

T.C.
Mersin Üniversitesi
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü

İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Anabilim Dalı

SYNTACTIC AND SEMANTIC ANALYSIS OF
POSTPOSITIONAL
PURPOSE AND REASON CLAUSES
IN TURKISH

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Firdevs ULAŞ

**T.C. YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURULU
DOKÜMANTASYON MERKEZİ**

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

Mersin
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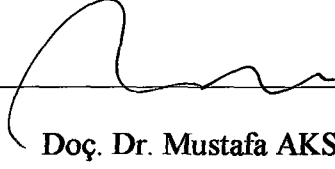
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Mersin
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Bu çalışma jürimiz tarafından İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Anabilim Dalında YÜKSEK

LİSANS TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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Onay

Yukarıdaki imzaların, adı geçen öğretim elemanlarına ait olduklarını onaylarım.


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INTRODUCTION

Language can be used to transmit information but it also serves many other purposes: to establish relations among people, to express or clarify thought, for creative mental activity, to gain understanding, and so on. In my opinion, there is no reason to accord privileged status to one or the other of these modes. Forced to choose, I would say something quite classical and rather empty. Language serves essentially for the expression of thought (Chomsky, 1979: 88).

Language is a means by which thought and information are conveyed through speech. Speakers are able to convey both concrete and abstract concepts by means of language. It is a system in which there are principles generating an infinite number of novel utterances from a finite set of rules. The language system enables the users to construct and understand many utterances that they have never heard or read before. This creative aspect of the language system is the basis of linguistic studies. Modern linguistics aims to describe how the language capacity works and how people communicate by means of language. A grammar of a language is a model of the linguistic competence that a native speaker is endowed with. Thus, the linguistic abilities of the native speakers enable them to speak and understand their language.

Saussure (1959) argues that the value of a linguistic element depends on the elements with which it contrasts. It was Saussure, who first suggested that language is a system of signs not a list of words. He states that these linguistic signs gain a value through a kind of social convention. The value to a linguistic sign is determined by the relation it has with other elements in the language. The linguistic sign, which we call the word, is the combination of sound and meaning. Language is a complex system composed of signs since no single element can form a system itself. This complexity of language, which is a product of the human brain, attracts linguists' attention. There is no way of describing or defining a language without a linguistic rule.

Parts of speech is the traditional term which is used for the major word classes that are grammatically distinguished in a language. Thus, parts of speech in every language gain a meaning through their relationships with the other elements; they share certain syntactic, morphological and semantic properties. All languages make distinctions between the word classes. There are rather striking differences between languages about the kind and the number of parts of speech distinctions. Nouns and verbs are considered as the major elements, but in order to produce clear expressions, nouns make use of adjectives and verbs make use of adverbs (Schachter 1985, Emonds 1987, Wunderlich 1996, Whaley 1997). Conjunctions and adpositions-prepositions and postpositions- are words that connect words, phrases or clauses. An adposition is a word that indicates a relation between the noun/pronoun it governs and another word which may be a verb, an adjective or another noun/pronoun.

The term *adposition* is used to cover both *preposition* and *postposition*. Every language has either *prepositions* that are placed at the beginning of NPs, or *postpositions* that are placed at the end. Greenberg (1963:62) has claimed that verb-initial languages are always *prepositional* while verb-final languages are almost always *postpositional*. Like case markers, adpositions help to indicate the role that their noun phrases play in the sentence. It is not always easy to distinguish adpositions from case markers, but generally the term case markers is used for relatively small sets of markers, often for those that are attached firmly to their nouns/pronouns as affixes, and that indicate major roles in the sentence such as subject and object.

Problems of the study

All languages have a lexical exponent of expressing purpose and reason/cause. These notions are generally reflected by embedded clauses. Purpose and Reason Clauses constructed by postpositions are common forms of adverbial modification. They have various properties that are not accounted for in the traditional studies. In this study, our aim is to analyse the postpositions denoting purpose and reason/cause and answer the questions below:

- i) What are the major syntactic features of postpositional Purpose and Reason Clauses in Turkish?
- ii) What are the major semantic features of postpositional Purpose and Reason Clauses in Turkish?

While trying to explain these points, we will also discuss other structures denoting purpose and reason/cause in Turkish.

Hypothesis

Our hypothesis is that postpositions which are in the scope of embedded Purpose and Reason Clauses and their matrix clauses have both syntactic and semantic constraints.

The purpose of this study

Our aim is to clarify the ambiguities about the classification and the functions of these constructions and provide a detailed formal account of several aspects of Purpose and Reason Clauses that have not received due attention. We try to make a syntactic and

semantic analysis. Thus, it would be possible to contribute the modern studies that are trying to describe Turkish grammar.

Data Collection

As for the data this study is based on, not only native speaker production but also a wide variety of electronic texts were scanned. The data collection comprises spontaneous native speaker speech- naturally occurring data, short stories, documentary texts, newspapers and magazines.

Limitations

Since this study aims to give a detailed account of the ambiguities about the classification and the functions of these constructions, we are specifically focused on common postpositions that are used to express purpose and reason/cause. Non-literal interpretations of the statements are disregarded.

Organization of the study

Chapter I gives an overall background of the studies done on parts of speech both by traditional and modern grammarians.

Chapter II deals with the classification and representation of Purpose and Reason Clauses in terms of syntactic issues. Syntactic representation by tree diagrams and constraints in terms of syntax are all dealt with in this chapter.

Chapter III focuses on the interpretation of common postpositions used in these constructions. In the analysis, semantic issues are discussed.

Conclusion summarises the whole study and remarks the basic findings.

CHAPTER I. REVIEW of LITERATURE

The English grammarian Sweet (1891, cited in Palmer 1976: 32) draws a distinction between words as *full words* and *form words*. He claims that *full words* are the words that we would expect to find their meanings in a dictionary. *Form words* only have grammatical meaning. Such meaning cannot be stated in isolation but only in relation to other words.

Prepositions have been treated in different ways in linguistic studies. Klima (1965) realizes that prepositions are more than markers on NPs and suggests that many adverbs can be identified as intransitive prepositions; Becker & Arms (1969) reduce prepositions to a subclass of the category 'verb'; Postal (1971) treats them as realizations of features on NPs. "People seem never to have taken prepositions seriously. They deny that the category *preposition* has any real intrinsic syntactic interest other than as an annoying little surface peculiarity." With these words, Jackendoff (1973:345) reflects the attitude towards this word class prevailing in the early generative grammar literature and stemming from the view of prepositions in traditional grammar as appendages to nouns or pronouns. Fillmore (1986) sees prepositions as case markers. Emonds (1987) analyzes the traditional particles of verb-particle combinations as intransitive prepositions.

While describing a language we have to point out what generalizations can be made about parts of speech systems. As Schachter (1985:3) proposes we should try to answer questions such as:

- i) Which parts of speech distinctions are universal and which language-specific?
- ii) What are the ways in which languages that lack a particular part of speech express the semantic equivalent?
- iii) What relations are there between the parts of speech system of a language and the language's other typological characteristics?

Most of parts of speech classifications are grammatical, not semantic. Semantic classification may fail to provide an adequate basis for the applicability of the word class. Grammatical properties of a word include the word's distribution within a sentence, its range of syntactic functions and the morphological or syntactic categories for which it is specifiable.

All languages make a distinction between *open* and *closed parts of speech classes*. Robins (1964, cited in Schachter 1985: 4) describes open classes as those "whose membership is in principle unlimited, varying from time to time and between one speaker and another" and closed classes as those that "contain a fixed and usually small number of member words, which are essentially the same for all the speakers of the language, or the dialect". Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs belong to the open classes; pronouns and conjunctions belong to the closed classes.

Closed word classes are pronouns/other proforms, noun adjuncts, verb adjuncts, conjunctions and other closed classes. Languages differ in the number and type of closed class distinctions. The word classes in this group cannot normally be extended by the creation of additional members. In some languages coordinating conjunctions form structural units with the conjuncts they precede. Thus, they can be characterized as prepositional. In some languages they can be characterized as postpositional, since they form structural units with the conjuncts they follow. This character of the coordinating conjunctions is quite systematically associated with the language's general word order characteristics: non-verb-final languages generally have the prepositional type of conjunctions, verb-final languages the postpositional type.

Emonds (1987) comments on the traditional definitions of the lexical categories, and suggests that they are vague, defective and inadequate. The traditional

definitions suggest no principled distinction between the open classes and closed classes. Almost any preposition should qualify as a conjunction; certain locational adverbs and prepositions have much in common, as do certain subordinating conjunctions and prepositions, and many of the limiting adjectives and pronouns. Curme (1935 cited in Emonds 1987: 4) gives the following definitions:

A noun is a word as the name of a living being or a lifeless thing. *A verb* is that part of speech that predicates, assists in predications, asks a question, or expresses a command. *An interjection* is an outcry to express emotion. A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun. *An adjective* is a word that modifies a noun or a pronoun. An *adverb* is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. *A preposition* is a word that indicates a relation between the noun or pronoun it governs and another word which may be a verb, an adjective, or another noun or pronoun. *A conjunction* is a word that joins together sentences or parts of a sentence.

In traditional studies, *preposition* is the lexical category ascribed the role of 'introducing' noun phrases. In generative grammar, a number of studies show that this lexical category has a more pervasive and more central role to play. P is accepted as a fourth 'head of phrase' category because its members can co-occur with certain typical members of a 'specifier' category SP (P). There are four lexical categories X^0 , $X = N, A, V, \text{ or } P$. These categories are heads of corresponding XP phrases and are paired with four corresponding 'specifier' categories, SP (N), SP (A), SP (V) and SP (P). SP (N) can always express quantification and deixis, SP (A) can always express degree, SP (V) can always express verbal time and aspect, and SP (P) serves as an intensifier.

Wunderlich (1996) studies on lexical categories and tries to clarify the conceptual base of grammatical categories. For him the lexical items of a language are divided into two categories: major and functional. In addition conjunctions may form a minor category. The lexical items in major and functional categories may occur either as

free or bound. The distinction between these two categories is observed in their occurrence as derivational or inflectional affixes.

	free	bound
a. Major categories	N, V, A, P	derivational affixes
b. Functional categories	D, C, Aux	inflectional affixes
c. Minor categories	Conj	Conj

Table 1: The lexical inventory (Wunderlich 1996: 3)

In Turkish, parts of speech are classified as nouns, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, postpositions, conjunctions and verbs. However, the traditional studies are inadequate to define these words and their qualifications clearly. Traditional grammar is deficient in this respect because parts of speech are only described without a principle and a systematic study was not fulfilled. They just make classification of particular examples to the stage of formulation, but do not express many of the basic regularities of the language. These studies are mostly based on functional- notional criteria rather than morpho-syntactic behaviour. They provide a list of exceptions, paradigms and examples of regular constructions; however, they do not examine the question of how the reader of the grammar uses such information to attain the knowledge used to form and interpret new expressions.

Postpositions, which are the subject of this study, have been treated in different ways in such studies. Not only the term itself but also the functions of postpositions are a matter of implicit explanations by traditional grammarians. Postpositions are named as *ilgiçler* (Deny, 1943), *ilgeçler* (Gencan, 1975), *son çekim edatları* (Ergin, 1983), *edatlar* (Ediskun, 1985), *takılar* (Banguoğlu, 1990), *çekim edatları* (Hacıeminoğlu, 1992) and finally again as *ilgeçler* (Aksan 1998). Although these studies give roughly similar definitions for the term, it is hardly possible to find a completely detailed explanation for the classification and functions of postpositions. Separately, some of these works discuss

the meaning of postpositions, some discuss their function, some reflect their form, some mention their use, whereas some only exemplify the objects that they can take as complements. Most traditional grammarians define postpositions as “meaningless words”. A linguist cannot accept such a definition because there is no meaningless word in a language; every word has a value of its own in a variety of concepts. A sentence may be formed by a number of constituents with no lexical meaning- function words. Postpositions belong to the functional category in a language; thus, we may possibly call them as contentless constituents. They are words forming a semantic relation between words, phrases or clauses, and they always follow the words they are related to. Thus, most postpositions assign a case to their complements and the choice of case is determined by the semantics of the postposition.

As Lewis (1975: 85) mentions the functions of some English prepositions are performed by the case suffixes in Turkish. He classifies postpositions into two:

- i) Genuine /Primary Postpositions
- ii) Secondary Postpositions

Genuine postpositions- he calls them as “primary postpositions”- cannot be stranded because they do not carry any agreement with their argument. However, it is possible to strand “secondary postpositions”. These are actually nouns which are used as postpositions; they do not assign any case to their respective arguments and either are themselves assigned case by the verbal predicate of the sentence or carry an inherent case in contrast to genuine postpositions, which cannot be case marked. The first type ranges over a variety of meanings; the second type is locational.

Underhill (1976: 157) states that English has prepositions preceding the noun to which they refer whereas Turkish has postpositions following the noun. Banguoğlu (1990: 386) calls this term as *taki* and defines a postposition as a word that follows nouns

and combines them with other elements within the sentence. He states that as a form they are words, but they function as case markers and show the relation between two concepts.

Hacıeminoğlu (1992:1) states that functionally postpositions are like case-suffixes. He does not acknowledge the words, which take suffixes as postpositions, but calls them as nouns. Postpositions are generally written as a separate unit from the noun it is related. They constitute adverb or adjective phrases with the nouns they are related to. In fact, he does not accept the term postposition with regard to the fact that there are no prepositions in Turkish.

Ediskun (1992: 284) and Bozkurt (1995:131) state that postpositions do not have a meaning by themselves, a postposition forms a phrase with the word(s) that it follows. They define postpositions as words forming a semantic relation between phrases. Bozkurt (1995: 132) claims that postpositions may convert the function of the word(s) they are related to. He states that although postpositions are independent morphemes, they function as an affix and may be used as an adverb (*belirteç*) or attributive adjective (*sıfat*).

Gencan (1979: 433), Hengirmen (1995: 168), Aksan (1998: 97) and Atabay (1998:137) point out that the main function of postpositions is to bridge a semantic relation among concepts. Hengirmen (1995: 171) states that postpositions do not take case, possessive agreement or plural suffixes. Those that take these suffixes are all nouns.

As Kornfilt (1997:210) states, in terms of systematic properties, postpositions are relatively easy to diagnose because they are independent morphemes that assign case to their nominal complement. She studies postpositions in two classes:

- i) Postpositions that do not bear agreement morphology with their objects.
- ii) Postpositions that do exhibit agreement morphology with their objects.

The first group consists of postpositions that assign a variety of cases to their objects or that co-occur with objects not overtly marked. They do not agree for any

grammatical category with the nouns they govern. The choice of case is determined by the semantics of the postposition.

All of these definitions focus on the fact that prepositions come before the words or phrases they refer to whereas postpositions follow the words or phrases they refer to. This is only a syntactic distinction. They actually have no difference in function. Semantically there are a number of relations expressed by prepositions or postpositions, such as *space*, *time*, *topic*, *purpose*, *similarity*, etc. As for the classification of postpositions, except Banguoğlu (1990: 386) who has his own terminology; most of the traditional Turkish grammarians classify postpositions according to their function as follows:

- i) Bare postpositions
- ii) Postpositions that assign the nominative
- iii) Postpositions that assign the dative
- iv) Postpositions that assign the ablative

Csato and Johanson (1998) also distinguish these four types of postpositional phrases, which consist of a nominal phrase determined by case marking properties.

CHAPTER II. SYNTACTIC REPRESENTATION of PURPOSE and REASON

CLAUSES

II. 1. Syntactic Description of Purpose and Reason Clauses

Syntactic rules in a grammar have two tasks to fulfil: they must (1) specify which sequences of words form grammatical sentences in a language, and (2) specify the internal syntactic structure of such sentences. The basic principle of Theory of Language holding for all grammars of natural languages states that all grammatical rules are structure-dependent (Radford, 1988). Sentences are not just composed of sequences of words but they are composed of phrases. Although most languages have the same lexical categories, the precise rules for sentence formation may differ. Each lexical category occurs in certain positions in the sentence; we cannot replace the words randomly in any position without regarding to their lexical category. All languages have simple sentences, which are consisting of a verb and associated noun phrases (NPs). We can identify an NP as an argument if it is assigned a case. As Chomsky (1986) states in Case Filter, every phonetically realized NP must be assigned Case. All NPs are assigned Case- either structurally or inherently- by Case assigners. Word order and verb agreement markers help to indicate the role of the NPs, which are sometimes marked by either case markers or adpositions, which cover both prepositions and postpositions. Just like case markers, adpositions help to specify the role that their NPs play in the sentence.

The traditional misconception about prepositions is that nouns and pronouns are the only categories that prepositions can combine with. First of all, it is appropriate to say that they can be complemented by NPs, bare nouns and pronouns as well as more complex expressions where a noun is combined with an adjective and a determiner. Second, NP is not the only category that can complement adpositions. The analysis that

PPs invariably take the form P-NP is not adequate to explain PPs. The base rule for PP should be altered by the addition of parenthesis: $PP \rightarrow P (NP)$.

Both in traditional and modern studies postpositions are typically defined as particles or words occurring after a noun to indicate its grammatical role in a sentence. Since Turkish is an agglutinative language, it mostly uses suffixes. The basic word order in Turkish is the SOV. This is a fixed order in a sentence where the NPs do not have a case-marking and thus there are no clues to distinguish between the grammatical roles of NPs.

Postpositions cannot constitute a phrase by themselves but in complex sentences, they can occur with clausal complements; these can be either nominalized or tensed NPs that have the case suffixes required by the postposition itself. Complex sentences are made up of one or two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses. In complex sentences, postpositions constitute phrases with the nouns they are related to, or function as modifiers in the VP, telling us more about the action denoted by the verb. In Turkish one of the verbal noun formations involves postpositions. In these constructions, a postposition combines with a particular non-finite verbal form. These combinations are used adverbially, they acquire the function of different adverbial clauses headed by postpositions. That is to say, although structurally these postpositional phrases are nominal, they would be introduced as adverbial constructions on functional grounds. Adverbial clauses are employed to provide the situational context for the event or state described in a matrix clause. Syntactically, adverbials are not obligatory in any construction. They are required by pragmatic and discourse-related reasons. Therefore we can regard postpositional clauses as optional constituents that are not syntactically required by the verb in any way. As Whaley (1997), Radford (1988) and Uzun (2000)

state, postpositions are placed as modifiers of NPs or VPs and thus accepted as adjunct clauses in these positions.

The main pattern of subordination involves nominalized clauses in Turkish. These nominalized clauses may function as prepositional complements (Kortmann 1991:13). Within these clausal constructions, subject or object complements are expressed by nominalizations, verbal nouns and infinitival constructions. The verb of the embedded sentence is marked with the infinitive suffix *-mAK* in infinitival clauses; with *-mA* (the action nominal) in verbal noun constructions, and with *-DIK* (the factive nominal) in nominalizations. As Erguvanlı (1979) indicates, complex nominal forms- infinitival constructions, verbal nouns or nominalizations- may have postpositions following them.

Each NP has its syntactic place in the sentence, and each also expresses a semantic role. The complex nominal forms (*-mAK*, *-mA*, *-DIK*) preceded by some postpositions denote *purpose* and *reason/cause*. In Turkish *için*, *üzere*, *diye*, *-den dolayı/ötürü* and *yüzünden* are the postpositions that are used to express purpose or reason/cause in these nominalized constructions. Traditional grammarians Hacıeminoğlu (1992), Gencan (1975), Ergin (1983), Ediskun (1985), Koç (1990) and also modern studies, Özsoy and Taylan (1998), Özsoy (1999) discuss these postpositions in groups as denoting *purpose* and *reason*. As Schaaik (2001: 23) explains, in Turkish *reason* and *cause* are expressed in similar ways; both morphologically or syntactically, there is not a clear-cut difference between several types of embedded clauses- cause and effect, reason and consequence- which convey basic similarities of relationship. We will use the terms *Purpose Clause* and *Reason Clause* as the superordinate terms in our discussion.

II. 2. Syntactic Features of Purpose and Reason Clauses

II. 2. 1. Purpose Clauses

In Turkish, nominalized clauses are similar to finite clauses from the point of view of internal structure. Although their syntactic properties are nearly parallel, they assign different morphological markers. The constructions expressing *purpose* presented in this study are classified as nominalized clauses that are the complements of postpositions. Purpose can be expressed by the postpositions *için* and *üzere* in nominalised clauses:

-mAK:

(1) a. Öğrenciler [[konferansa gitmek] için] izin istediler.

b. Öğrenciler [[konferansa gitmek] üzere] izin istediler.

*c. Öğrenciler [[konferansa gitmek] diye] izin istediler.

‘The students asked for permission to go to the conference.’

-mA:

(2) a. Genç kız [[arkadaşının eğlenmesi] için] parti düzenliyor.

*b. Genç kız [[arkadaşının eğlenmesi] üzere] parti düzenliyor.

*c. Genç kız [[arkadaşının eğlenmesi] diye] parti düzenliyor.

‘The young girl is arranging a party so that her friend would enjoy himself.’

-DIK:

(3) a. [[Öfkeye kapıldığım] için] günahımı affet Tanrım.

*b. [[Öfkeye kapıldığım] üzere] günahımı affet Tanrım.

*c. [[Öfkeye kapıldığım] diye] günahımı affet Tanrım.

‘Lord, please forgive me for being infuriated.’

Purpose Clauses can also be expressed with the optative modality marker, but in that structure the postposition *diye* is used:

Optative:

(4) *a. Annem [[ben uyuyayım] için] lambayı söndürdü.

