

TURKISH PHONOLOGY AND MORPHOLOGY (TÜRKÇE SES VE BİÇİM BİLGİSİ)

7

Aims

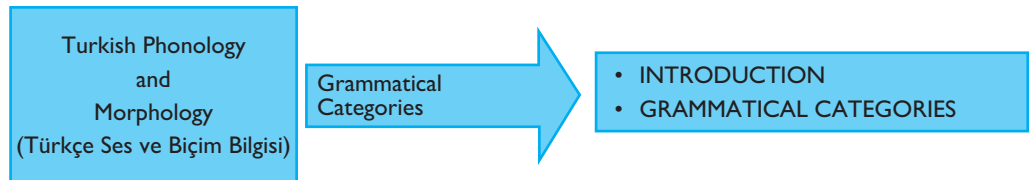
In this unit we will try to seek answers to the following questions:

- 👁️ How many different categories are there?
- 👁️ What is nominal categorization?
- 👁️ What is verbal categorization?

Key Words

- grammatical category
- number
- gender
- case
- tense
- aspect
- mood
- negation
- voice
- agreement

Contents



Grammatical Categories

INTRODUCTION

Upon hearing a group of words such as onur, demet, kıvanç, mutlu, çağdaş, özgür, metin, many readers, will take them as suggesting that they have something in common -say, that they are all nouns. Hearing another group such as mutlu, özgür, metin, uygar, çağdaş, cesur they will say they are adjectives. Mutlu, çağdaş, özgür, metin are used in both groups, but they are categorized as nouns in the first, as adjectives in the second. Why? The different interpretations are based on the common idea of what it means to be in the same category: the things are categorized together on the basis of what they have in common. Everytime we see something, we see it as a member of a category -say a kind of car, a kind of animal, a kind of bird, a kind of sound etc. If we fail to do so, we may equally fail to perceive the reality around us. And whenever we try to do so, we employ categories. Similarly, anytime we produce or understand any linguistic utterance, we employ categories: categories of speech sounds, of words, of phrases, as well as conceptual categories. What kind of knowledge helps a native speaker to make these categorizations?

All natural language utterances are made up of distinct units that are meaningful, and all natural language systems divide those units into a series of syntactic categories. Therefore, no description of grammar would be considered adequate unless it defined a set of distinct syntactic categories in its formal structure. One method of doing this is dividing words into categories based on their grammatical marking. Therefore, a close analysis of grammatical marking would reveal a great deal about the grammatical structure of a language as well as the systematic organization behind grammatical utterances of that language.

GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

In Unit 5, we introduced the distinction between inflectional and derivational morphology. The focus was primarily on the distinctive features of the morphemes representing either process. We return now to a more detailed discussion of the grammatical morphemes. Grammatical morphemes express grammatical categories.

Grammatical categories mark grammatical notions that are associated with particular lexical categories. They can be realized in the form of a word (function words), a bound morpheme (inflectional suffixes) or a zero morpheme (ϕ). There are two types of grammatical categories: nominal and verbal. **Nominal categories** are

expressed on nouns, and they mark *number, gender, case*. **Verbal categories** are expressed on verbs, and they mark (a) *tense, aspect* and *mood (TAM)*; (b) *polarity*: negative vs positive; (c) *voice*: active, passive, reflexive, reciprocal, causative; and (d) *agreement* in number and person.

Before we proceed, it should be noted that a grammatical category is a linguistic category, not a real world category; and there may not always be a one-to one correspondance between the two. For example, *tense* is a linguistic category marking the world category of *time*. While the past tense marker *-DI* usually expresses a past time as in *Dün erken kalktım*, the same morpheme expresses future or present in *Geldim, geldim!* as a response to a ringing doorbell. Similarly, the linguistic category plural number marks the world category *more than one*. However, *Ali'ler* does not necessarily mean that there is more than one *Ali*.

Nominal Categories

Number

Number is a grammatical category which indicates whether or not a member of the related word class is **singular** or **plural**. The morpheme *-lar* in Turkish is employed to convey the concept of plurality, and lack of it implies singularity.

Number inflection in Turkish is particularly seen in nouns (*ev/evler*), demonstratives (*bu/bunlar, şu/şunlar, o/onlar*), personal pronouns (*ben/biz, sen/siz, o/onlar*), possessive determiners (*benim/bizim, senin/sizin, onun/onların*), possessive pronouns (*benimki/bizimki, seninki/sizinki, onunki/onlarınki*), reflexive pronouns (*kendim/kendimiz, kendin/kendiniz, kendi/kendileri*). Bare nouns are unspecified in terms of number. They represent a categorial meaning rather than representing a member of that category. For example, *insan* refers to the category *human*, *bir insan* refers to a single member of the category *human* that exists in the universe, and *insanlar* indicates indefinite number of members of the category *human*.

