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A STUDY ON NOUNS AND NOMINAL PROJECTIONS IN TURKISH

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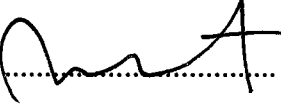
**T.C. YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURULU
DOKÜMANTASYON MERKEZİ**

Mersin Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğüne,

Bu çalışma, jürimiz tarafından İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Anabilim Dalında
YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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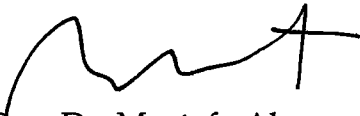
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INTRODUCTION

Noun is one of the major lexical categories in a language. In generative grammar, together with verb, adjective and preposition, noun is defined as an argument taking lexical category which can head a phrasal projection of its own and plays an important role in identifying features to set up cross-category generalizations.

The primary function of a noun (or a noun phrase) is to denote entities or concepts which participate in the action, event, or state that is expressed by the predicate of a sentence. This function renders noun (and similar nominal elements) linguistically significant since all sentences in any human language must express these participants. In grammatical terms, participants surface as major grammatical functions in a sentence like subject or object. Thus, noun and other nominal elements acquire a unique status in the grammars of a language.

This study will try to analyze certain syntactic and semantic properties of nouns and their phrasal projections. Primarily, it will investigate the essential properties of the nominal elements concentrating on their configurational relations in accordance with the

basic ideas of the Principles and Parameters Theory, a particular version of the current generative grammar. Any type of syntactic movement for any reason within a noun phrase will not be covered in this study as movements require different type of argumentation and analysis. The main purpose will be to identify those categories that may appear within a noun phrase and types of configurational relations that may hold between these categories.

Noun is a referential expression (R-expression) in that it refers to entities in the universe of a discourse. It is capable of denoting entities, substances, named individuals, or particular locations. In this respect, noun is similar to verb and adjective, which can express a meaning in contrast with the functional categories like articles, auxiliary verbs, etc., the elements that cannot usually denote a distinct entity, action, or quality. Rather, functional elements fulfill a grammatical function, helping the formation of well-formed, grammatical sentences.

When nouns and similar nominal elements denote entities and concepts, they occupy an argument position within the sentence. For instance, a nominal constituent can be the external argument (i.e., subject) of a sentence. Similarly, a nominal element can be the internal argument of a predicate, thus functioning as the object of verbs and adjectives and the object of adpositions (postpositions in Turkish). In short, major grammatical functions are expressed through noun phrases universally.

In this study, syntax and semantics of nouns and other nominal expressions in Turkish will be analyzed in terms of the assumptions adopted by X-bar Theory. In the first chapter, we will present a brief summary of the Principles and Parameters Theory with reference to its particular modules. This chapter will also summarize the basic principles of the theory which the further chapters will constantly make reference in the analyses presented.

The second chapter will review the major lexical properties of nouns in Turkish. Here, we will discuss grammatical markings on nouns in Turkish which include fundamental categories generally identify nounness such as person, number, and gender. It will become clear that while there exists a fully developed person marking paradigm, both gender and number, in the majority of cases, are marked only lexically. As for the semantics of lexical nouns, we will note on the different behavior of count/mass nouns, common/proper nouns, and concrete/abstract nouns. Furthermore, we will also note on the referential status of different classes of nouns as they are significant in terms of semantic interpretation of sentences. The chapter will conclude with a discussion on the morphological make up of nouns in Turkish, reviewing major noun deriving suffixes and differences among the borrowed and native nouns.

Chapter three will present a detailed analysis of noun phrase in Turkish. It will start with a discussion on the permissible elements in a typical noun phrase and then will concentrate on their relative ordering.

Here, the primary purpose will be to capture any relevant generalization related to both the obligatory elements and their word-classes as well as the grammatical and ungrammatical ordering of these elements. In brief, the analyses presented in this chapter will determine the syntactic slots available for linguistic elements that can serve variety of functions within a noun phrase in Turkish, like determiners and modifiers.

Chapter four will review major types of nominal compounds in Turkish. Among others, the chapter will investigate properties and internal structure of attributive, possessive, and lexical compounds. Here, the study will distinguish between syntactic compounding which includes case-assignment and compound phrases where a Compounded will act as the head of the construction.

The final chapter will investigate the processes of nominalization in Turkish. It will identify the syntactic and semantic differences among a number of nominalization suffixes and sentential constituents derived by these suffixes. Furthermore, this chapter will also analyze external distribution of sentential nominalizations and will try to find out how different types of sentential nominalization will behave when they are assigned to different argument position in a Turkish sentence.

One major theoretical issue which will arise all throughout this study should be noted here. Comparative studies indicate that with respect to determiners, languages can be categorized into two major

classes. In the first group, there are languages with full article system where there is a separate word class members of which include definite and indefinite articles. The second group consists of languages which appear with only either definite but lacking indefinite article or with indefinite article but lacking a definite article.

To what extent this type of 'universal' tendency can be transformed into a parameter or some other rule in UG is a question out of our present concern. However, what matters for this study in connection with this observation is closely connected to what is called as the Determiner Phrase Hypothesis (DP Hypothesis) which our study will adopt in its analyses. As the name implies, a Determiner Phrase is a 'functional projection' which is headed by a function word and which takes noun phrase as its complement. Again as it will become clear in the following chapters that all forms for configurational relations that hold between any head, specifier, complement, and adjunct in any phrasal projection apply in same manner within the DP as well.

This raises a fundamental question when we consider the fact that Turkish-type languages lack determiners all together. In other words, languages like Turkish do not have a separate word class of articles identifiable through syntax or morphology. Instead, Turkish makes use of lexical, morphological or syntactic/contextual devices to serve for the function that are fulfilled by articles in languages with full article system.

This study will adopt the position that despite the lack of article system, Turkish also has determiner projections as full functional phrases that are headed by certain elements which serve for purpose of setting the referential status of the nominal elements. Furthermore, arguing in favor of a DP in Turkish also helps to capture the similarities between lexical and functional projections.



CHAPTER I: THEORETICAL ISSUES

For generative linguists, the purpose of studying language is to reach a better understanding of how human mind operates. As the language is the mirror of human mind, a detailed study of human language may lead linguists to discover the mysteries of mind, a major distinction between human beings and other organisms.

Chomsky (1986:3) indicates that a theory of language should seek to find answers for three questions:

- i. What constitutes knowledge of language?
- ii. How is knowledge of language acquired?
- iii. How is knowledge of language put to use?

A study on a particular language (say, English) or more specifically the knowledge of language stored in the mind of a person will constitute the answer to the first question. The answer to the second question should explicate the "initial state" of the language faculty prior to experience and the interaction of principles specified by a Universal Grammar. The answer to the third question concerns the ways and means

of putting the knowledge of language into use for expressions of thought and understanding.

In generative context, the grammar of a particular language means a model of the linguistic abilities of a native speaker, which enables him to speak and understand his language (**competence**). Therefore, "a grammar of a language is a model of the linguistic competence of the fluent native speaker of the language" (Radford, 1981:2).

Competence can be categorized into two types: (i) **pragmatic competence** (the knowledge of speaker about the context and the world) and (ii) **grammatical competence** (the knowledge of systematic rules of the language). The grammatical competence consists of intuitions about syntactic, semantic, and phonological **well-formedness** and the intuitions about syntactic, semantic and phonological **structure**.

In this context, a generative grammar may be defined as a grammar which integrates a set of syntactic, semantic, and phonological rules that specify how to form, interpret, and pronounce a given set of sentences. Such a grammar is said to generate that set of sentences (Radford, 1981:19).

Any attempt to design a model for linguistic competence of a native speaker should meet three criteria proposed by Chomsky as follows:

- i. observational adequacy
- ii. descriptive adequacy
- iii. explanatory adequacy

When a grammar correctly predicts which sentences are (and are not) syntactically, semantically, and phonologically well-formed in the language, it is said to be observationally adequate. If a grammar correctly describes the syntactic, semantic, and phonological structure of the sentences in addition to its correct predictions on the well-formedness of the sentences, it is considered to be a descriptively adequate grammar. Finally, a grammar achieves explanatory adequacy if it fulfills the previous requirements in a way that all these can be learned by the child in limited time period with a limited data. In other words, all these requirements must be formulated in the simplest manner by proposing maximally general principles.

The development of generative grammar is always marked with constant revisions and additions. The different stages of the model has been given different titles: the *Standard Theory*, the *Extended Standard Theory*, the *Principles and Parameters Theory* (the Government-Binding Theory), and finally, the *Minimalist Program*. Although these continuing changes in the theory is taken to be a sign of major deficit in the overall architecture of the theory by the critics, Chomsky claims that this is a clear sign of continuing interest in the theory further indicating that the theory is developing.

One basic underlying motivation common to all stages in the development of generative theory is to explain complex linguistic structures through the most simple rules and principles. This motivation is the basic premise to achieve explanatory adequacy as mentioned earlier.

To achieve this end, the successive models of generative grammar tried to simplify the rules and principles and to avoid deriving construction specific explanations. Previously, explanation of derivation was achieved most heavily by one component of the model, namely the transformational component, following in the years after the publication of *Aspects*. It was then possible to write a transformational rule for any observable difference in the structure of sentences. This ultimately led to a tension between the demands of descriptive adequacy and the explanatory adequacy.

The task in hand was obviously to reduce the power of the transformational component. In a three successive papers in the early 1970s, Chomsky made important steps towards this purpose. In an important study, Ross indicated that there are structures (i.e., islands) which are immune to the effects of transformational operations. Following this tradition, Chomsky first indicated that a theory of grammar should distinguish between derived nominals and gerundives and arguing that only gerundives can be derived transformationally.

Together with the attempts towards the reduction of the power of the transformational component, the developments in the theory of

Lexicon and the theory of Phrase Structure rules further contributed to the simplification of the overall rule system. For example, it became apparent that information regarding syntax and semantics of a lexical item which is already stated in the Lexicon reappears with the same content but in a different format in the Phrase Structure rules.

To illustrate this situation, we may take a transitive verb like *read*: the subcategorization information regarding this verb indicates that it is a transitive verb which should be followed by an NP complement which in turn should be an inanimate object. Exactly the same type of information is restated in a Phrase Structure rule where a transitive verb should be followed by an obligatory NP complement. These and similar types of efforts to reduce the burden of transformational component and to avoid the restatement of similar type linguistic information in other components led to the development of the Principles and Parameters Theory where a modular approach is preferred.

I.1. An Outline of the *Principles and Parameters Theory*

The Principles and Parameters Theory defines four levels of linguistic representations namely Deep Structure, Surface Structure, Phonological Form, and Logical Form. All these levels of representation are related to each other through Move- α which practically means move, delete, or add an element. The modules of the grammar function not interactively but rather in an input-output manner where each module has its own specific principles. In addition to these modules or otherwise

called subtheories, which apply at a particular level of representation, there are a number of overriding principles. To compensate the loss of descriptive statements the theory furthermore introduces a number of parameters which accounts for the observed differences among the grammars of particular languages. Following are the principles and modules of the theory:

The modules of the theory

1. Binding Theory
2. X-bar Theory
3. Case Theory
4. Theta Theory
5. Government Theory
6. Trace Theory
7. Control Theory

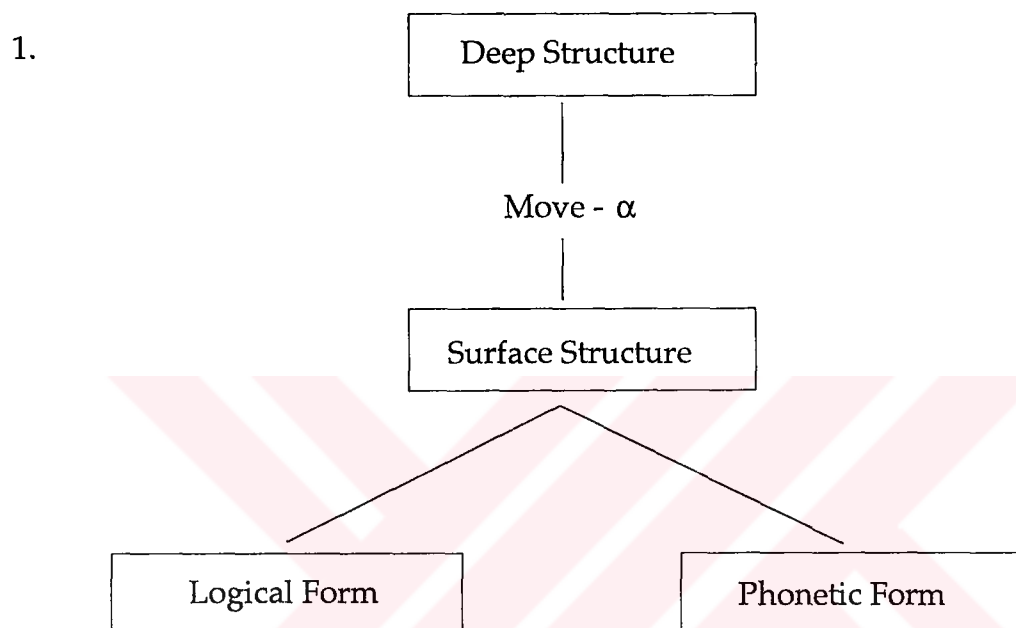
The major principles

1. The Case Filter
2. The Theta Criterion
3. The Principle of Full Interpretation
4. The Projection Principle
5. The Extended Projection Principle
6. The PRO Theorem
7. The Subjacency Principle
8. The Principle of Strict Cyclicity
9. The Empty Category Principle

10. The Bijacency Principle

11. The i-within-i Condition

What came to be known as T-model as well, can be illustrated as follows:



As Ouhalla (1994) states, the Principles and Parameters Theory consists of several modules which affect each other at different production levels of the sentences. All the modules of Principle and Parameters framework deal with certain aspects of human language. For instance, the Theta Theory constructs the bridge between syntax and semantics in terms of argument/thematic structure of predicates. It is firmly associated with the Lexicon because it is the Theta Theory that deals with the thematic structures of the predicates (verbs, adjectives, event nominals, etc.). The thematic roles of nominal constituents are

assigned by this module at the lexical level. It is the X-bar Theory which analyzes the configurational structures of phrasal constituents in languages. It assigns certain phrase structures to the lexical (and functional) elements in terms of the relations among head, complement, adjunct, and specifier. The representation of these phrase structures are restricted to only binary branching. Move- α enables the theory to deal with the transformations restricted by other principles and basic considerations. Similarly, the Case Theory deals with the surface forms of nominal expressions with respect to their argument position in a sentence.

Another component of the theory, the Lexicon, contains information about syntactic, semantic, and phonetic properties of each lexical element. This type of information functions as the input for Deep Structure (d-structure), which is the level at which the configurational properties of sentences and phrases are represented in accordance with the X-bar module of the theory. The sentences generated at d-structure are mapped to Surface Structure (s-structure) by means of the rule Move- α . Move- α is the only transformation rule that is allowed in the Principles and Parameters Theory unlike the previous versions of generative grammar. Move- α is constrained by the other modules of the theory such as Binding Theory, Case Theory, Theta Theory, Bounding Theory, and Government Theory. In the same manner, s-structures are interpreted at PF (Phonetic Form) and LF (Logical Form).

In addition to the operations carried out by these particular modules that are composed of extremely restricted generalizations, well-defined rules, and settings (parameters) for different languages, all the modules of Principles and Parameters Theory influence each other to produce complex linguistic structures.

The primary influence of the Theta theory to the other modules of the grammatical theory is the Theta Criterion which implies that syntactic structure is determined by the lexical information to a great extent:

2. **Theta Criterion**

Each argument is assigned one and only one theta role, and each theta role is assigned to one and only one argument.

(Chomsky, 1981)

In addition to Theta Criterion, the Projection Principle ensures this dependent nature of the syntactic component on the lexical information that is included in the Lexicon.

3. **The Projection Principle**

Lexical information is syntactically preserved. (Chomsky, 1981)

In other words, phrasal projections that are headed by lexical elements should project those properties of the heads in order to derive grammatically well-formed structures. Lexical properties are assumed to be present at all levels of representation, meaning that lexical information is preserved all throughout the derivation.

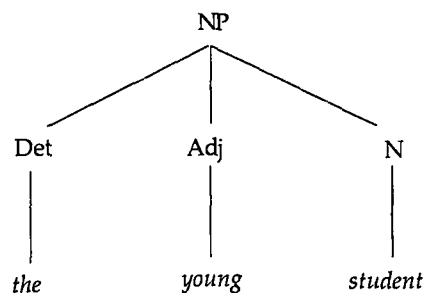
I.2. X-bar Theory

In this section, the basic motivation behind the proposal for the X-bar Theory and its general characteristics are discussed. In order to understand the significance of the X-bar module, a number of problems related with the configurational representation of syntactic structures are presented.

I.2.1. Background and Basic Motivations

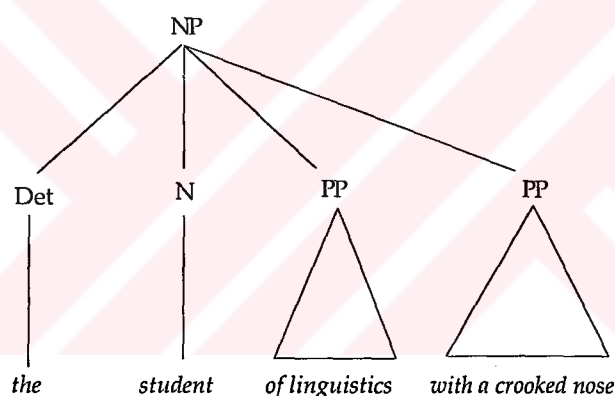
The Standard Theory in generative tradition differentiates between the two hierarchical levels of representation in order to describe the internal structure of a phrase in natural languages. These levels correspond to the **lexical item**, which heads the phrase and, therefore, determines both the syntactic and semantic properties of the phrase to a great extent, and the **phrasal projection**, which is capable of functioning as a unit within another phrase or as a constituent of a sentence. In English, for instance, the noun phrase *the young student* is usually represented as in the following **phrase marker** (PM):

4.



However, this type of representation is not adequate to represent all the structural knowledge that a native speaker has in his/her mind. For example, it is not possible to provide a sufficient explanation for the different status of the prepositional phrases (PP) *of linguistics* and *with a crooked nose* in the noun phrase *the student of linguistics with a crooked nose*. It is apparent that the following PM cannot provide a satisfactory explanation to clarify the restriction on the position of the PP *of linguistics*, which can occupy only the position between the head noun and the other PP, and which cannot follow the PP *with a crooked nose*.

5.



This type of representation cannot explain the difference between the two PPs: while the PP *of linguistics* can follow the head noun *student*, the other PP *with a crooked nose* cannot intervene between *student* and *of linguistics*. In this PM, it is impossible to observe the different status of these two constituents in terms of their relation with the head noun *student*. Intuitively, a native speaker of English knows that being a student of linguistics is inherently more firmly related to the concept *student* than having a crooked nose. The head noun

student is strongly associated with the topic that the student studies. On the other hand, having a crooked nose does not have any inherent natural semantic role in the formation of the whole phrase. Consequently, it is logical to propose that the topic that the student studies must be closer to the head noun than the physical property that the student has. Consequently, a need for a more detailed representation which can provide a more powerful description emerges.

In addition to this need, another problematic issue related with the phrasal representation of the noun phrases in (4) and (5) should be noted. The number of the branches that extend from the node NP is three in (4) while it is four in (5). The unrestricted number of the branches that spring from the topmost node (or any node indeed) increases the number of possible PMs that can be assigned to a phrase. In order to reduce the complexity of phrase structures, the number of branches must ideally be **two** (binary branching). These considerations and similar requirements lead an alternative configuration which is known as X-bar Theory in the generative framework.

I.2.2. Phrasal Projection of Heads in the X-bar Framework

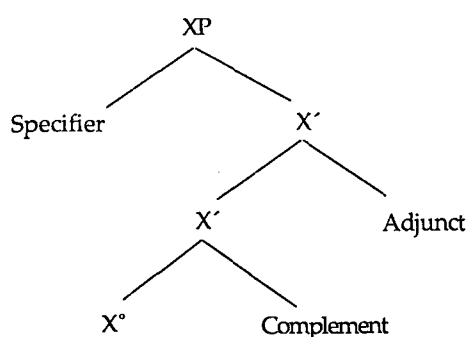
The **X-bar Theory** has been introduced in Chomsky (1970). Later it became one of the primary modules of the Principles and Parameters Theory. The X-bar Theory defines three levels of phrasal projections: X° (lexical or zero level), X' (X-bar, an intermediate projection and a recursive level), and XP or X'' (the phrase level or more accurately the

maximal projection of the head X). For the sake of simplicity, it is advisable to adopt the following notation for the respective projection levels of a head: X , X' , and XP .

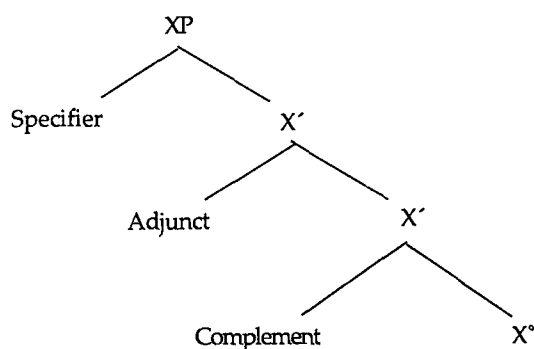
The relative place of the head in the phrase structure with respect to the complement is determined by the head parameter. In a phrase, the head either precedes or succeeds its complement in terms of linear ordering. Furthermore, there is a distinction between the adjuncts and the complement concerning their capacity to increase the bar level of their sisters. It is proposed that complements increase the projection level of the head by one bar while adjuncts do not affect the phrasal level of their sister element and can repeat infinitely in principle.

A generalized X-bar format of a phrase for both a **head-initial** (or left-branching) and a **head-last** (or right-branching) language can be represented as follows:

6a. Head-initial or Left-branching Languages



6b. Head-last or Right-branching Languages



Within the framework of the X-bar Theory, all phrases are **endocentric**. In other words, a phrase is the syntactic (maximal) projection of a lexical category such as noun, verb, adjective, etc. It is usually accepted that lexical heads project their phrases. In addition to lexical heads, functional heads can also project their phrases. Furthermore, the type of the category of a phrasal projection is always identical with the type of the category of its head (lexical or functional). These facts are expressed both in **the Projection Principle** (the PP in (3) is repeated here as (7) for the sake of convenience) and **the Principle of Endocentricity** as follows:

7. **The Projection Principle**

Lexical information is syntactically preserved.

8. **Principle of Endocentricity**

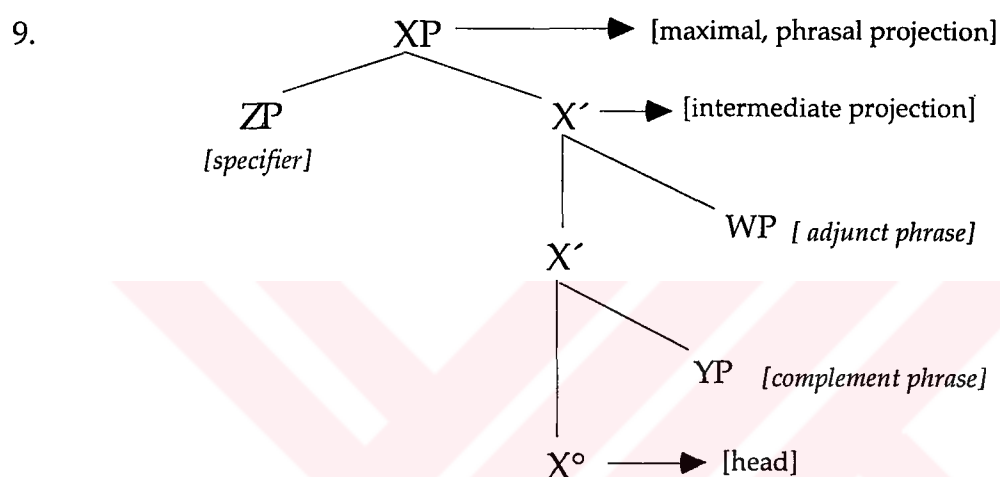
XP -----> ...X...