*b. Annem [[ben uyuyayım] üzere] lambayı söndürdü.

c. Annem [[ben uyuyayım] diye] lambayı söndürdü.

‘My mother turned off the light so that I would sleep.’

Apart from these structures, traditional grammarians mention that *-mAsı için* structure with the third person (singular and plural) imperative suffix *-sIn(lAr)* may be used to express purpose. Lewis (1967) follows this usage and claims that it is an uncommon method of expressing purpose:

(5) Bu gömleği ona giysin için verdim. = giysin diye (Lewis, 1967:139)

‘I gave this shirt to him so that he would put it on.’

Gencan (1975) and Ediskun (1985) state that *için* expressing purpose cannot be used with inflected verbs but it has a synonym with the *-mAsı için* structure with the third person (singular and plural) imperative suffix *-sIn(lAr)*:

(6) a) O dergiyi [Sevim’e okusun için] verdim. = okuması için (Gencan, 1975: 398)

‘I gave the issue to Sevim so that she would read it.’

b) Ben, ona bu kitabı okusun için vermiştim. = okuması için (Ediskun, 1985: 295)

‘I had given him the book so that he would read it.’

All of the structures above specify purpose, yet there are some restrictions: *-mAK için/üzere* can express purpose (1a/b), whereas *-mAK diye* (1c) is an unacceptable

construction. *-mAsI için* constructs a grammatical sentence (2a), but *-mAsI üzere/diye* structures are ungrammatical (2b/c). The factive nominal cannot be used to express purpose. In (3) only *-DIK için* structure (3a) is grammatical but it does not express purpose, it expresses reason. *-DIK üzere/diye* form ungrammatical sentences. In the sentences with the *optative-* expressing a wish for something to come about- and the person marker (4a/b/c), only *diye* construction is acceptable (4c) while *için* and *üzere* constructions cannot be (4a/b). While studying these sentences, we realized that purpose and reason overlap in most cases. It should be noted that in purpose clauses an inherent idea of reason occurs automatically but not vice versa. We will discuss this point in the following chapter.

With regard to the syntactic points, we can list structures denoting unmarked purpose as follows:

- (7) a. *-mAK için/üzere*
 b. *-mA-sI için*
 c. *-A diye*

As it is represented above, Purpose Clauses are used attributively. To give an overall syntactic analysis of these constructions, we cannot disregard their predicative use. Distinct from the common use of language there is also an inclination to produce sentences where these constructions are used predicatively. Postpositions may be combined with some predicational operators; the postposition *için* is the most productive one in this sense. Yet, they only select restricted type of markers.

- (8) a. Tüm bunlar sizinle arkadaş olabilmek *içindi*.

‘All these were to be able to make friends with you.’

b. Sabırlı görünmesi ödülü kazanmak *içinmiş*.

‘His looking patient was to be able to win the prize.’

c. Dil iletişim *içindir*.

‘Language is for communication.’

d. Sağ kolumun kesilmesi bir kurşun *yüzündendir*.

‘My arm being cut is because of a bullet.’

II. 2. 2. Reason Clauses

Embedded clauses denoting reason/cause can be expressed by the postpositions *için*, *diye*, *-den dolayı/ötürü* and *yüzünden* in different constructions; with *-DIK* (the factive nominal); with some tense/aspect suffixes: *-(y)AcAK* (the factive nominalizer expressing future); *-DI* (past tense suffix); *-miş* (reported past suffix); *-Iyor* (progressive suffix) and the aorist *-Ar*. *Dolayı* and *yüzünden* can also take nominal complements:

-DIK:

(9)a. [[Öfkeye kapıldığım] için] günahımı affet Tanrım.

b. [[Öfkeye kapıldığım]-dan dolayı] günahımı affet Tanrım.

c. [[Öfkem]-den dolayı] günahımı affet Tanrım.

*d. [[Öfkeye kapıldığım] diye] günahımı affet Tanrım.

*e. [[Öfkeye kapıldığım] yüzünden] günahımı affet Tanrım.

‘Lord, please forgive me for being infuriated.’

-(y)AcAK:

(10) *a. [[Yeni işine başlayacak] için] heyecanlıydı.

b. [[Yeni işine başlayacağı] için] heyecanlıydı.

c. [[Yeni işine başlayacak] diye] heyecanlıydı.

*d. [[Yeni işine başlayacağı] diye] heyecanlıydı.

e. [[Yeni işine başlayacağı]-ndan dolayı] heyecanlıydı.

f. [[Yeni işi]-nden dolayı] heyecanlıydı.

*g. [[Yeni işine başlayacak] yüzünden] heyecanlıydı.

*h. [[Yeni işine başlayacağı] yüzünden] heyecanlıydı.

‘She was excited due to the fact that she would start her new job.’

It should be noted that the tense/aspect and modality markers on the embedded verb determine the interpretation of the embedded clause, either as a purpose clause or a reason clause. In the traditional studies of Turkish, the non-future uses of the factive nominalizer suffix *-(y)AcAK* are almost always ignored. As Yavaş (1980) points out, *-(y)AcAK* does not simply function as a future tense morpheme, but it is also a marker of different modalities like *intention* and *obligation*. Thus, *-(y)AcAK diye* may form embedded clauses denoting purpose with regard to its aspectual use. This point will be further discussed in the following section on example sentences.

-DI:

(11) *a. [[Arabayı yıkamadım] için] babam kızdı.

b. [[Arabayı yıkamadım] diye] babam kızdı.

*c. [[Arabayı yıkamadım]-dan dolayı] babam kızdı.

*d. [[Arabayı yıkamadım] yüzünden] babam kızdı.

‘My father got angry with me because I did not wash the car.’

-mİŞ:

(12) *a. [[Tatildeyken çiçekleri solmuş] için] üzüldü.

b. [[Tatildeyken çiçekleri solmuş] diye] üzüldü.

*c. [[Tatildeyken çiçekleri solmuş]-dan dolayı] üzüldü.

*d. [[Tatildeyken çiçekleri solmuş] yüzünden] üzüldü.

‘She felt sorry about the fact that her flowers had wilted when she was on holiday.’

-Iyor:

(13) *a. [[Gürültü yapıyorlar] için] çok kızdı.

b. [[Gürültü yapıyorlar] diye] çok kızdı.

*c. [[Gürültü yapıyorlar]-dan dolayı] çok kızdı.

*d. [[Gürültü yapıyorlar] yüzünden] çok kızdı.

‘She got furious due to the fact that they were making noise.’

-Ar:

(14) *a. [[Polisler üstümü ararlar] için] hiç dışarı çıkmıyordum.

b. [[Polisler üstümü ararlar] diye] hiç dışarı çıkmıyordum.

*c. [[Polisler üstümü ararlar]-dan dolayı] hiç dışarı çıkmıyordum.

*d. [[Polisler üstümü ararlar] yüzünden] hiç dışarı çıkmıyordum.

‘I never went for fear that the police should ask for a hold up.’

yüzünden:

(15) *a. [[Her hizmetçinin hırsız *olmak*] yüzünden] hanımefendini migreni tutuyor.

*b. [[Her hizmetçinin hırsız *olduğu*] yüzünden] hanımefendinin migreni tutuyor.

c. [[Her hizmetçinin hırsız *olması*] yüzünden] hanımefendinin migreni tutuyor.

‘The lady has migraine attacks due to the fact every servant turns out to be a thief.’

d. Küçük iradımız [[enfasyon] yüzünden] gitti.

‘Our little saving has finished because of the inflation.’

As for these syntactic points, we can list structures expressing reason as follows:

(16) a. *-DIğ-I / -(y)AcAğ-I için*

b. *-DIğ-IndAn dolayı/ötürü; noun+dolayı/ötürü*

c. *-DI /-mIş/ -(y)AcAK / -Iyor/ -Ar diye*

d. *-mA-sI yüzünden/ noun + yüzünden*

The postpositions *dolayı* and *ötürü* are used interchangeably. We will only mention the postposition *dolayı* in the rest of this work. Furthermore, in addition to the structures proposed in (16c), *diye* is used with predicative adjectives to express reason

(17):

(17) a. [[Hasta] diye] iki gündür okula gelmiyor.

‘She has not come to school for two days because she is ill.’

b. [[Çorba çok tuzlu] diye] içemedim.

‘I could not eat the soup because it was too salty.’

c. [[Gömleğim kirlili] diye] kazak giydim.

‘I put on a sweater because my shirt was dirty.’

II. 3. Postpositional Clauses as Optional Constituents

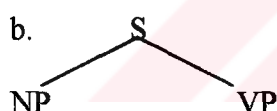
Sentences are structural units having a hierarchical constituent structure. In this hierarchy, sounds come together to form words, words come together to form the structural groupings, that is to say, phrases and phrases are grouped into sentences. The X-Bar Theory distinguishes between lexical categories (N, V, P, A and Adv) and non-

lexical categories Inflection (Infl.) and Complement (Comp.). Each lexical category is only allowed to occur in certain positions in the sentence, the words cannot be randomly placed in any position without regard to their lexical category. As far as complementation is concerned, postpositions and postpositional phrases are accepted within the major categories. There are essentially two different levels of categories in language:

- i) word-level categories like N, V, P, A, Adv.
- ii) phrase-level categories such as NP, VP, PP, AP, AdvP.

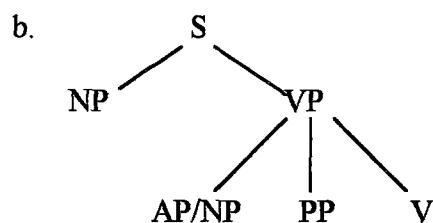
In a sentence each constituent belongs to a specific syntactic category. X-bar syntax has certain requirements: a phrase always contains at least a head as well as other possible constituents. Turkish is a head-final language, thus heads are always on the right. The head may be the only constituent forming the phrase. Simply a sentence breaks up into a Noun Phrase (NP) and a Verb Phrase (VP):

(18) a. $S \rightarrow NP \ VP$



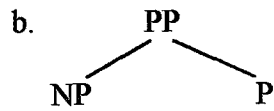
Since PP functions in the same way an adverb or adverbial phrase functions in a sentence, it is an optional constituent of a VP. This can be indicated by the Phrase Structure Rule as follows:

(19) a. $VP \rightarrow AP/NP \ (PP) \ V$

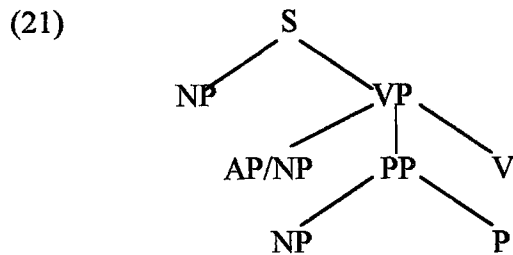


The Phrase Structure Rule for a PP is simply:

(20) a. $PP \rightarrow NP P$



In Turkish postpositions are limited and cannot constitute a phrase by themselves. The PP should have a complement. To represent the PP in a labeled tree-diagram we can expand the (19b) as follows:

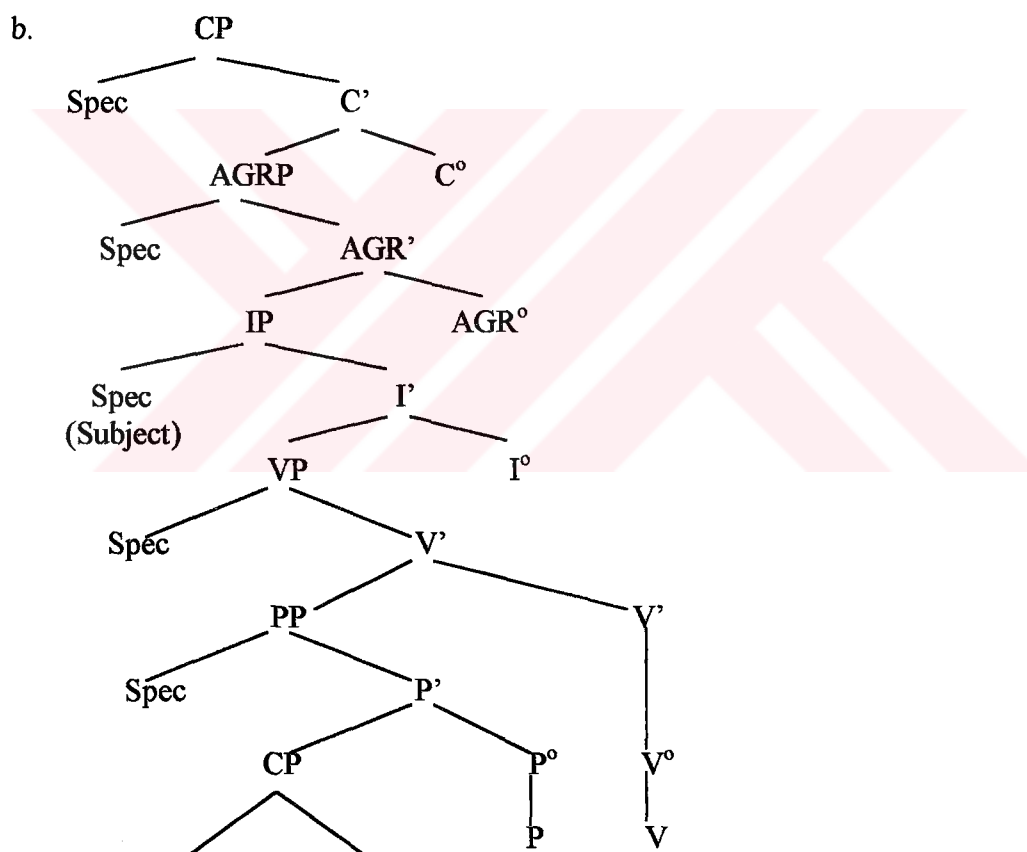


In complex sentences, postpositions constitute phrases with the nouns they are related to, or function as modifiers in the VP, telling us more about the action denoted by the verb. These combinations are used adverbially, they acquire the function of different adverbial clauses headed by postpositions because adverbializers mark clauses as having some adverbial functions -expression of *time*, *purpose*, *result*, etc. (Schachter, 1985). With regard to syntax, adverbials are never obligatory in any construction. Components, which provide information about *time*, *manner*, *purpose/reason*, *place*, *modality* and etc. of the event or state of affairs expressed in the sentence are referred as adjuncts (Haegeman and Gueron, 1999). From a syntactic point of view, there are two different classes of Adverbials with regard to their distributional properties: S-adverbs and VP-adverbs. May (1985) characterizes PPs as sentential adjuncts, rather than strict complements to a matrix VP. Adjuncts, such as Purpose Clauses in a VP are frequently much more complement-like, adding information to the comment-element of the discourse. As Radford (1988) and Uzun (2000) state, postpositions are placed as

modifiers of NPs or VPs and thus accepted as adjunct clauses in these positions. Rule (21) specifies that we can form a clause by taking an NP immediately followed by a VP, which takes a Verb preceded by an AP or NP immediately followed by a PP taking an NP preceded by a postposition.

As for Purpose and Reason Clauses expressed with postpositions, if we apply the definitions above to a phrase marker, we will generate the structure of a complex sentence as follows:

(22) a. NP[[clause] postposition] VP



The tree structure in (22b) can be the blueprint for all the structures we are trying to analyze in this study.

PPs can function as Complements and Adjuncts like other word-level categories. With the purpose and reason clauses we can draw an important distinction between Complements and Adjuncts because Complements expand V into V' whereas Adjuncts recursively expand V' into V', that is to say Adjuncts are sisters and daughters of V' (22b). Adjuncts or modifiers combine with the minimal maximal projection V' to form a higher maximal projection VP, this attachment is called the adjunction structure (Haegeman and Gueron, 1999: 139). Adjunction structure allows us to expand an already existing maximal projection by adding an additional level. PP headed by a postposition combines with the lowest maximal projection V' to form the higher maximal projection VP. This assumes that the PPs in purpose and reason clauses designate adjunct positions.

Purpose Clauses and Reason Clauses both have the kind of properties that are associated with adverbial elements. Adverbial elements are not generally considered to be associated with idiosyncratic properties of lexical subcategorization. They are distinguished, as adjuncts, from elements that are so associated with those lexical items. Purpose constructions, in general, are not associated with idiosyncratic properties of lexical items, but rather are more like adjuncts (Jones, 1991). If we took the purpose/reason constructions away from each of the examples in (23), what we would have is a perfectly complete and grammatical sentence.

(23) a. Genç kız [[Ø Türkçe öğrenmek]için/üzere] Türkiye'ye gelecek.

'The young girl will come to Turkey to learn Turkish.'

a'. Genç kız Türkiye'ye gelecek.

'The young girl will come to Turkey.'

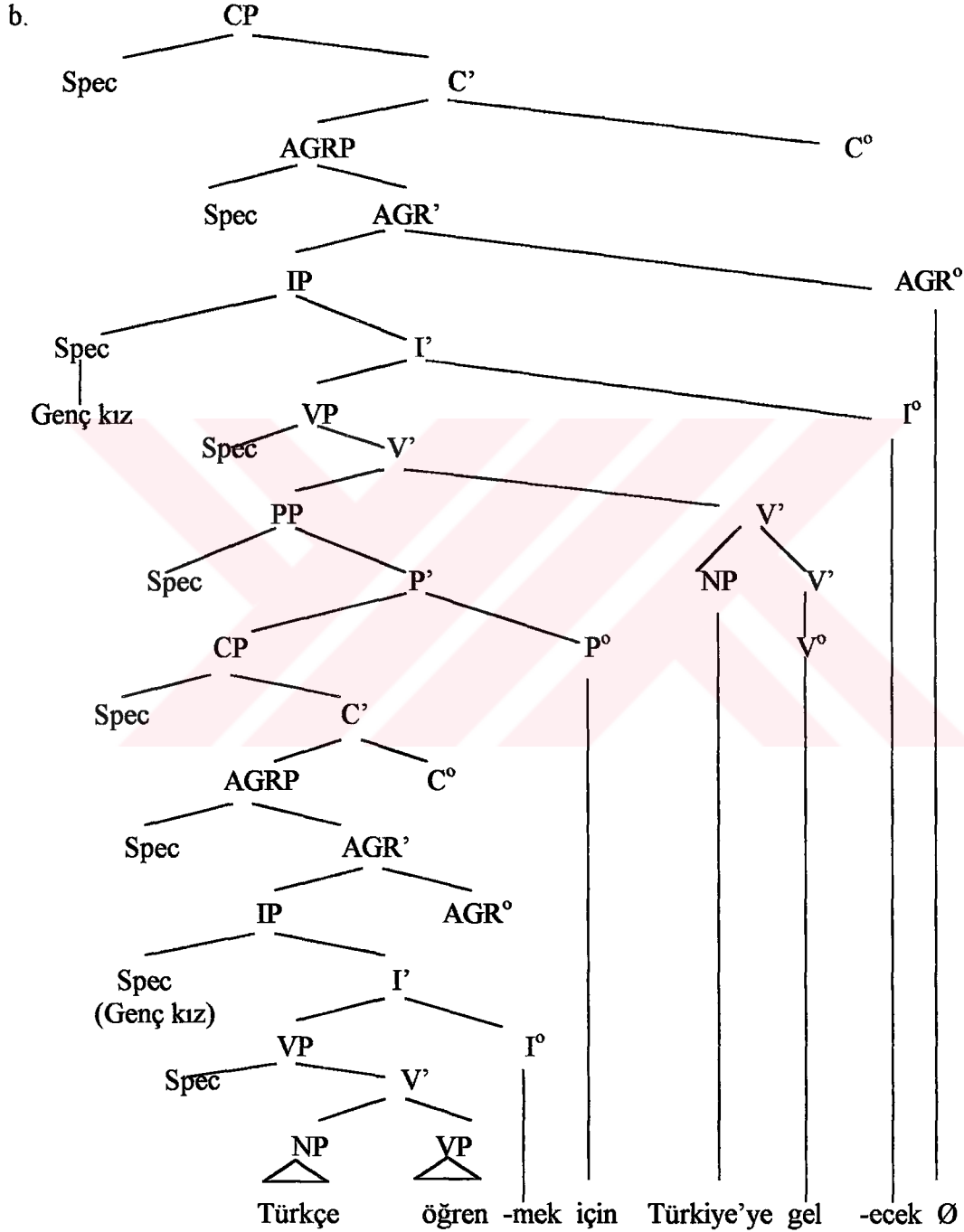
b. (Ben) [[Ø Cevap verecek] diye] korktum.

'I felt afraid for fear that she would answer back.'