It is your turn!

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Look at the number taking word classes given above. Do you think they can enter into double plural marking?

In addition to the inflectional morpheme *-lar*, the idea of number is conveyed by a number of pronouns and adjectives as well.

Singular : her, her bir, biri, hiç kimse, hiçbiri, bir

Plural : bir çok, çok, birkaç, bazı, iki, üç, on

An interesting property of Turkish number marking is the lack of it in cases where plurality is explicitly marked with other quantifiers such as numbers. The ungrammaticality of **on sorular* shows that Turkish economizes on using markers having similar functions consecutively. Both *on* and *-lar* convey the idea of more than one; therefore, only one, namely the quantifier, is used so as to avoid redundancy.

Non-Plural Functions of -IAr

-IAr With Quantifiers

The plural morpheme otherwise deleted after quantifiers is retained when referring to people or events that are common public knowledge. Some examples include *Kırk Haramiler*, *Üç Silahşörler*, *Çifte Havuzlar*, *Dört Büyükler*, *Beş Hececiler*. In these examples, *-IAr* is no longer seen as a plural morpheme, but rather as an inseparable part of a proper noun (Korkmaz, 2003: 259). Therefore, the resulting plural noun is interpreted as a group noun.

-IAr With Proper Nouns

Proper nouns are not pluralized unless the same noun is used to refer to two or more different people or entities. However, when attached to a personal proper noun, the plural morpheme refers to family or friends. So, *Beyhan'lar da konsere gidiyor* may mean either there are two people by the name of *Beyhan* and both of them are going to the concert, or *Beyhan* and her family or friends are going to the concert.

In a similar fashion, *-IAr* may be used on a proper noun to signal common ethnic, regional or religious background as in *Türkler*, *İstanbulular*, and *Müslümanlar*. The same function may also be extended over to common nouns which represent a category: *etoburlar*, *öğretmeler derneği*, *turunçgiller*.

Alternatively, *-IAr* on a proper noun may function as a marker of analogy (Gencan, 1966: 103). *Süreyya Ayhanlar* in *Sporumuzu Süreyya Ayhanlar yüceltiyor* does not indicate that there is more than one Süreyya Ayhan. The underlying meaning better translates as *Our sports is excelled by athletes like Süreyya Ayhan*.

Proximity With -IAr

The plural morpheme can be used to convey the idea of *approximately*. In *Sevda'nın evi postanenin yakınında biryerlerde*, *biryerlerde* does not refer to several places. A house cannot be located in more than one place at a time. What it indicates is that the house is somewhere around the post office. Similarly, in *Katil yirmi yaşlarındaymış*, the plural marker on the word *yaş* does not in fact refer to different ages since one cannot be at several ages at the same time. Rather it is given to approximate to the age of the killer. It signals that the given age is only an estimate, not a fact. The killer can be 21 as well as 19.

Augmentative -IAr

-IAr may also be used to intensify the meaning conveyed by otherwise a singular noun. In *İstanbularda ne işin vardı?* as opposed to *İstanbul'da ne işin vardı?*, or *Mart ayında soğuklar bastırır* as opposed to *Mart ayında soğuk basırır*, the plural marker functions as an augmentative marker that amplifies the effect of the message.

-IAr with Uncountables

Number marking typically applies to countable nouns. It indicates individual plurality. When it is used with an uncountable noun, it refers to individual units or occurrences of that noun. In *Sular şırl şırl akıyor*, the plural morpheme is used to mean 'masses of water'. Similarly, in *çaylar geldi*, the plural is used to pluralize the unit of *çay*, namely 'cups' or 'glasses'. In *yalnızlıklar yaşadım*, however, various

occurrences of this feeling is expressed. Several instances of loneliness has been experienced by the speaker.