All these properties can be summarized more clearly in the following way:

- i. The maximal (phrasal) level of any category is taken to be XP
- ii. X represents any word-level category N (Noun), V (Verb), P (Preposition), or A (Adjective) and other functional categories such as C (Complement), I or Infl (Inflection) and D (Determiner) or Agr (Agreement).
- iii. NP is equivalent to noun phrase, PP to prepositional phrase, AP to adjectival phrase, and VP is equivalent to verb phrase, DP to determiner phrase, etc.

- iv. Complements are placed as sisters of heads (X), and subjects/possessors are placed in the 'specifier' position as daughters of NP or VP.

In sum, any phrasal projection represents a binary branching structure where there occurs different types of phrases (order irrelevant):

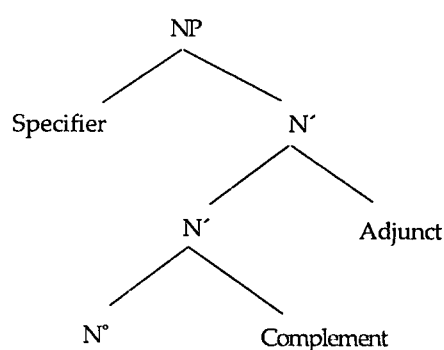


What is apparent here is that specifier, adjunct, and complement phrases are projections of different types of lexical categories. What is missing here is the possibility that the specifiers, adjuncts and complements of these phrases will also be the projections of yet another class of lexical items.

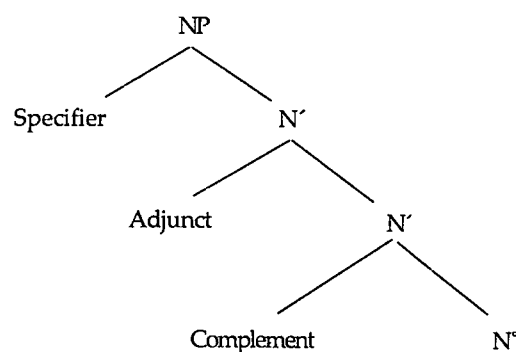
I.2.3. X-bar Representations of Noun Phrases:

A noun phrase is structurally considered as the maximal projection (NP) of the lexical category Noun (N) in the X-bar framework.

10a. Head-initial or Left-branching Languages



10b. Head-last or Right-branching Languages



The maximal projection of a noun (NP) is represented at the top of the PMs, which shows the configurational structure of a noun phrase in a generalized format for the both settings of Head Parameter. The NP above is composed of Spec (Specifier) and N' (N-bar) nodes respectively. As it will be clear in the following sections, the order of the constituents in a PM is important and their relative positions are determined with respect to the Head Parameter of a particular language, which allows for only two options following the general characteristics of parameters.

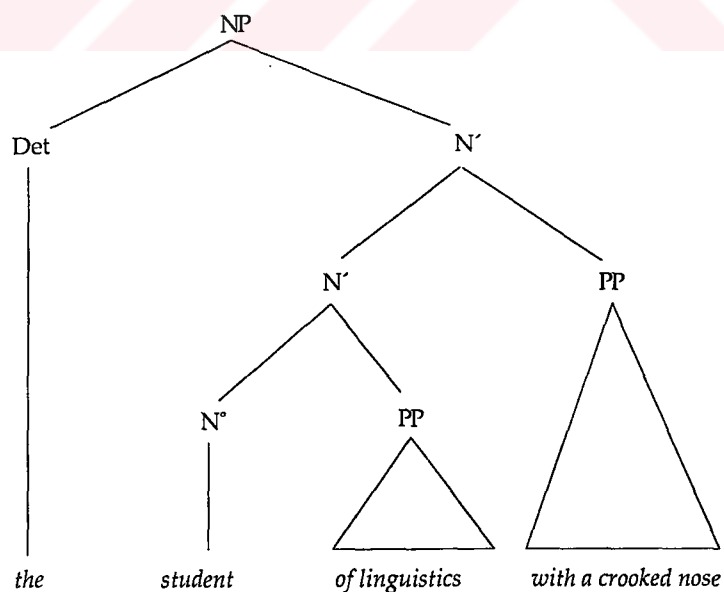
N' consists of two nodes one of which is still the same as the dominating node N' node. The recursive characteristic of N' is employed in the PMs in order to account for a frequent phenomenon in human languages: ideally speaking, it is possible to repeat some elements (such as adjectives, relative clauses, etc.) infinitely. The iterative use of this type of elements is reflected in PM by means of recursive nodes which are called

adjuncts. Adjuncts are always connected to the intermediary N' level. However, the head and its complement are represented at the bottom of the PM.

Complements and specifiers invariably change the bar level of the element with which they combine. In this case, the complement increases the phrasal level of the head noun N by one bar while the specifier and N' form the maximal projection NP at the top.

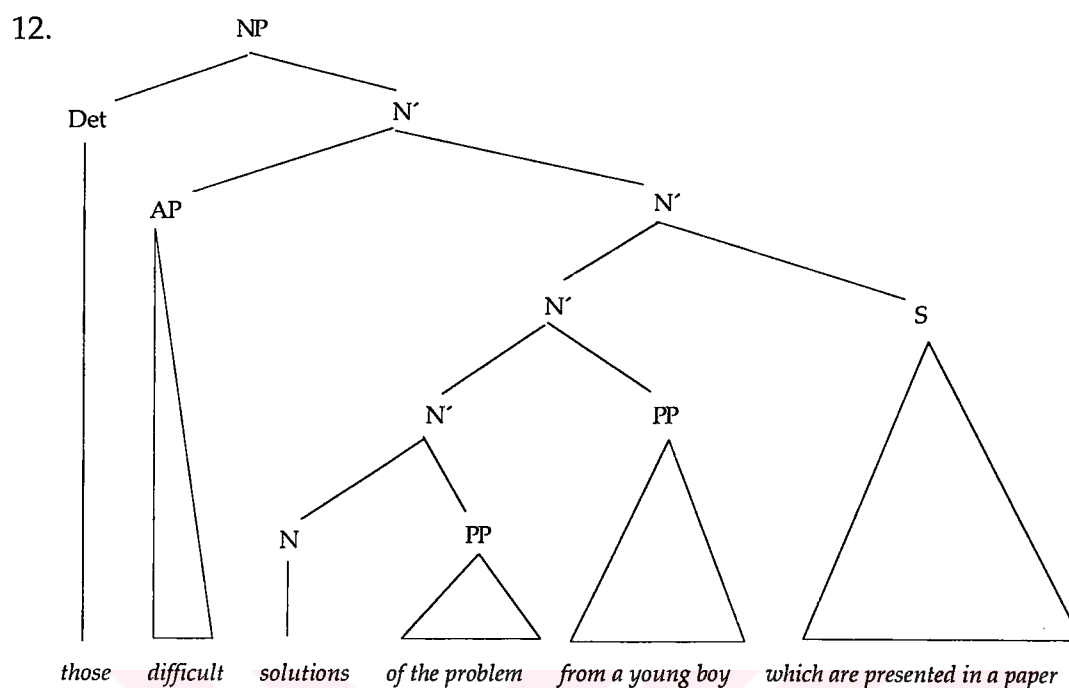
Since the X-bar framework provides linguists with a more elaborate way of representing noun phrases, the PMs discussed in the section I.2.1. are abandoned from now on. Thus, the configurational representation of the noun phrase *the student of linguistics with a crooked nose* can be represented in the best way in terms of X-bar framework:

11.



In this PM, the head noun *student* combines with the complement PP *of linguistics* and the bar level of lexical head increases by one degree. Then, the resulting N' *student of linguistics* joins the other PP *with a crooked nose*, which is an adjunct and which does not have any effect on the phrasal level of its sister node. Finally, the hierarchically higher N' *student of linguistics with a crooked nose* is connected with the Determiner *the* that occupies a **Spec** position in the PM to form the maximal projection of the lexical head (NP). As it is clear from the PM, the difference between the syntactic behavior of the PPs *of linguistics* and *with a crooked nose* is then described in terms of the complement-head noun relation together with the relation between the adjunct and N' level.

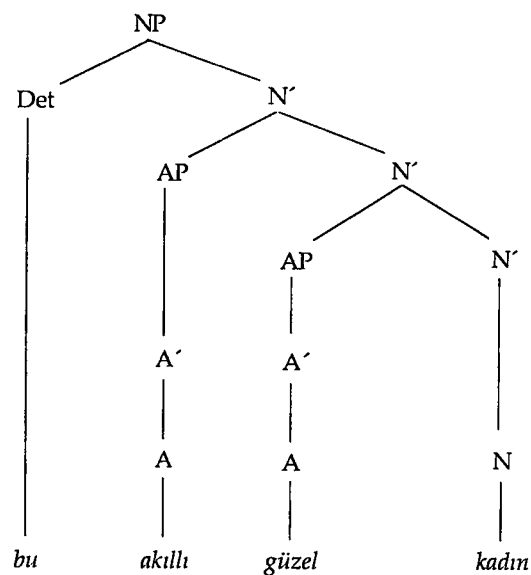
The N' node permits the addition of any number of modifiers: adjective phrases, prepositional phrases, and relative clauses can repeat infinitely (of course, in principle). A noun phrase such as *these difficult solutions of the problem from a young boy which are presented in a paper* has the following structure which includes three recursive levels at which adjuncts are combined to intermediate projections of the lexical head *solutions*:



Since lexical heads in Turkish are regularly the last element in the phrase structure following from the Head Parameter, the generalized structure for noun phrase in Turkish is the (10b) in which the head noun occupies a position at the end of the phrase.

In order to illustrate the configurational structure of noun phrases in Turkish, the following noun phrase *bu akıllı güzel kadın* 'this beautiful clever woman' is analyzed in terms of its phrasal projections within the X-bar framework.

13.



Since adjectives can repeat infinitely, both *akıllı* and *güzel* are taken to be adjuncts. On the other hand, *bu* is a determiner that can occupy a specifier position in the PM.

I.3. DP Hypothesis

DP Hypothesis is an alternative analysis for noun phrases. It claims that a nominal constituent is not a syntactic projection of the lexical head noun. Rather, it is the **functional category D** (determiner) that serves as the central element in a noun phrase.

Although semantic content of the nominal string is provided by the lexical noun itself (s-projection), the capacity of the noun phrase to serve as an argument within a sentence is the consequence of the definiteness feature of the string. In other words, nominal constituents

must be specified for [\pm definite]: a nominal constituent is naturally either definite or indefinite. In English, for instance, a noun phrase always appears in either definite or indefinite form. In English-like languages the definiteness of a nominal string is determined by grammatical categories such as article, demonstrative, etc.

Since Turkish article system contains only supposedly indefinite article *bir*, the definiteness or indefiniteness of a nominal constituent need to be determined by some other strategies. The interrelation among the elements in a sentence allow the reader to interpret a noun phrase as either definite or indefinite. It should be noted that Turkish does not specify noun phrases for [\pm definite] feature only on the basis of their internal syntactic structure (i.e., by means of articles and other determiners).

A primary motivation behind the proposal that a noun phrase is actually the syntactic projection of a functional category is the requirement to explain the presence of an agreement marker observed in noun phrases in languages like Hungarian, Turkish, etc.

14.	<i>ben+im</i>	<i>kitab+ım</i>	'mybook'
	<i>sen+in</i>	<i>kitab+ın</i>	'yourbook'
	<i>o+nun</i>	<i>kitab+ı</i>	'his/herbook'
	<i>biz+im</i>	<i>kitab+ımız</i>	'ourbook'
	<i>siz+in</i>	<i>kitab+ınız</i>	'yourbook'
	<i>onlar+ın</i>	<i>kitab+ları</i>	'theirbook'

Another issue that motivates the DP Hypothesis is the necessity to provide a satisfactory explanation for the source of Genitive Case that is assigned to the subjects of genitival constructions such as:

15. *Mary's* *translation* *of the book*
 Tom's *construction* *of sailing boats*
 the enemy's *destruction* *of the city*

All these three noun phrases have **deverbal** head nouns (nouns that are derived from verbs) as their central elements with respect to their semantics. These NPs denote a process or an event rather than an entity, a product, or a result of an action. Therefore, it is possible to reconstruct a sentence which is almost equivalent to each of these nominal expressions in terms of their semantic content. The sentential counterparts are as follows:

16. *Mary* *translated* *the book.*
 Tom *constructed* *sailing boats.*
 The enemy *destroyed* *the city.*

It is known that (result) nouns do not have a thematic structure and, therefore, they cannot assign Case to the arguments in a sentence. In other words, nouns are intransitive lexical categories as opposed to verbs, adjectives, and adpositions which are inherently capable of assigning case to their arguments.

As opposed to result nouns, event nouns manage to preserve the thematic structure of their source verb. If the sentential equivalents of

these nouns are restored, it can easily be observed that the internal arguments of the verbs *translate*, *construct*, and *destroy* are assigned **Accusative Case** by these verbs. On the contrary, their nominal equivalents cannot assign Case to their **internal arguments**. Thus, the solution to this problem is provided by the preposition *of*, which is the source of Case assigned to the internal arguments. If nouns cannot assign Case, there must be a case-assigner in each noun phrase in (15) because the external arguments Mary, Tom, and the enemy are all assigned **Genitive Case**.

An interesting parallelism between a noun phrase that includes a deverbal noun as its central element and its sentential counterpart can be observed easily. What is more interesting is that there is even an intermediary construction called **gerundive constructions**. Gerundive constructions are similar to noun phrases in that both can function as arguments in the sentence. However, gerundive constructions are derived from sentences (or more specifically verbal complements) rather than a nominal element:

- 17a. *Mary* *translated* *the book*.
 17b. *Mary's* *translating* *the book*
 17c. *Mary's* *translation* *of the book*

The proponents of DP Hypothesis adopt a position that relates these three types of strings on the basis of the general principle which expresses that all the grammatical rules must be as simple as a normal child can acquire without any difficulty in the first stages of his/her life.

In other words, the rules that regulate the structural relations must be extremely simple and highly restricted.

Then, it is safe to propose that in some way nominal expressions, gerundive constructions and their sentential counterparts are related. If we claim that noun phrases are actually syntactic projections of an inflection-like element, the parallelism among these three constructions becomes apparent.

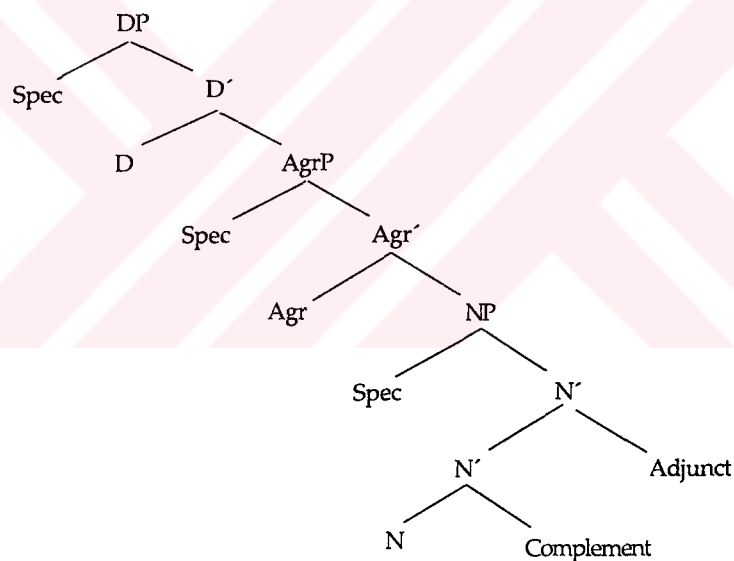
The examination of Indo-European languages, especially Romance languages, shows that noun phrases in these languages usually contain an article (or a definitivizer). However, not all languages employ articles and similar categories for a definite or indefinite reference. Rather, they use contextual elements to categorize nominal constituent with respect to the definiteness feature (e.g., Turkish, Russian, etc).

Another issue to be noted here is that some human languages possess an inflectional category within noun phrases. Consequently, a configurational representation of noun phrases, which is capable of providing a satisfactory explanation for these observations must include at least two positions in the phrase structure: a position for articles or other similar categories and a position for an inflectional category that is observed in noun phrases in some of the human languages.

In order to solve the emerging problem properly, proponents of the DP Hypothesis (Abney, 1987) claim that noun phrases are, in fact,

syntactic projections of functional heads. This assumption, then, extends the previously introduced functional categories C (Complementizer) and I or Infl (Inflection), which are assumed to be the elements that transform a verbal projection into a sentence, to D (Determiner) and Agr (Agreement), the corresponding categories in a noun phrase. Thus, it is proposed that D is a functional category that hosts article and similar categories and Agr is the element that serves as the position in which a nominal agreement morphology is placed. The following PM shows the phrase structure as a DP in a generalized format for a head-first language like English:

18.



Abney (1987) and other proponents of the DP Hypothesis, propose that noun phrases and sentences are quite similar to each other in terms of their internal structures. They maintain a position which claims the parallelism between the noun phrase and the sentence is not coincidental. It is natural to expect nouns and verbs to play a crucial role

in the grammar of a particular language. Because, these two elements are major means to express a content, an entity and an event respectively. This status of nouns and verbs in the organization of linguistic system may enable their syntactic projections to gain parallel internal structures.

Furthermore, these linguists claim that the arguments of both nouns and verbs originate initially within the phrases headed by these lexical heads. For instance, both the external argument and the internal argument of a verb generate within the verb phrase. After that, the external argument is moved to the [Spec, IP] position to be assigned Case in accordance with the Case Filter which states that:

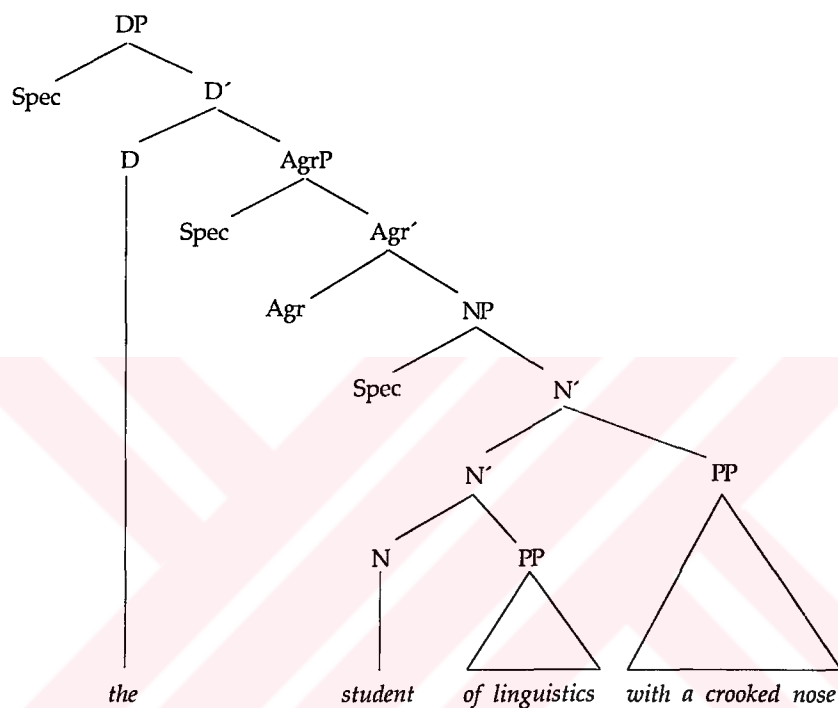
19. **The Case Filter**

Every phonetically realized NP must be assigned (abstract) Case.
(Chomsky, 1981)

Thus, the external argument is assigned a Nominative Case by the verbal agreement to satisfy the Case Filter. In a similar fashion, nouns are said to contain their arguments within their maximal projections. The subject of a deverbal event noun generates under the Specifier node of the NP (the maximal projection of the lexical head) and, then, it moves to a position which is under the [Spec, DP] node. Thus, the external argument of a noun (the possessor) gains the Genitive Case assigned by the Agreement while the Case of internal argument is provided by the preposition *of*:

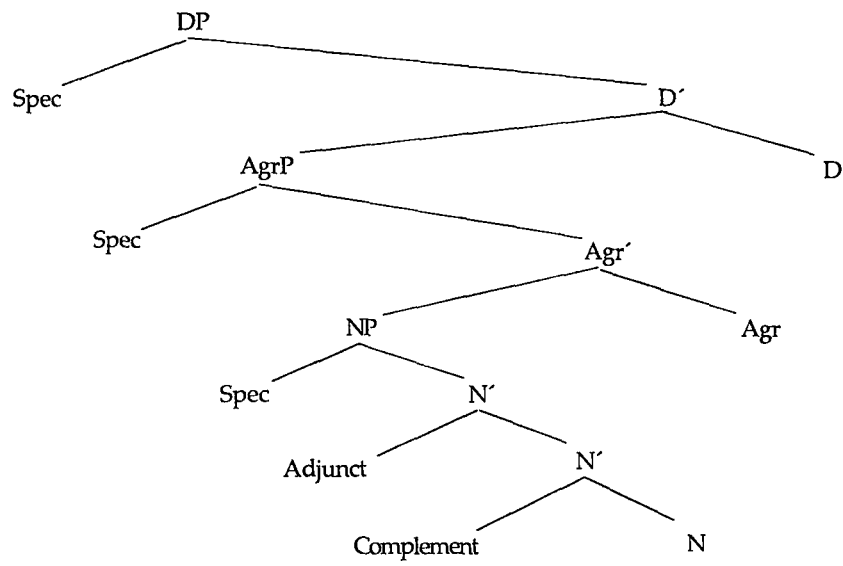
In order to illustrate the consequences that the DP Hypothesis leads, it is possible to re-analyze the noun phrase given in (5): *the student of linguistics with a crooked nose*. The configurational representation of this noun phrase is as follows:

20.



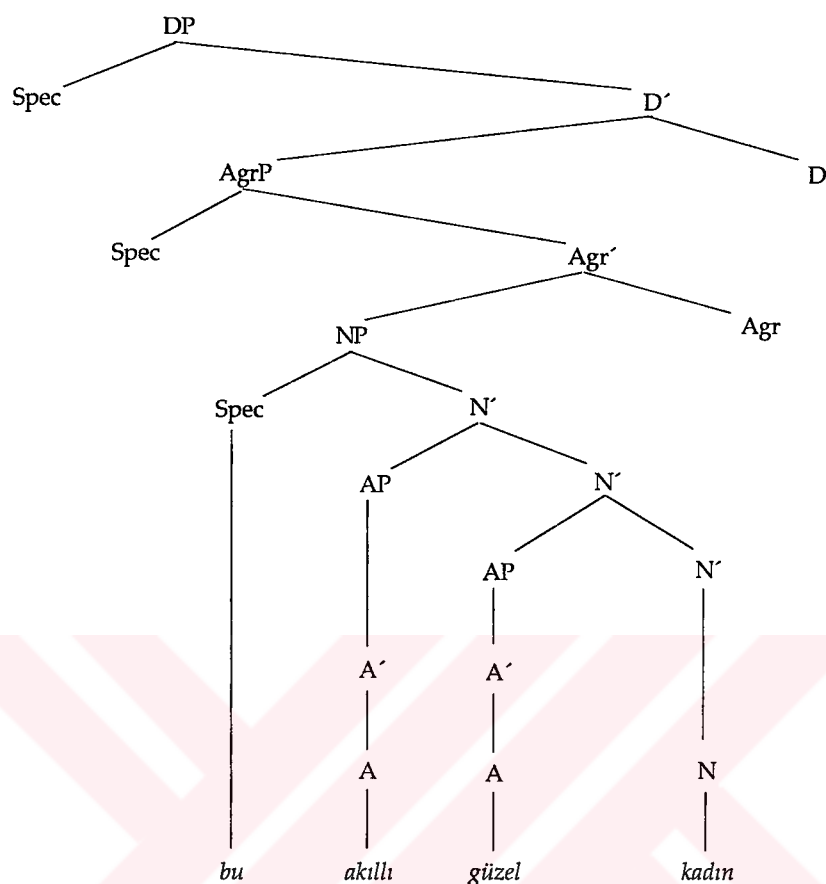
Similarly, the generalized DP format for noun phrases in Turkish can be represented as the following:

21.