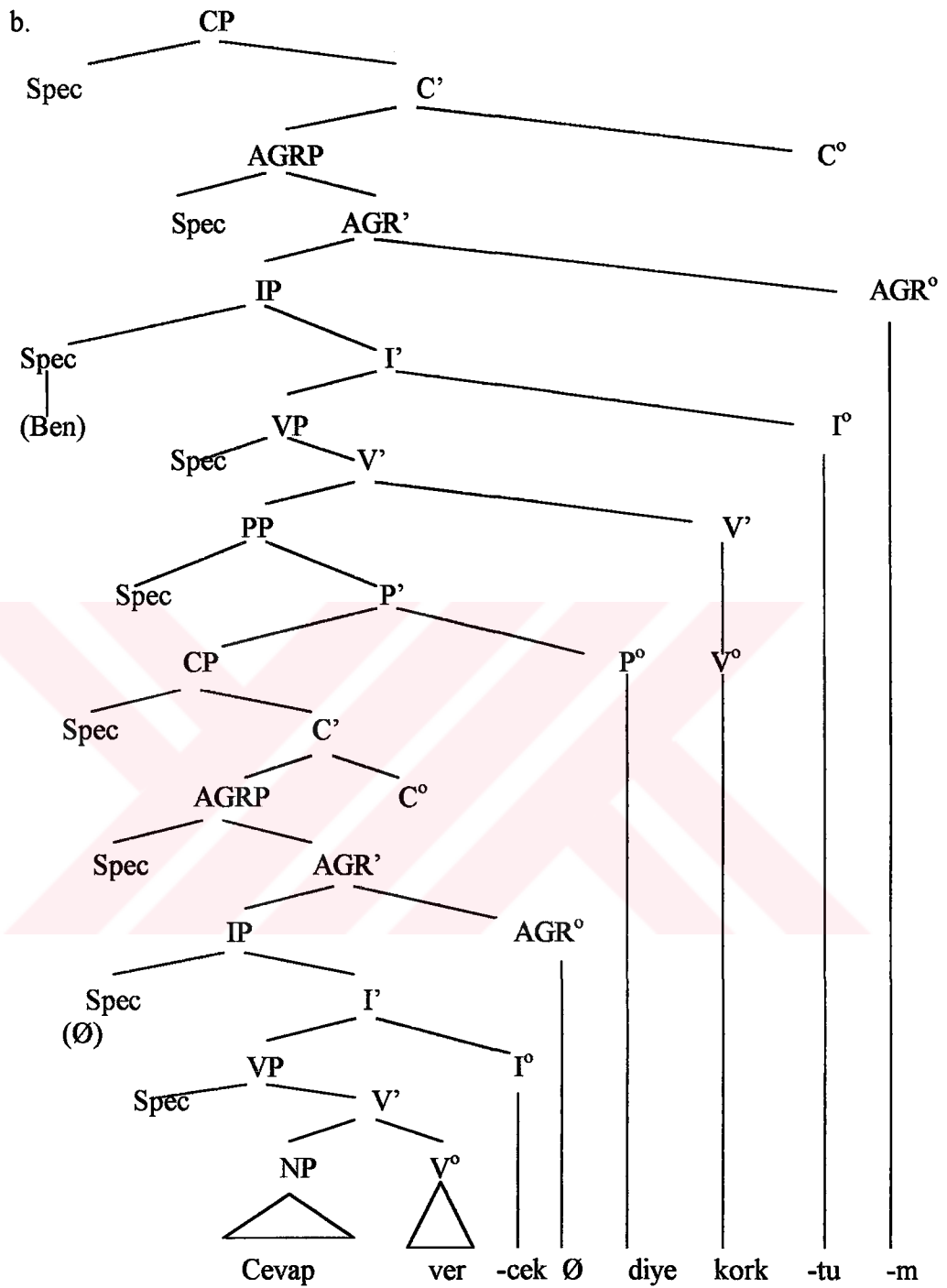
b'. (Ben) Korktum.

'I felt afraid.'

(24) a. Genç kız [[Ø Türkçe öğrenmek]için/üzere] Türkiye'ye gelecek.



(25) a. (Ben) [[Ø Cevap verecek] diye] korktum.



II. 4. Syntactic Constraints in Purpose and Reason Clauses

II. 4.1. Case Marking in Nominalized Clauses

As it is mentioned before (I.1.), according to Case Filter, every phonetically realized NP must be assigned Case. Case assigners assign an appropriate case -either structurally or inherently- to all NPs. The role of the NPs are indicated by the word order and verb agreement markers. The majority of subordination in Turkish is nominalized clauses (Kornfilt, 1997). If an embedded clause is an argument of a matrix verb, it requires the case marking appropriate for that argument. While both the factive nominalization (-*DIK*) and action nominalization (-*mA*) are followed by agreement, infinitival (-*mA**K*) lacks agreement marking. The nominalized subordinate clauses precede the postposition and bear the case marking assigned by the respective postposition. Sezer (1991:37) mentions that in Turkish AGR under INFL, transitive verbs and some postpositions assign structural case. Thus, Turkish postpositions like the prepositions of many other languages assign case and require a certain case-suffix on the nouns or the nominal complements that precede (Lewis 1967, Underhill 1976, Kornfilt 1997, Özsoy 1999).

II. 4. 1. 1. Case Marking inside Purpose Clauses

In expressing purpose, the commonest type of clause is non-finite type. When we analyze the sentences represented syntactically in section 1.2, we realize that only some of them are grammatically accepted. That is because there are some constraints related to postpositions' assigning case in these constructions.

(26) a. Öğrenciler_i [[(öğrenciler_i) konferansa gitmek] için] izin istediler.

'The students asked for permission to go to the conference.'

b. Öğrenciler_i [[(öğrenciler_i) konferansa gitmek] üzere] izin istediler.

*c. Öğrenciler_i [[(öğrenciler_i-i/ -e/ -de/ -den/ -in) konferansa gitmek] için/ üzere] izin istediler.

d) Biz [[(biz) konferansa gitmek] için] izin istedik.

e) Biz [[(biz) konferansa gitmek] üzere] izin istedik.

*f) Biz [[(biz-i/ -e/ -de/ -den/ -im) konferansa gitmek] için/ üzere] izin istedik.

Postpositions *için* and *üzere* are used with the *-mAK* nominalization to express purpose. The subject of a nominalized clause is always in the nominative when the *-mAK* nominalization is used with a postposition. When *için* and *üzere* govern a noun phrase/nominalization, they assign no overt case to their subject no matter if it is a lexical noun or a pronoun (26a, b, d, e). The other case suffixes are not required (26c, f).

(27) a. Genç kız [[arkadaşının eğlenmesi] için] parti düzenliyor.

‘The young girl is arranging a party so that her friend would enjoy himself.’

b. Genç kız [[benim eğlenmem] için] parti düzenliyor.

‘The young girl is arranging a party so that I would enjoy myself.’

*c. Genç kız [[arkadaş/ -i/ -a/ -da/ -dan eğlenmesi] için] parti düzenliyor.

*d. Genç kız [[bana/ ben/ -i/ -de/ -den eğlenmem] için] parti düzenliyor.

e. Genç kız [[benim eğlenmem]/ [bizim eğlenmemiz]/[çocukların/ eğlenmeleri] için] parti düzenliyor.

The postposition *için* can also be used with the verbal noun construction *-mA* to denote purpose. The *-mA-sI için* structure requires the genitive case in the subject of the purpose clause. The genitive marking of the subject in an embedded clause is in fact a

property of adverbial clauses with –mA nominalized clause. Underhill (1976:311) claims that –mA, sometimes called the short infinitive, is the form of the infinitive used when a possessive suffix follows. The subject is explicitly expressed, a full lexical noun or a personal pronoun may be used in the subject position; the verb of the purpose clause is inflected with the possessive suffix (27a, b). As represented in (27c, d), the other case markers form ungrammatical sentences. The genitive suffix agrees with its subject in person (27e).

(28) a. Annem [[ben uyuyayım] diye] lambayı söndürdü.

‘My mother turned off the light so that I would sleep.’

b. Annem [[kardeşim uyusun] diye] lambayı söndürdü.

‘My mother turned off the light so that my brother would sleep.’

*c. Annem [[bana/ben-i/ -de/ -den/ -im uyuyayım] diye] lambayı söndürdü.

*d. Annem [[kardeşim-i/ -e/ -de/ -den/ -in uyusun] diye] lambayı söndürdü.

To express purpose we can also use *diye*. In this structure, *diye* requires the nominative case to its subject in the embedded clause while the verb is marked with the *optative* suffix and the appropriate person marker (28a, b). The subject of the embedded purpose clause, which may be in the nominal or pronominal form, cannot be suffixed with the other case markers (28c, d).

II. 4. 1. 2. Case Marking inside Reason Clauses

As with the purpose clauses, there are also some constraints related to postpositions’ assigning case in reason clauses.

(29) a. [[(Ben) Öfkeye kapıldığım] için] günahımı affet Tanrım.

‘Lord, please forgive me for being infuriated.’

b. Annesi [[(Sedat) yeni işine başlayacağı] için] heyecanlıydı.

‘His mother was excited because Sedat would start work.’

c. [[(Çocuklar) Öfkeye kapıldıkları] için] günahlarımı affet Tanrım.

d. (Biz) [[(Çocuklar) Yeni işlerine başlayacakları] için] heyecanlıydık.

*e. [[(Bana/ Ben-i/ -de/ -den/ -im) Öfkeye kapıldığım] için] günahımı affet Tanrım.

*f. Annesi [[(Sedat-ı/ -a/ -da/ -dan/ -ın))Yeni işine başlayacağı] için] heyecanlıydı.

*g. [[(Çocuklar-ı/ -a/ -da/ -dan/ -ın) Öfkeye kapıldıkları] için] günahlarımı affet Tanrım.

*h. (Biz) [[(Çocuklar-ı/ -a/ -da/ -dan/ -ın) Yeni işlerine başlayacakları] için] heyecanlıydık.

The factive nominal *-DİK*, when used with the postposition *için*, expresses reason/cause. *-DİK* has no overt case marking, differing from adverbial clauses with *-mA* and from nominalized clauses that are complements of verbs. Syntactically, *-DİK* is always followed by an agreement morpheme, and agreement suffixes follow the tense suffixes. *-Diğ-I için* (29a) and *-(y)AcAğ-I için* (29b) structures require the nominative case to their subjects in the embedded reason clause, the verbs of the embedded clauses are marked with the possessive suffix agreeing with its subject in person (29a, b, c,d). The subjects marked with the other case suffixes are not acceptable (29e, f, g, h).

(30) a. [[(Ben) Öfkeye kapıldığım]-dan dolayı] günahımı affet Tanrım.

b. [[(Çocuklar) Öfkeye kapıldıkları]-ndan dolayı] günahlarımı affet Tanrım.

c. Annesi [[(Sedat)yeni işine başlayacağı]-ndan dolayı] heyecanlıydı.

d. [[(Onlar)Yeni işlerine başlayacakları]-ndan dolayı] heyecanlıydılar.

*e. [[(Bana/Ben-i/ -de/ -den/ -im) Öfkeye kapıldığım]-dan dolayı] günahımı affet Tanrım.

*f. [[(Çocuklar-ı/ -a/ -da/ -dan/ -ın) Öfkeye kapıldıkları]-ndan dolayı] günahlarını affet Tanrım.

*g. [[(Sedat-ı/ -a/ -da/ -dan/ -ın)Yeni işine başlayacağı]-ndan dolayı] heyecanlıydı.

*h. [[(Onlar-ı/ -a/ -da/ -dan/ -ın)Yeni işlerine başlayacakları]-ndan dolayı] heyecanlıydılar.

To denote reason/cause, the postposition *dolayı* assigns the ablative case to the nominalization it follows. The structures *-Diğ-IndAn dolayı* (30a, b) and *-(y)AcAğ-IndAn dolayı* (30c, d) require the nominative case to their subjects in the reason clause and the verbs of these clauses are marked with the possessive suffix agreeing with the subject in person (30a, b, c, d). The examples illustrating the other case assignments to the subjects of the embedded sentences -both in the full lexical form or in pronominalization- are instances of ungrammatical structures (30e, f, g, h). Although the example sentences (30a, b, c, d) are all acceptable, from the semantic point of view, *dolayı* when takes noun complements sounds more grammatical (30'a, b, c, d):

(30') a. [[Özel bir sorun]-dan dolayı] dönemeyeceğini düşündük.

'We thought you wouldn't be able to come back because of a personal problem.'

b. [[Bu mutluluğun niteliğın]-den dolayı] yaptığım herşey affedilecek.

'Due to the property of this happiness, everything I have done will be forgiven.'

c. [[Deneyim eksikliđin]-den dolayı] hata yapıyordu.

‘She was making mistakes because of the lack of experience.’

d. [[Yađmur]-dan dolayı] dıřarı ıkamadık.

‘We could not go out due to the rain.’

(31) a. [[[O) / (Sedat) Yeni iřine bařlayacak] diye] heyecanlıydı.

‘Sedat was excited due to the fact that he would start his new job.’

b. [[(Ben) Arabayı yıkamadım] diye] babam kızdı.

‘My father got angry with me because I did not wash the car.’

c. [[(O/ Serpil) Tatildeyken iekleri solmuř] diye] zld.

‘She felt sorry about the fact that her flowers had wilted when she was on holiday.’

d. [[[Onlar/ đrenciler) Grlt yapıyorlar] diye] ok kızdı.

‘She got furious due to the fact that they were making noise.’

e. [[řunlar/ Polisler stm ararlar] diye] hi dıřarı ıkmıyordum.

‘I never went out for fear that the police would ask for a hold up.’

*f. [[[O-nu/ -na/ -da/ -dan/ -nun) (Sedat-ı/ -a/ -da/ -dan/ -ın) Yeni iřine bařlayacak] diye] heyecanlıydı.

*g. [[(Bana/Ben-i/ -de/ -den/ -im) Arabayı yıkamadım] diye] babam kızdı.

*h. [[[O-nu/ -na/ -da/ -dan/ -nun) / (Serpil-i/ -e/ -de/ -den/ -in) Tatildeyken iekleri solmuř] diye] zld.

*i. [[[Onlar-ı/ -a/ -da/ -dan/ -ın / đrenciler-i/ -e/ -de/ -den/ -in) Grlt yapıyorlar] diye] ok kızdı.

*j. [[Şunlar-ı/ -a/ -da/ -dan/ -ın/ Polisler-i/ -e/ -de/ -den/ -in üstümü ararlar] diye] hiç dışarı çıkmıyordum.

While expressing reason/cause, the verb of the *diye* clause is marked with the tense/aspect and person suffixes of the matrix clause. As syntactic restrictions require, tense/aspect suffixes are followed by the agreement suffixes. The embedded clause subjects, either in lexical noun or pronoun forms, are in the nominative (31a, b, c, d, e). Corresponding structures marked with the other case suffixes are ungrammatical (31f, g, h, i, j).

(32) a. [[(Onun)/ (Her hizmetçinin) hırsız olması] yüzünden] hanımefendinin migreni tutuyor.

‘The lady has migraine attacks due to the fact that every servant turns out to be a thief.’

b. Küçük iradımız[[enflasyon/ Maliye Bakanı] yüzünden] gitti.

‘Our little saving has finished due to the inflation/ Minister of Finance.’

c. Küçük iradımız[[onun] yüzünden] gitti.

‘Our little saving has finished due to it/ him.’

?d. Küçük iradımız[[enflasyonun/ Maliye Bakanının] yüzünden] gitti.

*e. [[(O/ -nu/ -na/ -da/ -dan)/ (Her hizmetçi / -yi/ -ye/ -de/ -den) hırsız olması] yüzünden] hanımefendinin migreni tutuyor.

*f. Küçük iradımız[[o/ -nu/ -na/ -da/ -dan] yüzünden] gitti.

yüzünden is an inflected noun that is used postpositionally. Underhill (1985: 248) states that some nouns may be used in postpositional constructions; in this case, these constructions acquire an idiomatic meaning different from their normal meaning when used as nouns. *yüzünden* means *because of* as a postposition. It can take the action

nominal *-mA*, a lexical noun or a pronoun as an object to express reason/cause. Yet it requires different properties in each case. With the *-mA* nominalization, the subject of the reason clause is inflected with the genitive suffix and the verb of this clause is inflected with the possessive marker (32a). When *yüzünden* is used with a fully lexical noun, it assigns no overt case whereas it requires the genitive marker with a pronoun (32b/c). Lewis (1967: 93) claims that the noun this postposition follows is never in the genitive. However, contrary to what is claimed by Lewis, Kornfilt (1997: 426) states that there is a period of transition in which the lexical noun can also be marked with the genitive case suffix. Thus, within the synchronic studies, (32d) can be acceptable. On the other hand, all the other suffixations are ungrammatical (32e/f).

II. 4. 2. Control Structure in Embedded Clauses

The subject requirement demands that every sentence must have a subject. However, there are clauses with empty subjects- where this position is filled by a non-overt element. Haegeman and Gueron (1999:511) propose that non-overt elements are subjects to the Empty Category Principle.

(33) Empty Category Principle (EPC):

Non-overt elements must be identified.

In a language there are two basic types of empty categories; the first one is traces that are created by movement, and the second one is base-generated empty categories. A base-generated empty category may be illustrated by either *pro* or *PRO*. The non-overt subject of a finite clause is *pro* and it is identified by AGR. *PRO* is the non-overt subject of a non-finite clause. That is to say *PRO* is an empty pronominal NP Subject, which is controlled by the matrix clause subject.

Bresnan (1982: 347, cited in Erguvanlı 1996: 47) defines the phenomenon of control as a relation of referential dependence between an unexpressed subject (controlled) and an (un)expressed constituent (controller). Subjects are controlled elements and only non-finite clauses have controlled subjects. The problem is how to determine the controller, especially in situations where there is more than one constituent for the controller. In some cases, the subject is the controller and in others the object is the controller. Jones (1991:215) proposes that the connections between the particular types of purpose clauses with their respective predicates are not accidental. A further discussion about the kinds of predicates that are used with *subject purpose clause* (SPC) and *object purpose clause* (OPC) would be another analysis on purpose clauses.

Although empty pronouns carry person , number and gender features, Chomsky (1980, cited in Radford 1981: 331) argues that PRO never carries case and furthermore that PRO can never be governed. PRO agrees with the subject of the matrix clause and thus contains inherent person, number and gender features, its controller is recoverable from the matrix sentence or context. In accordance with Chomsky's argument, Radford (1981: 331) specifies a PRO-CONDITION as follows:

PRO-CONDITION

Any sentence containing PRO in a position where it is governed (or case-marked) is ill-formed.

If there isn't a controller it is given a default arbitrary reading. The referential dependencies between the empty elements in infinitival clauses and elements in the matrix clause have distinctive properties.

(34) a. [PRO_{arb} Kitap okumak] zevklidir.

'Reading books is a pleasure.'

b. Umut_i [PRO_{i/*j} kitap okumak] istiyor.

‘Umut wants to read a book.’

If there is not a controller, PRO has a non-specific, default arbitrary reading (34a). An infinitival non-finite clause has a non-overt subject (PRO), which is controlled by the matrix subject (34b).

In the case of an expressed controller, there may be two antecedents to be the controller –either the subject or the object of the matrix sentence. Williams (1980, cited in Jones 1991:34) represents the controlled element as PRO and distinguishes two different kinds of control: *Obligatory Control* (OC) and *Nonobligatory Control* (NOC). These are characterized by certain properties. A property of OC would be the lack of an NOC property and vice versa. Jones (1991) states that the obligatory control characterizes purpose clauses. Uzun (2000) discusses the same notion of control, and mentions two types of control when the PRO is controlled by an expressed NP: *Optional Control* (*seçimli denetleme*) and *Obligatory Control* (*zorunlu denetleme*).

In the example (34b) above, there is *Obligatory Control* the possible controller is easily determined since there is only one candidate.

(35) Emrah_i Umut’a_j [PRO_{i/j} eve gidince] telefon edecek.

‘Emrah will phone Umut when he goes home.’

However, in (35) *Optional Control* structure has more than one candidate for the controller. Both, Emrah or Umut may be the referent of the PRO who would go home. For an adequate description of grammatical structure, semantic information gains importance because there may be cases where although there are two possible antecedents, the control cannot be optional (36b):

(36) a. Emrah_i [PRO_i sinemaya gitmeye] ikna oldu.

‘Emrah was persuaded to go to the cinema.’

b. Emrah_i Umut’u_j [PRO*_{i/j} sinemaya gitmeye] ikna etti.

‘Emrah persuaded Umut to go to the cinema.’

The matrix verb plays an important role in determining the exact controller. In (36a) the verb is intransitive whereas in (36b) it is transitive. Thus, verbs can be classified with regard to control structure. Uzun (2000) claims that there are both subject controlled verbs and object controlled verbs. A reasonable explanation for the obligatoriness of the control relations that control verb constitutes is that it is their lexical property to do so. On the other hand, Manzini (1983, cited in Erguvanlı 1996: 47), Ruzicka (1983, cited in Erguvanlı 1996: 47) and Nishigauchi (1989, cited in Erguvanlı 1996: 47) discuss control structure as a non-syntactic property, which can be determined by thematic relations. Moreover, Comrie (1984, cited in Erguvanlı 1996: 47) points out that in order to make a comprehensive account of the control structure, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic factors have to be taken into consideration.