-IAr in Frozen Forms

-IAr is also used in cliches as unanalyzed fixed forms: *İyi geceler!*, *Tatlı rüyalar!*, *Sağlıklar!* The singular counterparts yield ungrammatical forms in the sense that they can no longer convey the function of wishing: **İyi gece!*, **Tatlı rüya!*, **Sağlık!*

Gender

There are two types of gender: grammatical gender and natural gender. Languages that have **grammatical gender** mark nouns according to a distinction between masculine, feminine, and neuter. Some languages also mark adjectives, articles, and pronouns in terms of gender. Turkish does not make gender distinctions, at least not grammatically. That is, there is not a separate grammatical category in Turkish particularly used for gender marking except for some suffixes of foreign origin: *müdür/müdire*, *katip/katibe*, *muallim/muallime*, *kral/kraliçe*, *tanrı/tanrıça*.

Natural gender is a world category and it denotes biological gender. Turkish is somewhat sensitive to natural gender and employs lexical items to mark it in different ways. For example, words *erkek* and *kadın/kız* are used as adjectives to distinguish gender in humans: *kadın polis*, *kız arkadaş*, *erkek arkadaş*, *erkek yolcu*. In animals *dişi* is preferred over *kadın/kız*: **kadın aslan vs dişi aslan*, *erkek aslan*, *dişi kuş*. There are also a number of lexical items that are inherently marked for gender. For example, kinship terms such as *abla* and *ağabey* always have a female and a male referent respectively. Similarly, *damat*, *amca*, *dayı*, *enişte* are inherently marked as male; and *gelin*, *teyze*, *görümce*, *baldız* are always understood as female. There are also inherently marked lexical items used for animals: *dana vs tosun*, *tavuk vs boroz*, *koyun vs koç*.

Case

There are syntactic and semantic definitions of the notion case. Syntactically speaking, the term case is used to refer to the surface inflectional form of a noun which indicates grammatical relations. For example, the form of the word *cam* can be changed by inflection into *camı* or *cama* to show different functions of this word such as subject, direct object and indirect object. Semantically speaking, case shows the semantic relationship between the verb and its arguments (nouns). Compare the syntactic and semantic properties of the word *taş* in *Ali camı taşla kırdı* and *Taş camı kırdı*. Syntactically, it functions as an adverbial in the first sentence, and a subject in the second. However, its semantic relationship with the verb is the same in both sentences. *Taş* is the instrument with which the action performed. Therefore, *taşla* and *taş* are said to be in the *instrumental case*.

In this section, our focus will be on the former. Traditional grammarians of Turkish distinguish five cases which convey the following functions: the nominative case marking the subject: *ev-φ*; the accusative case marking the direct object: *ev-i*, the dative case marking the indirect object: *ev-e*, the locative case marking location: *ev-de*, the ablative case marking point of departure: *ev-den*, and the genive case marking the possessor in a possessive construction: *ev-in*.

Case assigners in Turkish are verbs, postpositions, and adjectives (Sezer, 1991: 55). For example, transitive verbs assign accusative case to their direct objects.

- (1) a. Serhat'ı kurtardılar.
b. *Serhat kurtardılar.

Other verbs may select other cases for their complements. Compare:

- (2) a. Serhat'a baktılar. (3) a. Serhat'tan söz ettiler.
b. *Serhat baktılar. b. *Serhat söz ettiler.
c. *Serhat'ı baktılar. c. *Serhat'a söz ettiler.
d. *Serhat'ı söz ettiler.

Bak- and *söz et-* are verbs that mark their objects with the dative and the ablative respectively. Any other case reveals ungrammatical forms as seen in (2b, c) and (3b, c, d)

As mentioned earlier, postpositions and adjectives assign case to their noun complements as well. **çocuk göre* and **yemek meraklı* are ungrammatical because the postposition *göre* and the adjective *meraklı* assign dative case to their arguments as in *çocuğa göre*, *yemeğe meraklı*. Similarly, **çocuğa gibi* and **çocuktan için* are not grammatical because postpositions *gibi* and *için* require nominative case as in *çocuk gibi*, *çocuk için*. Note that different cases may be assigned by postpositions in nominal and pronominal environments: *çocuk için* (nominative), but *benim için* (genitive), *çocuk gibi* (nominative), but *benim gibi* (genitive).

Cases in Turkish

The Nominative Case - Ø

Subjects of independent finite clauses are marked with the nominative case. *Çiçek* in *Çiçek açtı* is the subject of the sentence and is therefore in the nominative case, that is ϕ marked. However, not all ϕ marked noun phrases can be the subject. Consider *Ağaçlar çiçek açtı*. Neither *ağaçlar* nor *çiçek* has an overt case marker. But which one qualifies for subjecthood? What determines the native speaker's choice of *ağaçlar* as the subject over *çiçek*? In such cases, the position immediately before the verb is interpreted as the position for the object. So, *çiçek* cannot be the subject of this sentence since it is used pre-verbally. This leaves us with *ağaçlar* as the subject.