Thus, the Turkish noun phrase *bu akıllı güzel kadın* 'this beautiful clever woman' has the following PM in terms of DP Analysis:

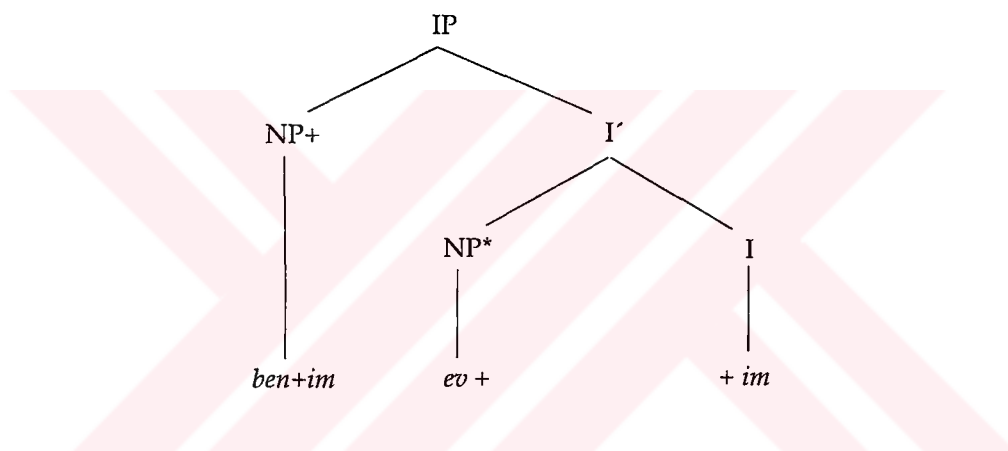
22.



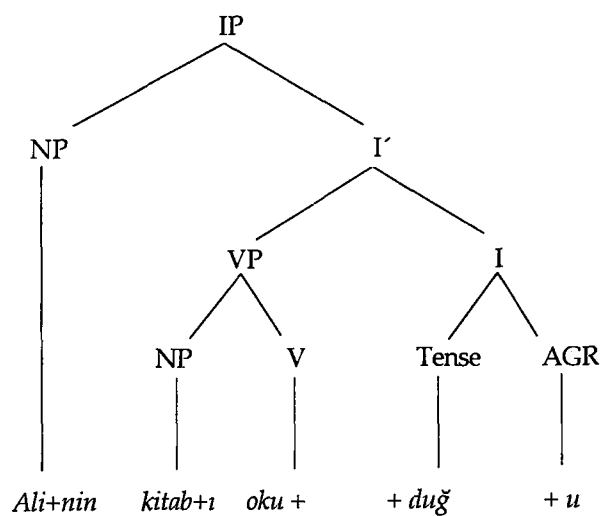
In fact, a number of speculations can be made on the basis of the proposed DP formats and the configurational representations of noun phrases. For instance, it should be noted that D node in Turkish is usually empty. Actually, it is possible to question the presence of the D node at all. For the sake of unity at this point, it is necessary to propose these two functional categories in a noun phrase: D and Agr. In a way, this proposal is motivated by a theory-internal requirement rather than an observational one, at least at this stage of our analysis of Turkish noun phrases.

The basic idea behind the DP Hypothesis well suits for noun phrases especially in Turkish due to an Agr slot that can be occupied by nominal Agreement morphology which is a frequently observed phenomenon in Turkish. For example, Kornfilt (1984) argues for weak and strong agreement in Turkish to capture presence and absence of morphological marking on noun phrases and compounds. Sezer (1991:11) also depending on the feature they carry, i.e., [\pm nominal] I, heads sentences and noun phrases.

23.



24.



Hence, if we adopt for languages like Turkish the above type of analysis where [\pm nominal] feature of AGR (here not represented as a phrasal projection but undoubtedly clear from the representation of the structure) we provide a unified solution: if AGR (here I) carries [+nominal] feature, the projection will yield a nominal phrase, otherwise, it will yield a sentence. Furthermore, it also captures the parallelism observed in the internal structure of noun phrases and nominalizations. What is significant here is that Turkish type languages constitute the example case for the motivation toward the DP Hypothesis given the rich agreement morphology they display both for verbal and nominal inflection.

At this point, however, it is preferable not to go into details of the configurational representations of other noun phrases and nominal constructions. The issues related with the DP Analysis of all possible noun phrase combinations will be examined in the following sections.

CHAPTER II: LEXICAL PROPERTIES OF NOUNS IN TURKISH

In this section, general characteristics of nouns in Turkish are reviewed. In most cases, nouns in Turkish are compared with those in English in order to provide clearer insights. The first step to examine the properties of nouns is to define the term **noun** from a number of perspectives in accordance with the functions that nouns fulfill.

II.1. Noun

Noun is one of major lexical categories in all languages. Noun is a content word: every noun has a meaning which denotes an entity in the universe. In other words, any entity in the universe of discourse can be named by means of a noun in the lexicon of a language. This implies that new entities that come into being recently must be named as well as the entities that are already present. Therefore, it is easy to predict that the total number of nouns in a language is not constant: a new noun for a new entity or concept can be introduced in a language at any time while another noun can be dropped if the entity or concept that the noun denotes does not exist any more or if it is abandoned due to some change in the way the society lives. Furthermore, a noun may come to denote

something different than it did previously in the course of language change. Thus, nouns are similar to verbs, adjectives, and adverbs in that they all form **open** word classes.

Word classes are natural sets in a language. The mind of a speaker-hearer operates on a limited number of well-described sets of lexical elements listed in the mental lexicon. The classification of lexical items in a language into word classes provides simpler and faster operations when a speaker wants to produce utterances. It is easier for the mind of a native speaker to operate on a well-defined set in which all the elements possess both general and idiosyncratic information about their meaning, syntactic properties, morphological structure, phonetic form, etc

The human mind always categorizes similar concepts into the same set on the basis of the shared properties of these concepts. This ability initiates another genetic capacity of human beings to form and use extremely simple rules to carry out their mental operations. It is important to note that the resulting mental operations are rather complex processes although they are the products of the interaction of quite simple rules on the basic level.

However, it is vital to express that the knowledge of lexical items is less organized and it contains more idiosyncratic properties compared to the knowledge of rules. In order to ease the processing load of huge number of items human mind operates on the basis of rather general rules. For instance, human mind may select any noun in a

syntactic operation and can insert that element in an appropriate position in the sentence.

Consider the sentence "*Yellow thoughts are not fond of the jelly music that the stones compose.*" Syntactically, this is a well-formed sentence while there are some problems with its semantic interpretation. However, syntactic component of the mental grammar in one's mind does not limit itself with the semantic or pragmatic considerations. Similarly, any noun in Turkish can take a Case suffix: *Ali+nin* 'Ali's,' *adam+ın* 'the man's,' *masa+nın* 'of the table,' *su+yun* 'of the water,' *'düşünce+nin* 'of the thought,' etc. Again the morphological process by which a Genitive Case suffix is added to the root noun is extremely simple and is not dependent on the semantic content of the nouns to which this Case is assigned. In sum, knowledge of syntactic processes operates at a distinct level other than that of the knowledge of lexical items.

To summarize, categorizing lexical elements into well-defined sets is an efficient and economical way to deal with the huge number of words in a language. Otherwise, it would be absolutely difficult and time-consuming for human mind to select an appropriate lexical item from a random accumulation of words. In that case, the process would be carried out by chance. Thus, it can be easily concluded that the cognitive processes in one's mind become both possible and efficient because of these organized sets of lexical elements.

As it is stated earlier in this section, nouns are referential expressions and prototypical members of the lexical class 'noun' refer to:

- | | | |
|-----|--------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| 1a. | entities | (<i>book, picture, arm</i>) |
| 1b. | substances | (<i>butter, concrete, blood, sand, water</i>) |
| 1c. | named individuals | (<i>Oğuz, Franz, Baerlach, Fredrich</i>) |
| 1d. | locations | (<i>Bern, Paris, Switzerland, France</i>) |

Nouns convey a wide range of meanings, such as *edge, colour, beauty, arrival, ancestry, or absence*. Whatever in the universe that can be named and then introduced into human cultural / cognitive system is named by the humans, thus we have a huge variety of entities that enter into our linguistic system. Given this property, a study of nouns may adopt a number of different perspectives (i.e., levels of linguistic analysis).

II.2. Grammatical Characteristics of Noun

Nouns have a number of discriminating characteristics. These characteristics can be examined in terms of the interaction among the syntactic, semantic and morphological properties of nouns.

No matter how different their referents may be or variety of referential relation that nouns may establish and the complexities follow, the computational system operates in a rather different manner. For syntax what matters is the following properties of nouns:

Inflection for Number, Case, Gender, and the ability to occur with determiners are the most typical properties of noun phrases. Grammatically, nouns are marked for **number**, **person**, and **gender** by means of a variety of strategies ranging from the addition of affixes to stems to occupy a particular position within a constituent.

II.2.1. Number

One of the main syntactic characteristics of nouns is their capacity to exhibit properties related with the number. As a grammatical category whose primary correlation is with the number of separate entities or objects, number is frequently marked on nominal elements in most languages.

Number distinction can be expressed in various ways. Most languages have a simple two-way number system. For instance, English has a simple two-way number contrast as **singular** and **plural** while other languages may employ more elaborate number systems. In these systems, there might be some additional contrasts together with the singular-plural distinction. In order to exemplify this phenomenon, a language which has a third category or a morphology for **dual** number which is marked on its nouns to denote two entities can be considered. In this case, the grammar of this particular language includes singular (one), dual (two), and plural (more than two) forms and the grammatical system marks these properties on the nouns of the language, most commonly with morphology. However, number is not a universal category in all

languages. For example, Chinese and Japanese lack number contrasts altogether. The only universal number system that exists in the linguistic system of all human languages seems to be the pronominal system.

Human languages frequently employ the following number distinctions in their grammatical systems:

2. **Number System:**

singular	only one entity
dual	two entities
trial	three entities
paucal	a few entities
plural	a general term for more than one entity

Turkish also seems to employ the two-way system: it has only singular and plural forms of nouns. For example, the noun *ev* 'house' in Turkish has two distinct forms: *ev* for singular and *ev+ler* for plural. The plural number in Turkish is regularly marked by means of the addition of the suffix *-lar* to the noun. Unlike English, the grammatical system of Turkish do not have a \emptyset (zero) morphology for plural as in the following pair: *sheep* (singular) and *sheep* (plural). Turkish also does not have some other irregular forms for plural number other than *-lar* suffix while English has such an element (*-en* suffix in *oxen*) although the regular plural morpheme is *-s* in English.

Some borrowed nouns, however, may retain their original plural form in their source language such as *evlat* 'children, offsprings'

esnaf 'guilds, classes,' and *eşya* 'furniture, things.' In such cases, these nouns are usually treated as singular rather than plural by native speakers of Turkish. Then, they can be pluralized in the regular way leading an interesting morphological complexes: *evlat+lar*, child + PL (Ar.) + PL (Tr.), 'children + PL', *esnaf+lar*, guild + PL (Ar.) + PL (Tr.), 'guilds + PL,' *eşya+lar* thing + PL (Ar.) + PL (Tr.), 'furniture + PL.'

As it is apparent from the above examples, the borrowed forms have never become productive processes in Turkish, and are restricted to frozen forms. The language takes them as native elements and operates its regular core rules on them. In English, for instance, there are noun phrases like *president elect* and *court martial*, which deviate from the regular forms. The regular ordering of the adjective and the head noun is Adjective + Noun as in the regular form *martial music*.

Some of the borrowed nouns which are originally marked for plural number are able to convey a plural meaning. For instance, *hayvan+at* 'animal+s' is perceived as plural by most of the native speakers of Turkish although the same stem can be pluralized with a regular ending *-lar* as in *hayvan+lar* 'animal+s.' It is interesting to note that the usage of *hayvan+at* is rather restricted to certain contexts such as *hayvan+at bahçe+si* while the regular form of plural *hayvan+lar* can potentially be used in any context in Turkish.

In a noun phrase like *üç adam*, overt number marking on the head noun is not required for agreement. On the contrary, overt marking on nouns for number generally produces ungrammatical structures:

- | | | | |
|----|-----------------|-----------------|------------|
| 3. | <i>üç</i> | <i>adam</i> | 'threeman' |
| 4. | * <i>üç</i> | <i>adam+lar</i> | 'threemen' |
| 5. | * <i>üç+ler</i> | <i>adam</i> | 'three' |

However, overt number marking on the head noun is allowed in a noun phrase which is the name of a particular well-known group of people or of locations: *üç silahşör+ler* 'three musteeters,' *beş kardeş+ler* 'five brothers,' *yedi uyur+lar* 'seven sleepers,' etc. Of course, these generic constructions are rather marked and this form cannot be used for regular nouns.

The relative order of number marker in Turkish is between the noun and the person agreement marker followed by the case suffix:

- | | | | |
|-----|---------------------------------------|-----|-----------------------------------------|
| 6a. | [<i>ev + ler + im</i>] + <i>den</i> | 6b. | * [<i>ev + im + ler</i>] + <i>den</i> |
| | house-PL-1SG-Abl. | | house-1SG-PL-Abl |
| | 'from myhouses' | | 'from myhouses' |

Here are some examples of singular and plural forms in English:

- | | | |
|-----|-------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------|
| 7a. | <i>dog / dogs</i> | regular plural suffix <i>-s</i> |
| 7b. | <i>child / children</i> | a Germanic suffix for plural <i>-en</i> |
| 7c. | <i>radius / radii</i> | idiosyncratic marking of a Latinate noun for plural number |
| 7d. | <i>sheep / sheep</i> | irregular plural form <i>-ø</i> |

In Turkish, it is possible to pluralize any noun regardless of its semantic properties. In other words, [\pm Count] does not seem to play any significant role in overt plural marking. Furthermore, semantics of the nouns in relation to animacy, mass term, abstract concepts, etc. do not affect the pluralization process.

8a.	<i>insan</i>	'human'	8b.	<i>insan+lar</i>	'humans'
8c.	<i>keci</i>	'cat'	8d.	<i>keci+ler</i>	'cats'
8e.	<i>ev</i>	'house'	8f.	<i>ev+ler</i>	'houses'
8g.	<i>düşünce</i>	'thought'	8h.	<i>düşünce+ler</i>	'thoughts'
8i.	<i>su</i>	'water'	8j.	<i>su+lar</i>	'waters'

Head-deletion is another process which produces interesting structures in terms of plural marking. The deletion applies almost in an unbounded manner and deletes heads particularly in constructions ADJ + N. After the deletion of the head, the remaining element which is in most cases a modifier appears with the plural marker. Since the process is very common and applies very freely many researchers simply by looking at the plural marker concluded that Turkish does not distinguish between adjectives and nouns.

The lexical items *güzel*, *kadın*, *genç*, etc. can function as adjectives in certain contexts while they have a nominal status in some others.

9a.	<i>güzel</i> (adj.)	'beautiful' (adj.)
9b.	<i>güzel</i> (n)	'beautiful woman'
9c.	<i>güzel+ler</i>	'beautiful women'
9d.	<i>güzel kadın+lar</i>	'beautiful women'

In Turkish, any noun can be pluralized regardless of its morphological composition (i.e., root or derived). For instance, the noun *kat-il-im-ci* 'participant' is a derivation of the verb *kat-* 'add' (or more correctly *kat-il-* 'participate') and it can be pluralized in the same way as the root nouns are pluralized:

10a.	<i>kat-</i> (v)	'add' (v)
10b.	<i>kat-il-</i> (v)	'participate'
10c.	<i>kat-il-im-ci</i>	'participant'
10d.	<i>kat-il-im-ci-lar</i>	'participants'

II.2.2. Person

Person is a deictic grammatical category. It distinguishes among the roles of the entities that participate in a conversation. In most cases, this kind of distinction is three-way:

first person	speaker
second person	addressee
third person	everyone or everything else

The three-way distinction appears to be universally present in all languages although these categories are intersected by other grammatical categories such as number, sex, and gender. Person markers on noun and other nominal constituents in Turkish can be exemplified as follows (full inflectional paradigms for verbal and nominal system are presented in the Chapter 5):

11a.	(<i>ben+im</i>) <i>baba+m</i>	'my father'
11b.	(<i>sen+in</i>) <i>baba+n</i>	'your father'
11c.	(<i>o+nun</i>) <i>baba+sı</i>	'his/her/its father'
11d.	(<i>biz+im</i>) <i>baba+mız</i>	'our father'
11e.	(<i>siz+in</i>) <i>baba+nız</i>	'your father'
11f.	(<i>onlar+ın</i>) <i>baba+sı/+ları</i>	'their father'
12a.	(<i>biz+im</i>) <i>baba+lar+ımız</i>	'our fathers'
12b.	(<i>onlar+ın</i>) <i>baba+ları</i>	'their fathers'
13a.	(<i>ben+im</i>) <i>yeni kırmızı araba+m</i>	'my new red car'
13b.	(<i>sen+in</i>) <i>yeni kırmızı araba+n</i>	'your new red car'
13c.	(<i>o+nun</i>) <i>yeni kırmızı araba+sı</i>	'his/her new red car'
13d.	(<i>biz+im</i>) <i>yeni kırmızı araba+mız</i>	'our new red car'
13e.	(<i>siz+in</i>) <i>yeni kırmızı araba+nız</i>	'your new red car'
13f.	(<i>onlar+ın</i>) <i>yeni kırmızı araba+sı/+ları</i>	'their new red car'
14a.	(<i>biz+im</i>) <i>yeni kırmızı araba+lar+ımız</i>	'our new red cars'
14b.	(<i>onlar+ın</i>) <i>yeni kırmızı araba+ları</i>	'their new red cars'
15a.	(<i>ben-im</i>) <i>ev+e gel-diğ-im</i>	'that I came to the house'
15b.	(<i>sen-in</i>) <i>ev+e gel-diğ-in</i>	'that you came to the house'
15c.	(<i>o+nun</i>) <i>ev+e gel-diğ-i</i>	'that (s)he/it came to the house'
15d.	(<i>biz+im</i>) <i>ev+e gel-diğ-miz</i>	'that we came to the house'
15e.	(<i>siz+in</i>) <i>ev+e gel-diğ-niz</i>	'that you came to the house'
15f.	(<i>onlar+ın</i>) <i>ev+e gel-diğ-i/-dik-leri</i>	'that they came to the house'

In Turkish, person is marked on pronouns, lexical nouns, as well as on nominalized sentential complements. In all cases, person marking is realized by means of overt suffixes. Since Turkish is an agglutinating language which employs suffixes abundantly, it is always possible to match grammatical units within a pronoun to corresponding

morphemes. Zero-marking is reserved only for 3rd person singular. In English, on the contrary, the categories or meaningful parts are usually combined into a single whole that cannot be divided into smaller parts in terms of morphological composition. For instance, *his* is the combination of 'he+Poss' and cannot be divided morphologically into smaller units. On the other hand, Turkish allows such an analysis in *ben+im* 'my' as 'I+Poss,' *sen+in* 'your' as 'you+Poss,' and *o+nun* 'his' as 'he+Poss.'

II.2.3. Gender

Gender is a grammatical category in some languages, which divides nouns into two or more classes. These classes require different agreement forms on their modifiers such as determiners and adjectives. For example, the French noun phrases contrast with each other in terms of the gender of the head nouns, *livre* 'book' and *maison* 'house.'

16a.	<i>le</i>	<i>livre</i>	'thebook'
16b.	<i>la</i>	<i>maison</i>	'thehouse'
17a.	<i>un</i>	<i>livre</i>	'abook'
17b.	<i>une</i>	<i>maison</i>	'ahouse'
18a.	<i>un vieux</i>	<i>livre</i>	'anoldbook'
18b.	<i>une vieille</i>	<i>maison</i>	'anoldhouse'

Gender is a grammatical category for some languages (e.g., Romance languages) while it is not grammatically represented in some

others (e.g., Turkish). The total number of gender class in a language varies from at least two to a maximum of ten, being the most usual one is two or three gender classes. However, gender is not a universal grammatical category: some languages do not have a gender system at all.

In gender-marking languages, gender may or may not be marked overtly on nouns but the noun phrase includes some features related with the gender of the head noun. Although "there is usually some clear semantic basis for the gender classes in a gender language, typically involving such obvious notions as size, shape, animacy, humanness, and sex," more unexpected notions such as edibility or danger may well be involved in the designation of gender system. (Trask, 1993:115)

The correlation between the gender of a noun and its semantic content is usually weak. In other words, it is not possible to categorize all nouns into distinct gender classes on the basis of their meaning alone. For instance, sex is a biological, natural category that is used to form gender classes in some cases but gender is assigned to all nouns (even concrete nouns) some of which do not have any sex. Therefore, gender is not a biological or semantic distinction, but rather, it is a grammatical category. However, it does not mean that there is not any relation between natural properties of the head noun and its gender class. As a basic tendency such a relation exists in most gender languages.

Turkish does not have any gender system although there is some kind of distinction between sex of the entities at the lexical level. However, this type of distinction between the sex of entities is extremely limited to the domesticated animal pairs only. In other words, it is possible to find different lexical items for the distinct sexes of the same type of most of the domesticated animals while the sex of a sparrow, a lion, or even the sex of a cat is not important for Turkish speakers as a general tendency and this distinction is not reflected at the lexical level.

19a.	<i>aygır</i>	'stallion'	20a.	<i>boğa</i>	'bull'
19b.	<i>kısrak</i>	'mare'	20b.	<i>inek</i>	'cow'
21a.	<i>horoz</i>	'cock'	22a.	<i>koç</i>	'ram'
21b.	<i>tavuk</i>	'chicken'	22b.	<i>koyun</i>	'sheep'

If a speaker of Turkish wants to indicate the sex of an animal, he or she can use the premodifying adjectives *dişi* and *erkek* for animals and the adjectives *kadın* and *erkek* for humans: *dişi kedi* 'female cat,' *erkek köpek* 'male dog,' *kadın polis* 'female / woman police officer,' *erkek doktor* 'male doctor,' etc. On the other hand, English can employ the pronouns *he* and *she* as modifiers to indicate the sex of an animal (if it does not have distinct lexical entries in the lexicon): *he-cheetah* (male cheetah) and *she-cheetah* (female cheetah).

However, as it is stressed earlier gender is quite different from sex which is a biological category and sex may or may not correspond to a

gender class in a language. In cases where gender is marked morphologically, we find borrowed words in Turkish:

23a.	<i>kral</i>	'king'	(Serbo-Croat)
23b.	<i>kral + içe</i>	'queen'	(Lewis, 1967:25)
24a.	<i>memur</i>	'male civil servant'	(Arabic)
24b.	<i>memur + e</i>	'female civil servant'	
25a.	<i>akt + ör</i>	'actor'	(English)
25b.	<i>akt + ris</i>	'actress'	
	<i>etc.</i>		

II.3. Semantic Characteristics of Noun

In this section, some of the most salient semantic characteristics of nouns in Turkish are reviewed. Nouns can be studied from a number of perspectives for their semantics. Here, the study is limited to the contrasts between common and proper nouns, abstract and concrete nouns, and count and mass nouns.