Radford (1988: 321) argues that PRO can occur only as the subject of an infinitival S-bar Complement, not as the subject of an infinitival S Complement. At this point, the representation of Radford’s analysis in a tree diagram would be as follows in Turkish (37b, 38b):

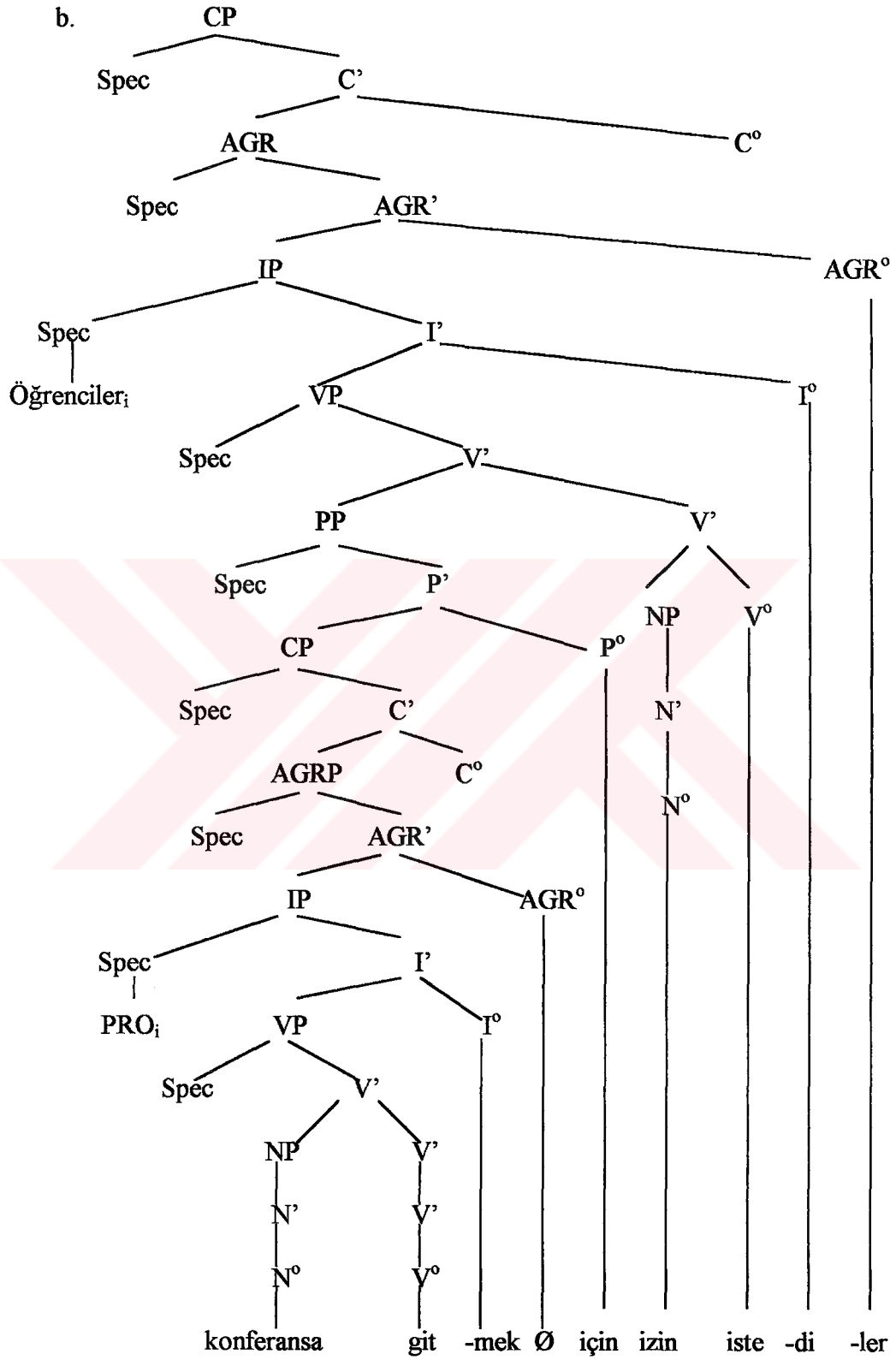
(37) a. Öğrenciler_i [[PRO_i konferansa gitmek] için/ üzere] izin istediler.

‘The students asked for permission to go to the conference.’

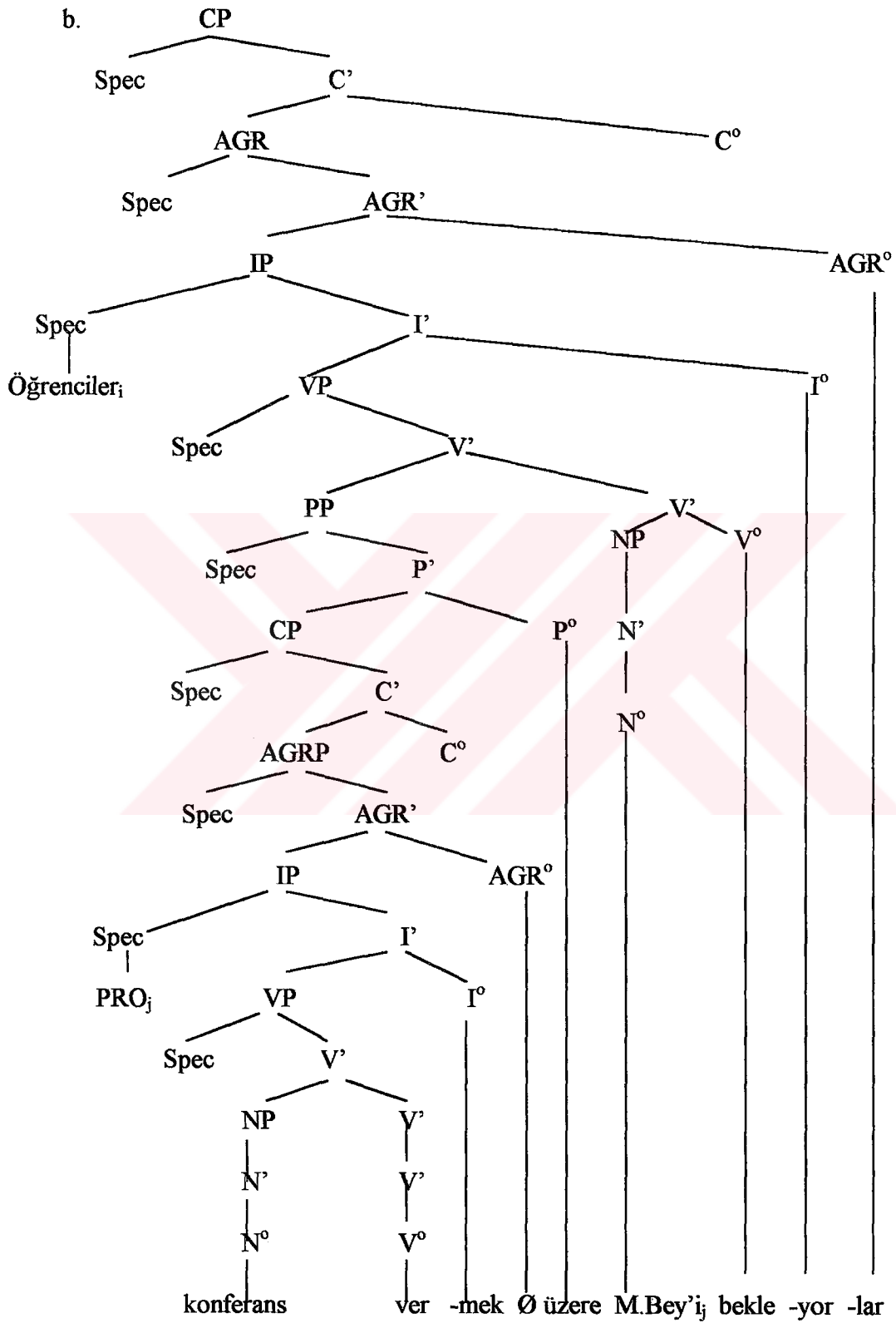
(38) a. Öğrenciler_i [[PRO_i konferans vermek] üzere] Müdür Bey’i_j bekliyorlar.

‘The students are waiting for the manager to give the conference.’

(37) a'. Öğrenciler_i [[PRO_i konferansa gitmek] için/ üzere] izin istediler.



(38) a'. Öğrencileri_i [[PRO_j konferans vermek] üzere] Müdür Bey'i_j bekliyorlar.



II. 4. 2. 1. Control Structure in Purpose Clauses

The control structure is a matter of coreferentiality of the subjects in the matrix clause and the embedded clause. The non-overt subject is identified by its controller. An infinitival non-finite clause has a non-overt subject (PRO), which is controlled by the matrix subject. In the discussion on control structure, the problem occurs in the case of finding the referent of the PRO in infinitival subordinate sentences marked with the suffix *-mAk*. These infinitival constructions bear [-Tense], [-Agreement] features. As for the control structure in purpose clauses, we can provide the following constructions.

Jones (1991:51) claims that a purpose clause must be obligatorily controlled and in the object position of VP, Theme argument is its invariable controller. He also adds that it is c-commanded by the Theme at S-structure.

In the cases in which the subjects of the matrix clause and the purpose clause are the same, the structure *-mAk için/ -mAk üzere* can be used interchangeably. The subject of the purpose clause is not expressed (39a/b/c).

(39) a. Öğrenciler_i [[Ø_i konferansa gitmek] için/ üzere] izin istediler.

‘The student asked for permission to go to the conference.’

b. (Ben)_i [[Ø_i dinlenmek] için/ üzere] Polonya’ya gittim.

‘I went to Poland to have a rest.’

c. Yaşlı adam_i [[Ø_i ilk gelen gemiye yazılmak] için/ üzere] limana kadar uçarcasına koşuyordu.

‘The old man flew to the port to be enrolled at the first ship to arrive.’

Although these constructions are synonymous, the problem of controller choice in purpose clauses may occur where there is more than one possible controller. In the case of subject control, the embedded clause is marked by the postposition *için*, but the

embedded clause is signaled by the postposition *üzere* where there may be both subject or object control. Thus, *üzere* can be regarded as a flexible postposition assigning different properties.

(40) ?a. Öğrenciler_i [[Ø_i konferans vermek] için] Müdür Bey'i_j bekliyorlar.

b. Öğrenciler_i [[Ø_i konferansa başlamak] için] Müdür Bey'i_j bekliyorlar.

'The students are waiting for the manager to start the conference.'

*c. Öğrenciler_i [[Ø_i konferans vermek] için] Müdür Bey'i_j bekliyorlar.

d. Öğrenciler_i [[Ø_{i/j} konferans vermek] üzere] Müdür Bey'i_j bekliyorlar.

'The students are waiting for the manager to give the conference.'

In (40a), in order to have a grammatical sentence, the controller of the non-overt subject in the *-mAk için* purpose clause has to be the matrix subject 'öğrenciler/students'. In this situation 'öğrenciler/students' are the initiators who are going to give the lecture. Yet this sounds as semantically ill-formed; perfectly acceptable example could be obtained simply by replacing the subordinate verb 'konferans vermek/ to give a lecture' with 'konferansa başlamak/ to begin the lecture' (40a/b). Since the non-overt subject in the *-mAk için* clause cannot be controlled by the object of the matrix sentence as in (40c), the sentence would be unacceptable. In *-mAk üzere* clauses the unexpressed subject is controlled either by the subject or the object of the main verb (40d). To determine the referent of the controlled is apparently a matter of the semantics of the matrix and subordinate clause verbs, which will be discussed in the following chapter.

As it is mentioned before, the postposition *çin* can express purpose in another structure: *-mA-sI için*. However this construction is used when the subjects of the matrix clause and the purpose clause are different from each other. The subject of the purpose

clause is inflected with the genitive suffix, the verb with the possessive suffix. Thus, as Erguvanlı (1996:55) states, the control structure is changed into a non-control structure.

With *-mA-sl için* person marking functions as the obligatory controller (41b/ 42c).

(41) a. Ahçı_i [[Ø_i yemeği ısıtmak] için/üzere] ocağın üstüne koydu.

‘The cook put the meal on the cooker to heat it.’

b. Ahçı_i [[Ø_{*i/j} yemeği ısıtması] için] ocağın üstüne koydu.

‘The cook put the meal on the cooker for him to heat it.’

(42) *a. Ahçı_i [[Ø_j yemeği ısıtmak] için] bana_j verdi.

b. Ahçı_i [[Ø_j yemeği ısıtmak] üzere] bana_j verdi.

c. Ahçı_i [[Ø_j yemeği ısıtmam] için] bana_j verdi.

‘The cook gave me the meal so that I would heat it.’

Another non-control structure is *-A diye* purpose clause, in which person markers and the optative seem to be dependent on an antecedent or an expressed constituent in the matrix sentence. Thus the unexpressed subject would be identified. In this situation, the non-overt subject may have a specific or non-specific reading with regard to pragmatic factors. The referent is identified by agreement, yet there occurs ambiguous identifications (43b). Whenever a sentence can be associated with two or more different meanings, it is said to be ambiguous. Ambiguity can arise in a sentence for a number of reasons. Through the ascription of multiple meanings to single words, through the assignment of different syntactic structures to a sentence or through the use of certain expressions that may have different semantic scope. In (43b) the empty category has an ambiguous reading for the person who could sleep; it can only be determined by pragmatic factors since it may refer to my mother or someone else. In the first interpretation, ‘Annem/ My mother’ wanted to sleep and she is the subject of the purpose

clause. However, some native speakers do not accept this interpretation as grammatical. In the second interpretation, ‘Annem/ My mother’ put off the light so that someone else could sleep (43b’).

(43) a. Annem_i [[Ø_j uyuyayım] diye] lambayı söndürdü.

‘My mother turned off the light so that I would sleep.’

b. Annem_i [[Ø_{i/j} uyusun] diye] lambayı söndürdü.

b’. Annem [[(O/ bebek/ küçük kardeşim) uyusun] diye] lambayı söndürdü.

‘My mother turned off the light so that he/ she/ my little sister would sleep.’

II. 4. 2. 2. Control Structure in Reason Clauses

In the study of control structures in reason clauses, there would be no problem in determining the controller. The problem will occur in trying to find the referent of the PRO in infinitival embeddings marked with *-mAk* suffixation. Reason clauses do not require *-mAk* infinitive (non-finite) structures because nominalization is denoted by other constructions bearing person markers. That is to say reason clauses have finite clauses; with regard to this interpretation, we can conclude that there is non-control structure in reason clauses. Pragmatic control may account for the cases where structural relations prove unsatisfactory. The subordinate subject may refer to another subject rather than to the subject of the matrix clause; thus, there may be ambiguous readings when there are more than one possible referent for the empty category.

With the [...-DIğ/ -(y)AcAğ -I] için, [-DIğ-I-] ndAn dolayı/ötürü structures, when the subjects of the matrix clause and the embedded reason clause are coreferential, generally the subject of the embedded clause is not expressed (44a). Person markers help

us understand the referent of the unexpressed subjects in most cases (44b/c); with the third person suffixes there may be ambiguous readings for the referents (44d/ d').

(44) a. Sedat_i [[Ø_i yeni işine başladığı] için] heyecanlıydı.

'Sedat was excited as he had started his new job.'

b. Ø_i [[Ø_j Yeni işime başladığım] için] heyecanlıydı.

c. Ø_i [[Ø_j Yeni işine başladığın] için] heyecanlıyız.

d. Ø_i [[Ø_{i/j} Yeni işine başladığı] için] heyecanlıydı.

d'. Ø_i [[Ø_{i/j} Yeni işlerine başladıkları] için] heyecanlıydılar.

The [...-DI/ -(y)AcAK/ mIş/ -Iyor/ -Ar] diye structures have the same properties with the [...-DIğ/ -(y)AcAğ -I] için, [-DIğ-I] ndAn dolayı/ötürü structures; when the subjects of both the matrix and embedded clauses are coreferential the subject of the embedded clause is not expressed (45a). As can be inferred from the person markers we can determine the referent of unexpressed subjects (45b/c). Only with the third person markers the subjects may not be recoverable (45d/d').

(45) a. Sedat_i [[Ø_i yeni işine başladı] diye] heyecanlıydı.

'Sedat was excited because he had started his new job.'

b. Ø_i [[Ø_j Yeni işime başladım] diye] heyecanlılar.

c. Ø_i [[Ø_j Yeni işimize başladık] diye] heyecanlıydı.

d. Ø_i [[Ø_{i/j} Yeni işine başladı] diye] heyecanlıydı.

d'. Ø_i [[Ø_{i/j} Yeni işlerine başladılar] diye] heyecanlıydılar.

When the subjects of both the matrix and embedded clauses are coreferential, the subject of the *yüzünden* reason clause is not expressed (46a). In the analysis of the unexpressed subjects the agreement markers determine the referents (46b/c). The situation of ambiguity occurs with the third person markers (46d/d').

(46) a. Sıra arkadaşım_i [[Ø_i sürekli geç kalması] yüzünden] ceza aldı.

‘My deskmate was punished for being late all the time.’

b. Ø_i [[Ø_j sürekli geç kalman] yüzünden] ceza aldım.

c. Ø_i [[Ø_j sürekli geç kalması] yüzünden] ceza aldık.

d. Ø_i [[Ø_{ij} sürekli geç kalması] yüzünden] ceza aldı.

d'. Ø_i [[Ø_{ij} sürekli geç kalmaları] yüzünden] ceza aldılar.

II. 5. Basic Word Order Correlations

Word order or linearization rules define the immediate precedence relations between constituents. Constituents in a sentence are assigned a place in some pattern in every language. Within typological studies, linguists have been studying and discussing some universals of the order of elements in clauses and phrases. Constituent order universals are statements of fundamental properties of languages which describe the patterns found in observed language data. In typological research, there exist six logically possible orders of subject (S), verb (V) and object (O), and these orders- SVO, SOV, VSO, VOS, OVS, OSV- have been claimed to serve as the basic constituent order for at least one language (Greenberg 1963, Lehmann 1973, Venneman 1973, Comrie 1981, Hawkins 1983, Tomlin 1986, Cook 1988, Whaley 1997, Newmeyer 1998).

The word order parameter is applicable to languages in which there exist the grammatical relations of subject and object. As table (1) below illustrates, Greenberg (1963, 1966) and Tomlin (1986, cited in Whaley 1997 and Newmeyer 1998) found approximately equal percentages of SVO and SOV languages. Greenberg studied on a small group (30 languages) whereas Tomlin studied a larger one (402 languages).

Word order	%	
	Greenberg	Tomlin
SVO	43	42
SOV	37	45
VSO	20	9
VOS	--	3
OVS	--	1
OSV	--	--

Table 2 : Basic constituent order (adapted from Whaley 1997:37)

Of the six possible orders, only two normally occur as dominant. The frequency of SVO and SOV is clearly obvious; and these orders are found in over 40% of the languages. The three orders: VOS, OVS and OSV that do not occur or at least are excessively rare, have in common that the object precedes the subject which gives Greenberg's first universal:

Universal 1: In declarative sentences with nominal subject and object, the dominant order is almost always one in which the subject precedes the object (Greenberg 1963:77).

Studies also pointed out the importance of adpositions as a parametric criteria in word order typology; they are indicators of some word order cooccurrences. That is to say, the existence of prepositions as against postpositions is extremely correlated with the order of other constituents. There is a clear preference for the correlations of SOV order with postpositions (Turkish) and SVO order with prepositions (English). Hence Greenberg formulates the following universals:

Universal 2: In languages with prepositions, the genitive almost always follows the governing noun, while in languages with postpositions it almost always precedes.

Universal 3: Languages with dominant VSO order are always prepositional

Universal 4: With overwhelmingly greater than chance frequency, languages with normal SOV order are postpositional (Greenberg 1963: 78-79).

The hierarchy of grammatical relations appears in various ways. In SOV languages- like Turkish- the complements of verbs and adpositions precede their heads. Some languages manifest fixed word order parameters whereas some are more flexible. In many languages that are often described as having free word order, there is some indication that one of the orders is more basic than the others. Dryer (1992) points out that most prior explanations of the word order correlations are semantically-based. To conclude about the language type is rooted in whether constituent order is primarily sensitive to pragmatic considerations or syntactic considerations. As Greenberg (1963:76) claims, the great majority of languages have several variant orders but there is only a single dominant one. Steele (1978, cited in Newmeyer 1998:330), states an assumption on the same view and claims that all languages have a dominant word order, a surface ordering of subject, object and verb relative to one another that is at least more common than other possible orders. Thompson (1978, cited in Mithun 1992) notes that languages may vary considerably in the extent to which surface word order is controlled by syntactic or pragmatic considerations. Although the canonical word order of Turkish is SOV, alternative orderings seem to be possible; however, the question is by what principle these variations can be explained. Instead of grammatical notions, the alternative ordering phenomena may be generalized by using pragmatic functions. Thus, Turkish fits into the pragmatic word order type, where the linear ordering of constituents and their variation serve pragmatic purposes.

Whaley simply summarizes the discussions on word order and provides methods that can be employed to discover the basic constituent order of a language as follows:

- i) An order that is strongly felt to be the basic order by native speakers tends to be the basic order.
- ii) The most frequent order tends to be the basic order.
- iii) The order that is least marked tends to be the basic order.
- iv) The order that arises out of context or in the pragmatically most neutral portions of texts tends to be the basic order. (Whaley 1997:106)

Since Turkish is an agglutinative language with postpositions, word order does not have a primary grammatical function expressing the syntactic and semantic relations of NPs; it is dictated by discourse considerations. Any permutation of S, O, and V can give a grammatical sentence, but the order SOV is much more frequent than all of the other orders. In a sentence where the NPs are not case marked or there are no semantic clues to distinguish between the grammatical roles of different NPs, word order is fixed and grammaticized. The basic word order can change depending on pragmatic functions such as considerations of topic, focus and background. Erguvanlı (1979) studies on word order in Turkish tries to establish the ways in which it may be exploited by investigating word order variation and its function.

II. 5. 1. Word Order in Embedded Clauses

The grammars of all languages not only provide the speaker with alternative means of expressing the same propositional content but also allow the speaker some choice in how to express arguments by using the same understood reference. Thus, sentences may have different word orders but the same propositional content (47b), or with the same ordering they may have a different expression of the same referent (47c).

(47) a. [[Bebek uyusun] diye] lambayı söndürdüm.

‘I turned off the light so that the baby would sleep.’

b. Lambayı [[bebek uyusun] diye] söndürdüm.

c. [[O uyusun] diye] ışığı söndürdüm.