Which one/s of the following is/are in the nominative case?

- taş* *taşlarım*
taşlar *taşın*



The Accusative Case -(y)ı

The accusative case is traditionally defined as the marker of the direct object in a sentence. However, what is peculiar about it is that while all the other case markers are obligatorily assigned by their governing heads, the accusative case marking is optional in some cases (Erguvanlı, 1984: 19). Then what is the underlying motivation for presence or absence of the accusative in a sentence?

Definitizing Function of the Accusative

It is claimed that the presence of the accusative on the object noun phrase reveals a definite reading of the governed noun phrase.

- (3) a. Doktor hasta tedavi ediyor.
b. Doktor hastayı tedavi ediyor.

In (3a) *hasta* does not really refer to any specific person who can be identified by the speaker or the hearer. However, if the same noun phrase is attached the accusative case marker as in (3b), it is assigned a definite reading, which reveals that both the speaker and the hearer can identify the patient mentioned. *Hastayı* in that case is used to refer to a particular person whose identity is clear to both participants.

Generic Function of the Accusative

Generic is a reference type which is used to mark a class of objects, animals, or people rather than a specific member of a class. For example, in *aslan kükredi*, *aslan* has a definite reading since it refers to a particular lion in a particular context; but in *aslan kükrer*, it has a generic reading which holds for all lions. This distinction can be made in object noun phrases as well. The same function can be signalled by the accusative case marker when it is combined with the plural *-lar* in modal contexts.

- (4) a. Doktor hastaları tedavi eder.
b. Doktor hastaları tedavi etti.

Even though it is marked with the accusative case marker, *hastaları* in (4a) does not refer to any particular group of people in the same way as *hastaları* does in (4b). In this context, its meaning is equivalent to that of *doktor hasta tedavi eder*. As an abstract label, it only gives an abstract reading of the category patient, and the statement given in this sentence applies to all members of the category. The reason is that the plural marker neutralizes the definitizing function of the accusative case in the present time marking. However, this function of the plural morpheme is blocked by the past tense marker on the verb in (4b). Past tense marking typically restricts the time and the number of possible referents of an argument a verb can apply to. Therefore, the noun phrases with such limited domain of application can no longer be generic applying to all members of a category at all times. In other words, the generic reading is ruled out by the past tense marking on the verb. Then the definite reading of this sentence is that a particular doctor in a particular hospital treated a particular group of patients that can be identified by the participants. When a plural noun is used in this way, accusative case marker is obligatory as evidenced by the ungrammaticality of **doktor hastalar tedavi eder*.

Syntactic Function of the Accusative

Lack of accusative case marking reveals ungrammatical forms in the environment of noun phrases with definite readings as well. Consider:

- (5) a. Doktor Sevgi'yi tedavi etti. b. *Doktor Sevgi tedavi etti.
c. Doktor onu tedavi etti. d. *Doktor o tedavi etti.

We know that proper nouns and pronouns are definite by definition. Their referents can be identified by both the speaker and the hearer. Therefore, *Sevgi* and the pronoun that replaces it in (5a, c) are inherently definite. So, they do not really need a case marker to gain this status. Why are they case marked then? As mentioned elsewhere, in case of more than one definite bare noun in a sentence; accusative, as an object marker, is used to distinguish their syntactic functions. The accusative case marked noun is the direct object, the nominative noun is the subject of the sentence.

What about the syntactic function of common nouns? They too are obligatorily marked with the accusative case when they are not used in the preverbal position.

- (6) a. İşadamı gazeteye ilan verdi.
b. *İşadamı ilan gazeteye verdi.

The ungrammaticality of (6b) indicates that object noun phrases with no overt case marking are restricted to the position immediately before the verb. If they have to be used, for any pragmatic reason, in any other position, they must be marked with the accusative so as not to be taken as the subject of the sentence. Therefore, *işadamı ilanı gazeteye verdi* is perfectly grammatical since the subject and the object of the sentence can clearly be distinguished by case marking.

Function of Completeness

In addition to its syntactic and semantic functions discussed above, the accusative case, when used with noun phrases expressing location, interestingly expresses a complete coverage of the object affected by the verb. For example, *merdiveni çıktı* as opposed to *merdivene çıktı* indicates that the subject of the sentence climbed all the way up to the top of the stairs/ladder. However, *merdivene çıktı* suggests that the subject has just stepped on the stairs/ladder. Other examples include:

- (7) a. Yolu yürüdü. Pastayı yedi. Cellat askerin başını vurdu.
b. Yoldan yürüdü. Pastadan yedi. Cellat askeri başından vurdu.