II.3.1. Common Noun

Common noun is a noun denoting a class of objects, places, concepts, etc. Common nouns may be root or derived in terms of their morphological structure:

	root:	derived:
26.	<i>girl, cat, car, love, ice</i> <i>kadın, kuş, ev, kin, su</i>	<i>office+r, build+ing, happi+ness</i> <i>simit+çi, kitap+lık, sev+gi, güzel+lik</i>

II.3.2. Proper Noun

As opposed to common nouns, proper nouns pick up an individual or a unique concept among others in a most definite way:

27. *Charlie Chaplin, Yılmaz Güney, Ankara, Athens, Baghdad*

When the speaker uses a proper noun, he or she indicates that the hearer will be able to identify and pick out the proposed referent from a set in which the members are mutually exclusive. Then, the hearer can locate the referred individual or place easily. Some examples of proper nouns in Turkish are as follows:

- 28a. **Individuals:**
Mustafa, Yeşim, Aylin, Erdem, Soner, Özler Hanım, Arif Bey, Ahmet Abi, Aydemir Yoldaş, Tahsin Dayı, Necmi Amca, Doğan Kardeş, Yıldız Abla
- 28b. **Locations:**
Ankara, İstanbul, Mersin, Anadolu, Trakya
- 28c. **Mountains:**
Erciyes, Aladağlar, Demirkazık
- 28d. **Rivers:**

Kızılırmak, Göksu, Murat, Fırat

28e. **Lakes:**

Eğirdir, Abant, Hazar

28f. **Seas:**

Akdeniz, Karadeniz, Ege, Marmara

28g. **Countries:**

İngiltere, Amerika, Irak, Yugoslavya, Türkiye

28h. **Monuments:**

Anıtkabir, Dikilitaş

28i. **Residences:**

Aşiyân, Pembe Köşk, Topkapı Sarayı

28j. **Institutions:**

*Mersin Üniversitesi, Türkiye Cumhuriyet Merkez Bankası
etc.*

II.3.3. Concrete Noun

The term **concrete** describes a noun which denotes a real or physical entity, e.g., *doctor, dog, car, stone, snow*, etc. Thus, a noun whose meaning is perceived as a physical entity is a concrete noun. The following are some examples of concrete nouns in Turkish:

29a. **human**

insan

'human'

doktor

'doctor'

öğren+ci

'student'

dal-gıç

'diver'

- 29b. **animate**
kartal 'eagle' *kanguru* 'kangaroo'
ör-üm-cek 'spider' *sür-ün-gen* 'reptile'
- 29c. **object**
masa 'table' *kitap* 'book'
oyun+cak 'toy' *yaz-ı-cı* 'printer'
- 29d. **instrument**
çivi 'nail' *makas* 'scissors'
kaz-ma 'pick' *küre-k* 'shovel'
- 29e. **material**
su 'water' *kahve* 'coffee'
yap-ış-tır-ıcı 'glue' *don-dur-ma* 'ice-cream'

II.3.4. Abstract Noun

Abstract noun can be defined as a noun whose meaning denotes an **abstract** concept. An abstract noun may also denote an event, a process, a quality or a state:

- 30a. **event:** *arrival, explosion, departure, retreat*
 30b. **abstract concept:** *truth, beauty, magnitude, consequence*

Morphologically, abstract nouns may be simple or complex. Some borrowed abstract nouns also continue to exist in Turkish. In certain pairs, we find a native and a borrowed item co-existing in language such as *yaşa-m* 'life' and *hayat* 'life' while this is a rare phenomenon with the concrete nouns. As opposed to concrete nouns,

borrowed abstract nouns tend to retain their status in language due to their semantics and cultural-historical connotations and they are firmly associated with particular contexts in which they are frequently used. On the other hand, concrete nouns denote physical entities which can be named by means of one lexical item more economically. Then, one of the pair, especially the borrowed one, is abandoned in the course of time. Examples of abstract nouns in Turkish are as follows:

31a.	root:				
	<i>us</i>	'mind'	<i>söz</i>	'promise'	
	<i>ün</i>	'fame'	<i>bağ</i>	'link'	
31b.	derived:				
	<i>sev-gi</i>	'love'	<i>um-ut</i>	'hope'	
	<i>anla-yış</i>	'understanding'	<i>son+uç</i>	'consequence'	
	<i>göz+le-m</i>	'observation'	<i>gör-ün-üm</i>	'appearance'	
	<i>ilet-iş-im</i>	'communication'	<i>ulaş-ım</i>	'transportation'	
	<i>ağır+lık</i>	'weight'	<i>kavra-m</i>	'concept'	
	<i>say-gı</i>	'respect'	<i>düşün-ce</i>	'thought'	
31c.	borrowed:				
	<i>kin</i>	'hatred'	<i>tahmin</i>	'prediction'	
	<i>fikir</i>	'idea'	<i>analiz</i>	'analysis'	
	<i>sabır</i>	'patience'	<i>teori</i>	'theory'	

II.3.5. Count Noun

Countable noun is a noun whose meaning is perceived to be an entity which can be counted and freely pluralized: *book, day, mistake*. Count nouns always denote a separate entity among the similar members of a set.

In fact, all the nouns in Turkish, even mass and abstract nouns, may be pluralized. However, in the cases where a mass noun is in plural form, the meaning of the mass noun must be interpreted as a one unit or container of that material. Similarly, a mass noun can be pluralized if it denotes particular types of the material in question. Some examples of count nouns are provided in the following:

32a. **concrete :**

<i>masa</i>	'table'	<i>ev</i>	'house'
<i>bardak</i>	'glass'	<i>yol</i>	'road'
<i>elma</i>	'apple'	<i>meyve</i>	'fruit'
<i>kitap</i>	'book'	<i>taş</i>	'stone'
<i>kedisi</i>	'cat' [+animate]	<i>adam</i>	'man' [+human]

32b. **abstract:**

<i>ay</i>	'month'	<i>gün</i>	'day'
<i>fikir</i>	'idea'	<i>dakika</i>	'minute'
<i>renk</i>	'color'	<i>gör-ün-tü</i>	'image'

II.3.6. Mass Noun

Mass noun can be defined as a noun which denotes a meaning that is perceived to be anything other than a distinct countable entity,

such as a **substance** (*blood*), a **state of affairs** (*satisfaction*), an **activity** (*riding*) or a **quality** (*beauty*). Mass nouns cannot usually be pluralized in their original meaning. When they are pluralized, they mostly represent the following senses among the others: **variety**, **measure**, or **individual embodiment**. *Coffee* and *wine*, for example, cannot normally be pluralized because they are not considered as distinct countable entities. Rather, they are some kind of material that cannot be counted. However, they can be pluralized in their secondary senses:

33a. *I would like two coffees.* (two cups of coffee, container)

33b. *I would like two cups of coffees.*
(**Head-Deletion:** *cups* is deleted)

33c. *I love French wines.* (varieties of wine)

33d. *Now we are about to meet an alien intelligence.*
(individual embodiment)

Instead of the term 'mass noun' some other alternatives such as non-count noun and uncountable noun can also be used.

In Turkish, any noun can be pluralized morphologically. When a noun is pluralized, a plural suffix *-lar* is added to the stem. Even abstract nouns can be pluralized in many contexts (especially in idiomatic expressions):

34a. (Ben) *acı+lar iç+i+nde+yim.*
I-Nom pain-PL inside-3SG-Loc-1SG
'I am in pain.'

- 34b. (Ben) *siz+e mutlu+luk+lar dile-r-im.*
 (I-Nom) you-Dat happiness-PL wish-Aor-1SG
 'I wish you be happy.'
- 34c. *Bu ev+li+lik siz+e mutlu+luk+lar getir-ecek-ø.*
 this marriage you-Dat happiness-PL bring-Fut-3SG
 'This marriage will bring you happiness.'

Colloquially, it is even possible to pluralize nouns that distinctively mark individual, non-count entities, e.g., *sirt+lar+ım* (back+PL+1SG) 'my backs,' *boyun+lar+ım* (neck+PL+1SG) 'my necks,' etc

Other mass nouns can also be pluralized in a marked contextual use:

- 35a. *Köprü+nün alt+ı+ndan çok su+lar ak-tı-ø.*
 Bridge-Gen under-3SG-Abl much water-PL flow-Past-3SG
 'Much water has flown under the bridge.' (Literal)
 'Everything has changed totally.'
- 35b. *Artık hava+lar çok iyi.*
 Now weather-PL very good
 'The weather is good nowadays.'

Thus, any noun in Turkish can morphologically be pluralized regardless of its semantic content or its particular class.

II.4. Morphological Properties of Noun

There are a number of parallelism among languages in terms of morphological properties of nouns. In this part, the morphological formation of nouns is presented in relation to the lexical category of stems and the type of suffixes that are added to derive nouns.

Morphologically, nouns can be divided into two categories: **root** nouns and **derived** nouns. In addition to these two classes, **borrowed** nouns may be reviewed as a distinct category as they lose their former morphological properties when they are borrowed from another language.

II.4.1. Root Noun

A noun which is composed of only one **free morpheme** is called root noun. Examples of root nouns in Turkish are as follows:

36.	<i>aş</i>	'meal'	<i>et</i>	'meat'
	<i>toz</i>	'dust'	<i>ot</i>	'grass'
	<i>od</i>	'fire'	<i>gün</i>	'day'
	<i>el</i>	'hand'	<i>baş</i>	'head'
	<i>kız</i>	'girl'	<i>el</i>	'another person'
	<i>ses</i>	'sound'	<i>is</i>	'smoke'
	<i>yaş</i>	'age'	<i>öz</i>	'substance, self'

II.4.2. Derived Noun

Nouns can be derived from other lexical items by means of a suffixion process in Turkish. Given that Turkish is an agglutinative language, morphemes that derive a new word may concatenate yielding new items:

37a.	<i>aş+çı</i>	'cook'	<i>od+un</i>	'wood'	(N>N)
	<i>aş+çı+lık</i>	'cookery'	<i>od+un+luk</i>	'woodshed'	
37b.	<i>duy-gu</i>	'feeling'	<i>vur-gun</i>	'stroke'	(V>N)
	<i>duy-ar-ga</i>	'sensor'	<i>vur-gu</i>	'emphasis'	

The suffixes that drive nouns from verbal or nominal stems are listed in the following table:

38a.	-(I)m	V>N	<i>çiz-im, seç-im, öl-üm</i>
38b.	-ci	N>N	<i>odun-cu, roman-cı, duvar-cı</i>
38c.	-cik	N>N	<i>kitap-çık, kese-cik</i>
38d.	-Eç	V>N	<i>tık-aç, ula-ç, say-aç, kaldır-aç</i>
38e.	-Ey	V>N	<i>dene-y, ol-ay</i>
38f.	-gi	V>N	<i>çal-gı, duy-gu, bil-gi, sal-gı, ol-gu, sor-gu, bul-gu, gör-gü, ver-gi, sar-gı, al-gı, dol-gu, dal-gıç</i>
38g.	-gIç	V>N	<i>dal-gıç</i>
38h.	-gIn	V>N	<i>soy-gun, bas-kın, bil-gin, yan-gın, sal-gın</i>
38i.	-I	V>N	<i>çağ(ı)r-ı, çat-ı, tak-ı, yak-ı, kok-u</i>
38j.	-(I)m	V>N	<i>çal-ım, çiz-im, seç-im, öl-üm, dil-im</i>
38k.	-(I)ntI	V>N	<i>çalka-ntı, çık-ıntı, üz-üntü, al-ıntı, kal-ıntı, gör-üntü, gir-inti</i>
38l.	-It	V>N	<i>geç-it, an-it, yak-it, yaz-it, um-ut</i>
38m.	-Iık	N>N	<i>hısım-lık, akraba-lık, oda-lık</i>

38n.	-lik	A>N	<i>güzel-lik, aptal-lik, yalnız-lik, mutlu-luk</i>
38o.	-sal	N>N	<i>kum-sal, sorun-sal</i>
38p.	-un	V>N	<i>sor-un, yaz-ın</i>

(Sezer, 1995:98-99)

In Turkish, even Tense and Case suffixes are capable of deriving nouns from verbal and nominal stems respectively: *göz+de* (eye+Loc) 'favorite,' *çık-tı* (go out+Past+3SG) 'print-out,' *gel+ir* (come+Aor+3SG) 'income,' etc. It should be noted, however, that this process is rather different compared with lexical derivations. In fact, these elements are remnants of original sentences in Turkish and their total number is extremely limited.

II.4.3. Borrowed Noun

Borrowed nouns in Turkish are abundant. Most of the borrowed nouns come from Persian, Arabic, French and English. Majority of borrowed nouns are still actively used in present-day Turkish. Although some of them have long been replaced by new 'invented' or 'derived' nouns out of original Turkish stems, most of the borrowed nouns still retain their status both in written and spoken language. It must be noted that most of the borrowed nouns denote abstract concepts while there are still a considerable number of concrete borrowed nouns in Turkish.

39.	<i>istila</i>	'invasion'	<i>tayyare</i>	'plane'
	<i>tatbikat</i>	'practice'	<i>şemsiye</i>	'umbrella'
	<i>muhakeme</i>	'comparison'	<i>mahkeme</i>	'court'
	<i>iktidar</i>	'power'	<i>elektrik</i>	'electricity'
	<i>sermaye</i>	'capital'	<i>talebe</i>	'student'
	<i>şahsiyet</i>	'personality'	<i>kondüktör</i>	'conductor'

In terms of their syntactic and semantic behavior, borrowed nouns do not display any difference from native nouns. In other words, in all grammatical contexts they undergo the same processes or are restricted by the same principles that apply to native words. They are still retained in the language since they have established a firm historical and sociocultural referential relations with their referents.

II.5. Syntactic Analysis of Lexical Nouns

A noun phrase may consist of only one item, namely the lexical noun itself. In such cases, the lexical noun can function as an argument within the sentence on its own. For instance, the lexical noun *doktor* 'doctor' can occupy the subject position of the following sentence. Since it is well known that only phrasal projections can occupy argument positions in a sentence, the lexical noun *doktor* has in fact the status of a noun phrase:

40. *Doktor kapı+yı aç-tı-ø.*
 doctor door-Acc open-Past-3sg
 'The doctor opened the door.'

As it has been said before, the definiteness of a noun phrase (in this case, a phrase which is composed of only one element, lexical noun) is not totally dependent on its internal structure. In addition to the configurational composition, the context in which the noun phrase is used determines the definiteness or indefiniteness of the noun phrase. For instance, Case system is a rich device in Turkish to increase the definiteness scale of a nominal expression (Aksan, 1995:73) as in the case of Accusative Case assignment. Similarly, a noun phrase may be interpreted as **specific** or **generic** on the basis of the context in which it is used:

definite, generic

41. *Doktor hasta+ya en yakın kişi+dir.*
 doctor patient most close person-3SG
 'Doctor(s) is(are) the closest person to the patient.'

definite, specific

42. *Doktor çocuğ+un baş+ı+nı şevkat+le okşa-dı-ø.*
 doctor child-Gen head-3SG-Acc tenderness-Com touch-Past-3SG
 'The doctor touched the child's head tenderly.'

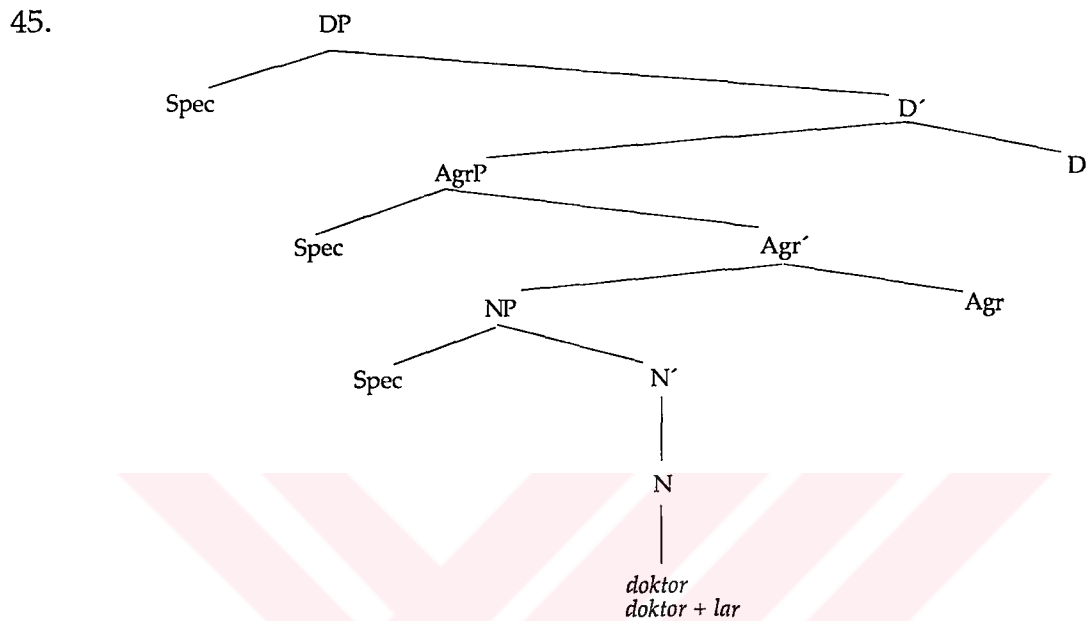
definite, generic (name of a group of people)

43. *Doktor+lar yüzyıl+ımız+ın en başar-ı+lı insan+lar+ı ol-du-lar.*
 Doctors century+1PL+Gen most successful human+PL+3SG be-Past-3PL
 'Doctors were the most successful people in this century.'

definite, specific

44. *Doktor+lar şu odaya gir-di-ø/-ler.*
 doctors this room-Dat enter-Past-3SG/3PL
 'The doctors entered this room.'

In Turkish, the configurational representation of a noun phrase which is composed of only one lexical noun can be analyzed as follows:



In following chapter, we will try to present an analysis of noun phrase in Turkish by reviewing all possible combinations of the elements that may occur within the phrase. All permissible structures will be given in detailed examples and permutations emerge from their interaction.

CHAPTER III: INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF NOUN PHRASE

Noun phrases in Turkish are similar to those in English in terms of their general characteristics. Majority of the properties that are presented in this section are generally defined as the universal properties of noun phrases in natural languages.

III.1. Noun Phrase

Traditionally, noun phrase is any phrase that contains a **head noun** as its central constituent (i.e., the lexical item which determines both semantic and syntactic properties of the phrase as a whole).

Every sentence has a propositional content. It is obvious that a sentence (as a meaning unit) is an expression which denotes an event, action, state, etc. Naturally, all events require participants as a consequence of their semantics. Along with other nominal constituents such as sentential nominalizations and similar constructions, noun phrases serve as arguments in the sentence in order to specify the participants of an event. Thus, noun phrases are one of the primary syntactic categories that can bear some grammatical relation within the

sentence with respect to the action which is expressed by the verb itself. In other words, all grammatical roles are expressed via noun phrases. Since nouns exist in all languages, it is natural to expect that they project their phrases universally.

It is almost impossible to imagine a particular language that does not employ noun phrases due to the fact that every sentence has to make some kind of reference to the entities or concepts participating in the event or action expressed by the predicate. Actually, a sentence, being a whole meaningful unit, is nothing more than the expression of relation among the entities and the concepts. A sentence can be considered as a special combination of elements that represent this kind of relation in a discourse. Therefore, the nominal constituents are obligatory elements to form a grammatical and acceptable sentence since every predicate predicates on some entity.

Kornfilt (1997:105) provides an operational definition of noun phrase in Turkish in the following way: "noun phrases are constituents whose last word is a noun and which bear case markers in syntactic contexts where overt case is assigned, i.e., where they function as complements of verbs and of postpositions." Although this definition adopts a descriptive stand, it suits quite well for our purpose to develop a consistent analysis in the following parts.

III.2. Noun Phrases (Modifier + Noun)

In a typical noun phrase we may find a number of elements each serving for some function depending on the type of relation they form with the head noun. These elements occur in their respective order to yield grammatical structures. Among such elements are determiners, quantifiers, adjectives, nouns, adpositional phrases, relative clauses, and adpositive clauses.

III.2.1. Determiner + Noun

Determiners are one of the major categories that can function as noun-modifying elements. Their primary function is to make definite the referent of the noun phrase and similar semantic properties. Determiners can be classified into six subcategories as *articles*, *personal determiners*, *demonstratives*, *interrogative determiners*, *exclamatory determiners*, and *quality determiners*.

III.2.1.1. Article + Noun

Articles function as the elements that simply indicate **definite** or **indefinite reference**. Articles differ from, for instance, demonstratives whose major function is related to the location of referent of the noun in this respect. Again, articles differ from other modifiers in that they form a closed set, which is a characteristic property of functional elements. According to the *Extended Standard Theory*, the position of the

determiner in the configurational structure of noun phrase is under the specifier node. Even though what counts as a specifier in phrase structure is not a settled issue, the relation between the specifier and the head is rather different than the relation between the modifier and the head noun. Specifiers cannot iterate in the phrase structure. In a way, they seal the phrase into a maximal projection while, in principle, modifiers can repeat infinitely without increasing the bar level of the category to which they are joined. In this respect, it is safe not to call determiners as modifiers.

Some languages have both definite and indefinite articles while some others may have only one, either definite article or indefinite article. However, many languages like Russian and Lithuanian lack articles altogether (Payne, 1994:2850). The articles in English are as follows:

	definite:		indefinite:
1a.	<i>the car</i>	1b.	<i>a car/ an apple</i>
1c.	<i>the butter</i>	1d.	<i>some butter</i>
1e.	<i>the cars</i>	1f.	<i>some cars</i>

Turkish has only the lexical indefinite article *bir* 'a/an'. The indefinite article *bir* is the same morpheme as the numeral/quantifier *bir* 'one'. Tura (1973); Nilsson (1985); Kornfilt (1997) all assume that Turkish has an indefinite article *bir* 'a/an.' For instance, Kornfilt (1997:106) suggests that "Turkish does not have a definite article, but it does have an indefinite article: *bir* 'a/an.'" To note the difference between numeral *bir* and the indefinite article *bir*, she stresses that "the position of the article

is different from that of the numeral: the article follows any adjective in the noun phrase and immediately precedes the noun," while the numeral is the first element in the following noun phrases:

- | | | | |
|-----|------------------------------|-----|------------------------------|
| 2a. | <i>bir güzel, olgun elma</i> | 2b. | <i>güzel, olgun bir elma</i> |
| | one nice ripe apple | | nice ripe an apple |
| | 'onenice ripe apple' | | 'anice ripe apple' |
| | | | (Kornfilt, 1997:106) |

However, this suggestion can be questioned on the basis of the observation that the phrase-initial *bir* can also be read as indefinite article in the following example:

3. *Kendi+si bir garip adam+dir+ø, herkes+i şaş-ırt-ır-ø.*
 Himself a strange man-be-3SG everybody surprise-Caus-Aor-3SG
 "He is a strange man, he surprises everybody."

Then, the difference between the indefinite article *bir* and numeral/quantifier *bir* with respect to their positions in the phrase is rather vague. It must further be noted that the example in which the indefinite article *bir* is phrase-initial is a quite marked structure, in which the expression *garip adam* is apparently emphasized.

In order to find the canonical position of the numeral *bir*, it is possible to devise a number of syntactic test as in the following examples:

- | | | | |
|-----|-----------------------|-----|-----------------------|
| 4a. | <i>yeşil bir şişe</i> | 4b. | <i>bir yeşil şişe</i> |
| | green a bottle | | a/one green bottle |
| | 'a green bottle' | | 'a/one green bottle' |

- | | | | |
|-----|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 5a. | <i>? yeşil kaç şişe?</i>
green how many bottle
'how many green bottles?' | 5b. | <i>kaç yeşil şişe?</i>
how many green bottle
'how many green bottles' |
| 6a. | <i>? yeşil dört şişe</i>
green four bottle
'four green bottles' | 6b. | <i>dört yeşil şişe</i>
four green bottle
'four green bottles' |

Now, it is possible to conclude that the canonical position of the numeral is the first slot of the noun phrase. Therefore, the phrase-initial *bir* has a numeral reading. However, it does not imply that the phrase initial *bir* is always a numeral. Rather, as it is explained in the previous examples, a phrase-initial *bir* can be treated as an indefinite article in certain contexts.

It can clearly be observed that the article system in Turkish is extremely poor if it exists at all. This study adopts a viewpoint such that it claims that Turkish does not have even an indefinite article. Rather, the numeral *bir* 'one' allows for different interpretations in different contexts. This claim will be supported by a number of issues which will be discussed in the following sections.