Studies pointed out the importance of adpositions as a parameter in word order typology. Thus, whether a language has prepositions or postpositions is a criteria to be employed in determining the basic constituent order. Hawkins (1983:16) suggests that prepositions and postpositions are better and more general type indicators than other constituents in ordering.

Word order in embedded sentences basically follows the same principles operating in simple sentences. In Turkish, embedded sentences that are morphologically marked precede the verb of the matrix clause. Purpose and Reason Clauses that are morphologically distinguished are marked with infinitive suffix –mAK in infinitival clauses; with –mA (the action nominal) in verbal noun constructions, and with –DIK (the factive nominal) in nominalizations. In Turkish, nominalized embedded clauses can be moved as freely as simple NPs. In an unmarked word order, all types of adverbial clauses are placed at the beginning of the main sentence. However, given the general flexibility of word order in Turkish, the adverbial clauses can surface in any position, even postverbally.

The basic word order can undergo a process of scrambling and change with pragmatic considerations such as topic, focus and backgrounding. Topics have to occupy the sentence initial position in Turkish, they are definite, but they are not marked morphologically. The most important feature of topics is that they are always an argument of the verb and thus carry their selectional restrictions to the verb. Topic is employed to characterize the pragmatic function of an NP, other than the subject, which is normally in the sentence initial position. If the speaker wants to set up a discourse topic, the sentence

initial position of that topic would be obligatory from the point of view of discourse. VP adverbials can be topicalized and placed initially only if they consist of noun phrases used adverbially (Kornfilt 1997). A topicalized constituent can be moved out of the nominalized clause as long as its grammatical role is transparent in the sentence. Chomsky (1965, cited in Jones 1991:56) notes that phrases that are outside VP can be preposed.

Similar to topics, emphasized elements have no morphological expressions. Emphasis is expressed via word order as well as via phonetic stress and high pitch. The emphasized constituents are placed to the immediate left of the verb and referred to as the focus element. In Turkish, the position immediately preceding the verb is the focus position, it is the most information bearing element in that context. These constituents are not used initially or in the final position in a sentence; a focused constituent of an embedded clause cannot be moved out of the clause. Göksel & Özsoy (2000) claim that in Turkish, the immediately preverbal position is not the focus position, but the position for sentential stress. In addition to placing a constituent in sentence initial position for topicalization, there exists a process of moving a constituent to final position. This indicates that the speaker presupposes that the hearer shares knowledge of the constituent in question. The process of moving presupposed nominal constituents to the right is referred to as backgrounding. Constituents of subordinate clauses can undergo this process with some restrictions; they cannot be placed before constituents of a superordinate clause. The whole clause may be placed after the main verb; a constituent can be backgrounded only with respect to the main verb and not the embedded verb. Erguvanlı (1979:94) expresses the correlation between the major syntactic positions and their pragmatic functions in a sentence as follows:

<u>Syntactic Position</u>	<u>Pragmatic Position</u>
S-initial	TOPIC
Immediate preverbal	FOCUS
Post-predicate	BACKGROUNDING

II. 5. 2. Word Order in Purpose and Reason Clauses

In Turkish, the embedded purpose and reason clauses all precede the matrix clause in the neutral order (48a/b), which is not any different from that of a simple sentence.

(48) a. [[Kapıyı kırmızıya boyamak] için] izin istedik.

‘We asked for permission to paint the door red.’

b. [[Elbiseyi vaktinde bitirdiği] için] annem terziye teşekkür etti.

‘My mother thanked the taylor for finishing the dress in time.’

The embedded clause, being a constituent of the matrix clause may undergo any of the three major syntactic positions- topicalization (T), focusing (F) and backgrounding (B)- to have a marked order. While these positions occur within sentences some constraints have to be taken into consideration. The transformational component of grammatical sentences includes both movement processes and also restrictions that do not allow movement. The constituent structure of the phrase has an important feature with regard to unit movement constraint. Radford (1981:249) summarizes all these restrictions and states that there are island constraints within a sentence that undergoes movement:

Noun complement clauses are islands (Radford 1981:218).

Sentential subjects are islands (Radford 1981:219).

COMPLEX NOUN PHRASE CONSTRAINT

No rule can move any element out of a complex noun phrase clause. (Radford 1981:219).

UNIT MOVEMENT CONSTRAINT

No single application of any transformation can move a string of elements which do not form a continuous constituent (Radford 1981:224).

Erguvanlı (1979) mentions topicalization (T), focusing (F) and backgrounding (B) processes in her work and claims that topic position is not defined regarding other constituents and as a matter of this fact, topicalization process has fewer restrictions. Concerning the same process, Kornfilt (1997:203) writes about topicalization in embedded clauses and states that constituents can be topicalized within their own clauses; concerning topicalization across clause boundaries she claims that speakers have different judgments: while some allow for a constituent to be extracted out of the embedded clause and placed initially to the matrix clause, some others object to do so. When we turn to Erguvanlı's work, we can see that she regards focusing as a process having more restrictions because focus position is dependent on the position of the verb. Since verbs have their own semantic and syntactic selectional restrictions, a focused constituent in the embedded clause cannot be made the focus of the whole sentence by being placed to the immediate left of the main verb. As for the backgrounding process, she states that in complex sentences, backgrounding is a matrix clause phenomenon in the case of the embedded clause being in the immediate syntactic domain of the main verb. Since embedded purpose and reason clauses are optional elements, a constituent of these clauses cannot be backgrounded with regard to the main verb. Backgrounding within the embedded clause is possible as long as the backgrounded constituent follows the postposition.

While considering the possibilities of word order variation in purpose and reason clauses, we will take these syntactic processes (T/F/B) into consideration. The

considerations above may be supported by a schematic representation of T/F/B with purpose and reason clauses illustrated as follows in Table 3:

Movement processes:		postpositional clauses
Topicalization	bounded within the embedded clause	+
	across clause boundaries	-/?+
	of the whole embedded clause	+
Focusing	bounded within the embedded clause	+
	across clause boundaries	-
	of the whole embedded clause	+
Backgrounding	bounded within the embedded clause	+
	across clause boundaries	-
	of the whole embedded clause	+

Table 3: T/F/B in postpositional clauses (adapted from Erguvanlı 1979 :144)

II. 5. 2. 1. Word Order in Purpose Clauses

The embedded purpose clauses are sentence internal and precede the main verb in the neutral order. While explaining the word order variations in these clauses, the T/F/B processes should be dealt with regard to no crossing branches constraint, because phrases construct islands and thus constituents cannot be located within phrase boundaries.

(49) a. Öğrenciler [bu kapıyı kırmızıya boyamak için] benden izin istediler.

‘The students asked for permission to paint this door red.’

b. Öğrenciler [kırmızıya bu kapıyı boyamak için] benden izin istediler.

c. Öğrenciler [boyamak için kırmızıya bu kapıyı] benden izin istediler.

d. [Bu kapıyı kırmızıya boyamak için] öğrenciler benden izin istediler.

?e. [Kırmızıya] öğrenciler [bu kapıyı boyamak için] benden izin istediler.

?f. [Boyamak için] öğrenciler [bu kapıyı kırmızıya] benden izin istediler

- ?g. [Bu kapıyı] öğrenciler [kırmızıya boyamak için] benden izin istediler.
 ?h. [Kırmızıya boyamak için] öğrenciler [bu kapıyı] benden izin istediler.
 ?i. [Bu kapıyı boyamak için] öğrenciler [kırmızıya] benden izin istediler.
 j. Öğrenciler [kırmızıya boyamak için bu kapıyı] benden izin istediler.
 k. Öğrenciler [bu kapıyı boyamak için kırmızıya] benden izin istediler.
 *l. Öğrenciler [kırmızıya boyamak bu kapıyı için] benden izin istediler.
 m. Öğrenciler benden izin istediler [bu kapıyı kırmızıya boyamak için].
 *n. Öğrenciler [kırmızıya boyamak için] benden izin istediler [bu kapıyı].
 o. Öğrenciler benden [bu kapıyı kırmızıya boyamak için] izin istediler.

(50) a. Genç kız [arkadaşının okulu sevmesi için] parti düzenliyor.

‘The young girl is arranging a party so that her friend would love school’

- b. Genç kız [okulu arkadaşının sevmesi için] parti düzenliyor.
 c. Genç kız [sevmesi için okulu arkadaşının] parti düzenliyor.
 d. [Arkadaşının okulu sevmesi için] genç kız parti düzenliyor.
 ?*e. [Arkadaşının] genç kız [okulu sevmesi için] parti düzenliyor.
 ?f. [Sevmesi için] genç kız [arkadaşının okulu] parti düzenliyor.
 ?g. [Okulu] genç kız [sevmesi için arkadaşının] parti düzenliyor.
 ?h. [Okulu sevmesi için] genç kız [arkadaşının] parti düzenliyor.
 ?i. [Arkadaşının sevmesi için] genç kız [okulu] parti düzenliyor.
 j. Genç kız [okulu sevmesi için arkadaşının] parti düzenliyor.
 k. Genç kız [arkadaşının sevmesi için okulu] parti düzenliyor.
 *l. Genç kız [okulu sevmesi arkadaşının için] parti düzenliyor.
 m. Genç kız parti düzenliyor [arkadaşının okulu sevmesi için].
 *n. Genç kız [okulu arkadaşının] parti düzenliyor [sevmesi için].

In infinitival constructions *-mAK* (49) and an example with the verbal noun construction *-mA* (50), the processes apply exactly the same. Topicalization (49a/b/c) (50a/b/c) and focusing (49a/b) (50a/b) can operate within the nominalized purpose clause. The whole embedded clause can also be topicalized and placed in sentence initial position (49d) (50d). Extracting an individual topicalized constituent across clause boundaries is acceptable by some native speakers whereas some speakers do not allow for this movement process. Concerning movement of the topicalized constituent across clause boundaries, there may be different discussions. Examples (49e/f/g) and (50e/f/g) are awkward. Although focusing operates within the nominalized clause (49a/b) (50a/b), it is fully unacceptable across clause boundaries; so we cannot focus a constituent by extracting out of the nominalized clause (49h/i) (50h/i). However, native speakers have different judgments about allowing this process. The example sentences marked with ? reflect that for some speakers they are acceptable when read with a certain *intonation*. Backgrounding applies within the embedded sentence (49j/k) (50j/k) but the backgrounded constituent has to follow the postposition otherwise it will violate the island restriction of the postpositional phrase and exhibit an unacceptable structure (49l) (50l); because there is a constraint on adjacency. Stowell (1981, cited in Cook 1988) introduces the Case Adjacency Principle, which requires case assigners to be adjacent to the NP that receives case. An NP complement cannot be split from its case-assigning head. That is why the examples (49l) and (50l) are ungrammatical. Backgrounding of the whole embedded clause can operate with respect to the matrix clause (49m) (50m). However individual constituents cannot be backgrounded out of the embedded clause to be located in the matrix clause (49n) (50n). The whole embedded clause may be focused to the immediate preverbal position in the matrix clause (49o).

(51) a. Annem [elbiseyi o fiyata diksin diye] terziye ısrar etti.

‘My mother urged the tailor to sew the dress for that sum.’

b. Annem [o fiyata elbiseyi diksin diye] terziye ısrar etti.

c. Annem [elbiseyi diksin diye o fiyata] terziye ısrar etti.

d. [Elbiseyi o fiyata diksin diye] annem terziye ısrar etti.

e. Annem terziye [elbiseyi o fiyata diksin diye] ısrar etti.

?f. [Elbiseyi] annem [o fiyata diksin diye] terziye ısrar etti.

?g. [O fiyata] annem [elbiseyi diksin diye] terziye ısrar etti.

?h. [Diksin diye] annem [elbiseyi o fiyata] terziye ısrar etti.

*i. Annem [elbiseyi diksin diye] terziye [o fiyata] ısrar etti.

*j. Annem [o fiyata diksin diye] terziye [elbiseyi] ısrar etti.

*k. Annem [elbiseyi diksin diye] terziye ısrar etti [o fiyata].

*l. Annem [o fiyata diksin diye] terziye ısrar etti [elbiseyi].

?m. Annem [elbiseyi diksin o fiyata diye] terziye ısrar etti.

n. Annem terziye ısrar etti [elbiseyi o fiyata diksin diye].

All three processes operate within the embedded purpose clause with the factive nominal –DIK preceding postposition *diye* (51a/b/c). The backgrounded constituent within the embedded clause follows *diye* (51c). Topicalization may occur by locating the whole embedded clause in sentence initial position (51d). Placing the whole clause as a focused element in the main sentence immediately to the left of the main verb is possible (51e). However, individual constituents may not be extracted out of the embedded clause to be topicalized, focused or backgrounded (51f-l). Normally the backgrounded constituent within the embedded clause cannot precede *diye* (51m) because the Case Adjacency Principle is violated. Yet, some speakers allow this process by

reading the sentence with *intonation*. Thus, regarding native speaker judgement, we claim that *diye* allows us to produce acceptable sentences under these conditions. The entire embedded sentence can be backgrounded and placed after the main verb (51n).

II. 5. 2. 2. Word Order in Reason Clauses

The word order of embedded reason clauses resembles closely to that of the purpose clauses with nominalizations. Postpositions denoting reason follow the factive nominal –DIK, the factive nominal expressing future –(y)AcAK, the action nominal -mA and some appropriate person/tense suffixes. Since they have similar word order behaviours, the explanations on representing T/F/B processes of reason clauses is illustrated with two sample structures; *-DIĞI için* (52) and *-mA SI yüzünden* (53):

(52) a. Annem [elbiseyi o fiyata diktiği için] terziye teşekkür etti.

‘My mother thanked the taylorfor sewing the dress for that sum.’

b. Annem [o fiyata elbiseyi diktiği için] terziye teşekkür etti.

c. Annem [elbiseyi diktiği için o fiyata] terziye teşekkür etti.

d. [Elbiseyi o fiyata diktiği için] annem terziye teşekkür etti.

e. Annem terziye [elbiseyi o fiyata diktiği için] teşekkür etti.

f. Annem terziye teşekkür etti [elbiseyi o fiyata diktiği için].

?*g. [Elbiseyi] annem [o fiyata diktiği için] terziye teşekkür etti.

?*h. [O fiyata] annem [elbiseyi diktiği için] terziye teşekkür etti.

?*i. [Diktiği için] annem [elbiseyi o fiyata] terziye teşekkür etti.

*j. Annem [elbiseyi diktiği için] terziye [o fiyata]teşekkür etti.

*k. Annem [o fiyata diktiği için] terziye [elbiseyi]teşekkür etti.

*l. Annem terziye [elbiseyi diktiği için] teşekkür etti [o fiyata].

*m. Annem terziye [o fiyata diktiği için] teşekkür etti [elbiseyi].

*n. Annem [elbiseyi diktiği o fiyata için] terziye teşekkür etti.

(53) a. Küçük iradımız [enflasyonun piyasayı etkilemesi yüzünden] yine eridi.

‘Our little saving has finished again due to the fact that the inflation affected the economy.’

b. Küçük iradımız [piyasayı enflasyonun etkilemesi yüzünden] yine eridi.

c. Küçük iradımız [enflasyonun etkilemesi yüzünden piyasayı] yine eridi.

d. [Enflasyonun piyasayı etkilemesi yüzünden] küçük iradımız yine eridi.

e. Küçük iradımız yine [enflasyonun piyasayı etkilemesi yüzünden] eridi.

f. Küçük iradımız yine eridi [enflasyonun piyasayı etkilemesi yüzünden].

*g. [Enflasyonun] küçük iradımız [piyasayı etkilemesi yüzünden] yine eridi.

*h. [Piyasayı] küçük iradımız [enflasyonun etkilemesi yüzünden] yine eridi.

*i. [Etkilemesi yüzünden] küçük iradımız [enflasyonun piyasayı] yine eridi.

*j. Küçük iradımız [enflasyonun etkilemesi yüzünden] yine eridi [piyasayı].

*k. Küçük iradımız [etkilemesi yüzünden piyasayı] yine eridi [enflasyonun].

*l. Küçük iradımız [enflasyonun piyasayı] yine eridi [etkilemesi yüzünden].

Nominalizations with postpositions denoting reason allow topicalization, focusing and backgrounding processes operate within the embedded clauses (52a/b/c) (53a/b/c). The backgrounded constituent within the embedded clause follows *diye* in (52c) and *yüzünden* in (53c) in order not to violate the island constraint of the postpositional phrase. Topicalization occurs by locating the whole embedded clause in sentence initial position (52d) (53d). It is possible to locate the whole clause as a focused element in the main sentence immediately to the left of the main verb (52e) (53e). The embedded clause can be backgrounded as a whole constituent with regard to the main

verb (52f) (53f). However, it is not possible for individual constituents to be carried out of the embedded clause for topicalization, focusing or backgrounding (52g-m) (53g-l). The backgrounded constituent within the embedded clause cannot precede *için* (52n); it violates the Case Adjacency Principle. The postpositions *için* and *diye* show a difference when native speaker judgement is applied to these sentences (51m, 52n).

II. 6. Summary

This chapter discusses the syntactic representation of Postpositional Purpose and Reason Clauses in Turkish. We have tried to describe the internal structure of these constructions. Postpositional phrases can be complemented by bare nouns or pronouns, as well as complex nominal expressions. These phrases are used adverbially, thus they are optional constituents. Purpose and Reason Clauses require certain features: case marking and subject control within these clauses are determined by some syntactic constraints. Word order in embedded clauses follows the same principles operating in simple sentences in Turkish. Purpose and Reason Clauses, normally, precede the matrix clause. In order to have a marked order a process of scrambling can be applied to these constructions. Yet, some constraints have to be taken into consideration.

CHAPTER III. SEMANTIC REPRESENTATION of PURPOSE and REASON

CLAUSES

III. 1. The Relationship Between Form and Meaning

When we interpret signs, we clearly assign a meaning to them. Hawkins (1994:14, cited in Newmeyer 1998:133) remarks that:

The recognition of linguistic form, i.e. sound units, word units, and larger syntactic units, logically precedes the assignment of meaning to these units, because one cannot begin to assign a meaning to a given form, activating in the process one's grammatical knowledge of form-meaning pairings, unless one knows what form it is that to be interpreted. Hence, form processing must, in general, have priority over content, given that both semantic and pragmatic processing require prior access to form.

Understanding the nature of meaning has been a problem for the philosophy of language; psycholinguists are interested in the rules of meaning which the speakers appear to employ when they make sense of the language they use. Many psycholinguists (Greene 1986, Taylor&Taylor 1990, cited in Forrester 1996:38) equate the study of meaning with the study of word meaning. Words refer to things in the world and we use words to build sentences; but it is not as simple as it is seen because the nature of meaning is tied up with the notion of the sign. The semantic links between elements within the lexical system is an aspect of their sense or meaning. The study of meaning is the study of signification processes, where the essential element is the sign. Following Saussure's terms, Frawley (1992:5, cited in Forrester 1996:40) provides us with a definition of meaning as follows:

To say that something has meaning is to say that it is a sign, a composite unit consisting of a relation between an overt signal, called the signifier, and the information that this overt signal evokes, called the signified. The signifier, signified and the relation make up the sign.

The meaning of a word is, generally defined by its relations with other words in the language. As Levin (1993) states, knowing the meaning of a verb enables the speaker

to determine its behaviour. Traditionally, word meaning or lexical semantics is described as not only representing the meaning of each word in the language but also showing how the meanings of words in a language are interrelated (Saeed 1997:53).

It is meaning that allows us to reason from facts about language to facts about the world, and vice versa. A fundamental property that any semantic theory must have is the ability to pair the syntactic expressions of a language with their meanings. Thus, a semantic theory must:

- a. capture for any language the nature of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences and explain the nature of the relation between them;
- b. be able to predict the ambiguities in the expressions of a language;
- c. characterize and explain the systematic meaning relations between the words, the phrases and the sentences of a language.

It is clear that grammatical categories reflect semantic differences. With the Principle of Full Identification, Bouchard mentions this relation:

PRINCIPLE of FULL IDENTIFICATION

Every syntactic formative of a sentence must have a corresponding element in the semantic representation. Every formative of a semantic representation must be identified by a morphosyntactic element in the sentence with which that representation is associated. (Bouchard 1995:93)

As it is mentioned before, the sense of a word is defined by its relation with other words in the language. Idiosyncratic information about each word is in our lexicon, and we try to associate phonological and grammatical words with semantic words or lexemes. With regard to this point, Schaaik (2001) states that all motivational satellites in Turkish are expressed by means of *için*: *purpose, cause and reason*. Actually, the postposition *için* presents different senses by its relations with different words and

structures. In the example sentences below, *için* has the same pronunciation and the same syntactic category –postposition. The lexical entry of *için* contains several senses:

I- *için* expresses *cause* and *purpose*

(1) a. 13 yaşında para için dansetmeye başladım.

‘I started to dance for money at the age of 13.’

b. Yakışıklı olduğu için kızlar hep peşinde.

‘The girls are all after him because he is handsome.’

c. Ödevini tamamlaması için öğrencime ek süre verdim.

‘ I gave some extra time to my student so that she would finish his assignment.’

d. Batılı ülkeler vatandaşlarını kurtarmak için harekete geçti.

‘Western countries made attempts to save their citizens.’

II- *için* expresses a *benefactive function*

(2) a. E. Lauder reyonunu arayarak kendiniz ve arkadaşınız için hemen bir randevu alın.

‘Make an appointment for you and your friend immediately by calling the E. Lauder Department.’

b. Günde en az 2 bardak bira kalp sağlığı için yararlıymış.