The accusative case marked noun phrases in (7a) are affected by the action of the verb on a larger scale than the ones in (7b). The subject has walked all the way down the road, s/he has eaten the entire cake, and s/he cut off the head.

What is the function of the accusative in the following?

Etem dondurmayı sevmez ama bu dondurmayı yedi ve çok sevdi.



The Dative Case -(y)A

The **indirect objects** of ditransitive verbs in Turkish are obligatorily marked with the dative case.

- (8) Kitabı Zeynep-e verdim.
Zeynep-e tuzu uzattım.
Evi Zeynep-e sattım.
Zeynep-e eşyalarımı götürdüm.

In all of the examples in (8), the possession of the objects *kitap*, *tuz*, *ev*, and *eşyalar* is **transferred** to *Zeynep*, which in turn makes it the indirect object of

these verbs. Transference may sometimes be metaphorical with verbs such as *oku-*, *söyle-*, *öğret-*, *göster-*, *sor-*, *yolla-*, etc. (Berk, 1999: 35). In *Zeynep'e kitap okudum*, there is not an object being transferred from the subject to the indirect object. Transference here is more of an abstract one.

The idea of transference of the possession assumes [+animate] and mostly [+human] indirect objects. **Kitabı eve verdim* is ungrammatical unless [-animate] *ev* is used to refer to the people at home. Instead of this function, the dative case with such noun phrases marks a directional relationship between the verbs and their inanimate arguments as shown in:

- (9) Kitabı ev-e götürdüm.
Kitabı Ankara-y-a yolladım.
Kitabı masa-y-a bıraktım/koydum.
Eşyaları otel-e götürdüm.

The dative case marked noun phrases in (9) are directional arguments of the verbs, and they have the semantic function of **goal**. They can be replaced by a [+animate] noun such as *Zeynep* retaining the same function: *Kitabı Zeynep'e götürdüm*.

Dative case morphology conveys the meaning of **direction to** with intransitive verbs as well: *Masa-y-a düştü*, *Sinop-a gittik*, *Salon-a döndük*.

As mentioned earlier, among the case assigners in Turkish, a certain sub-group of verbs, adjectives, and postpositions selects the dative case to assign to their objects. Some examples of such verbs are *X-e ilgi duymak*, *X-e gücenmek*, *X-e yakışmak*; those of adjectives are *X-e bayran*, *X-e düşkün*, *X-e meraklı*; and those of postpositions are *X-e kadar*, *X-e rağmen*, *X-e göre*.

Non-Local Functions of -(y)A

When the dative case is used without showing directionality, it conveys the following functions.

- (10) Bütün para Demet-e kaldı.
Annem-e hediye aldım.
Herkes o-n-a çalışıyor.
(11) Sınav-a hazırlanıyor.
Bilgi almay-a gidiyoruz.
(12) Kitapları kaç-a aldın?
20 milyona.

In (10) *Demet*, *anne* and *o* are the people who are affected by the actions denoted in a beneficial manner. It is for this reason that they are said to have the **benefactive** role. In (11) dative cased noun phrases indicate a **purpose**, and in (12) the dative functions as an **indicator of price**.

It is your turn!

4



Which one of the following has a benefactive function?

Parayı masaya bıraktı.

Parayı kardeşine bıraktı.

The Locative Case -DA

The locative case is typically used to mark the locational relationship between a verb and its argument. It marks the spatial, temporal, and abstract location at which the verb is located. **Spatial location** shows location in place, and **temporal location** shows location in time. Finally, abstract location shows abstract placement in abstract nouns and adjectives indicating shape, size, color and age (Lewis, 1967: 37).

SPATIAL	TEMPORAL	ABSTRACT	
evde	saat altında	sarı renkte	güzellikte
arabada	Haziranda	daire şeklinde	doktorlukta
koltukta	iki yılda	bu uzunlukta	inançta
Avrupa'da	arada sırada	2 yaşında	sevgide

When these noun phrases are replaced by a [+human] noun, they indicate possession as in *Kitap Semra'da*. This differs from the genitive *kitap Semra'nın* in that it implies temporary possession of the book as opposed to permanent ownership signalled by the genitive.