As it is stated earlier, the so-called indefinite article *bir* always precedes the lexical noun in a noun phrase, as in the following examples:

- | | | | |
|-----|------------------------------------------|-----|---------------------------------------------|
| 7a. | <i>bir insan</i>
a human
'a human' | 7b. | <i>bir doktor</i>
a doctor
'a doctor' |
|-----|------------------------------------------|-----|---------------------------------------------|

- 7c. *bir kedi*
a cat
'a cat'
- 7d. *bir ev*
a house
'a house'
- 7e. *bir (bardak) çay*
a (glass) tea
'a (cup of) tea'
- 7f. *bir düşünce*
a thought/idea
'a thought/idea'

Plural lexical nouns cannot select the indefinite article *bir* as their modifier in a noun phrase:

- 8a. **bir doktor+lar*
a doctor-PL
'a doctors'
- 8b. **bir düşünce+ler*
a thought/idea-PL
'a thoughts/ideas'

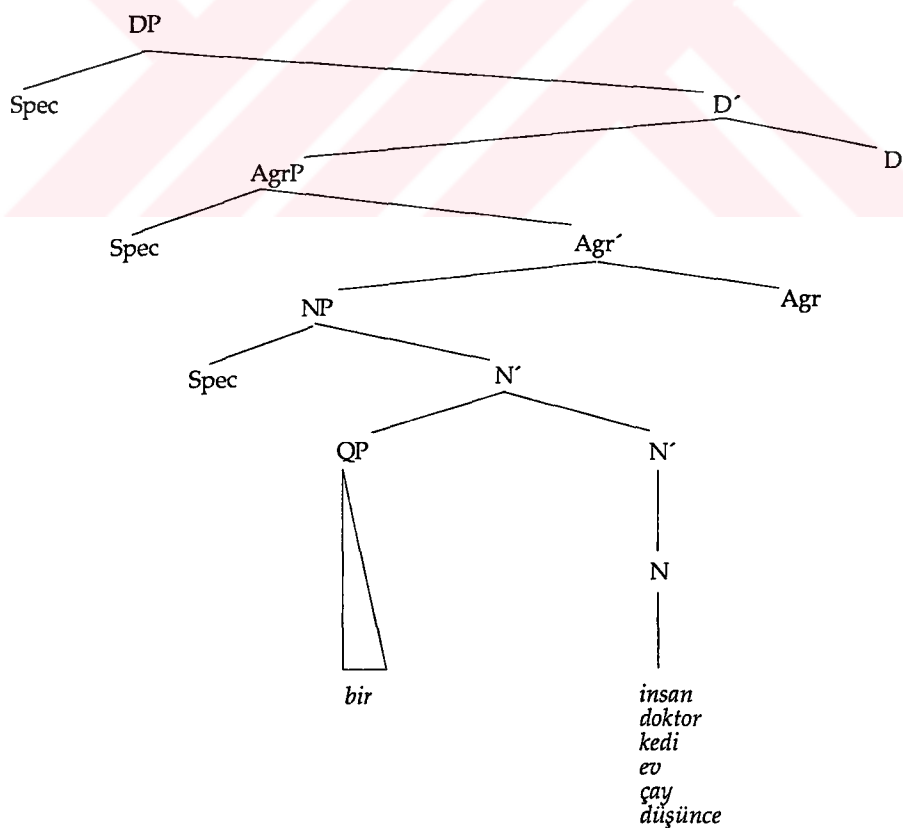
In Turkish, a noun phrase including an indefinite article can be interpreted as either generic or specific depending on the context in which it is used. For instance, (9) and (10) contain noun phrases which are capable of denoting a generic and a specific reference respectively (along with alternative readings expressing quantity):

9. *Bir doktor iş+i+ni sev-meli-ø.* (indefinite, generic)
a doctor job-3SG-Acc love-Nec-3SG
'A doctor must love his job.'
10. *Dün hastane+de bir doktor gör-dü-m.* (indefinite, specific)
Yesterday hospital-Loc a doctor see-Past-1SG
'Yesterday I saw a doctor at the hospital.'

In accordance with the standpoint that is adopted in the previous parts of this study, the so-called indefinite article *bir* occupies a

quantifier node in (11). It is well known that the articles occupy specifier node in the X-bar format as defined in the Standard Theory. However, as it is stressed earlier, the DP Hypothesis places the articles under a D node, which is, in fact, the head of the whole noun phrase. The idea behind placing the so-called indefinite article *bir* under a QP node will be apparent in the following parts of this chapter. At this point, we can claim that Turkish does not have a 'true' article as English does. On the contrary, Turkish has an element (whose primary function is to express the quantity of the entities expressed by the lexical nouns) in order to satisfy a natural need to express indefinite reference in the language system. Thus, it is plausible to place the so-called indefinite article *bir* under a QP node as shown in the following PM:

11.



III.2.1.2. Personal Determiner + Noun

Another category which may appear within an NP is personal determiner which is defined as "... the determiners which indicate the person of a noun phrase. In English, the personal determiners are *we* and *you* (PL)" (Payne, 1994:2850). These determiners are used with "grammatically plural common nouns." Examples of English personal determiners are as follows:

- | | | | |
|------|--------------------|------|---------------------|
| 12a. | <i>we students</i> | 12b. | <i>you students</i> |
| 13a. | <i>we heroes</i> | 13b. | <i>you heroes</i> |

Turkish has also similar structures. All Turkish pronouns (*i.e.*, *ben, sen, o, biz, siz, onlar*) can be used as personal determiners that are placed in a position which precedes the lexical noun. In Turkish, noun phrases that contain a personal determiner have interpretations that are appositional or vocative in flavor. The following noun phrases contain personal determiners followed by the lexical nouns:

- | | | | |
|------|-------------------------------------------------------------|------|----------------------------------------------------------------|
| 14a. | <i>ben Namık Kemal</i>
I Namık Kemal
'INamıkKemal' | 14b. | <i>ben Tevfik Fikret</i>
I Tevfik Fikret
'ITevfikFikret' |
| 14c. | <i>ben Ruhi Bey</i>
I Ruhi Mister
'ImisterRuhi' | 14d. | <i>ben Sultan Murat</i>
I Sultan Murat
'ISultanMurat' |
| 14e. | <i>ben Doktor Kemal</i>
I doctor Kemal
'IdoctorKemal' | 14f. | <i>ben Aysel Hemşire</i>
I Aysel nurse
'InurseAysel' |

- | | | | |
|------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 14g. | <i>ben imparator+unuz</i>
I emperor-2PL
'Iyour emperor' | 14h. | <i>ben siz+in imparator+unuz</i>
I you-Gen emperor-2PL
'Iyour emperor' |
| 14i. | <i>ben sultan+lar sultan+ı</i>
I sultan-PL sultan-3PL
'Ithe sultan of sultans' | 14j. | <i>ben ülke+ler hakan+ı</i>
I country-PL king-3PL
'Ithe king of (all) countries' |
| 14k. | * <i>ben doktor</i>
I doctor
'Idoctor' | 14l. | * <i>ben hemşire</i>
I nurse
'Inurse' |

Proper nouns, including a person's title or profession, certain Genitive Phrase Constructions (the so-called N-Gen + N-Poss constructions for short) can select the first person singular pronoun *ben* 'I' as a personal determiner. The interpretation of noun phrases that include *ben* 'I' as a personal determiner is one of apposition. In a way, the lexical noun is the explanation of the personal determiner in terms of the semantics of these noun phrases. On the other hand, it is impossible to interpret a noun phrase including *ben* 'I' (1SG) as a vocative while the vocative is a natural interpretation with the personal determiner *sen* 'you' (2SG) and *siz* 'you' (2PL):

- | | | | |
|------|--------------------------------------------------------------|------|------------------------------------------------------------|
| 15a. | <i>sen çocuk!</i>
you child
'you child' | 15b. | <i>sen dilenci!</i>
you beggar
'you beggar' |
| 15c. | <i>siz vatandaş+lar!</i>
you citizen-PL
'you citizens' | 15d. | <i>siz emekçi+ler!</i>
you laborer-PL
'you laborers' |

- 15e. *siz yol+un orta+sı+nda+ki+ler*
 you road-Gen middle-3SG-Loc-?-PL
 'you those in the middle of the road!'

In addition to the vocative function, noun phrases including *sen* 'you' (2SG) can also be interpreted as appositional expressions:

- | | | | |
|------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 16a. | <i>sen Mustafa Kemal</i>
you Mustafa Kemal
'you Mustafa Kemal' | 16b. | <i>sen Tevfik Fikret</i>
you Tevfik Fikret
'you Tevfik Fikret' |
| 16c. | <i>sen Hilmi Bey</i>
you Hilmi mister
'you mister Hilmi' | 16d. | <i>sen Ahmet Abi</i>
you Ahmet elder-brother
'you brother Ahmet' |
| 16e. | <i>sen Doktor Kemal</i>
you doctor Kemal
'you doctor Kemal' | 16f. | <i>sen Aysel Hemşire</i>
you Aysel nurse
'you nurse Aysel' |
| 16g. | <i>sen imparator+umuz</i>
you emperor-1PL
'you our emperor' | 16h. | <i>sen biz+im imparator+umuz</i>
you we-Gen emperor-1PL
'you our emperor' |
| 16i. | <i>sen sultan+lar sultan+ı</i>
you sultan-PL sultan-3PL
'you the sultan of sultans' | 16j. | <i>sen ülke+ler hakan+ı</i>
you country-PL king-3PL
'you the king of (all) countries' |

The third person singular pronoun *o* 'he, she, it' can also be used in a noun phrase as a personal determiner in order to denote an appositional meaning. As a caution to avoid a confusion, it is vital to

note that the 3SG pronoun *o* 'he, she, it' is phonetically identical with the demonstrative *o* 'that, yonder' in Turkish.

- | | | | |
|------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 17a. | <i>o Namık Kemal</i>
he Namık Kemal
'heNamıkKemal' | 17b. | <i>o Tevfik Fikret</i>
he Tevfik Fikret
'heTevfikFikret' |
| 17c. | <i>o Ruhi Bey</i>
he Ruhi Mister
'hemisterRuhi' | 17d. | <i>o Sultan Murat</i>
he Sultan Murat
'heSultanMurat' |
| 17e. | <i>o Doktor Kemal</i>
he doctor Kemal
'he doctor Kemal' | 17f. | <i>o Aysel Hemşire</i>
she Aysel nurse
'she nurse Aysel' |
| 17g. | <i>o imparator+unuz</i>
he emperor-2PL
'he your emperor' | 17h. | <i>o siz+in imparator+unuz</i>
he you-Gen emperor-2PL
'he your emperor' |
| 17i. | <i>o sultan+lar sultan+ı</i>
he sultan-PL sultan-3PL
'he the sultan of sultans' | 17j. | <i>o ülke+ler hakan+ı</i>
he country-PL king-3PL
'he the king of (all) countries' |

While proper nouns and similar expressions, which are, of course, singular, select 1SG *ben* 'I', 2SG *sen* 'you', and 3SG *o* 'he, she, it' as their personal determiners, only the plural nouns can take 1PL *biz* 'we', 2PL *siz* 'you', and 3PL *onlar* 'they' as personal determiners.

- | | | | |
|------|----------------------------------------------------|------|-----------------------------------------------|
| 18a. | <i>biz insan+lar</i>
we human-PL
'we humans' | 18b. | <i>biz erkek+ler</i>
we man-PL
'we men' |
|------|----------------------------------------------------|------|-----------------------------------------------|

- | | | | |
|------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 18c. | <i>biz çocuk+lar+ınız</i>
we child-PL-2PL
'we your children' | 18c. | <i>biz siz+in çocuk+lar+ınız</i>
we you-Gen child-PL-2PL
'we your children' |
| 19a. | <i>siz insan+lar</i>
you human-PL
'you humans' | 19b. | <i>siz erkek+ler</i>
you man-PL
'you men' |
| 19c. | <i>siz çocuk+lar+ımız</i>
you child-PL-1PL
'you our children' | 19c. | <i>siz biz+im çocuk+lar+ımız</i>
you we-Gen child-PL-1PL
'you our children' |
| 20a. | <i>?onlar insan+lar</i>
they human-PL
'theyhumans' | 20b. | <i>?onlar erkek+ler</i>
they man-PL
'theymen' |
| 20c. | <i>onlar çocuk+lar+ımız</i>
they child-PL-1PL
'theyour children' | 20c. | <i>onlar biz+im çocuk+lar+ımız</i>
they we-Gen child-PL-1PL
'theyour children' |

These and other similar noun phrases may occur in possible contexts some of which are provided below:

- 21a. *Ben doktor Kemal şimdi ne yap-ıyor-um?*
 21b. *Sen çocuk doğru+yu söyle!*
 21c. *O Doktor Kemal hastane+miz+in gurur+u!*
 21d. *Biz doktor+lar bu karar+ı kabul et-mi-yor-uz!*
 21e. *Siz doktor+lar hasta+lar+ı iyi anla-malı-sınız!*
 21f. *? Onlar doktor+lar biz+ler+in gurur+u!*
 21g. *Onlar doktor+lar+ımız biz+ler+in gurur+u!*
 21h. *Onlar kahraman asker+ler+imiz biz+ler+in gurur+u!*

While *biz Türk+ler* is a possible grammatical structure, * *biz Türk* is ungrammatical. It can be concluded from this observation that plural marking is obligatory in this case. This observation is rather interesting because the lack of number agreement between the numeral and the head noun in noun phrase is obligatory, as opposed to this observation:

22a.	<i>biz</i>	<i>Türk+ler</i>	'we Turks'
22b.	* <i>biz</i>	<i>Türk</i>	'we Turk'
22c.	* <i>biz+ler</i>	<i>Türk</i>	'we-pl. Turk'
23a.	* <i>üç</i>	<i>adam+lar</i>	'threemen'
23b.	<i>üç</i>	<i>adam</i>	'threeman'
23c.	* <i>üç-ler</i>	<i>adam</i>	'three-PLman'

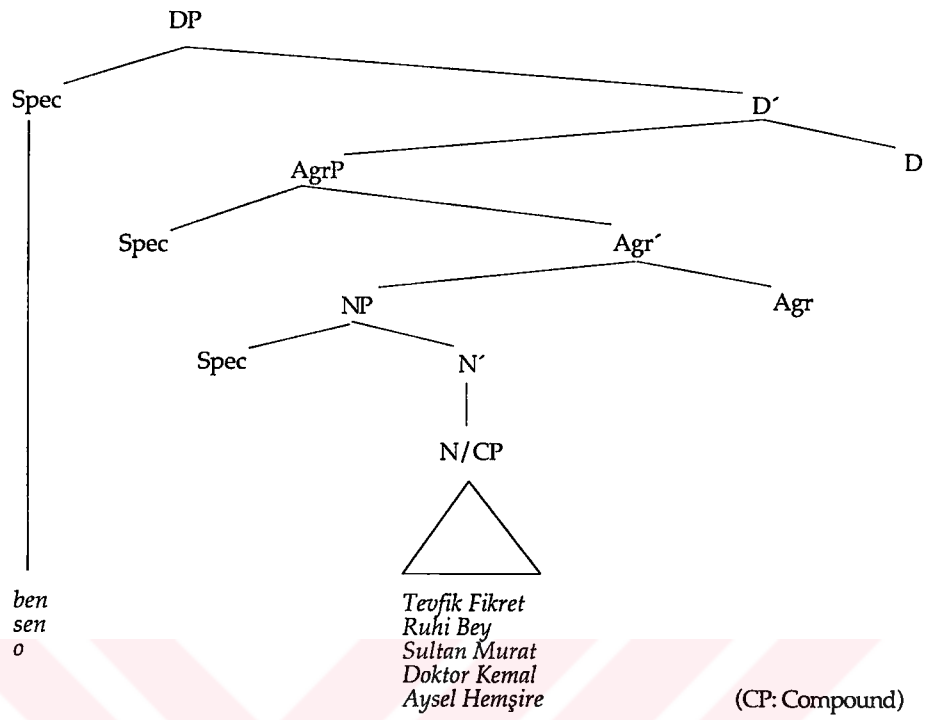
However, some expressions, especially the names of individual locations, which include a numeral can behave in a different way. This kind of expressions are called **epitaph**:

24a.	<i>kırk konak+lar</i>	'fortymansions'
24b.	<i>üç silah+şör+ler</i>	'threemuskeeters'
24c.	<i>kırk harami+ler</i>	'fortyrobbers'

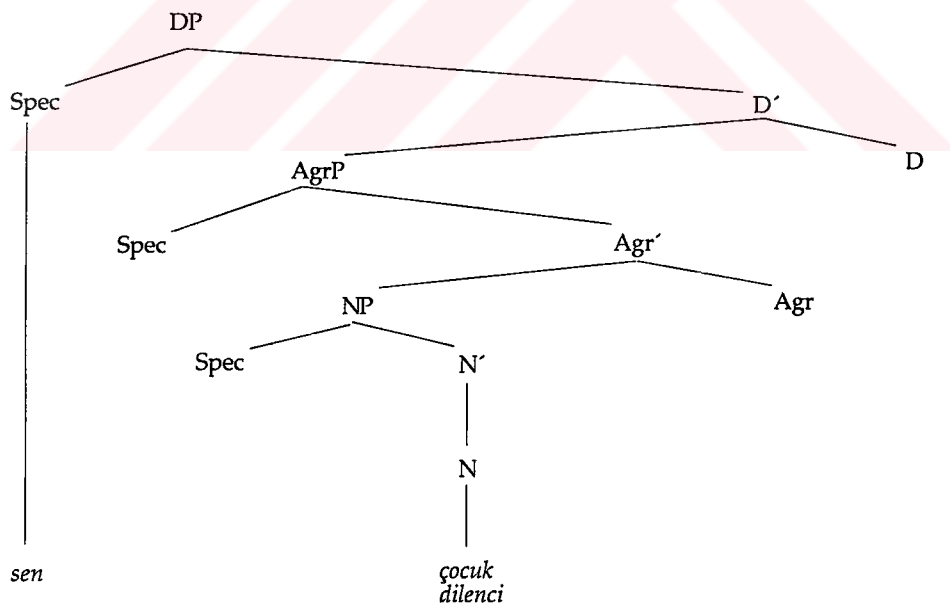
Here, we observe a rather petrified construction then a quantifier-head relation, in other words, the numeral occurring before noun does not necessarily quantify the noun as such.

Personal determiners can be placed under a specifier node of DP as it is shown in the following PMs:

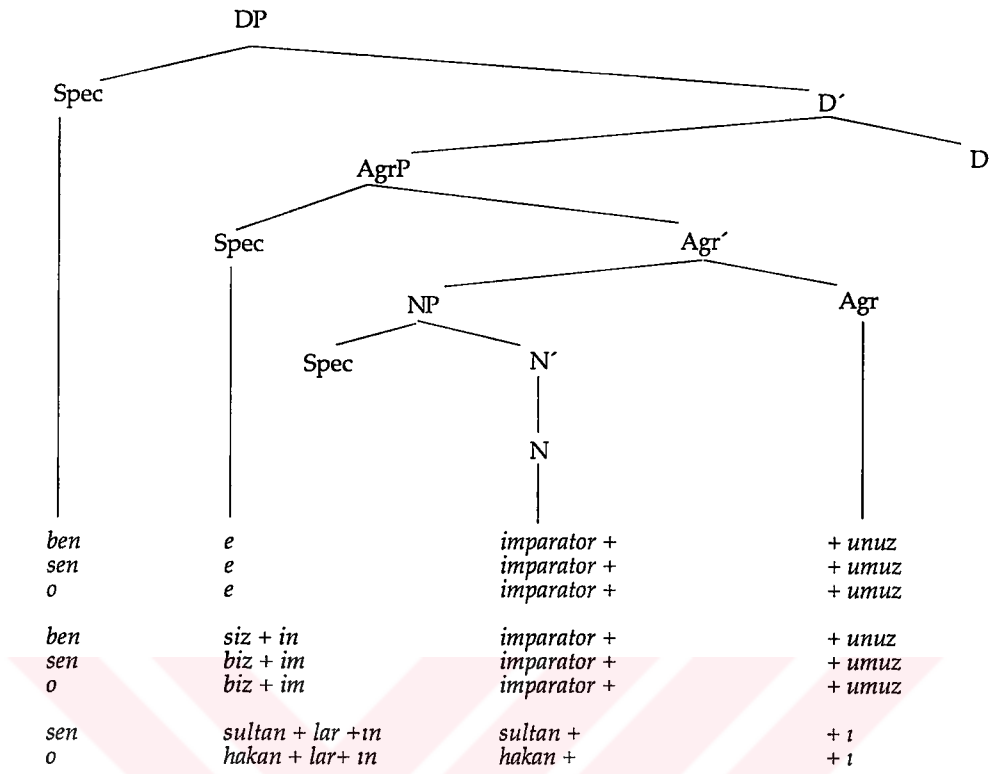
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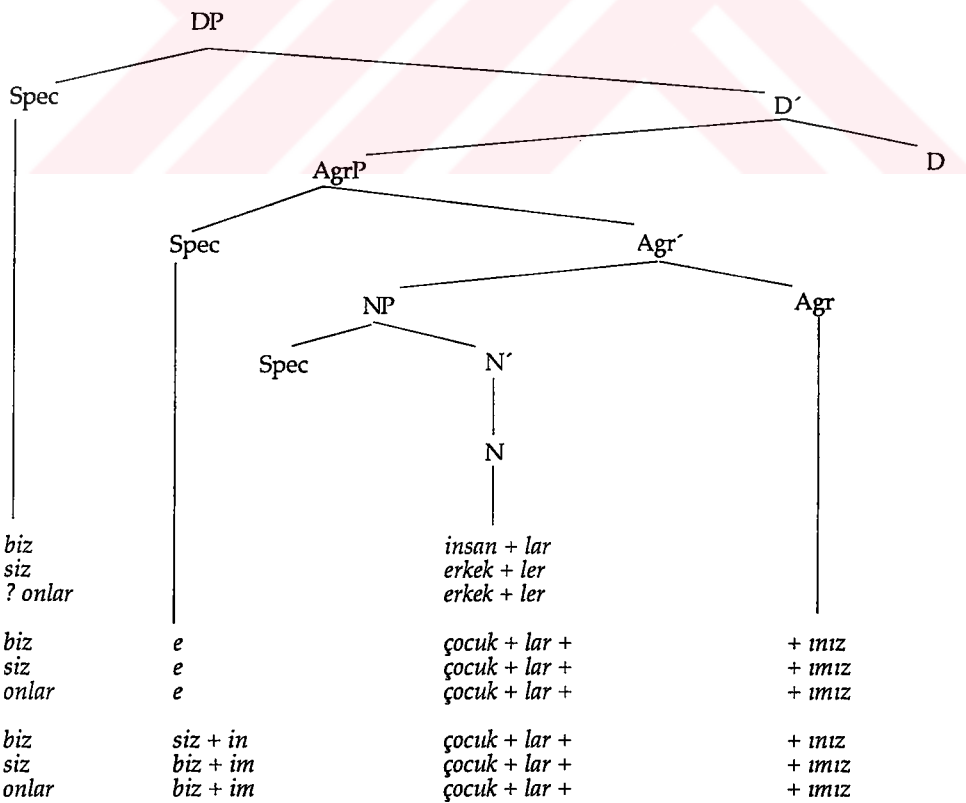
26.



27.



28.



III.2.1.3. Demonstrative + Noun

Demonstratives serve as deictic elements that generally indicate the location of the referent of the noun phrase with respect to the context of utterance. English demonstratives are:

- 29a. *this / these*
 29b. *that / those*

These demonstratives can cooccur with common nouns and the grammatical number is marked on them. Some examples are given here:

- 30a. *this car* 30b. *that car*
 30c. *these cars* 30d. *those cars*

The distinction between *this/these* and *that/those* can be explained in terms of the closeness to and distance from the speaker. In addition, these demonstratives differentiate singular nouns from plural nouns syntactically.

- 31a. * *this cars* 31b. * *that cars*
 31c. * *these car* 31d. * *those car*

Turkish has a three-way distinction in the demonstrative system:

- 32a. *bu* 'this' (close to the speaker)
 32b. *şu* 'that' (further away from the speaker)
 32c. *o* 'that', 'yonder' (furthest from the speaker)

In Turkish, the demonstratives *bu* 'this,' *şu* 'that,' and *o* 'yonder, that' can precede a lexical noun irrespective of the number and the semantic content of the noun.