‘At least two glasses of beer is said to be useful for the health of heart.’

c. ECA’dan küçük mekanlar için hesaplı bir çözüm.

‘An economical solution from ECA for mall places.’

d. Ömrümün yarısını senin için harcadım.

‘I spent half of my life for you.’

III- *için* means –*e göre*

(3) a. Bu belki kurmaca metin için doğrudur.

‘This is perhaps true for fictional texts.’

b. Oyun meraklıları için nefes kesen oyuncaklar.

‘Breath taking toys for those who are addicted to playing.’

c. Genç yetenekler için galeri ve atölyeler.

‘Galleries and workshops for young skills.’

d. Verdiğiniz para bu iş için çok az.

‘The money you have given is too little for this work.’

IV- *için* may mean *about/ hakkında, hususunda, ilişkin*

(4) a. Aynı şeyi bilimsel metinler için de söyleyebiliriz.

‘We can say the same thing for scientific texts, too.’

b. Türkiye’de İran için çıkan haberler ortalığı karıştırdı.

‘The news that came out for Iran in Turkey has led to a turmoil.’

c. Tatil için ne düşünüyorsunuz?

‘What do you think of doing on holiday?’

d. İtalyanlar için söylediklerinize katılmıyorum.

‘I do not agree with you what you have said for Italians.’

V- *için* may also be used to talk about *time*:

(5) a. O an için bizim sekretere inandım.

‘I believed our secretary at that moment.’

b. Bir an için nerede olduğunu unutup içeri daldı.

‘He forgot where he was for a moment and dashed in.’

c. Kısa bir süre için yayınıımıza ara veriyoruz.

‘We interrupt our broadcast for a short time.’

d. Otelde bir hafta için yer ayırttılar.

‘They booked a room at the hotel for a week.’

As Aksan (1999:169) states, there are some significant syntactic features which determine the semantic features in Turkish, the following points briefly reflect his approach to sentence semantics.

- Flexible word order
- Syntactic rules of compound and complex sentences
- Reduplications
- The rare usage of personal pronouns
- Position of adjectives
- The copula –Dir

Aksan (1999:183) also claims that inflectional suffixes have an important semantic function in Turkish. Since logical form is a representation of semantic structure in the sense of being the form to which semantic rules apply, it must be suitable for compositional interpretation. Thus, the study of meaning and the relationship between word meaning and sentence meaning must be the central issue of a linguist.

III. 2. Some Semantic Issues on Meaning Differences

A semantic theory is required to provide some account for anomaly in the meaning of expressions. It should be able to explain why certain expressions which are syntactically well-formed are unacceptable or deviant from the semantic point of view. The factors that cause these anomalies may be the word order, the concept of synonyms,

truth conditions or the effects of lexical and grammatical aspect. Each of these issues will be discussed by considering their relevance to the use of purpose and reason clauses.

Semantic knowledge is a combination of a variety of other kinds of knowledge in understanding language. At least three kinds of processes are involved with regard to this relationship: when we hear a sentence uttered in our own language, first we need to identify its phonological form, then we need to identify the syntactic arrangement of its constituents and then we need to identify the meanings of the words and how they compose. Since verbs are argument-taking elements, they show complex sets of properties. That is to say, any structure proposed for a construction on the basis of semantic considerations must also be licenced by syntactic principles. Simply, the lexical knowledge of a speaker includes knowledge of the meaning of individual verbs, the meaning components which determine the syntactic behaviour of verbs, and the general principles which determine behaviour from verb meaning. Speakers' lexicon is not static because they are continually learning and forgetting words. It is possible for them to create new words; however, creating a new word is not a frequent occurrence as creating a new sentence. Although there are a small number of combinatory rules, speakers can always create sentences that have never been used or heard before. This creativity allows speakers to use a finite set of words to create an infinite number of sentences. The task of the semanticist is to determine their semantic mode of combination in clauses and provide compositional rules for their interpretation. In short, meaning is a product of all linguistic levels. As it is mentioned before, Aksan (1998) states that syntactic features determine semantic differences in Turkish; by changing word orders we will produce differences in meaning as seen in (6). The meaning of a sentence depends not only on what words it contains but on how those words are combined.

(6) a. [[Bebek uyudu] diye] lambayı söndürdüm.

‘I turned off the light because the baby had slept.’

b. [[Lambayı söndürdüm] diye] bebek uyudu.

‘The baby fell asleep because I had turned off the light.’

Although some postpositions are accepted as synonymous, it is clear that there exist certain variations. Synonyms are different phonological words, which have the same or very similar meanings. Palmer (1976) states that synonyms have different distributions along a number of parameters. True or exact synonyms are very rare. They may portray positive or negative attitudes of the speaker, they may belong to different registers: colloquial, formal, literary, etc. or they may be collocationally restricted. Concerning the notion of synonyms, although postpositions *için* and *üzere* denoting *purpose* can be used interchangeably (7a/b), the problem of controller choice occurs where there is more than one possible controller; and as a result of this property, *için* and *üzere* cannot be interchangeable in some sentences (7c/d):

(7) a. Öğrenciler_i [[Ø_i konferansa gitmek] için] izin istediler.

b. Öğrenciler_i [[Ø_i konferansa gitmek] üzere] izin istediler.

?c. Öğrenciler_i [[Ø_i konferans vermek] için] Müdür Bey’i_j bekliyorlar.

d. Öğrenciler_i [[Ø_i konferans vermek] üzere] Müdür Bey’i_j bekliyorlar.

The influence of logic on the study of language has been one of the main concerns of linguists. Semantic facts involving language and the world are facts about truth and falsity. Sentences have the property of being true or false depend on meaning, more exactly on two things: what the sentence means, and how things are in the extralinguistic world. The notion of truth is partly the study of logic, which goes back to the Classical Greek Age; it concerns for the truth of statements and depends on a

correlation to states of affairs in reality. As Saeed (1997:81) claims a number of writers hypothesized that the tools of logic can help to represent sentence meaning. In the example (8) we can identify the embedded reason clause as the antecedent and the matrix clause as the consequent:

(8) Sedat_i [[Ø_i yeni işine başladı] diye] heyecanlıydı.

Sentences can be true because of the behaviour of logical words or because of individual nouns and verbs. The example (9b) reflects a syntactically well-formed but semantically anomalous sentence; from a logical point of view, nobody praises a student who is late for school in the real world.

(9) a. Sıra arkadaşım_i [[Ø_i sürekli geç kalması] yüzünden] ceza aldı.

?*b. Sıra arkadaşım_i [[Ø_i sürekli geç kalması] yüzünden] takdir aldı.

Truth is only defined at the sentence level. Words and phrases have meanings and denotations; but only sentences are used to say something, which is true or false (Swart 1998). There is a set of facts for every event and truth means a correspondance with the facts of the world. A sentence's being true or false is called its truth value by semanticists; and facts that would have to obtain in reality to make a sentence true or false give its truth conditions. The truth or falsity of the proposition may vary with respect to different occasions on which the sentence is uttered; Jackendoff states his ideas as follows:

The avowed purpose of truth-conditional semantics is to explicate Truth, a relation between language and reality, independent of language users. In turn, truth-conditions can be treated as speaker-independent only if both reality and the language that describes it are speaker-independent as well. (Jackendoff 1990:2, cited in Bouchard 1995:7)

Lexical and grammatical aspects each represent a set of universal semantic features. Verbs are assigned lexical aspect features and placed in classes based on their

behaviour in syntactic and semantic frames. Lexical aspect refers to the inherent temporal properties encoded in verb stems and other lexical items. As Olsen (1997: 16) cites, Filip (1990) claims that aspect properties of sentences are to a large extent determined by the semantics of the main lexical verb, but that the aspectual contribution of external arguments and adjuncts is a well-known fact. Vendler (1957, cited in Olsen 1997:11) suggests that temporal properties of verbs deserve separate treatment from their non-temporal lexical meanings. He states that “the use of a verb may... suggest the particular way in which that verb presupposes and involves the notion of time”. Since Vendler, the aspectual properties of verbs are divided into four event types: States, Processes (Activities), Achievements and Accomplishments.

In the semantics of a language, the situation type of a verb- lexical aspect properties- is a label for the typology of situations that is encoded. Speakers generally have to use their knowledge of semantic distinctions to draw distinctions of situation type and decide on the aspect of the sentence. Thus, certain lexical categories inherently describe different types; some describe static situations, some describe dynamic situations. Static situations are typically used for states, whereas dynamic situations are for processes and events. A stative verb allows the speaker to view a situation as a steady state, with no internal phases or changes. The speaker does not overtly focus on the beginning or end of the state. He claims that a dynamic verb describes a process and focuses on the beginning or end point. Based on this criteria, we can conclude that States are not inherently bounded, have no natural goal or outcome; they have [+static], [-telic] features as they do not have a natural endpoint; they are not evaluated with respect to any other event and are homogeneous. Processes are durative events with no inherent bound and have [+durative], [-telic] features. Achievements are momentary events of transition

and thus [-durative], [+telic], whereas accomplishments are durative events with a natural goal or outcome and have [+durative], [+telic] features.

Syntactically, we cannot pattern stative structures with expressions of dynamism, agency, volition or completion. Aspectual and modality functions, which are discussed in the following sections, are important in treating the state verbs. In (10a) the postposition *diye* expresses reason with a *state verb*+*-Iyor*, whereas a *state verb*+*-Ar diye* construction is not acceptable (10b).

(10) a. [[İngilizce biliyorum] diye] işe alındım.

‘I was employed since I knew English.’

*b. [[İngilizce bilirim] diye] işe alındım.

In Özsoy and Taylan’s (1998) paper on postpositional embedded sentences denoting causal relations, the semantic functions of these structures are discussed. With regard to the arguments about lexical aspect (situation types), word order rules and truth conditions, these sentences reflect different semantic representations. Simply, the choice of the verb may affect the interpretation of a sentence; Özsoy and Taylan (1998:120) state this fact and claim that *-(y)AcAK diye* and *-mAK için* constructions may express either purpose or reason as a result of the lexical meaning of the verb chosen or the coreferentiality of the subjects may sometimes employ constraints. They mention that it is the tense/aspect and modality markers on the verb of the embedded sentences that determine whether it is interpreted as purpose or reason and claim that the idea of simultaneity created by the predicates chosen is also a crucial element in the interpretation process.

We specifically based our semantic analysis on examples constructed with *için* and *diye* because they are the most widely used postpositions to denote purpose and

reason/cause. Thus, in this study our primary aim is to discuss the core units, which deserve a profound investigation and influence the semantic functions in purpose and reason clauses.

III. 2. 1. Semantic Differences in Purpose Clauses

Embedded sentences denoting purpose are marked as follows:

- (11) a. *-mAK için/üzere*
 b. *-mA-sI için*
 c. *-A diye*

With regard to the semantic features discussed above, we will try to reflect the differences in purpose clauses.

Purposive marking is semantically modal in that it expresses an attitude by the subject of the sentence, explaining what intention [or purpose] he/she has in carrying out the action indicated. (Palmer 1986: 174)

Since the embedded clause states the purpose of the matrix verb, the concern for the truth of statements depends upon the relation of their correspondance with the facts of the real world. *-mAK için* and *-mAK üzere* can only be exact synonyms when there is subject control (12a). This syntactic constraint requires *üzere* when the purpose marker with the infinitive construction in the case of object control (12c).

- (12) a. Öğrenciler_i [[Ø_i konferans vermek] için/üzere] bekliyorlar.
 ?b. Öğrenciler_i [[Ø_i konferans vermek] için] Müdür Bey'i_j bekliyorlar.
 c. Öğrenciler_i [[Ø_{ij} konferans vermek] üzere] Müdür Bey'i_j bekliyorlar.

As it is stated in section I. 4. 2.1., to determine the referent of the controlled is a matter of the choice of the matrix verb and subordinate verb. How the constituents of a sentence contribute to the truth value of the whole sentence is related with certain

semantic issues. The example (12b) sounds a semantically ill-formed sentence when the possible controller of the empty category is ‘Müdür Bey/the headmaster’; both a syntactically and semantically perfect one could be obtained simply by replacing the subordinate verb ‘konferans vermek/ to give a lecture’ with ‘konferansa başlamak/ to begin the lecture’ (13a) or by rewriting the sentence with *-ması için* structure which marks that the subjects of the main clause and the purpose clause are different from each other (13b).

(13) a. Öğrenciler_i [[Ø_i konferansa başlamak] için] Müdür Bey’i_j bekliyorlar.

b. Öğrenciler_i [[Ø_j konferans vermesi] için] Müdür Bey’i_j bekliyorlar.

As for the truth conditions of this sentence, the referent of the embedded subject is ‘öğrenciler/ the students’. Syntactic rules also reflect that ‘öğrenciler/ the students’ are going to start the lecture, not the headmaster. The purpose of their waiting for the headmaster is just to begin the lecture.

Tense/aspect and modality markers on the embedded verb play a crucial role in determining the meaning. Futurity is as much a modal notion as it is a temporal one. Thus the factive nominalizer *-(y)AcAK* is not a simple temporal marker expressing future; it functions as a presumptive modality marker expressing a sense of intentionality. The embedded clause marked by *-(y)AcAK diye* expresses either reason or purpose with regard to its temporal, aspectual and modal use. In section I .2. 2. *-(y)AcAK diye* construction is listed as expressing reason because it is only accepted as a temporal marker there, the modality function of the factive nominalizer *-(y)AcAK* is disregarded. The example sentences (14) and (15) are expressing purpose.

(14) a. Öğrenciler [[konferans vermek] için] bekliyorlar.

’The students are waiting to give a conference.’

b. Öğrenciler [[konferans verecekler] diye] bekliyorlar.

'The students are waiting so that they would give a conference.'

(15) a. [[Film izlemek] için] geç vakte kadar oturdum.

b. [[Film izleyeceğim] diye] geç vakte kadar oturdum.

'I stayed up late to watch a film.'

Özsoy and Taylan (1998:120) state that *-(y)AcAK diye* construction expresses purpose because the event in the embedded clause will take place after the one in the matrix clause. In addition to their argument, we claim that in *-(y)AcAK diye* construction expressing purpose, the nominalization suffix *-(y)AcAK* functions as a modality marker showing intention/plan. In the examples (14b/15b), the embedded purpose clauses mark a pure intentional, planned assessment; in other words, they express the subjects' wishes. Since the optative is typically used to express wishes, we claim that this modal reading of *-(y)AcAK diye* construction is synonymous with *-A diye* construction:

(14) b'. Öğrenciler [[konferans verecekler] diye] bekliyorlar= konferans versinler diye.

(15) b'. [[Film izleyeceğim] diye] geç vakte kadar oturdum= film izleyeyim diye.

Purposive marking is expressed by explaining what intention is carried out by the subjects. An intention is to be fulfilled and a result is to be achieved in a purpose clause, there is usually a desired or aimed-at result.

In our analysis, we suggest that sentences which express purpose have two interpretations. Regarding semantic issues, it is not easy to draw a distinction between purpose and reason. Özsoy and Taylan (1998) discuss the idea of purpose and reason in their paper. Their work has a triggering function in modern studies because there are certain notable remarks on this subject. While working on the data, we realized that the

idea of purpose and reason may easily overlap. Thus, we claim that purpose clauses have two interpretations. There is an inherent idea of reason occurring in purpose clauses, but not vice versa. Since purpose expresses an attitude explaining what intention we have in carrying out the action, an implicit reason for doing it is also indicated. In (14), the embedded clause indicates the students' *purpose* in waiting and equally their *reason* for waiting. In (15), it indicates both my *purpose* in staying up late and my *reason* for staying up late. Both interpretations are acceptable and we may conclude that these two clauses overlap in meaning and in subordinators under certain conditions.

With a further attempt, in order to test our claim we try to develop a set of testing ground; we remark the intention stated, and ask two questions:

(16) Öğrenciler [[konferans vermek] için] bekliyorlar.

(i) We state the students' intention: Öğrenciler konferans vermek istiyorlar.

(ii) *Bunun için* ne yapıyorlar? Bekliyorlar.

(iii) *Neden* bekliyorlar? Konferans vermek için.

Both the students' *purpose* in waiting and their *reason* for waiting are expressed in the same sentence.

(17) [[Askere gitmek] için] muayene oldu.

(i) We state his intention: Askere gitmek istedi.

(ii) *Bunun için* ne yaptı? Muayene oldu.

(iii) *Neden* muayene oldu? Askere gitmek için.

The embedded sentence expresses the subject's *purpose* and *reason* for the matrix verb.

(18) [[Alay edip etmediğini anlamak] için/üzere] yüzüne baktım.

(i) My intention: Alay edip etmediğini anlamak istedim.

(ii) *Bunun için* ne yaptım? Yüzüne baktım.

(iii) *Neden* yüzüne baktım? Alay edip etmediğini anlamak için.

The sentence indicates my *purpose* in looking at her/his face and equally my *reason* for doing this.

(19) [[Onu bir an önce kurtarmanın bir yolunu bulacağız] diye] kafa patlattık.

(i) Our intention: Onu bir an önce kurtarmanın bir yolunu bulmak istedik.

(ii) *Bunun için* ne yaptık? Kafa patlattık.

(iii) *Neden* kafa patlattık? Onu bir an önce kurtarmanın bir yolunu bulalım diye.

The idea of *purpose* and *reason* is carried out by the embedded clause for the fulfilment of the matrix verb.

(20) [[Genç kız arkadaşının eğlenmesi] için] parti düzenliyor.

(i) Her intention: Genç kız arkadaşının eğlenmesini istiyor.

(ii) *Bunun için* ne yapıyor? Parti düzenliyor.

(iii) *Neden* parti düzenliyor? Arkadaşının eğlenmesi için.

The young girl wants her friend to have a good time; that's why she is giving a party. Thus, both her *purpose* and *reason* for giving a party are equally indicated.

(21) [[Gitmeme izin vermesi] için] babamın ayaklarına kapanacağım.

(i) My intention: Gitmek istiyorum. Babam buna izin versin.

(ii) *Bunun için* ne yapacağım? Babamın ayaklarına kapanacağım.

(iii) *Neden* babamın ayaklarına kapanacağım? Gitmeme izin vermesi için.

The idea of *purpose* in fulfilling the matrix verb also makes up the idea of *reason* for it. This relation is carried out by the embedded clause.

(22) [[Bebek uyusun] diye] lambayı söndürdük.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| (i) Our intention: | Bebğin uyumasını istedik. |
| (ii) <i>Bunun için</i> ne yaptık? | Lambayı söndürdük. |
| (iii) <i>Neden</i> lambayı söndürdük? | Bebek uyusun diye. |

We have a *purpose* in turning off the lights and this *purpose* also makes up a *reason* for turning off the lights.

(23) [[Kimse girmesin] diye] kapı kilitlenmişti.

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------|
| (i) The intention stated: | Kimsenin girmemesi istenmişti. |
| (ii) <i>Bunun için</i> ne yapılmıştı? | Kapı kilitlenmişti. |
| (iii) Kapı <i>neden</i> kilitlenmişti? | Kimse girmesin diye. |

The idea of *purpose* and *reason* is equally carried out by the embedded clause. However, it should be noted that tense/aspect and modality markers or the verb semantics are the main factors, which determine these conditions. Time adverbials and extra-linguistic context are important in determining the intended interpretation; thus, the relationship between these elements and purpose/reason require detailed further studies.

The notion of truth depends on a correlation to states of affairs in reality. There are certain words like the connectors, the negative marker *not*, and quantifiers which influence the truth value of sentences. Thus, considering the negative marker *-mA/ not* in Turkish, the sentences below are semantically anomalous:

(24)*[[Yemek yememek] için] sofraya oturdum.

(25)*Genç kız [[arkadaşının eğlenmemesi] için] parti düzenliyor.

(26)*[[Uyumayayım] diye] annem lambayı söndürdü.

(27)*[[Randevuya gecikmek] için] taksiye bindim.

(28)*[[Gerçeklerin saklı kalması] için] herşeyi anlattı.

(29)*Annem [[içeri soğuk girsin] diye] her yeri kapattı.

The negative marker *-mA/not* affect the truth value of each sentence. In Turkish, this suffix has to be placed before the tense suffix, and follow suffixes like the passive, reflexive, causative suffixes if there is any. The relation of subordinate verb and the matrix verb is interpreted with regard to the truth or falsity of statements. In order to determine the truth or falsity of the sentences above (24-29), we have to correspond the set of facts for the events with the facts of the real world. In other words we have to give correct descriptions of states of affairs in the world. In (24) my purpose of sitting at the table requires my eating something in order to set the truth condition. Regarding (25), under normal conditions, parties are held to enjoy people; thus, the young girl would give a party to make her friend have a good time. The same logical analysis may be applied to (26), the truth value of this sentence can only be provided by omitting the negative marker in the purpose clause because we normally turn off the light in order to sleep. This sentence can reflect the truth if my mother turned off the light so that I could sleep. Clearly, the negative marker *-mA/not* on the subordinate verbs have to be omitted. On the other hand, the subordinate verbs in the purpose clauses in (27-29) have to be marked by the negative suffix *-mA/not* in order to contribute to the truth value of the sentences. People get on a taxi to save time. In (27), the embedded purpose clause is false because nobody gets on a taxi to be late for his/her appointment. If we add the negative marker *-mA/not* to the subordinate verb expressing the purpose of my getting on the taxi, we will indicate the truth condition of the sentence. The empirical truth of (28) and (29), depending upon the facts of the universe, signals the negative forms of the subordinate verbs. Since the embedded clause is false in (28), it cannot express the purpose of matrix clause within a logical scope: 'he/she told everything in order to conceal the facts' is

false, the whole sentence cannot correspond to the facts in the real world with literal reading. We are not concerned with non-literal interpretation of the sentence (28) here. In the interpretation of the last example (29) expressing purpose with *diye*, there occurs a falsity without negating the subordinate verb: If we close everywhere in order to let the cold enter, this sense reflects a semantic anomaly.