As mentioned earlier, among the case assigners in Turkish, a certain sub-group of verbs and adjectives selects the locative case to assign to their objects. Some examples of such verbs are *X-te konuşlanmak*, *X-te konaklamak*, *X-te tabt kurmak*; and those of adjectives are *X-te saklı*, *X-te gömülü*, *X-te asılı*.

The Ablative Case -DAn

The function of this case is similar to that of the dative case. Both are typically categorized as directional cases. The difference lies in the fact that ablative nouns have the semantic function of **source**; whereas, dative nouns have the semantic function of **goal**.

- (13) Sınıftan çıktık.
Hemen uçaktan idi.
Havuzdan bir türlü çıkamadı.

The ablative case morphology in (13) indicates that *sınıf*, *uçak*, and *havuz* are places from which the actions *to get out of* and *to get off* proceed. Action may proceed from an animate source as well as in *İki saat önce bizden ayrıldı* and *Kitabı benden aldı*. But compare:

- (14) a. Ormandan geçtik.
b. Suyu şişeden içtik.
c. Eve pencereden girdik.

In (14) the semantics of the verbs used does not allow a meaning referring to a point of departure or source. Ablative in these examples expresses a **place** in (14a, c) or a **channel** in (14b) **through which** an action is performed.

By using the ablative case marker, it is also possible to express a point through which something is affected (Lewis, 1967: 38). In *Başından yaralandı* the speaker indicates that the person got wounded in the head.

Non-Local Functions of -DAn

When used nonlocally, the ablative case marker has other semantic functions. Consider:

- (15) Telaştan unuttum.
 (16) camdan ayakkabı

As seen in (15) *-DAn* can be used to mark a causal relationship between the verb and its arguments. The speaker marks the noun phrase with *-DAn* to express the **reason** of the meaning denoted by the verb: *I have forgotten because I was in a hurry*. Similar to this function, *-DAn* is also used on noun phrases to denote the **material from which** something is made. In (16) *glass* is the material from which the shoes are made, not vice versa. We know this from the case marker used on the noun.

-DAn has **partitive** semantics as well. *Öğrencilerden beşi* indicates that the ablative case marked noun represents the whole and the adjacent noun is a part of it: there are more than five students, but we are interested in only five of these students. This meaning is conveyed by *-DAn* attached to the noun representing the whole. Other examples include *yumurtalardan hiçbirini*, *çocuklardan bazıları*, *öğretmenlerden birkaçı*.

The **price** for which a product is bought can be expressed by the ablative marker: *Kitapları kaçtan aldın?*, *İkişer milyondan*.

As mentioned earlier, among the case assigners in Turkish, a certain sub-group of verbs, adjectives, and postpositions selects the ablative case to assign to their objects. Some examples of such verbs are *X-ten nefret etmek*, *X-ten boşlanmak*, *X-ten babsetmek*; those of adjectives are *X-ten uzun*, *X-ten pahalı*, *X-ten meraklı* (*comparative forms of all adjectives*); and those of postpositions are *X-ten beri*, *X-ten dolayı*, *X-ten başka*.

It is your turn!

5

Compare *Kitapları kaçtan aldın?* with *Kitapları kaça aldın?* Do they convey the same idea or can you sense a difference between the two?

The Genitive Case -(n)In

Unlike other case markers which establish a relationship between the verb and its arguments, the genitive case relates two nouns to each other. One noun is the possessor and the other is the possessed in a possessive construction. The former is typically marked with the genitive marker and the latter is with the possessive marker which agrees with the possessor in person and number: *Çocuğ-un yeleğ-i*. This type of relationship makes the possessor definite. Absence of genitive case on the first noun, as in *çocuk yeleği*, attributes an indefinite reading to the noun phrase: 'a child vest'. It is also possible to form **headless genitives** by using *-ki*: *çocuğunki*. *-Ki* represents the underlying head noun which can be identifiable from the preceding context.

