 (14.43%)	66 (22.68%)	291 (100%)	3	27.58**
	Expressions of Certainty T2	48 (20.78%)	71 (30.74%)	48 (20.78%)	64 (27.71%)	231 (100%)	3	7.009

** There is significant difference between groups at 0.05 level (p<0.05)*

*** There is significant difference between groups at 0.01 level (p<0.01)*