Truth is taken to mean a correspondance with facts; when we negate the subordinate verb, we identify the truth value of the event. The relevance of truth conditions, with the help of drawing logical conclusions, involve rewriting these sentences by omitting or adding the negative marker *-mA/not*:

(30) [[Yemek yemek] için] sofraya oturdum.

‘I sat at the table to eat the meal.’

(31) Genç kız [[arkadaşının eğlenmesi] için] parti düzenliyor.

‘The young girl is arranging a party so that her friend would enjoy.’

(32) [[Uyuyayım] diye] annem lambayı söndürdü.

‘My mother turned off the light so that I would sleep.’

(33) [[Randevuya gecikmemek] için] taksiye bindim.

‘I took a taxi in order not to be late for the appointment.’

(34) [[Gerçeklerin saklı kalmaması] için] herşeyi anlattı.

‘She told everything so that the facts would not be concealed.’

(35) Annem [[içeri soğuk girmesin] diye] her yeri kapattı.

‘My mother closed everywhere so that the cold weather would not come in.’

A difference in word order reflects a difference in implication and therefore, has a semantic function. In terms of the operations of the word order processes, topic, focus and backgrounding are discussed in section II. 5. 1. Not only these processes but

also changing the order of the constituents determine semantic differences. The truth value may change as a result of the change in the sentence meaning.

(36) a. [[Yemek yemek] için] sofraya oturdum.

*b. [[Sofraya oturmak] için] yemek yedim.

(37) a. Genç kız [[arkadaşının eğlenmesi] için] parti düzenliyor.

?b. Genç kız [[parti düzenlemesi] için] arkadaşını eğlendiriyor.

(38) a. [[Uyuyayım] diye] annem lambayı söndürdü.

b. [[Annem lambayı söndürsün] diye] uyudum.

As it is clear from the example sentences a difference in word order reflects various constructions, some are acceptable (36a), (37a), (38a/b) whereas some are not (36b), (37b). With regard to truth conditions, normally our purpose in sitting at the table is to eat something. Thus, in (36a), the embedded clause reflects my purpose in sitting at the table. When we replace the clauses, we get a semantically unacceptable sentence: my purpose in eating something cannot be sitting at the table (36b). (37b) is also semantically anomalous; the embedded clause does not indicate the young girl's purpose in having her friend enjoy. In (38) we are involved with two possible positions. The embedded clause reflects my mother's purpose in turning off the light (38a): she wishes I would sleep. In (38b) we have another purposive construction, which reflects my purpose in sleeping: I wish my mother would turn off the light. Thus, with a change in the word order we have two different sentences.

Trying to show how the inherent semantic distinctions carried by verbs form a system of situation types is the main concern of verb semantics. Sentences formed with verbs expressing state behave differently from other verbs; in describing states, the speaker gives no information about the internal structure of the situation, does not involve

the notion of a completion of a goal. Yet, a static situation is one that is conceived of as existing, homogeneous and unchanging throughout its duration.

(39) *a. [[İngilizce bilmek] için] kurs alıyorum.

*b. [[İngilizce bilmesi] için] yardımcı oldular.

*c. [[İngilizce bilsin] diye] çok kitap aldık.

The example sentences (39a/b/c) expressing purpose with the stative verb ‘*bilmek/ to know*’ are unacceptable. The verb ‘*bilmek/ to know*’ has to portray a static situation with no internal phases or changes. Yet, from a purely semantic aspect, the combination of the lexical properties of the verb, together with those of the designated arguments present a change of state in (39). Thus, the examples entail replacing ‘*bilmek/ to know*’ with the dynamic ‘*öğrenmek/ to learn*’ because the sentences have a sense of dynamism and change (40).

(40) a. [[İngilizce öğrenmek] için] kurs alıyorum.

‘I am taking courses to learn English.’

b. [[İngilizce öğrenmesi] için] yardımcı oldular.

‘They helped him to learn English.’

c. [[İngilizce öğrensin] diye] çok kitap aldık.

‘We bought a lot of books so that he would learn English.’

Apart from these remarks we can point out that the postposition *için* is the most productive one because it allows sentences showing both natural objectivity and personal, subjective assessment. With the postposition *diye* we are relatively involved in the subjective side. When we state a natural assessment, *diye* is not acceptable (41c/d). The example sentences reflect this paradigm:

(41) a. [[Film izlemek] için] vakit geç oldu.

‘It is too late to watch a film.’

b. [[Film izlemesi] için] vakit geç oldu.

‘It is too late for her to watch a film.’

*c. [[Film izleyeceğim] diye] vakit geç oldu.

*d. [[Film izleyeyim] diye] vakit geç oldu.

(42) a. [[Film izlemek] için] geç vakte kadar oturdum.

‘I stayed up late to watch a film.’

b. [[Film izlemesi] için] geç vakte kadar oturdum.

‘I stayed up late so that he would watch a film.’

c. [[Film izleyeceğim] diye] geç vakte kadar oturdum.

d. [[Film izleyeyim] diye] geç vakte kadar oturdum.

III. 2. 2. Semantic Differences in Reason Clauses

As for expressing reason, the embedded sentences are marked as follows:

(43) a. *-DIğ-I / -(y)AcAğ-I için*

b. *-DIğ-IndAn dolayı*

c. *-DI / -mİş / -(y)AcAK / -Iyor / -Ar diye*

d. *-mA-sI yüzünden / noun + yüzünden*

In Turkish, reason and cause are expressed in similar ways. There is not a clear-cut difference between them both morphologically and syntactically (Schaaik 2001:23). Causation constitutes one of the basic categories of human cognition. It is not a category that we learn from experience but one of the categories which underlie our interpretation of experience. The important point to mention is that cause is concerned with causation

and motivation possibly established with some naturality/objectivity, whereas reason involves a relatively personal and subjective causality (Quirk et al, 1985: 484). Several types of embedded clauses- cause and effect, reason and consequence, result and circumstance- convey basic similarities of relationship to their matrix clauses. The term *Reason Clause* is the superordinate term available for all.

As it is stated before, the postpositions *için* and *diye* are used in reason clauses. With regard to our remark in III. 2.1., we can conclude that the postposition *için* is more versatile in the sense that it can be used in expressing both natural/objective causality and personal/subjective causality. However, *diye* is only used to express personal/subjective causality (Özsoy and Taylan 1998:119). That view is also supported by *diye* constructions which have more productive forms with modality markers than *için*. In asking for a reason or cause, the question word *neden* is used. It denotes ‘the reason for’ or ‘the cause of’ some states of affairs, and a reason/cause clause provides the necessary information.

The causal relation is a relation interpreted with regard to semantic relations. In a reason clause, the construction may express the perception of an inherent objective connection in the real world. The truth value of a sentence is related to its connection with the real world.

(44) a. [[Az yediği] için] kilo almıyor.

‘He does not put on weight because he eats very little.’

b. [[Düzenli suladığım] için] çiçekler çabuk büyüdü.

‘The flowers grew well because I watered them regularly.’

c. [[Yaşı küçük olduğu] için] ehliyet alamadı.

‘He could not get a driving licence because he is young.’

The truth conditions of these sentences clearly reflect an objective causation and motivation. A person normally does not gain weight if he/she eats less (44a). The natural cause of the flowers' growing is that I watered them regularly (44b). The reason for his/her not being able to get a driving licence is his/her being young (44c). The truth value of these sentences are violated by the negative marker *-mA/not*. In (45a), (45b) and (45c) the sentences are semantically unacceptable because this marker affects the truth conditions which correspond with the facts of the world.

(45) *a. [[Az yemediği] için] kilo almıyor.

*b. [[Düzenli sulamadığım] için] çiçekler çabuk büyüdü.

*c. [[Yaşı küçük olduğu] için] ehliyet alabildi.

Tense is the grammatical expression of some sort of temporality. In expressing reason/cause, there is generally a rational temporal sequence. In these clauses what precedes the postposition is a reason/cause, and what follows the postposition is a consequence/effect. There should be a logical time and causality relation between the embedded verb and the matrix verb. Time relation of the verbs within the clauses should be consistent with the time relation of these events in the real world. To provide the truth conditions of sentences, the order of the cause and the consequence should be logical. Generally, the temporal sequence suggests that the situation in the embedded clause precedes in time that of the matrix clause.

(46) a. [[Çok yemek yediğim] için] yürüyüşe çıktım/ çıkıyorum.

b. [[Çok yemek yedim] diye] yürüyüşe çıktım/ çıkıyorum.

'I went for a walk because I had eaten a lot.'

The temporal sequence in (46a/b) requires that 'going walking' is an action which has to take place after 'eating too much'. Our world knowledge also supports this

fact. Thus, the embedded verbs expressing a past action are acceptable. But in (47a/b), this sequence is violated when the embedded verbs are marked by tense suffixes expressing a future action:

(47) *a. [[Çok yemek yiyeceğim] için] yürüyüşe çıktım/ çıkıyorum.

*b. [[Çok yemek yiyeceğim] diye] yürüyüşe çıktım/ çıkıyorum.

(47a/b) are ungrammatical because the embedded verb suffixes point out the second action; thus, the reason would happen after the consequence. Such a relation cannot be accepted with respect to truth conditions. The examples are ungrammatical because of this time relation. When the time relation reflects a rational temporal sequence, the sentences are acceptable (48a/b).

(48) a. [[Yeni işe başlayacağı] için] çok heyecanlandı/ heyecanlanıyor.

b. [[Yeni işe başlayacak] diye] çok heyecanlandı/ heyecanlanıyor.

‘He is excited because he will start a new job.’

When *için* and *diye* express reason, there is a relatively personal and subjective assessment. As it is discussed before, in expressing objective causation *diye* constructions are not acceptable (49b/ 50b).

(49) a. [[Az yediği] için] kilo almıyor.

‘He does not put on weight because he eats very little.’

*b. [[Az yedi] diye] kilo almıyor.

(50) a. [[Hızlı yürüdüğü] için] bize yetişti.

‘He caught up with us because he walked fast.’

*b. [[Hızlı yürüdü] diye] bize yetişti.

Diye constructions can have different tense/aspect and modality markers. The factive past tense marker *-DI*, the inferential past tense marker *-mİş*; the factive

nominalization marker *-(y)AcAK* ; the progressive marker *-Iyor*, and the aorist *-Ar* not only express time but also have modality functions (Yavaş, 1980; Johanson 1994; Kornfilt 1997 ;Özsoy and Taylan, 1998); in traditional studies, the modality and aspectual features of these markers are not taken into consideration. The aspectual properties are expressed as perfective and imperfective. Comrie (1978) defines the perfective aspect as a way of viewing the totality of a situation without reference to its internal temporal constituency and the imperfective aspect as an explicit reference to the internal temporal structure of a situation. Smith (1991) gives a similar definition and states that perfectivity includes the viewing of the beginning and the end of a situation, while imperfectivity focuses on the middle phase unspecifying the end. Saeed (1997) explains the difference between perfectivity and imperfectivity as producing a distinction between complete and incomplete action.

In utterances where the intended meaning is that of possibility, *-Iyor*, *-(y)AcAk* or *-Ar* can show acceptable situations with respect to aspectual notions carried by the verb itself. These markers describe imperfective and prospective aspect, while the past tense suffixes *-DI*, *-mİş* and the factive nominal *-DIK* function as perfective aspect markers. The use of prospective/imperfective marker as opposed to perfective is obligatory when there is the meaning of possibility and the likelihood of the fulfillment of a condition is high. In (51a/b) the embedded clauses indicate an incomplete action and mark the probability of this future event: we can conclude that he/she has not engaged yet. The possibility of his/her being engaged is the reason for his/her buying clothes. The use of perfective marker *-mİş* indicates that the speaker did not witness the event but infers it via circumstantial evidence or hearsay. In (51c/d/e) the action *-getting engaged-* is completed. That is why he/she has bought/is buying clothes.

(51) a. [[Nişanlanacağı] için] yeni kıyafetler aldı/ alıyor.

‘She bought new clothes as she will get engaged.’

b. [[Nişanlanacak] diye] yeni kıyafetler aldı/ alıyor.

c. [[Nişanlandığı] için] yeni kıyafetler aldı/ alıyor.

d. [[Nişanlandı] diye] yeni kıyafetler aldı/ alıyor.

e. [[Nişanlanmış] diye] yeni kıyafetler aldı/ alıyor.

Yavaş (1980: 70) claims that there is growing linguistic evidence indicating a close affinity between future tense markers and modal categories. This is due to the element of uncertainty that is inherent both in future events and in the application of modal categories. The factive nominalization marker *-(y)AcAK*, the progressive marker *-Iyor*, and the aorist *-Ar* can be used in describing future events. Yet, there are some semantic differences depending on the degree of certainty or the type of knowledge the speaker predicts on. As it is discussed in the previous section, *-(y)AcAK* is used both in making presumptive statements about non-future happenings and predictions about future events. In the case when the future event is viewed as contingent on the present plan or intention, *-(y)AcAK* marks present decision, intention, plan or cause of a future event (52a/b). If the prediction of the future event is based on the information that it is planned and scheduled, *-(y)AcAK* and *-Iyor* are acceptable (52a/b/c). The aorist *-Ar* cannot be used when the probability of the future event is high (52d), because this marker shows that the future event is not a planned one and expresses weaker certainty than *-(y)AcAK* and *-Iyor*. The stronger the speaker feels about the certainty of the event, the more likely he/she will use *-(y)AcAK*. *-Iyor* can be used when the event is a scheduled/planned or fixed one (Yavaş, 1980). With the postpositions *için* and *diye*, the sentences indicate the reason for which the subject takes some action.

(52) a. [[Yeni işe başlayacağı] için] çok heyecanlı/ heyecanlanıyor.

‘He is excited because he will start a new job.’

b. [[Yeni işe başlayacak] diye] çok heyecanlı/ heyecanlanıyor.

c. [[Yeni işe başlıyor] diye] çok heyecanlı/ heyecanlanıyor.

*d. [[Yeni işe başlar] diye] çok heyecanlı/ heyecanlanıyor.

(53) a. Kadın, [[çocuk ağlayacağı] için] odasından çıkmazmış.

‘The woman does not leave the room as the child will cry.’

b. Kadın, [[çocuk ağlayacak] diye] odasından çıkmazmış.

c. Kadın, [[çocuk ağlıyor] diye] odasından çıkmazmış.

d. Kadın, [[çocuk ağlar] diye] odasından çıkmazmış.

In the examples above (53a/b), the embedded reason clauses with –(y)AcAk are simply presuming that the child would cry. With –Iyor the progressive aspect is indicated and the embedded clause expresses the reason why the woman had not left the room at the time being in imperfective aspectual sense (53c). The habitual aspect is indicated by the aorist –Ar; it is used to characterize some behaviour/property as being typical of or inherent to an individual or entity. It is also used to make predictions about future happenings, not on the basis of a certain plan or decision to carry out but on the basis of what is known to be true about the actualization of the future event. Thus, (53d) shows that it is the characteristic of the child to cry whenever the woman leaves the room, it is a repeated behaviour. Yavaş (1980) states that the aorist has the effect of characterizing the entity in question, while the progressive reports a certain behaviour of it.

Habitual and generic statements are characterizing statements. In Turkish the aorist indicates aspect and mood rather than tense and temporal structure (Yavaş, 1980). Thus, when a behaviour is perceived as being typical or characteristic of an entity, we

regard it as a permanent property of that entity. Özsoy and Taylan (1998:121) mentions that the stative verbs are durative and gain a habitual aspect with the aorist but this aspect does not co-occur with the presumptive modal aspect of the aorist. Thus, the sentence construction with *-Ar diye* is not used with stative verbs (54). The sentences are only acceptable when used with *-DIK için* structure (54').

(54) *a. [[Uyumak isterim]diye] lambayı söndürdüm.

*b. [[Arkadaşına güvenir] diye] kavgaya karıştı.

*c. [[Seni sever] diye] hatalarını görmüyor.

*d. [[İngilizce bilir] diye] yurtdışına çıkacak.

*e. [[Allah'a inanır] diye] müslüman olmuş.

(54') a. [[Uyumak istediğim]için] lambayı söndürdüm.

'I turned off the light because I wanted to sleep.'

b. [[Arkadaşına güvendiği] için] kavgaya karıştı.

'He was involved in a row because he relied on his friend.'

c. [[Seni sevdiği] için] hatalarını görmüyor.

'He does not see your mistakes as he loves you.'

d. [[İngilizce bildiği] için] yurtdışına çıkacak.

'She will go abroad as she knows English.'

e. [[Allah'a inandığı] için] müslüman olmuş.

'He converted into Muslem religion as he believes in God.'

Yet, we should be careful about the affecting factors in semantics. Aspectual features are closely related with the notion of event and event structure. Although the sentences above (54) are not acceptable, we may produce acceptable sentences with *-Ar diye+a state verb* with regard to the aspectual use of the aorist *-Ar*

and the compositional nature of lexical aspect. The example sentences (55) reflect the result of an interaction between lexical aspect and structural ones (the characteristics of the designated complement). Regarding the linguistic fact that Complements/ Arguments affect the properties of verbs, lexical aspect is not a property of isolated verbs (Verykul, 1973; Smith, 1991). Thus, we provide acceptable sentences with *-Ar diye+a state verb*:

(55) a. Bu kitabı [[okumak istersin] diye] getirdim.

‘I brought this book so that you would like to read it.’

b. Nasılsa [[seni sever] diye] bekliyoruz.

‘We expect that he will love you anyway.’

c. [[Herşeyi bilir] diye] ona sordular.

‘They asked him thinking that he knows everything.’

There are difficulties in treating predicates expressing mental activities. Verbs like *sevmek*, *beğenmek*, *bilmek*... express mental activities. They are regarded as happening beyond the will, intention and the conscious control of the individual. Regarding different sentences with the stative verbs, we can infer that some of these verbs are more strongly stative than others or some are not true statives (Yavaş 1980; Binnick 1991; Saeed 1997). The effect of Complements/Arguments on the properties of verbs should be taken into consideration. When we consider the state verb ‘*bilmek/ to know*’, ‘*sorunun cevabını bilmek/ knowing the answer to a question*’ has a different property than ‘*yüzmeyi bilmek/ knowing how to swim*’ or ‘*İngilizce bilmek/ knowing English*’.

(56) a. [[İyi İngilizce bildiği] için] çeviri yapmaya başladı.

*b. [[İyi İngilizce bileceği] için] çeviri yapmaya başladı.

c. [[İyi İngilizce biliyor] diye] çeviri yapmaya başladı.

*d. [[İyi İngilizce bilir] diye] çeviri yapmaya başladı.

*e. [[İyi İngilizce bilecek] diye] çeviri yapmaya başladı.

*f. [[İyi İngilizce bildi] diye] çeviri yapmaya başladı.

*g. [[İyi İngilizce bilmiş] diye] çeviri yapmaya başladı.

In (56), the embedded clauses explain the reason for the situation expressed by the matrix verb. (56b) is unacceptable because of the truth conditions. $-(y)AcAk$ expresses futurity as a tense marker but as a modal, it also expresses intention, plan or cause of a future event. The aorist $-Ar$ both shows habitual aspect and indicates that the speaker has weaker presumptions about the future. $-(y)AcAk$ expresses stronger presumption than the aorist $-Ar$. These suffixes function as presumptive modality markers and produce unacceptable sentences (56b/d/e). There occurs a restriction because statives are defined as predicates that are true at every moment of an interval, whereas the presumptive modality markers contradict with this sense. The example (56c) has the progressive suffix with a stative verb in the embedded clause. In Turkish all predicates-except the copula- can occur with the progressive. $-Iyor$ is used to express the progressive aspect. The past tense markers $-DI$ and $-mİş$ in (56f/g), with the state verb *bilmek* /to know produce unacceptable sentences. The past tense suffix $-DI$ has two functions: it is purely temporal and less temporal (Yavaş, 1980). In its temporal use, $-DI$ locates an event or state within a period that excludes the present moment. In its less temporal use this marker has a subjunctive function, the speaker chooses to view the situation from a past point not because the situation is past but because the speaker is not sure about the truth of the proposition presented at the time of the speech. It also marks an end point, which triggers a change of state. $-mİş$ is generally accepted as an aspect marker. Anteriority of the embedded event to the time of the matrix event is marked by this suffix.

When we consider the relationship between lexical aspect and grammatical aspect in terms of our example set (56), we claim that as '*İngilizce bilmek/knowing English*' can be regarded as having a [-telic] feature, we cannot produce acceptable sentences with the perfective aspect markers *-DI* and *-miş*. However, although '*bilmek/to know*' is a state verb, '*sorunun cevabını bilmek/ knowing the answer to a question*' has a [+telic] feature and this structure allows us to produce acceptable sentences with these markers (57):

(57) [[Cevapları bildi/ bilmiş] diye] büyük ödülü o kazandı.

'He got the top prize since he knew the answers.'

Regarding temporal and aspectual features enabled us to conclude that generalizations may have counter examples. Acceptable sentences with *-Ar diye+a state verb* (55) and the [+telic]/[-telic] features of the stative verb '*bilmek/to know*' (56, 57) support our conclusion. Thus, we claim that modality and aspect are interrelated with both the context and the compositional nature of the verb.