Functions of -(n)In

Like other cases, the genitive case can express several different functions or meanings other than its typical function of true ownership. Compare the following examples:

subjective genitive	çocuğun ağlaması
objective genitive	camın kırılması
genitive of origin	Can Dünder'in yazıları
descriptive genitive	başarıların çocuğu
partitive genitive	sınıfın çalışkanı
appositive genitive	Türk Sineması'nın Sultanı

(adapted from: Wardhaugh, 1995:11)

The **subjective genitive** marks the subject of a subordinate clause. This inflection gives a specific reading to the referent of the noun: *Çocuk ağlaması* vs. *çocuğun ağlaması*. With genitive marking, the underlying meaning in the example is that there is a specific child and s/he has cried or will cry. In any case, the relationship between the genitive and its head is similar to the relationship between a verb and its subject. In *camın kırılması*, however, the underlying meaning is that somebody will break/has broken the window. *Cam* is the object of the verb *kırıl*, not the subject. Therefore, this type of function is called the **objective genitive**. The **genitive of origin** marks the source from which something originates: *Yazılar* are generated by *Can Dünder*. In *başarıların çocuğu*, *başarı* characterizes or **describes** the child as *başarılı çocuk*. **Partitive genitives** express a part-whole relationship. There is a class, this boy/girl is the most hard-working member of this class. *Evin odaları* and *trenin vagonları* display a similar relationship. **Appositive genitives** always imply the non-genitive noun. They in fact act as an equal (=). In everybody's mind *Türk Sineması'nın sultanı* implies *Türkan Şoray*. In other words, they are equivalent of each other: *Sultan=Türkan Şoray*. Similarly, *Cumhuriyetin kurucusu* implies *Atatürk*.

As mentioned earlier, among the case assigners in Turkish, a certain sub-group of verbs and postpositions selects the genitive case to assign to their objects. Some examples of such verbs are *X-in onayını almak*, *X-in onurunu kurtarmak*, *X-in şerefini korumak*; and those of postpositions are *kadar*, *gibi*, *ile* when used with pronouns as in *benim kadar*, *senin gibi* and *onunla*.

Finally, genitive constructions are claimed to express **superlativity** when they are used with headless adjectives (Johanson, 1998: 50) as in *peynirin iyisi*, *kitabın ucuzu*, *otelin temizliği*.

What meaning relationships appear to be expressed in the following genitives?

<i>kardeşimin bakıcısı,</i>	<i>ağacın dalları</i>
<i>Sezen Aksu'nun son kasedi</i>	<i>çocuğun bisikleti</i>
<i>Osmanlı'nın son sultanı</i>	<i>anasının kızı</i>
<i>avukatın itirazı</i>	



It is your turn!

6

Verbal and Nominal Categories

Agreement

Agreement shows a grammatical relationship between two elements in a sentence which requires concordance in different features. For example, the subject of a sentence is supposed to be compatible with the person marked on the verb. The reason why **ben geldim* is not grammatical is that the person marker on the verb does not agree with the person that the subject indicates. The subject is the first person, but the person on the verb is the second person. This violates the obligatory person agreement rule; therefore, the sentence is ungrammatical.

Agreement in person is not enough as shown by the ungrammaticality of **ben geldik*. In this sentence the category person marked by the subject and the verb is compatible: the first person. What is incompatible, however, is the category number. The subject is singular, whereas the marker on the verb is plural. Clearly, grammatical forms require agreement in both person and number categories.

There are two types of agreement in Turkish: verbal agreement and nominal agreement. Verbal agreement is seen on the verbs of main clauses, predicative nouns, and predicative adjectives (see Unit 11 for more). Observe the first person agreement in the examples below. Agreement markers are italicised.

Biz çocuğu gördü-*k*. person and number agreement on a predicate verb
 Biz çalışkan-*ız*. person and number agreement on a predicate adjective
 Biz öğretmen-*iz*. person and number agreement on a predicate noun

As shown below, nominal agreement is marked on the nouns of possessive constructions, on the verbs of noun clauses, and on the verbs of relative clauses.

bizim çocuğ-u-*muz* agreement in a possessive construction
 bizim gördüğ-ü-*müz* çocuk agreement in a relative clause
 bizim çocuğu gördüğ-ü-*müz* agreement in a noun clause
 bizim çocuğu görme-*miz* agreement in a noun clause
 bizim çocuğu göreceğ-i-*miz* agreement in a noun clause

Surely, the first person is not the only person category in Turkish. Table 7.1 displays all person categories and their variations in different verbal and nominal forms.