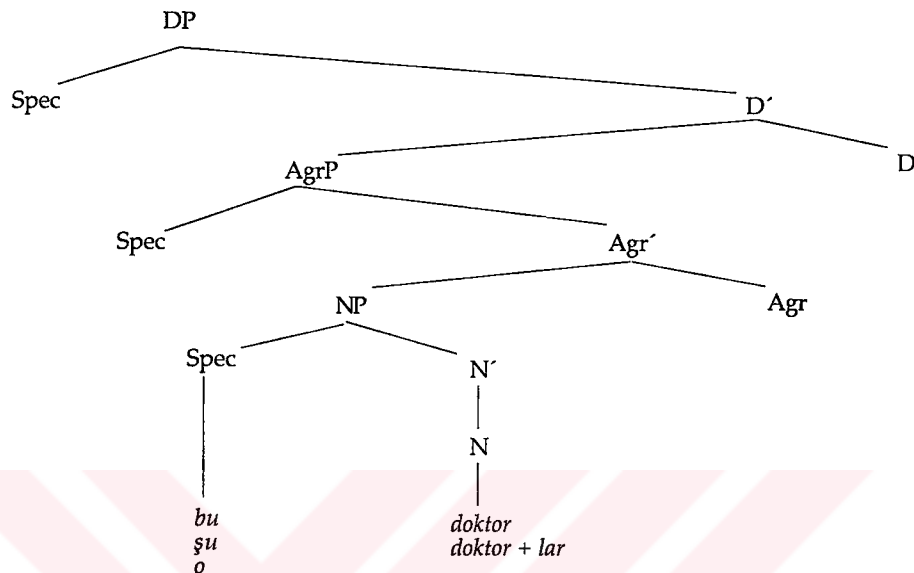
- | | | | |
|------|-----------------------------------------------------------------|------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 33a. | <i>bu doktor</i>
this doctor
'this doctor' | 33b. | <i>bu doktor+lar</i>
this doctor-PL
'these doctors' |
| 34a. | <i>şu doktor</i>
that doctor
'that doctor' | 34b. | <i>şu doktor+lar</i>
that doctor-PL
'those doctors' |
| 35a. | <i>o doktor</i>
that, yonder doctor
'that, yonder doctor' | 35b. | <i>o doktor+lar</i>
that, yonder doctor-PL
'those yonder doctors' |
- 36a. *Bu doktor hastane+de hiç sev-il-me-z-ø.*
 36b. *Şu doktor hastane+de hiç sev-il-me-z-ø.*
 36c. *O doktor hastane+de hiç sev-il-me-z-ø.*
- 36d. *Bu doktor+lar hastane+de hiç sev-il-me-z-ø.*
 36e. *Şu doktor+lar hastane+de hiç sev-il-me-z-ø.*
 36f. *O doktor+lar hastane+de hiç sev-il-me-z-ø.*

and also interestingly the following in which the head noun of the phrase is deleted, a process which is very common in Turkish:

- 36g. *Bun+lar hastane+de hiç sev-il-me-z-ø.*
 36h. *Şun+lar hastane+de hiç sev-il-me-z-ø.*
 36i. *On+lar hastane+de hiç sev-il-me-z-ø.*

Demonstratives can be inserted under the Specifier node of NP [Spec, NP] as in the following PM:

37.



III.2.1.4. Interrogative Determiner + Noun

Interrogative determiners are forms like *which* and *what* in English. They are *wh*-words (or question words) that question certain aspects of the lexical nouns. Examples are:

38a. *which car?*38b. *which boy?*38c. *what car?*38d. *what consequence?*

Turkish has a number of **wh-words** or **question words** that can be used as interrogative determiners. Interrogative determiners in Turkish always precede the lexical noun. Some examples follow:

- | | | |
|------|-------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 39a. | <i>hangi doktor</i>
which doctor
'which doctor' | 39b. <i>hangi doktor+lar</i>
which doctor-PL
'which doctors' |
| 40a. | <i>kaç (tane) doktor</i>
how many doctor
'howmanydoctors' | 40b. * <i>kaç (tane) doktor+lar</i>
howmany doctor-PL
'howmanydoctors' |
| 41a. | <i>nasıl (bir) doktor</i>
how (a) doctor
'whatkindofdoctor' | 41b. <i>nasıl doktor+lar</i>
how doctor-PL
'whatkindofdoctors' |
| 42a. | <i>ne doktor+u</i>
what doctor+3SG or Acc(?)
'whatdoctor' | 42b. <i>ne doktor+lar+ı</i>
what doctor-PL-CS
'whatdoctors' |
| 43a. | <i>ne kadar pirinç</i>
how much rice
'howmuchrice' | 43b. <i>ne kadar doktor</i>
how many doctor
'howmanydoctors' |
| 44a. | <i>niye doktor</i>
why doctor
'whydoctor' | 44b. <i>niye doktor+lar</i>
why doctors-PL
'whydoctors' |
| 45a. | <i>niçin doktor</i>
why doctor
'whydoctor' | 45b. <i>neden doktor</i>
why doctor
'whydoctor' |

Some more examples with nouns whose semantics vary in accordance with the semantics of the *wh*-word :

- | | | | |
|------|--------------------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 46a. | <i>hangi araba?</i> | <i>ne arabas-ı?</i> | <i>nasıl bir araba?</i> |
| 46b. | <i>hangi ev?</i> | <i>ne ev-i?</i> | <i>nasıl bir ev?</i> |
| 46c. | <i>hangi kadın?</i> | <i>ne kadın-ı?</i> | <i>nasıl bir kadın?</i> |
| 46d. | <i>hangi düşünce</i> | <i>ne düşünces-i?</i> | <i>nasıl bir düşünce?</i> |
| 46e. | <i>hangi toz?</i> | <i>ne toz-u?</i> | <i>nasıl bir toz?</i> |
| 47a. | <i>niye araba?</i> | <i>niçin araba?</i> | <i>neden araba?</i> |
| 47b. | <i>niye ev?</i> | <i>niçin ev?</i> | <i>neden ev?</i> |
| 47c. | <i>niye kadın?</i> | <i>niçin kadın?</i> | <i>neden kadın?</i> |
| 47d. | <i>niye düşünce?</i> | <i>niçin düşünce?</i> | <i>neden düşünce?</i> |
| 47e. | <i>niye toz?</i> | <i>niçin toz?</i> | <i>neden toz?</i> |
| 48a. | <i>kaç araba?</i> | <i>hangi ev-ler?</i> | <i>*kaç toz?</i> |
| 48b. | <i>kaç ev?</i> | <i>*ne ev-ler-i</i> | <i>*kaç araba-lar?</i> |
| 48c. | <i>kaç kadın?</i> | <i>nasıl araba-lar?</i> | <i>kaç toz? (types of powder)</i> |
| 48d. | <i>kaç düşünce?</i> | <i>niye ev-ler?</i> | |
| 49a. | <i>hangi+si</i> | 49b. | <i>adam+lar+ın hangi+si</i> |
| 49c. | <i>hangi+leri</i> | 49d. | <i>tür+ler+in hangi+leri</i> |
| 50a. | <i>Hangi doktor sen+i muayene et-ti-ø?</i> | | |

This question can be answered in a number of ways. Among others, we may consider the following contexts where a rather short answer is provided in the form an NP rather than a sentence:

- 50b. *Bu doktor*
 50c. *Becerikli doktor*
 50d. *Kadın doktor*
 50e. *Oda+da bul-un-an doktor*
 50f. *Oda+da+ki doktor*

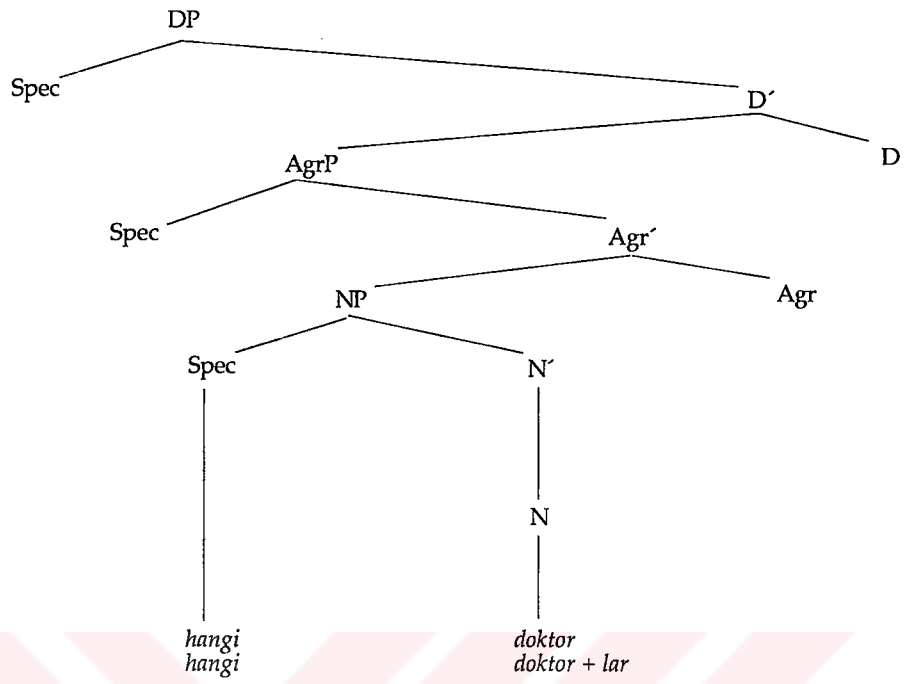
- 50g. *Bu becerikli doktor*
 50h. *Oda+da+ki bu becerikli doktor*
 50i. *Oda+da+ki bu becerikli kadın doktor*
 50j. *Oda+da bul-un-an bu becerikli kadın doktor*
 50k. *Oda+da bul-un-an becerikli bir kadın doktor*

The following are some combinations formed with interrogative determiners.

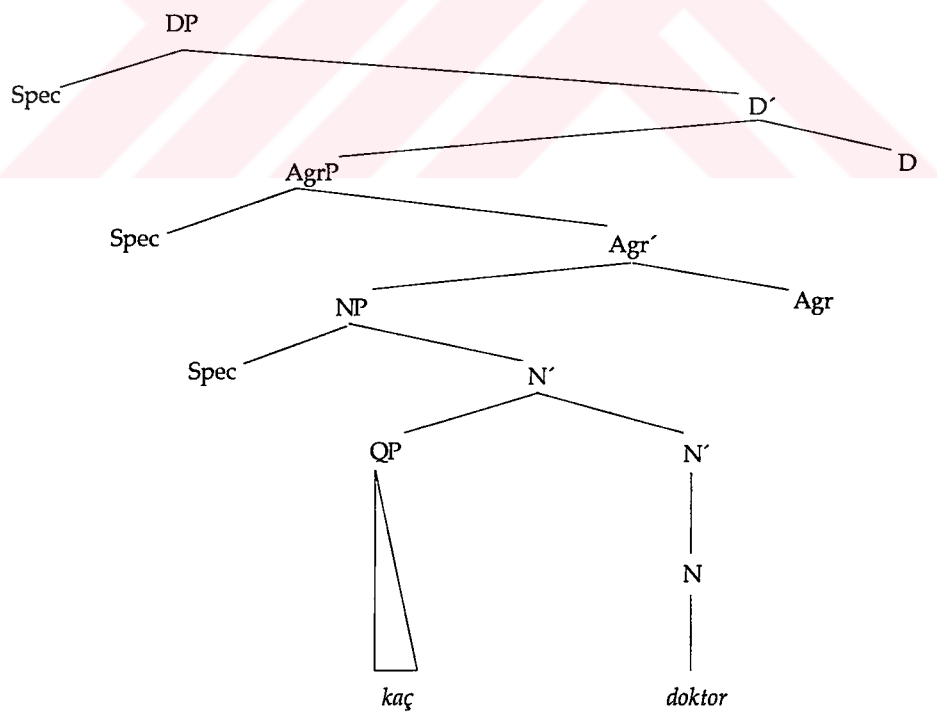
- 51a. ** Hangi bu doktor*
 51b. *Hangi becerikli doktor*
 51c. *Hangi kadın doktor*
 51d. ** Hangi bir doktor*
 51e. *Oda+da bul-un-an hangi doktor*
 51f. *Oda+da bul-un-an hangi becerikli doktor*
 51g. *Oda+da bul-un-an hangi kadın doktor*
 51h. *Oda+da bul-un-an hangi becerikli kadın doktor*
 51i. *[Hangi oda] + da bul-un-an becerikli kadın doktor*
52. *Kaç doktor sen+i muayene et-ti-ø?*
 53. *Nasıl bir doktor sen+i muayene et-ti-ø?*
 54. *Ne doktor+u+ndan bahsed-iyor-sun?*
 55. *Ne kadar pirinç al-dı-n?*

Regarding semantic contents of these interrogative determiners, it is possible to propose that each of these interrogatives occupies the position it questions. Then, the PMs for the interrogative determiners differentiate with respect to the item that is questioned.

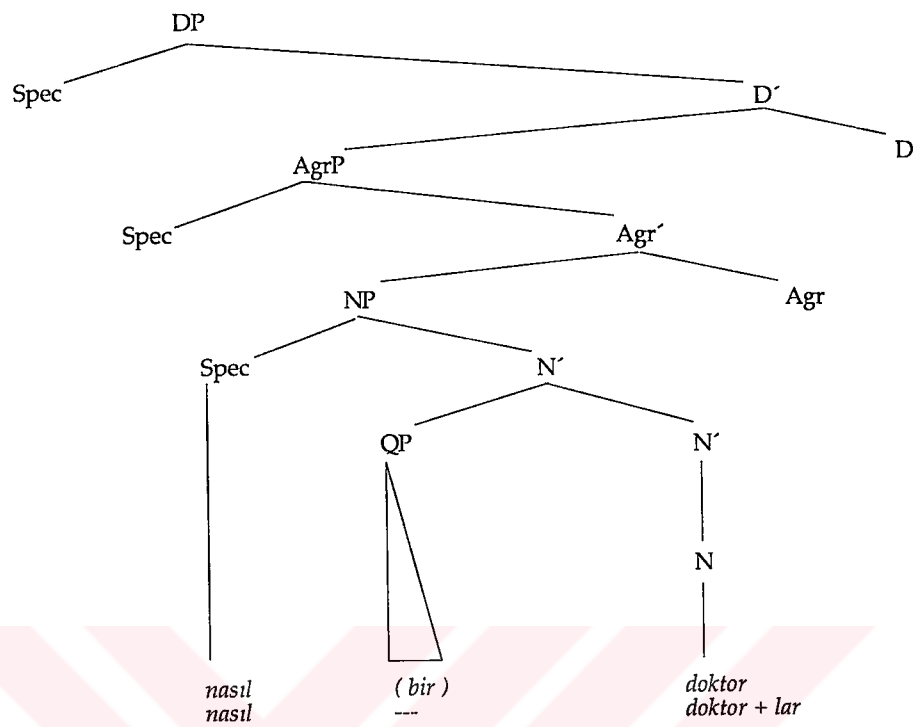
56.



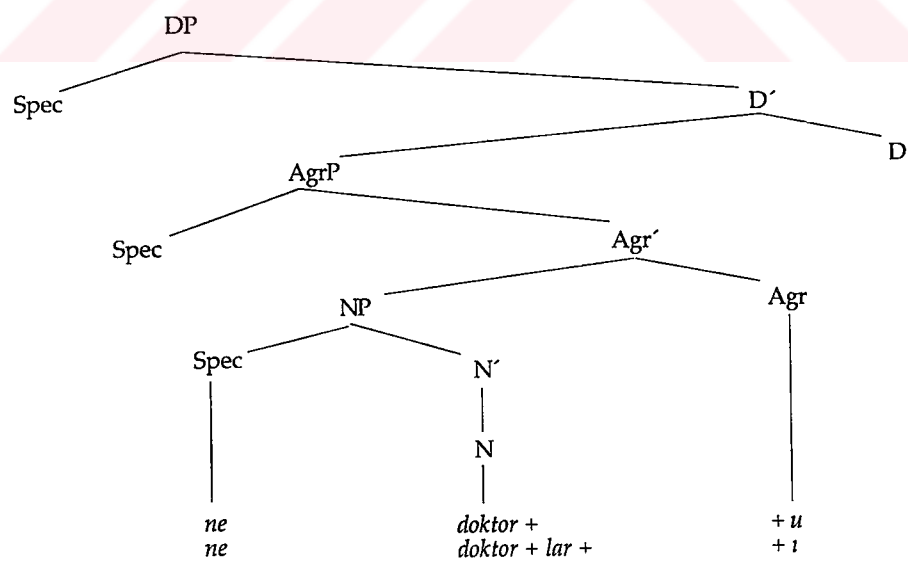
57.



58.



59.



III.2.1.5. Quality Determiner + Noun

Quality determiners are forms like *such* in English.

60a. *such a fool*

60b. *such fools*

61a. *böyle doktor*

such doctor

'such a doctor'

61b. *böyle doktor+lar*

such doctor-PL

'such doctors'

61a. *şöyle doktor*

such doctor

'a doctor like this one'

61b. *şöyle doktor+lar*

such doctor-PL

'doctors like these ones'

61a. *öyle doktor*

such doctor

'a doctor like that one'

61b. *öyle doktor+lar*

such doctor-PL

'doctors like those ones'

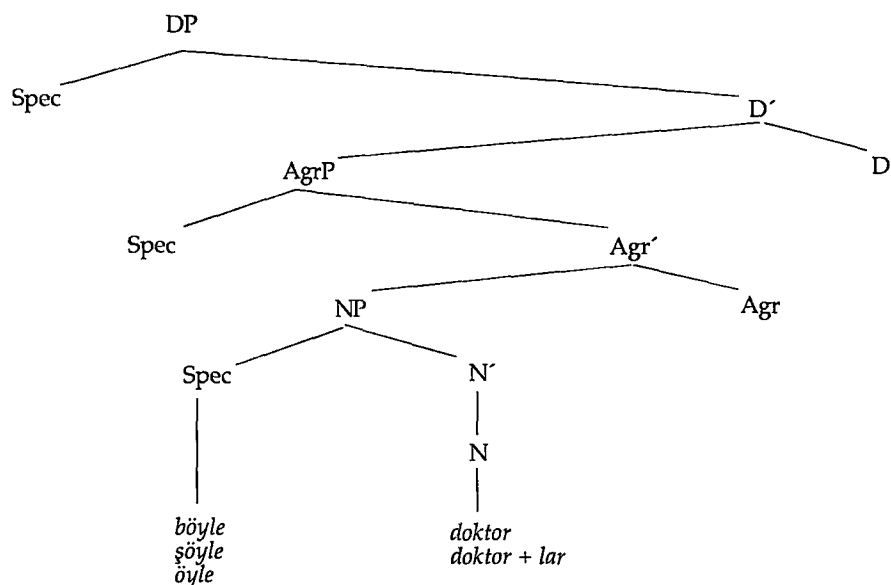
Following are some contexts where these types of noun phrases may occur:

62. *Şimdi+ye dek böyle doktor gör-me-di-m.*

63. *Şöyle bir doktor+um ol-ma-dı-ø.*

64. *Ben öyle doktor gör-me-di-m.*

65.



III.2.1.6. Exclamatory Determiner + Noun

Exclamatory determiners are forms like *what* in English.

66a. *what a fool!*

66b. *what fools!*

The examples of Turkish exclamatory determiners can be exemplified as in the following:

67a. *ne doktor*
what doctor
'what a doctor'

67b. *ne doktor+lar*
what doctor-PL
'what doctors'

68a. *nasıl doktor*
how doctor
'what kind of doctor'
'what doctor'

68b. *nasıl doktor+lar*
how doctor-PL
'what kind of doctors'
'what doctors'

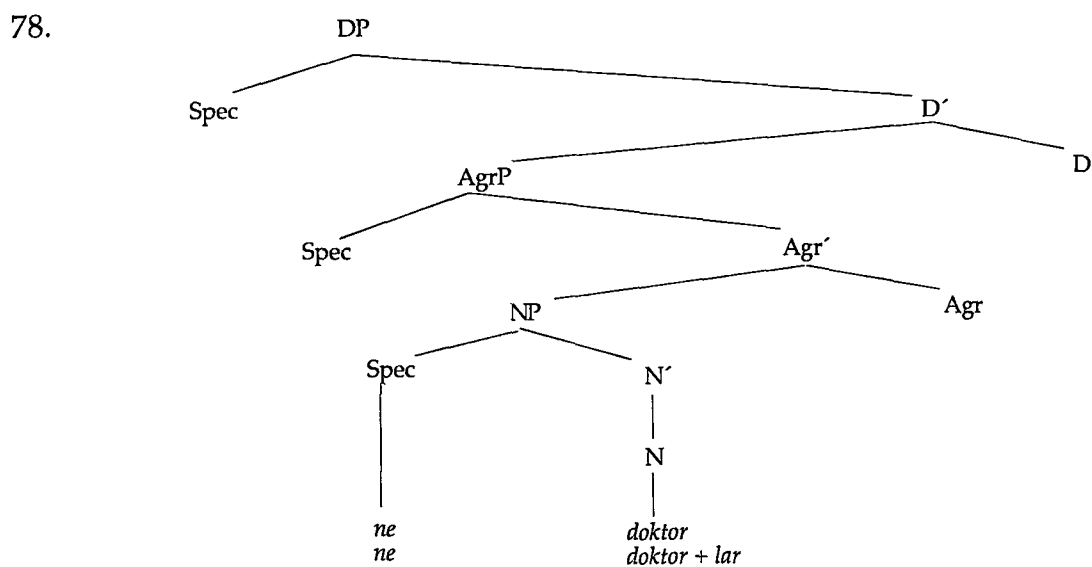
69c.	<i>nasıl bir doktor</i> what a doctor 'what kind of doctor' 'what a doctor'	69d. * <i>nasıl bir doktor+lar</i> how a doctor-PL 'what kind of doctors' 'what doctors'
70a.	<i>kaç doktor</i> how many doctor 'how many doctors'	70b. * <i>kaç doktor+lar</i> how many doctor-PL 'how many doctors'
71a.	<i>onca doktor</i> so many doctor 'so many doctor'	71b. * <i>onca doktor+lar</i> so many doctor-PL 'so many doctors'

Some other examples of exclamatory determiners which may occur within a noun phrase in Turkish are as follows:

	Example:	Literal:	Equivalent:
72a.	<i>ne araba!</i>	(what car!)	'what a car!'
72b.	* <i>ne bir araba!</i>	(what a car!)	'what a / one car!'
72c.	* <i>bir ne araba!</i>	(a / one what car!)	'a / one what car!'
72d.	<i>ne kadın!</i>	(what woman!)	'what a woman!'
72e.	<i>ne düşünce!</i>	(what thought!)	'what a thought!'
72f.	<i>ne çay!</i>	(what tea!)	'what a tea!' (a particular type of tea)
73a.	<i>ne araba ama!</i>		'but what a car it is!'
73b.	<i>ne kadın be!</i>		'what a woman!'
73c.	<i>ne düşünce o öyle!</i>		'what a thought it is!'
73d.	<i>ne çay ama!</i>		'what a tea! (a particular service)'
74a.	<i>nasıl bir araba!</i>		'what kind of car it is!'
74b.	<i>nasıl bir adam!</i>		'what kind of man he is!'

74c.	<i>nasıl bir düşünce!</i>	'what kind of thought it is!'
74d.	<i>nasıl bir çay!</i>	'what kind of tea it is!'
75a.	<i>nasıl araba-lar!</i>	'what kind of cars!'
75b.	<i>nasıl evl-er!</i>	'what kind of houses!'
75c.	<i>nasıl kadın-lar!</i>	'what kind of women!'
75d.	<i>Nasıl evler onlar öyle!</i>	'what kind of houses they are!'
76a.	<i>nasıl bir araba ama!</i>	'but what kind of car it is!'
76b.	<i>ama nasıl bir adam!</i>	'but what kind of man he is!'
76c.	<i>ama nasıl bir söz !</i>	'but what kind of speech it is!'
76d.	<i>kaç araba!</i>	'how many cars!, too many cars!'
76e.	<i>kaç insan!</i>	'too many people!'
77a.	<i>ne kadar insan!</i>	'how / too many people!'
77b.	<i>o kadar insan!</i>	'that many people'
77c.	<i>işte o kadar insan!</i>	'that / so many people!'
77d.	<i>onca insan!</i>	'that / so many people!'