III. 2. 3. Other Structures Denoting Purpose or Reason

In Turkish, apart from the structures discussed above, it is possible to express purpose and reason/cause in some other ways. The sentences may be morphologically or syntactically marked. The dative case suffix *-A*, the ablative case suffix *-DAn*, the conjunctions *çünkü/ because*, the transition signal *bu yüzden/because of this* and the construction with *-A göre* are the alternative ways that are used to express purpose and reason/cause.

1- The dative case suffix -A:

Another way of expressing purpose is simply to put the infinitive/nominalized verb in the dative -A:

(58) a. Babam [biraz *uyumaya*] gitti.

‘My father went to have a sleep.’

b. Derviş [ekonomiyi *düzeltemeye*] çalışıyor.

‘Derviş is trying to stabilize the economy.’

c. [Sizi *yolculamaya*] gelmişler.

‘They came to see you off.’

d. Yurtdışına [dil *öğrenmeye*] gidecek.

‘He will go abroad to learn a language.’

The dative case marker –A may also be used to denote reason. In this structure the factive nominalizer –DIK is required. The embedded clause expresses the reason of the action in the matrix clause. Psych-verbs are used as the matrix verb.

(59) a. [Cevap *yazamadığıma*] kızdınız mı?

‘Are you angry at the fact that I could not answer you.’

b. [Üniversite sınavını *kazandığıma*] çok sevindik.

‘We are happy about the fact that you have won the university exam.’

c. [Seninle *tanıştığıma, arkadaş olduğuma*] pişmanım.

‘I regret meeting, making friends with you.’

d. [İşsiz *kaldığıma*] üzüldüm.

‘I am sorry for your being unemployed.’

2- The ablative case suffix *-DAn*:

As Kornfilt (1997:234) mentions, the ablative case marker *-DAn* presents a productive way to express cause. The constructions *-DIğ-IndAn dolayı*, *-DAn*, and *yüzünden* all consist the ablative suffix. Underhill (1976:221) uses the term ‘ablative of cause’ to explain the construction in which the postposition *dolayı* is omitted. The noun/noun phrase in the ablative indicates the reason for which the action is performed. In this structure the nominalized clause is only marked by a case marker *-DAn* without a postposition; the embedded verb is marked with the possessive suffix agreeing with its subject in person. The case marker *-DAn* inherently signals *cause* and is not assigned by the verb of the matrix clause. Uslu (2001:126) discusses the use of this marker in expressing causation and claims that it is used to show objective causation. With regard to the example sentences we can also conclude that *-DAn* structure signals objective causation.

(60) a. [Düzenli *çalışmadığından*] başarısız oldu/ olacak.

‘He was unsuccessful for not working regularly.’

b. [Hava *soğuduğundan*] içeri girdik.

‘We went in as the weather got cold.’

*c. [Seninle *buluşamadığımdan*] canım sıkıldı.

*d. [Üşüdüğünden] odadan dışarı çıkmak istemiyor.

When the causation is subjective as in (60b/c), *-DIğ-I / -(y)AcAğ-I için* structure is acceptable:

(61) a. [[Seninle *buluşamadığım*] için] canım sıkıldı.

b. [[Üşüdüğü] için] odadan dışarı çıkmak istemiyor.

The ablative case suffix *-Dan* may also be attached to the infinitive *-mAk* to denote reason/cause (62). The subject of the embedded clause is not expressed because the subjects of the main clause and the embedded clause are coreferential in the *-mAk-tAn* structure.

(62) a. *Ağlamaktan* gözlerim şişti.

'My eyes have swollen because of crying.'

b. *Yürümekten* yoruldum.

'I grew tired of walking.'

c. *Çalışmaktan* bunalmış.

'He feels tired of working.'

d. *Gülmekten* patlayacak.

'He will burst due to laughing.'

e. *Boş oturmaktan* bıktım, usandım.

'I am tired of sitting lazily.'

Predicative adjectives and nouns suffixed with the ablative case marker also express reason/cause (63).

(63) a. *Sıcaktan* bunalıyorum.

'I am choked by the hot weather.'

b. *Soğuktan* donacaklar.

'They will freeze because of the cold weather.'

c. *Yorgunluktan* uykum kaçtı.

'I have difficulty in falling asleep due to fatigue.'

d. *Açlıktan* başına ağrı girmiş.

'He has had a headache because of hunger.'

3- *Çünkü/because*:

Çünkü/because introduces reason clauses. It is a conjunction denoting causal relation between two clauses; predicates of both clauses are fully inflected. In Turkish, syntactically marked embedded clauses have a finite verb and are marked by subordinating particles, which precede the embedded clause and postpositions which follow the embedded clause. An embedded clause marked by *çünkü* follows the main clause (64), whereas one marked by a postposition precedes the main clause. As Erguvanlı (1979) states the word order variation seen in embedded sentences that are introduced by *çünkü* is idiosyncratic, which may be due to the fact that it is a borrowed construction and thus has its own syntactic peculiarities. The position of the embedded clause is fixed in the sentence, that it can only follow the main clause and cannot precede it. None of the constituents of the *çünkü* clause may be extracted and moved into the main clause. Constituents of the embedded clause may not precede *çünkü*. Kornfilt (1997:138) mentions *çünkü* as an anaphoric expression applying in a configuration where the antecedent is in the preceding superordinate clause and the anaphoric expression is in the embedded clause.

(64) a. Kitabı bitiremedim *çünkü* sıkıcıydı.

‘I could not finish the book because it was boring.’

b. Dün okula gelemedim *çünkü* çok hastaydım.

‘I could not come to school as I was very ill.’

c. Kapıyı kırdım *çünkü* anahtarını kaybetmişim.

‘I smashed the door as I have lost the key.’

d. Tatile gideceğiz *çünkü* çok yorulduk.

‘We will go on holiday as we got very tired.’

e. Aspirin içti *çünkü* başı ağrıyordu.

‘He took an aspirin as he had a headache.’

4- *Bu yüzden/Because of this, As a result, Therefore*

This conjunctive structure is composed of a *pronoun+postposition*. *Bu yüzden/because of this* is used to signal the cause and effect relations and connects the ideas between two sentences. This construction occurs in clauses which present an event or a state of affairs as resulting from that described in the preceding sentence. Thus, it has a syntactic function. We can use this structure only at the beginning of the second sentence that shows the effect (65).

(65) a. Rahatsız ettiğimi düşündüm. *Bu yüzden*, özür dileyerek dışarı çıktım.

‘I thought I had disturbed you. That is why I went out apologizing.’

b. Çok acıkmıştı; *bu yüzden* hemen birşeyler atıştırdı.

‘He was very hungry, so he ate something.’

c. Yağmur yağıyordu. *Bu yüzden*, sinemaya gittiler.

‘It was raining so they went to the cinema.’

d. Misafir gelecekmiş; *bu yüzden* hazırlık yapıyoruz.

‘We will have some guests. That is why we are making preparations.’

5- *-A göre:*

-A göre expresses an inferred causal relationship between the action of the embedded clause and that of the matrix clause. With this structure more peripheral uses of reason clauses express an indirect reason. That is to say, the reason is not related to the situation in the matrix clause but is a motivation for the implicit speech act of the utterance (66).

(66) a. [[Seni bu hücreye *attıkların*]-*a göre*] işkence yapacaklar.

‘As they put you in a cell, they will torture you.’

b. [[Burada *olduğun-ja göre*] bana yardım edebilirsin.

‘As you are here, you can help me.’

c. [[*Sustuğun-ja göre*] suçu kabul ediyorsun.

‘As you keep silent , you accept the fault.’

d. [[Bu saate kadar *gelmediğin-je göre*] gecikecek.

‘As he has not come so far, he is to be late.’

III. 3. Summary

In this chapter, we have made a semantic analysis of Postpositional Purpose and Reason Clauses in Turkish. As syntactic features determine semantic differences in Turkish, we try to describe why expressions which are syntactically well-formed can be unacceptable from the semantic point of view. We claim that there is an inherent idea of reason within purpose clauses. Thus, certain constructions may express both purpose and reason. Moreover, reason and cause are expressed in similar ways; the type of causality determines the interpretation in that case. Cause is concerned with natural/objective causality whereas reason is concerned with personal/subjective causality. Truth conditions, modality markers, lexical and grammatical aspect all influence the interpretation of sentences. This chapter also discusses other structures expressing purpose and reason/cause in Turkish.

CONCLUSION

Certain phrases in languages carry a connotation of purpose and reason/cause. Thus, Postpositional Purpose and Reason Clauses are common forms of constructions that are used to convey these notions. Although the postpositional phrases denoting purpose and reason/cause have distinct properties, they are not accounted for adequately in the traditional studies of Turkish. These embedded constructions are used adverbially, they have certain syntactic and semantic features that operate inherently. There occur restrictions with regard to the postposition in question, temporal, modal or aspectual properties and compositional nature of the embedded or matrix verbs have to be taken into consideration. In this study, we have tried to analyse all these features, which cover the determining factors for the syntactic and semantic description of these clauses.

The aim of this study is to give a complete account of Postpositional Purpose and Reason Clauses in Turkish. While studying the syntactic and semantic features of these constructions we have pointed out the following issues:

- i) These clauses are adjuncts to their matrix clauses.
- ii) An infinitival non-finite Purpose Clause has a non-overt subject PRO, which is controlled by the matrix subject.
- iii) In Reason Clauses there is non-control structure because they are consisting of finite clauses. Person/case suffixes function as the obligatory controller.
- iv) The tense, aspect and modality markers on the embedded verb determine the interpretation of the embedded clause, either express purpose or reason/cause.

- v) Purpose Clauses have two interpretations. They primarily express purpose but there is also an inherent idea of reason occurring in these clauses.
- vi) There is a logical time and causality relation between the embedded verb and the matrix verb.
- vii) Reason and cause are expressed in similar ways; however, cause is concerned with natural/objective causality and reason involves personal/subjective causality.
- viii) The postposition *için* has both natural/objective and personal/subjective assessment.
- ix) The postposition *diye* reflects personal/subjective assessment.
- x) The postposition *diye* is versatile in the sense that it can have different tense, aspect and modality markers.

Regarding all these concluding points we have simply summarized this study with a table reflecting the use of constructions expressing purpose and reason/cause in Turkish (Table 4):

Grammatical feature	Part of speech	Syntactic features	Denotation	Type of causality	Example sentences
için	postposition	-mAk için	Purpose	Subjective	Öğrenciler konferans vermek için bekliyorlar.
		-mAk için	Reason		
		-mAsI için	Purpose		
		-mAsI için	Reason		
		-DıĖI/ -(y)AcAĖI için	Reason/Cause		
diye	postposition	-A diye	Purpose	Subjective	Arkadaşımın eğlenmesi için parti düzenliyorum.
		-A diye	Reason		
		-(y)AcAk diye	Purpose		
		-(y)AcAk diye	Reason		
		-DI/-mIs/ -Iyor/ -Ar diye	Reason		
dolayı	postposition	Adj + diye	Reason/Cause	Subjective/Objective	Hasta diye iki gündür okula gelmiyor.
		N + dolayı	Reason/Cause		
		-DıĖIndAn dolayı	Reason/Cause		
		-mAsI yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
yüzünden	postposition	N + -A (nominalization)	Purpose	Subjective/Objective	Yağmurdan/ Hava soğuduğundan dolayı dışarı çıkmıyoruz.
		N/Adj. + -DAn infinitive+-DAn	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
-a (the dative case marker)	conjunction	N + -A (nominalization)	Purpose	Subjective/Objective	Yanlış bilgi vermesi yüzünden hata yaptık. Senin yüzünden azar işiteceğim.
		N/Adj. + -DAn infinitive+-DAn	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
-DAn (the ablative case marker)	transitional signal	N + -A (nominalization)	Purpose	Subjective/Objective	Babam uyumaya gitti. İşsiz kaldığımızı üzülüm.
		N/Adj. + -DAn infinitive+-DAn	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
çünkü	conjunction	N + -A (nominalization)	Purpose	Subjective/Objective	Yorgunluktan uykum kaçtı. Sıcaktan bunaldılar. Ağlamaktan gözleri şişmişti.
		N/Adj. + -DAn infinitive+-DAn	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
bu yüzden	transitional signal	N + -A (nominalization)	Purpose	Subjective/Objective	Kıyayı kırdım çünkü anahtarını kaybetmişim. Çok acıkmıştı; bu yüzden hemen birşeyler atıştırdı.
		N/Adj. + -DAn infinitive+-DAn	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
		N + yüzünden	Reason/Cause		
-A göre	postposition	N + -A göre	Cause	Objective	Sustuğuna göre suçu kabul ediyor.
		N + -A göre	Cause		

Table 4: Syntactic and semantic representations of Purpose and Reason Clauses in Turkish.

ÖZET

Bu çalışmada, Türkçe’de amaç ve neden gösteren ilgeç yantümcelerinin sözdizimsel ve anlambilimsel özelliklerinin betimlenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Genel olarak, geleneksel yaklaşımla hazırlanmış olan Türkçe dilbilgisi kitaplarında bu alanda yapılan çalışmaların yetersiz olduğu göz önüne alınarak, kapsamlı bir çalışma yapılmıştır.

Giriş bölümünde araştırma problemi tanıtılmış, çalışmanın amaçları, veri tabanının ne biçimde oluşturulduğu ve sınırlamalar belirtilmiştir.

I. bölümde, tarihsel olarak sözcük türlerine yaklaşımlara değinilmiş, Türkçe’de ilgeç kavramının nitelikleri üzerine yapılan çalışmalara yer verilmiştir.

II. bölümde, amaç ve neden gösteren ilgeç yantümcelerinin sözdizimsel özellikleri incelenmiştir. *Amaç* ve *neden* gösteren ilgeç tümcelerinin iç yapısı çizilmiş, sözdizimsel kısıtlamalar ve dilbilgisel olarak kabuledilemeyen yapılar bu bölümde betimlenmiştir.

III. bölümde, amaç ve neden gösteren ilgeç yantümcelerinin anlambilimsel özellikleri tartışılmıştır. *Amaç*, *neden* ve *sebep* kavramları tanımlanmaya çalışılmış, anlambilimsel olarak kabul edilebilir tümcelerinin kurulmasında rol oynayan unsurlar üzerinde durulmuştur. Ayrıca, Türkçe’de ilgeç yantümceleleri dışında amaç ve neden gösteren farklı yapılardan örnekler verilmiştir.

SUMMARY

Throughout the study we have tried to describe the syntactic and semantic principles which determine the way Postpositional Purpose and Reason Clauses in Turkish are built up. Having realized the inadequate studies on this field, we focused our study on the syntactic and semantic representations of these constructions. Our purpose is to provide a complete detailed account of them in Turkish. We hope that the points presented here will give rise to new questions which may help in the description of Turkish.

Introduction offers the problems, the hypothesis and the purpose of the study. The data and limitations are also included in this section.

Chapter I introduces the historical background to the studies of parts of speech in English and in Turkish. It also discusses the term postposition in Turkish and how it is treated in traditional studies.

Chapter II discusses the syntactic features of Postpositional Purpose and Reason Clauses in Turkish. It illustrates the tree diagrams of these constructions and identifies the syntactic constraints. This chapter also identifies case marking and control structure within Postpositional Purpose and Reason Clauses. Moreover, it discusses word order correlations with regard to scrambling the constituents in Purpose and Reason Clauses. The points that give rise to grammatical unacceptability are all described in this chapter.

Chapter III is concerned with the semantic features and discusses the interpretation of Postpositional Purpose and Reason Clauses in Turkish. It describes the notions of purpose, *reason* and *cause*. This chapter is focused on the determining factors of the syntactically and semantically well-formed Purpose and Reason Clauses. We also

consider the question of how these factors are related to the interpretation of these constructions. Thus, this chapter is mainly focused on the meaning, regarding truth conditions; lexical aspect; tense, aspect and modality markers. Furthermore, to complete the study, apart from the postpositional constructions discussed, we also introduce certain structures that are used to express purpose and reason/cause in Turkish.



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Combiden Clauses in "Huzur" the Novel of Ahmet Hamdi
TANPINAR (SUMMARY)

In the study, we have examined the structure of the sentences in "Huzur" the novel of Ahmet Hamdi Tanpınar who is one of the most important authors of Turk Literature.

Ahmet Hamdi Tanpınar had used all kinds of clauses in his novel. Now ever as our subject is combiden sentences we have given importance to combiden clauses at the point of structure. We dividet Clauses that we admitted as combiden clauses into seven groups. As a result seven kinds of combiden clauses as sequenced combidens connected compounds, Relative combidens conditionat combidens, combined combiden interval clause and comlex compound statements have been appearet.

The total number of all combiden clauses is about 2187.

Combiden clauses have been examined in the view of structure and meaning of the sentences. First of all, the meaning relations which form combiden clauses in the sentences have been kried to find aut so, the clauses which will the best samples for varies meaning relations have been pefered although the clauses had been tried to examine in the view of their meaning without to any data-its. The mast importance has been given to the structured fortures of the sentences in this thes the most used kind of compound clause in the novel of huzur is sequenced compound clauses at a number of 900. The complex compound statements at the number of 469 come after the sequenced compound statements. The combined compound clauses zake the third, the connected compound clauses, the forth, the conditionat compounds, the fifth, the relative compounds, the sixth the interval clauses, the sevent place in this ord.

In testing considencion of verb tenses in the poin of simple and inflectional compound sentences at the number of 2125, It has been found aut that verbs which consist of simple inflectional verbs are intensively used, That the verbs which consist of simple and compound inflectional verbs in the third plas In taking consideracion of the verbs of informing and wishing, It has been determined that the veebs which consist of the simple inflectional type of verbs are mostly in the simple past tense and the verbs which consist of the compound inflectional type of the verbs are generally in the past continuous tense.

Ahmet Hamdi TANPINAR'ın Huzur Romanında Birleşik Cümleler (ÖZET)

Bu tez çalışmasında, Türk edebiyatının en büyük ustalarından biri olan Ahmet Hamdi Tanpınar'ın "Huzur" adlı romanını cümle açısından incelemiş olduk.

Ahmet Hamdi Tanpınar, romanında her türden cümleyi kullanmıştır. Ancak bizim konumuz birleşik cümle olduğu için, yapı açısından birleşik olan cümleler üzerinde durduk. Birleşik cümle olarak kabul ettiğimiz cümleleri yedi bölüme ayırdık. Bunun sonucunda sıralı birleşik, bağlı birleşik, ki'li birleşik, şartlı birleşik, iç içe birleşik, ara cümle ve karmaşık birleşik cümle diye yedi çeşit birleşik cümle ortaya çıkmıştır. Bütün birleşik cümlelerin toplam sayısı ise, yaklaşık 2187 adet kadardır.

Birleşik cümlelere yapı ve anlam açısından yaklaşılmıştır. Özellikle birleşik cümleleri oluşturan cümleler arasında görülen anlam ilişkileri tespit edilmeye çalışılmıştır. Bunun için de çeşitli anlam ilişkilerine en iyi örnek olabilecek cümleler tercih edilmiştir. Her ne kadar cümleler, anlamları açısından fazla ayrıntıya girilmeden incelenmeye çalışılmışsa da, bu tezde ağırlıklı noktayı cümlelerin yapı özellikleri oluşturmuştur.

Huzur romanında en çok kullanılan birleşik cümle türü, 900 adetle sıralı birleşik cümlelerdir. Sıralı birleşik cümlelerden sonra ise 469 adetle karmaşık birleşik cümlelerin geldiği görülmüştür. Bu sıralamada iç içe birleşik cümleler üçüncü sırayı, bağlı birleşik cümleler dördüncü sırayı, şartlı birleşik cümleler beşinci sırayı, ki'li birleşik cümleler altıncı sırayı, ara cümleler ise yedinci sırayı almıştır.

Fiil kiplerinin basit ve birleşik çekimli olmalarına göre 2125 birleşik cümle üzerinde yapılan değerlendirmede ise, basit çekimli fiillerden oluşan yüklemelerin daha yoğun şekilde kullanıldığı, ikinci sırada birleşik çekimli fiillerden oluşan yüklemelerin geldiği, üçüncü sırada ise basit ve birleşik çekimli fiillerden oluşan yüklemelerin geldiği görülmüştür. Bildirme ve tasarlama kipleri açısından baktığımızda ise, basit çekimli fiillerden oluşan yüklemelerin büyük bir çoğunlukla belirli geçmiş zaman kipinden oluştuğu; birleşik çekimli fiillerden oluşan yüklemelerin ise, daha çok şimdiki zamanın hikâyesinden oluştuğu belirlenmiştir.

Mahmut AKSÜT: 1967 yılında Gaziantep'in Nizip ilçesinde doğdu. İlk, orta ve lise tahsilini Nizip'te tamamladı. 1986 yılında İstanbul Üniversitesi Edebiyat Fakültesi, Türk dili ve edebiyatı bölümüne girerek, bu fakülteden 1990 yılında mezun oldu. Aynı yıl Polis Akademisi giriş sınavlarını kazanarak, bir yıl eğitim gördükten sonra 1991 yılında akademiden mezun oldu ve aynı yıl Osmaniye Emniyet Müdürlüğü'nde göreve başladı. 1993 yılında Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler enstitüsü Türk dili ve edebiyatı ana bilim dalında yüksek lisansa başlayarak, 1996 yılında tezini tamamladı.

Halen Sivas Emniyet Müdürlüğü'nde Gürün İlçe Emniyet Amirliği görevini yürütmektedir.