Table 7.1

Person Agreement Markers in Turkish

	verbal paradigm for -(I)yor, -mİş, -(I/A)r, (y)AcAK	verbal paradigm for -DI and -sA	verbal paradigm for -A	verbal paradigm for imperative	verbal paradigm for copula	nominal paradigm
1 st singular	-Im	-m	-(y) AyIm	X	-(y) Im	-(I) m
2 nd singular	-sIn	-n	-(y) AsIn	-φ	-sIn	-(I) n
3 rd singular	-φ	-φ	-(y) A	-sIn	-φ / -DIr	-(s) I (n)
1 st plural	-Iz	-k	-(y) Allm	X	-(y) Iz	-(I) mIz
2 nd plural	-sInIz	-nIz	-(y) AsInIz	-(y) In (Iz)	-sInIz	-(I) nIz
3 rd plural	-IAr	-IAr	-(y) AIAr (-sInIAr)	-sInIAr	-IAr	-IArI (n)

Despite this rich system, Turkish allows some violations of agreement to produce socially marked forms. Consider the following examples.

- (17) a. Müdür Bey ne arzu ederler?
 b. Sayın rektör geldiler mi?
 c. Bu satırların yazarı bu görüşü benimsememektedir.
 d. Nuran Hanım, sizinle daha önce karşılaşmamış mıydık?

In (17a, b) third person plural person agreement *-lar* is used for second and third person singular *-sin* and \emptyset respectively. These forms are used as a sign of **respect**. It is also possible to use third person singular \emptyset to refer to first person singular as seen in (17c). This is the style often adopted by writers to refer to themselves in **formal** written language. The second person plural *siz* for the second person singular *sen* shown in (17d) is a widely used **politeness** pattern. Conversely, the first person plural for the first person singular *ben* signals **modesty**: *Biz öyle gördük, Boynumuz kıldan ince, Bugün nasılız?* (Lewis, 1967: 247).

I. Why is *Sayın Vali açılışı eşleriyle birlikte sereflendirdiler* ambiguous?

II. Look at the following data and try to specify the morpheme order in nominals in Turkish.

<i>sokak</i>	<i>sokaklar</i>	<i>sokakları</i>	<i>annemler</i>
<i>sokakta</i>	<i>sokaklarda</i>	<i>sokaklarında</i>	<i>annemlerde</i>
<i>sokağı</i>	<i>sokakları</i>	<i>sokaklarını</i>	<i>annemleri</i>
<i>sokaktan</i>	<i>sokaklardan</i>	<i>sokaklarından</i>	<i>annemlerden</i>
<i>sokağın</i>	<i>sokakların</i>	<i>sokakları</i>	<i>annemlerin</i>
<i>sokağa</i>	<i>sokaklara</i>	<i>sokaklarına</i>	<i>annemlere</i>



Verbal Categories

Negation

Standard negation is marked on the verb using the negative morpheme *-mA* as in *gelmedi*. The alternative negative marker *değil* is used with adjectival and nominal predicates as in *Olca mutlu değil, Olca öğretmen değil*. It can also occur with a preceding clause, but this type of use is more marked since it is restricted to *-miş*, *-(I)yor*, and *-(y)AcAK* clauses only: *gelmiş değilsin, geliyor değilsin, gelecek değilsin*, but **geldi değilsin, *gelir değilsin, *gelmeli değilsin*. Notice that the person agreement marker is obligatorily used with *değil* in these sentences to avoid otherwise ungrammatical forms: **geliyorsun değil, *geleceksin değil, *gelmişsin değil*. However, this constraint becomes optional when *değil* is used with a preceding clause negated with *-mA*. Double negatives formed in this way allow both person marked preceding clauses as in *gelmeyeceksin değil* and/or person marked *değil* as in *gelmeyecek değilsin*. Double negatives with *değil* also allow the past and present tense markers in their preceding clauses: *gelmedi değilsin, gelmez değilsin* as well as *gelmedin değil, gelmezsin değil* (Erguvanlı-Taylan, 1986: 159-177).

It is also possible to convey negative meaning with derivational markers as in *Olca mutsuz*. Negative derivational markers create contradictory meanings that are mutually exclusive. This kind of negation is not verbal since the use of it is restricted to non-verbal categories.

Tense, Aspect, Mood (TAM)

Tense and aspect communicate information about time. In order to understand the meaning of a noun, we do not have to consider time, but messages conveyed by verbs are understood based on various information about time. This information can be hidden in the lexical meaning of a verb. For example, some verbs inherently do not last long, i. e. *sıçra-*, *kır-*, *hapşır-*, but some do, i. e. *oku- yüz- uyu-*. Some verbs focus on the beginning or the finishing of an event, i. e. *başla-*, *bit-*, *son ver*, some on the ongoing nature of it, i. e. *sür-*, *ol-*, *dur-*, yet, some others emphasize a change in state of affairs, i. e. *büyü-*, *soğu-*, *yeşer-*. This type of intrinsic information