This type of exclamatory determiners appear under the Spec of NP:



It is possible to provide contexts for such NPs with exclamatory determiners:

79. *Kendi+si ne doktor ama!*
 80. *Kendi+si nasıl doktor ama!*
 81. *Hastaya kaç doktor bak-tı-ø, bil-iyor-mu-sun!*
 82. *Onca doktor gel-miş-ø!*

III.2.2. Quantifier + Noun

The primary function that quantifiers fulfill is to indicate the quantity of elements referred to by the noun phrase. From a number of perspectives, quantifiers are similar to adjectives. For instance, they permit the same kinds of modification as adjectives. They are sometimes be treated as a special subclass of adjectives. The quantifier *many* in English, for example, permits premodification by the adverb *very* :

- | | | | | | |
|------|-------------|---------------|------|------------------|---------------|
| 83a. | <i>many</i> | <i>people</i> | 83b. | <i>very many</i> | <i>people</i> |
| 83c. | <i>many</i> | <i>cars</i> | 83d. | <i>very many</i> | <i>cars</i> |
| 83e. | <i>many</i> | <i>ideas</i> | 83f. | <i>very many</i> | <i>ideas</i> |

Similarly, the quantifier *many* in English has both comparative and superlative forms:

- | | | | | | |
|------|-------------|---------------|------|-------------|---------------|
| 84a | <i>more</i> | <i>people</i> | 84b. | <i>most</i> | <i>people</i> |
| 84c. | <i>more</i> | <i>cars</i> | 84d. | <i>most</i> | <i>cars</i> |
| 84e. | <i>more</i> | <i>ideas</i> | 84f. | <i>most</i> | <i>ideas</i> |
| 85a. | <i>many</i> | <i>cars</i> | 86a. | <i>much</i> | <i>water</i> |
| 85b. | <i>more</i> | <i>cars</i> | 86b. | <i>more</i> | <i>water</i> |

- 85c. *most cars* 86c. *most water*
 85d. *very many cars* 86d. *very much water*

The same judgement is true for some others such as *few* and *little*.

- 87a. *few people* 88a. *little water*
 87b. *fewer people* 88b. *less water*
 87c. *fewest people* 88c. *least water*

Some other quantifiers may be preceded by other degree expressions as follows:

- 89a. *all the cars* 89b. *virtually all the cars*
 90a. *enough cars* 90b. *not nearly enough cars*
 91a. *few cars* 91b. *indescribably few cars*
 92a. *no cars* 92b. *absolutely no cars*
 93a. *two cars* 93b. *almost two cars*

Here is a list of English quantifiers:

94. *all, both, half, every, each, any, either, some, much, enough, several, many, more, most, a few, few, fewer, fewest, a little, little, less, least, neither, no, and cardinal numbers (one, two, three, twenty, hundred, etc.)*

Quantifiers in Turkish have a similar function. Most of the quantifiers are compound words in terms of their morphology although there are a number of root words that can be employed as quantifier in Turkish.

- 95a. **root:**
az, başka, bazı, bütün, çok, diğer, her, hiç, kimi, öbür, tüm, yarım
- 95b. **compound:**
biraz, birçok, birtakım, en az, en çok, herbir, hiçbir, her iki, birkaç, bir-iki, iki-üç, üç-dört, üç-beş, etc. and the cardinal numbers (bir, iki, üç, etc.) and their derivations as on+lar+ca, yüz+ler+ce, bin+ler+ce, milyon+lar+ca, etc.

Kornfilt (1997:106-107) suggests that numerals and other quantifiers precede the head noun, when they function as modifiers. However, another construction that has the same semantic content represents a quite distinct form. In partitive constructions (in which quantifiers behave as if they were nouns), they follow the head:

- | | | | |
|------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 96a. | <i>üç elma</i>
three apple
'three apples' | 96b. | <i>bazı elma+lar</i>
some apples
'some apples' |
| 96c. | <i>elma+lar+ın üç-ü</i>
apple-Pl.-Gen three-3SG
'three of the apples' | 96d. | <i>elma+lar-ın bazı+lar+ı</i>
apple-Pl.-Gen some-pl. 3SG
'some of the apples' |

but, *elma+lar+dan üç+ü* is also a grammatical partitive construction:

97. *elma+lar+dan üç+ü*
 apple-pl.Abl. three-3sg
 'three of / from the apples'

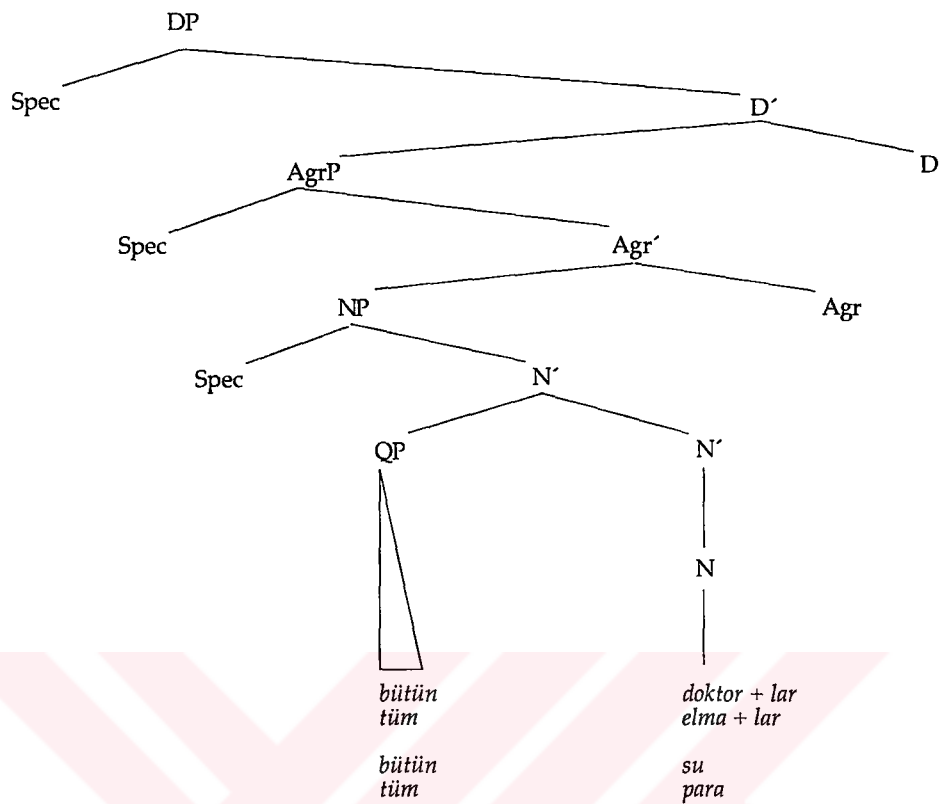
The following are some of the combinations of a quantifier and a head noun with example sentences and proposed configurational representations in terms of PMs:

98a.	* <i>bütün doktor</i>	'*all doctor'
98b.	* <i>tüm doktor</i>	'*all doctor'
98c.	<i>bütün doktor+lar</i>	'all doctors'
98d.	<i>tüm doktor+lar</i>	'all doctors'
99a.	* <i>bütün elma</i>	'all the apples'
99b.	<i>bütün elma+lar</i>	'all the apples'
99c.	* <i>tüm elma</i>	'all the apples'
99d.	<i>tüm elma+lar</i>	'all the apples'
100a.	<i>bütün elma</i>	'the whole apple'
100b.	<i>bütün elma+lar</i>	'the whole apples'
100c.	<i>tüm elma</i>	'the whole apple'
100d.	<i>tüm elma+lar</i>	'the whole apples'
100e.	<i>bütün su</i>	'all water', (?) 'whole water'
100f.	<i>bütün para</i>	'all money', (?) 'whole money'

Taking the scope properties of quantifiers, the following illustrates the case in point:

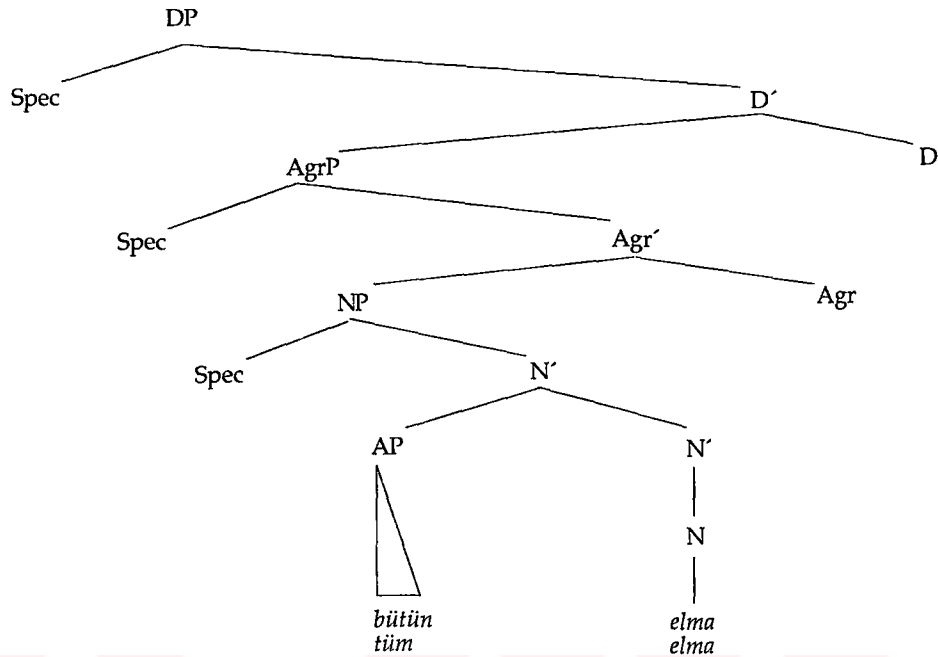
101. * *Bu hastanedeki bütün doktor çok çalışkan.*
 102. *Bu hastanedeki bütün doktor+lar çok çalışkan.*
103. * *Tüm doktor çok çalışkan.*
 104. *Tüm doktor+lar çok çalışkan.*

105.



but *bütün* in *bütün elma* is an adjective, since the semantics of *bütün* here restricted to an interpretation where there appears no plural marking on the head noun. Even in this case, the use of *bütün* with quantified head-noun may lead to ambiguous reading, as in *bütün elmalar* "the apples which are wholes rather than parts."

106.



In addition to proper quantifiers which unambiguously express a sense of quantification, the following are also identified as quantifiers in Turkish, following Kornflit (1997). We observe that these expressions also contribute to the degree of definiteness when combined with quantified noun phrases.

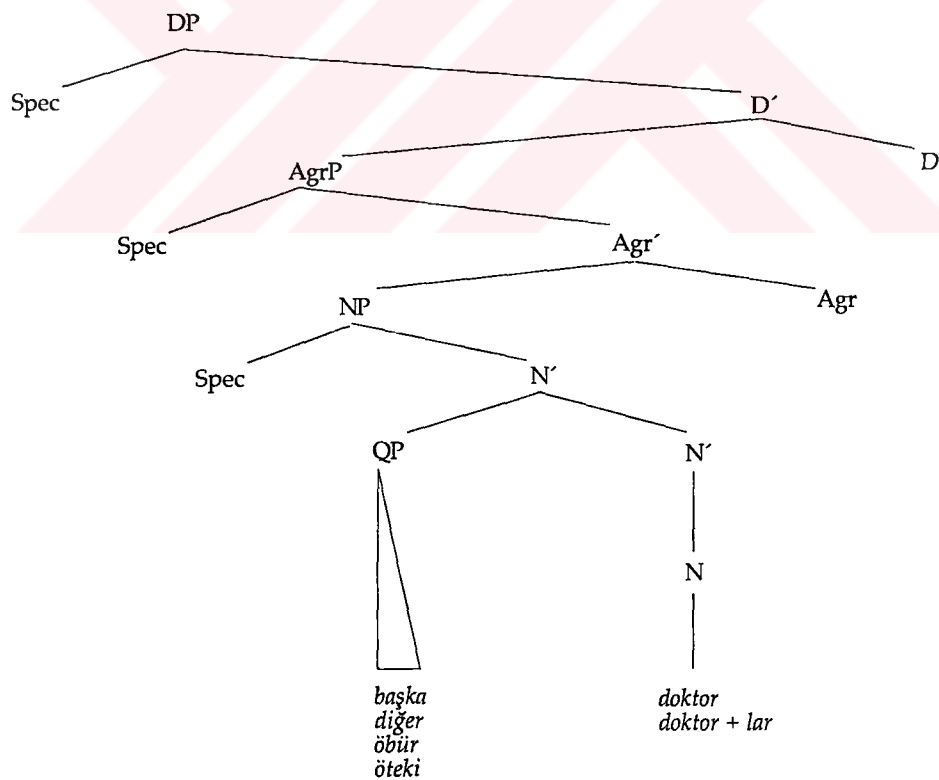
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|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 107a. | <i>başka doktor</i> | 'another doctor' |
| 107b. | <i>başka doktor+lar</i> | '(the) other doctors' |
| 107c. | <i>diğer doktor</i> | 'the other doctor' |
| 107d. | <i>diğer doktor+lar</i> | '(the) other doctors' |
| 107e. | <i>öbür doktor</i> | 'the other doctor' |
| 107f. | <i>öbür doktor+lar</i> | '(the) other doctors' |
| 107g. | <i>öteki doktor</i> | 'the other doctor' |
| 107h. | <i>öteki doktor+lar</i> | '(the) other doctors' |
| 107i. | <i>başka+sı</i> | 'the other (person)' |
| 107j. | <i>diğer+i</i> | 'the other (one)' |

- 107k. *öbür+ü* 'the other (one)'
 107l. *öte+ki* 'the other (one)'

In the following contexts, expressions occurring before the head noun do not alter with respect to the quantified noun phrase, i.e., singular or plural:

108. *Bu hastanede başka doktor yok mu?*
 109. *Hasta+yı başka doktor+lar+a da göster-di-k.*
 110. *Diğer doktor/doktor+lar eve gitti.*
 111. *Öbür doktor/doktor+lar eve gitti.*
 112. *Öteki doktor/doktor+lar eve gitti.*

113.

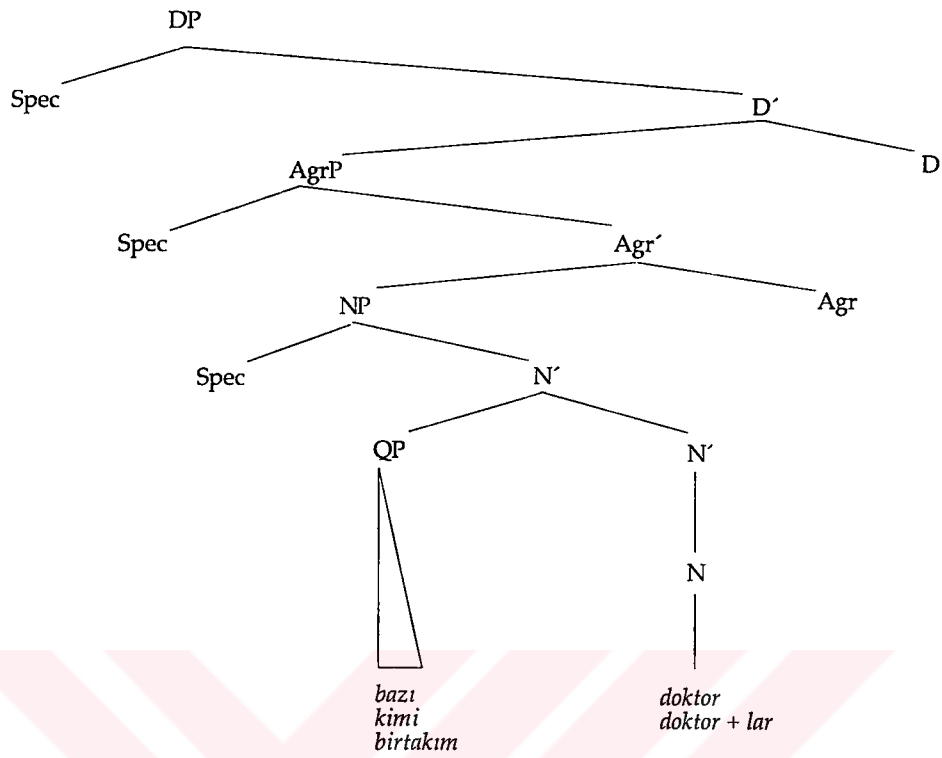


- | | | | |
|-------|--------------------|-------|-------------------|
| 114a. | * <i>bazı elma</i> | 114d. | <i>bazı insan</i> |
| 114b. | ? <i>bazı kedi</i> | 114e. | <i>bazı kişi</i> |
| 114c. | ? <i>bazı ev</i> | 114f. | <i>bazı adam</i> |

The quantifier *bazı* requires a plural head when the head is not human. However, it is allowed to use *bazı* with a singular head which has a feature [+human]. In such cases, the noun heads have a **generic** reading.

- 115a. *e bazı+lari*
 115b. *e bazı+sı*
 115c. *onlar+ın bazı+lari*
 115d. *adam+lar+ın bazı+lari*
 115e. *adam+lar+ın bazı+sı*
 115f. *insan+lar+ın bazı+lar+ı*
116. [e *Bazı+lari*] *köpek+ten çok kork-ar-ø.*
 'Some are afraid of dogs very much.'
117. [e *Bazı+sı*] *köpek+ten çok kork-ar-ø.*
 'Some are afraid of dogs very much.'
118. *Bu hastane+de+ki bazı doktor+lar çok çalış-kan.*
 119. * *Bu hastane+de+ki bazı doktor çok çalışkan.*
 120. *Bazı doktor çalışkan olur.*
- 121a. *Bu hastane+de+ki kimi doktor+lar çok çalışkan.*
 121b. *Bu hastane+de+ki kimi doktor çok çalışkan.*
 121c. *Kimi doktor anla-yış+lı olur.*
122. *Bu hastane+de+ki birtakım doktor+lar çok tembel.*
 123. * *Bu hastane+de+ki birtakım doktor çok tembel.*

124.



The following data further exemplifies the interaction of quantifiers and head nouns in a phrase:

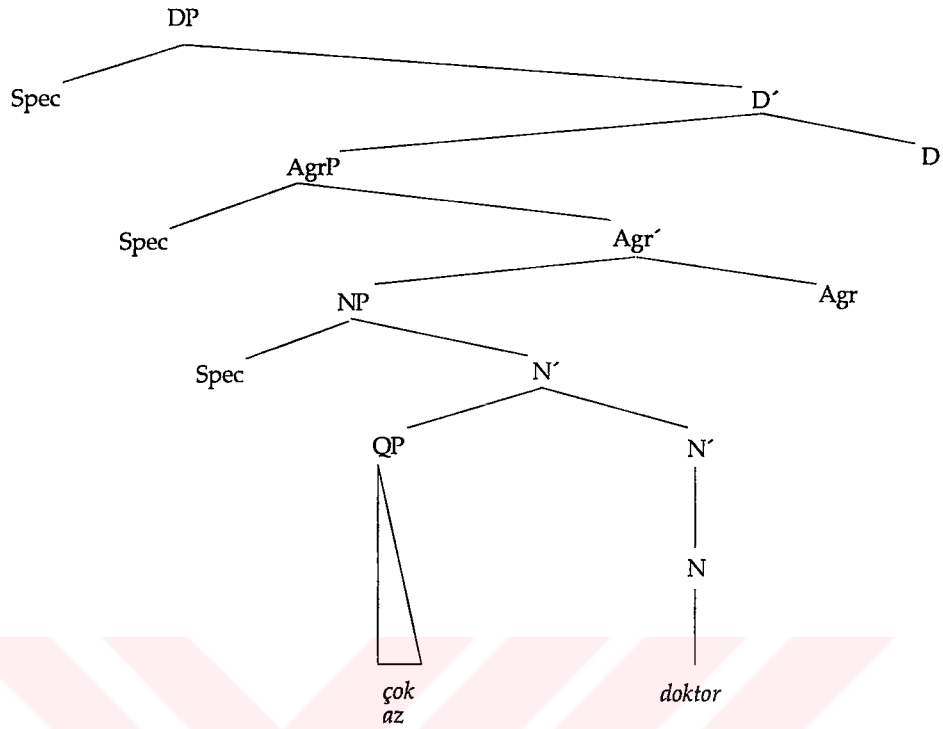
- | | | | |
|-------|---------------------------|-------|---------------------------------|
| 125a. | <i>çok doktor</i> | 125b. | * <i>çok doktor+lar</i> |
| 125c. | ? <i>az çok doktor</i> | 125d. | * <i>az çok doktor+lar</i> |
| 125e. | <i>pek çok doktor</i> | 125f. | * <i>pek çok doktor+lar</i> |
| 125g. | <i>daha çok doktor</i> | 125h. | * <i>daha çok doktor+lar</i> |
| 125i. | <i>az daha çok doktor</i> | 125j. | * <i>az daha çok doktor+lar</i> |
| 125k. | <i>en çok doktor</i> | 125l. | * <i>en çok doktor+lar</i> |
| 126a. | <i>fazla doktor</i> | 126b. | * <i>fazla doktor+lar</i> |
| 126c. | <i>az fazla doktor</i> | 126d. | * <i>az fazla doktor+lar</i> |
| 126e. | <i>çok fazla doktor</i> | 126f. | * <i>çok fazla doktor+lar</i> |
| 126g. | <i>pek fazla doktor</i> | 126h. | * <i>pek fazla doktor+lar</i> |
| 126i. | <i>daha fazla doktor</i> | 126j. | * <i>daha fazla doktor+lar</i> |

- 126k. *(bir)az daha fazla doktor* 126l. * *(bir)az daha fazla doktor+lar*
 126m. *çok daha fazla doktor* 126n. * *çok daha fazla doktor+lar*
 126o. *en fazla doktor* 126p. * *en fazla doktor+lar*
- 127a. *az doktor* 127b. * *az doktor+lar*
 127c. *çok az doktor* 127d. * *çok az doktor+lar*
 127e. *pek az doktor* 127f. * *pek az doktor+lar*
 127g. *daha az doktor* 127h. * *daha az doktor+lar*
 127i. *biraz daha az doktor* 127j. * *biraz daha az doktor+lar*
 127k. *çok daha az doktor* 127l. * *çok daha az doktor+lar*
 127m. *en az doktor* 127n. * *en az doktor+lar*
- 128a. *pek doktor* 128b. * *pek doktor+lar*
- 129a. ? *çok çok doktor* 129b. ? *çok çok doktor+lar*
 129c. ? *az az doktor* 129d. ? *az az doktor+lar*
 129e. ? *pek pek doktor* 129f. ? *pek pek doktor+lar*
 129g. ? *fazla fazla doktor* 129h. ? *fazla fazla doktor+lar*
130. *Bu hastanede çok doktor yok.*
 131. *Bu hastanede pek çok doktor var.*
 132. *Bu hastanede az doktor var.*
 133. *Bu hastanede çok az doktor var.*
 134. *Bu hastanede pek az doktor var.*
 135. *Bu hastanede fazla doktor yok.*
 136. *Bu hastanede pek fazla doktor yok.*
 137. *En az doktor bu hastane+de.*
 138. *En çok doktor bu şehirde.*

Unlike (139):

139. *En iyi doktor+lar bu şehir+de.*

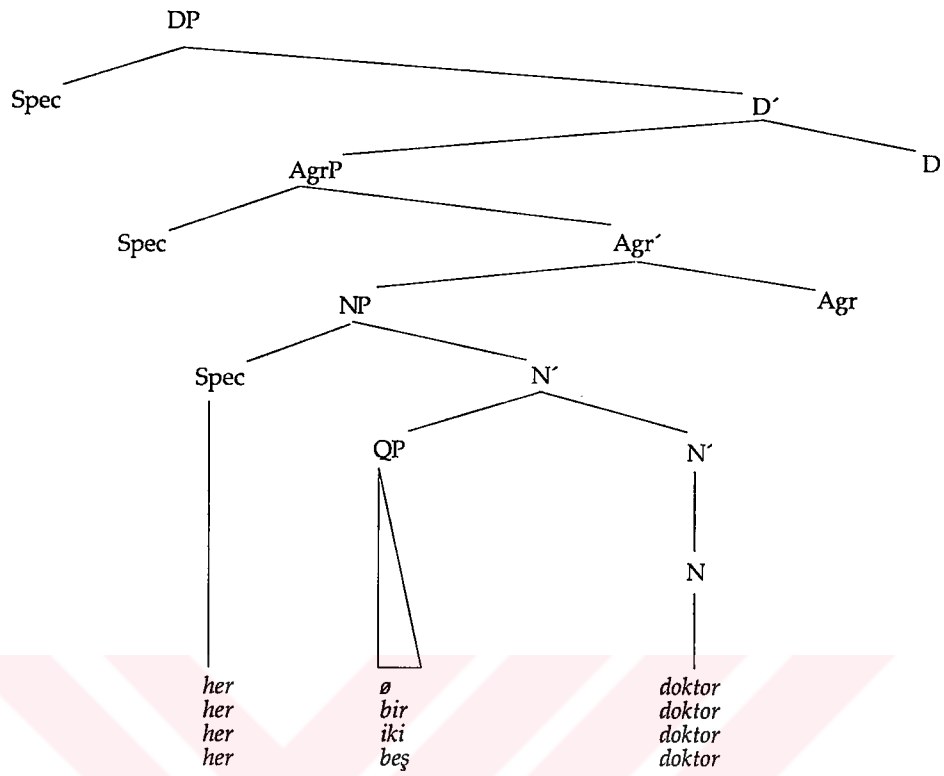
140.



- | | | | |
|-------|-----------------------|-------|-----------------------------|
| 141a. | <i>her doktor</i> | 141b. | * <i>her doktor+lar</i> |
| 141c. | <i>her bir doktor</i> | 141d. | * <i>her bir doktor+lar</i> |
| 141e. | <i>her iki doktor</i> | 141f. | * <i>her iki doktor+lar</i> |
| 141g. | <i>her beş doktor</i> | 141h. | * <i>her beş doktor+lar</i> |

142. *Her doktor+a on hasta düşüyor.*
 143. *Herbir doktor işine ciddiyetle sarılmalı.*
 144. *Her iki doktor da işe koyuldular.*
 145. *Her üç doktor+a bir hasta düşüyor.*

146.



147a.

hiç doktor

147b.

** hiç doktor+lar*

147c.

hiçbir doktor

147d.

** hiçbir doktor+lar*

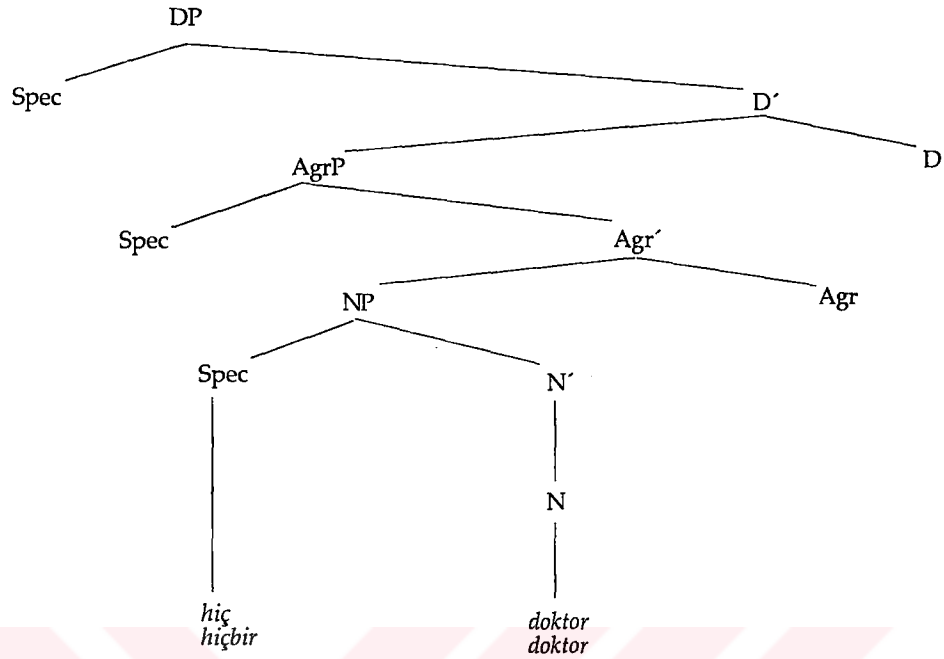
148.

Bu hastane+de hiç doktor yok.

149.

Hiçbir doktor acil bir hastayı reddedemez.

150.

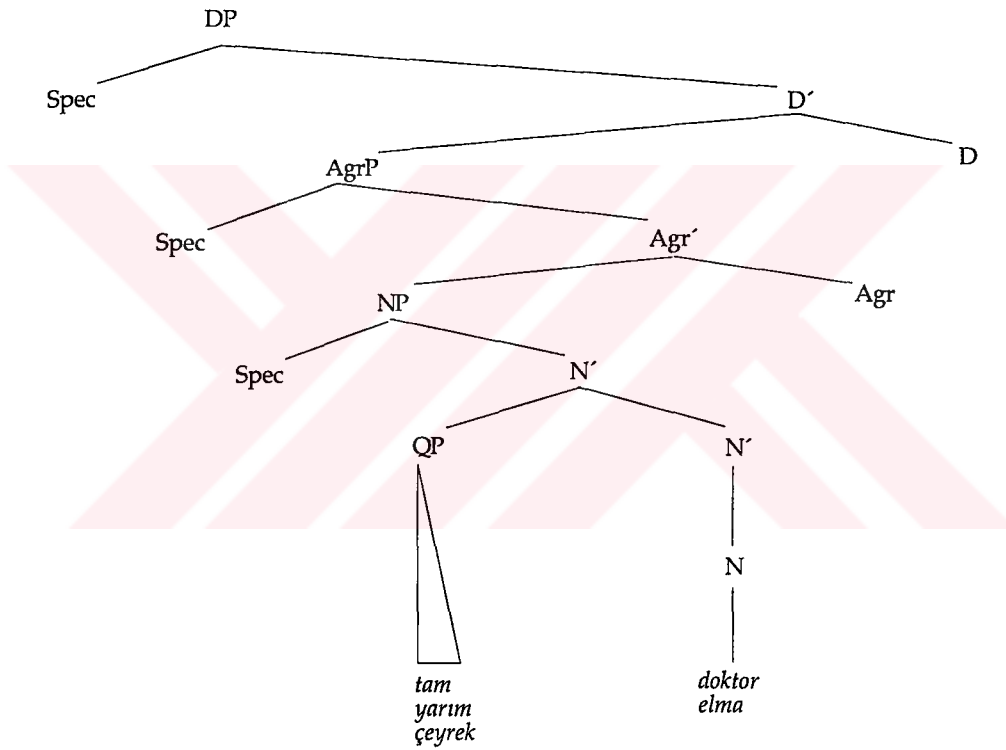


Quantifiers like *tam*, *çeyrek*, etc., which refer to the partitioning of the whole, generally express this meaning when applied to inanimate head nouns. With animate nouns, there is a shift in meaning where the expression has rather an idiomatic reference to the notion of wholeness:

151a. *tam doktor*151b. *tam doktor+lar*151c. *yarım doktor*151d. *yarım doktor+lar*151e. *çeyrek doktor*151f. *çeyrek doktor+lar*152a. *tam elma*152b. *tam elma+lar*152c. *yarım elma*152d. *yarım elma+lar*152e. *çeyrek elma*152f. *çeyrek elma+lar*153a. *yarı+dan çok elma*153b. *yarı+dan çok elma+lar*153c. *yarı+dan daha çok elma*153d. *yarıdan daha çok elma+lar*153e. *yarı+dan biraz daha çok elma*153f. *yarı+dan biraz daha çok elma+lar*153g. *yarı+dan az elma*153h. *yarı+dan az elma+lar*

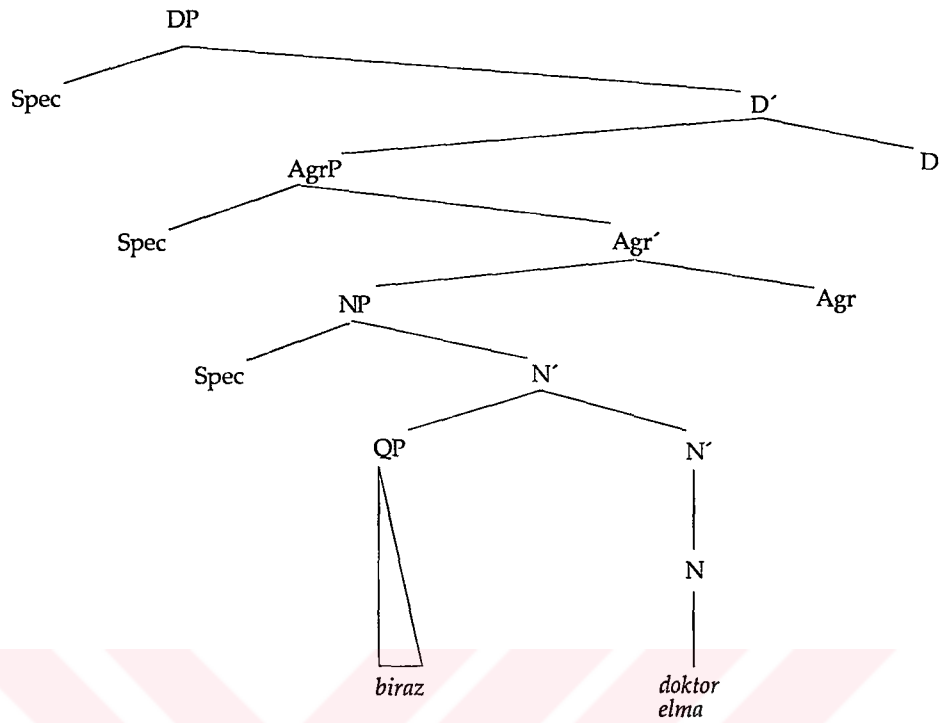
- 154a. *dörtte bir elma* 154b. *dörtte bir elma+lar*
 155a. *bir bölü dört elma* 155b. * *bir bölü dört elma+lar*
156. ? *Yarım doktor adamı canından eder.*
 157. *Burada üç tane yarım elma var.*
 158. ? *Tam doktor adamı öl-üm+den kurtar-ır-ø.*
 159. *Burada üç tane tam elma var.*

160.

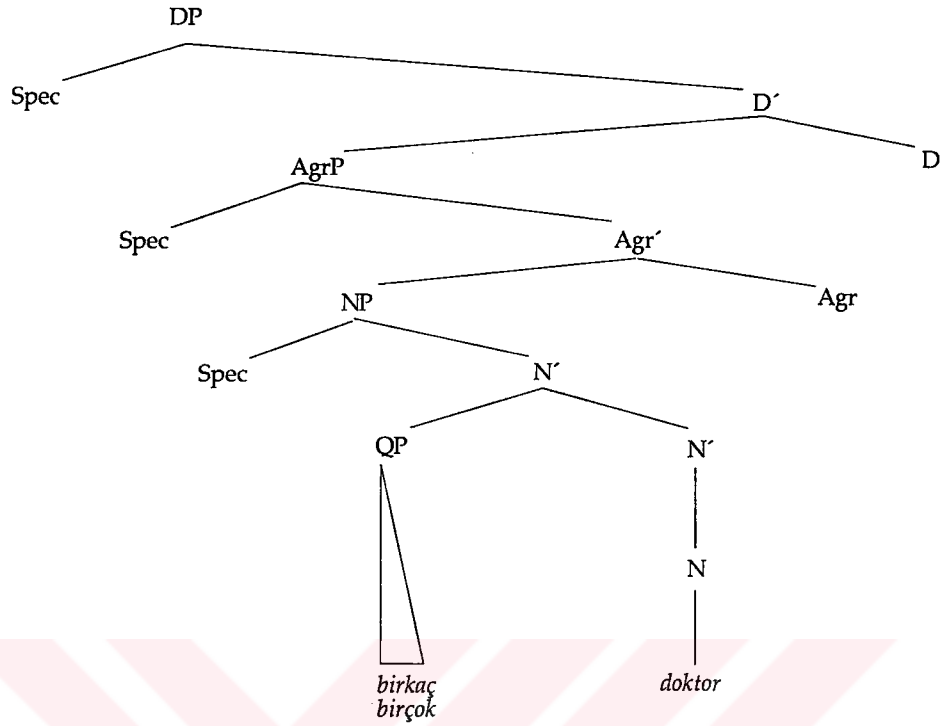


- 161a. *biraz doktor* 161a. * *biraz doktor+lar*
 161a. *biraz elma* 161a. * *biraz elma+lar*
162. *Biz+e biraz (daha) doktor gönderin.*
 163. * *Biz+e biraz (daha) doktor+lar gönderin.*

164.

165a. *birkaç doktor*165b. * *birkaç doktor+lar*166a. *birçok doktor*166b. * *birçok doktor+lar*167a. *Bu hastane+de birkaç doktor var.*167b. *Bu hastane+de birçok doktor var.*

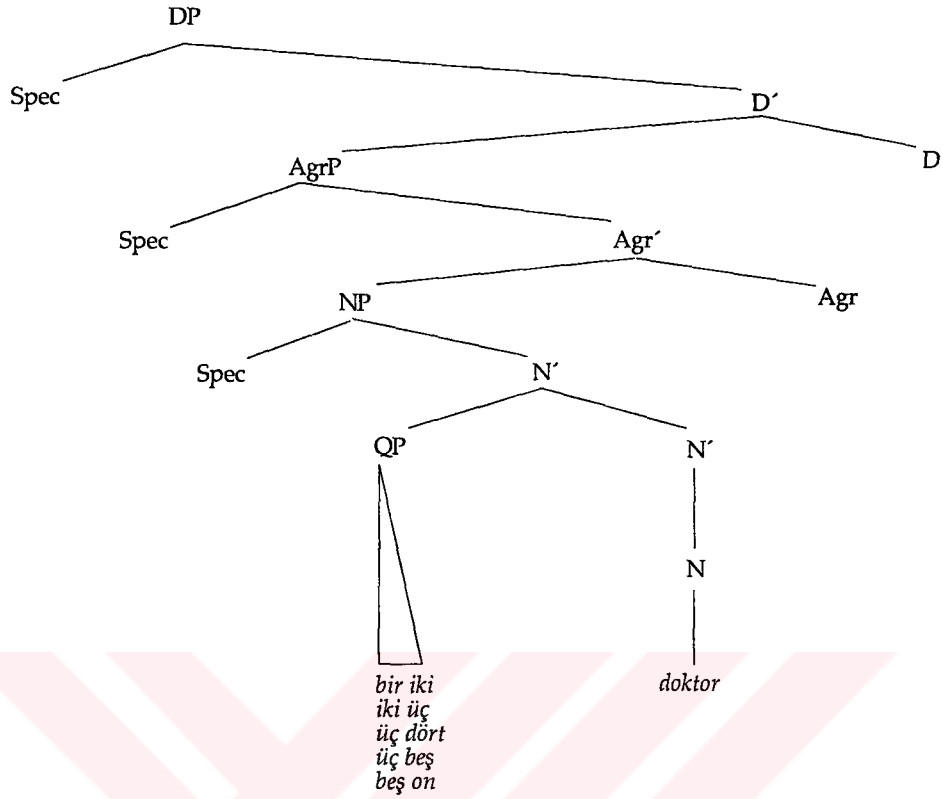
168.



- | | | | |
|-------|-----------------------|-------|-----------------------------|
| 169a. | <i>bir iki doktor</i> | 169a. | * <i>bir iki doktor+lar</i> |
| 170a. | <i>iki üç doktor</i> | 170b. | * <i>iki üç doktor+lar</i> |
| 171a. | <i>üç dört doktor</i> | 171b. | * <i>üç dört doktor+lar</i> |
| 172a. | <i>üç beş doktor</i> | 172b. | * <i>üç beş doktor+lar</i> |
| 173a. | <i>beş on doktor</i> | 173b. | * <i>beş on doktor+lar</i> |

174. *Birkaç doktor işi bırakmak istedi.*
 175. *Bir iki doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*
 176. *İki üç doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*
 177. *Üç dört doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*
 178. *Üç beş doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*
 179. *Beş on doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*

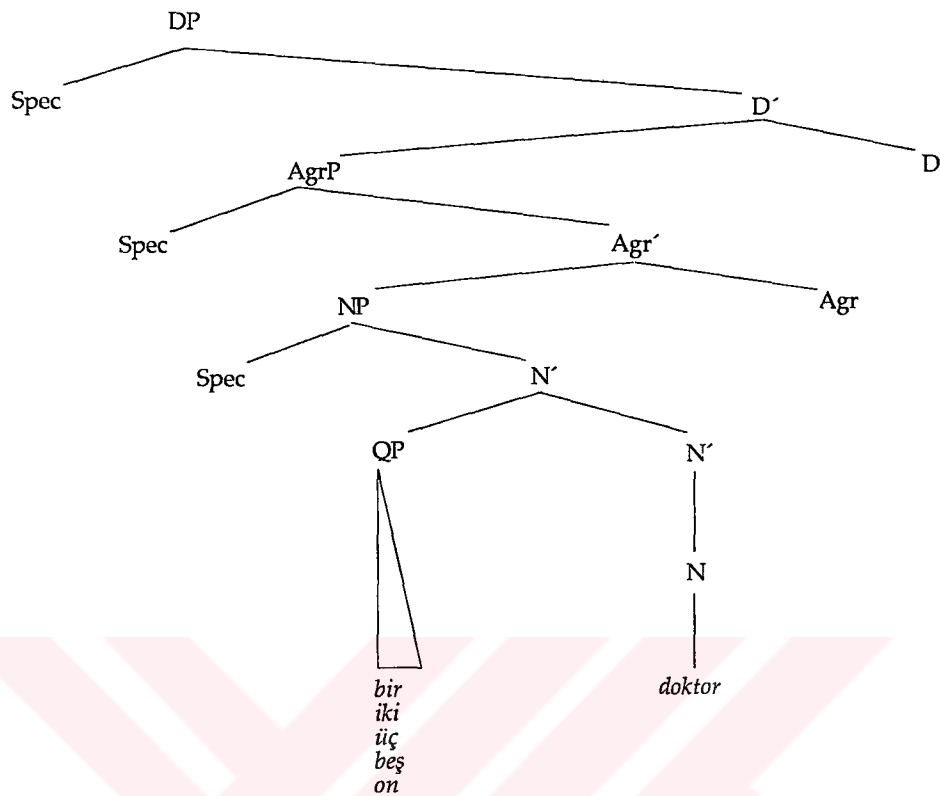
180.



- | | | | |
|-------|-------------------|-------|-------------------------|
| 181a. | <i>bir doktor</i> | 181b. | * <i>bir doktor+lar</i> |
| 181c. | <i>iki doktor</i> | 181d. | * <i>iki doktor+lar</i> |
| 181e. | <i>üç doktor</i> | 181f. | * <i>üç doktor+lar</i> |
| 181g. | <i>beş doktor</i> | 181h. | * <i>beş doktor+lar</i> |
| 181i. | <i>on doktor</i> | 181j. | * <i>on doktor+lar</i> |

182. (Yalnızca) *bir doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*
183. *İki doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*
184. *Üç doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*
185. * *Üç doktor+lar bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*

186.



Derived numerals as in following behave similar with respect to plural marking with the ordinary numerals. In these examples, what matters from the perspective of the user to express the magnitude of the quantity rather than quantity itself.

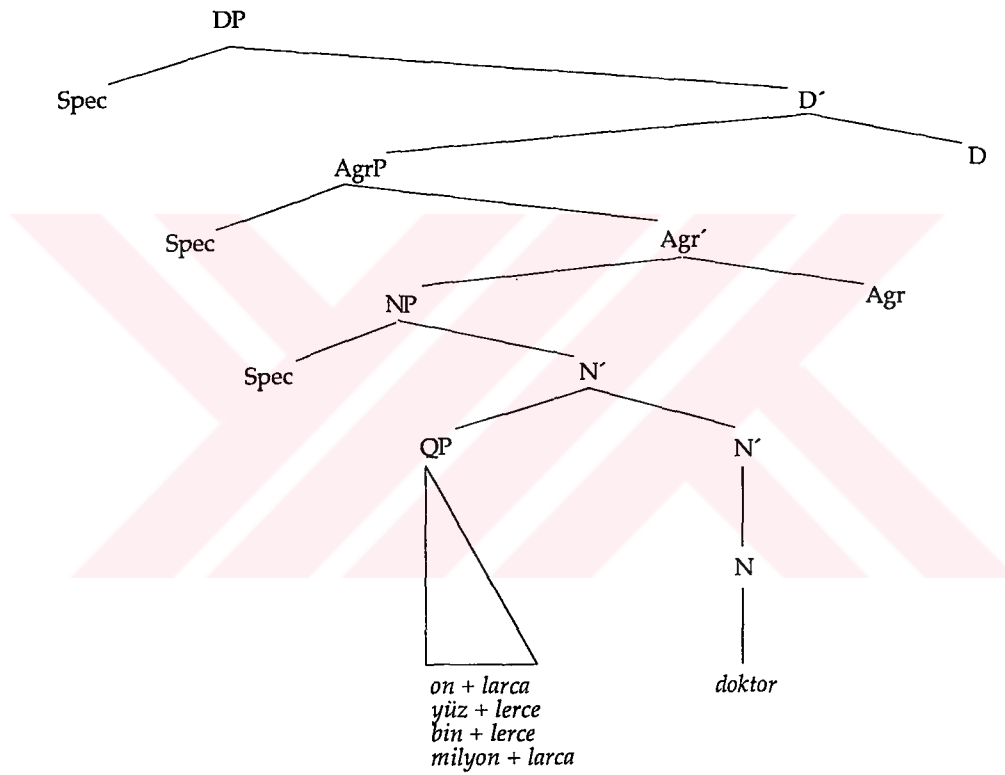
- | | | | |
|-------|----------------------------|-------|----------------------------------|
| 187a. | <i>on+larca doktor</i> | 187b. | * <i>on+larca doktor+lar</i> |
| 187c. | <i>yüz+lerce doktor</i> | 187d. | * <i>yüz+lerce doktor+lar</i> |
| 187e. | <i>bin+lerce doktor</i> | 187f. | * <i>bin+lerce doktor+lar</i> |
| 187g. | <i>milyon+larca doktor</i> | 187h. | * <i>milyon+larca doktor+lar</i> |

The pattern seems to be limited to 10-digit quantification. We do not find examples that do not increase in this manner, i.e., any

number within the digit cannot derive by the expression (e.g. **üçlerce*, **yirmibirlerce*, etc.).

188. *Onlarca doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*
 189. *Yüzlerce doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*
 190. *Binlerce doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*
 191. *Milyonlarca doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*

192.



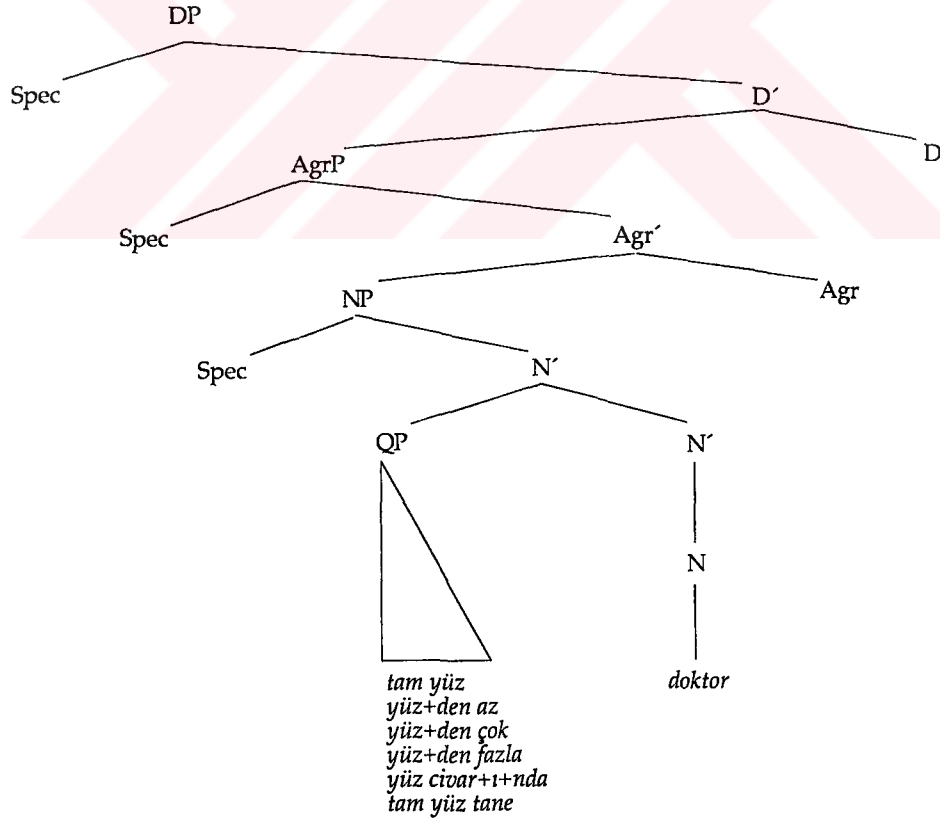
Quantifiers like *tam*, when occur with numeral function more like specifiers of the quantifier phrase:

- | | | | |
|-------|------------------------|-------|----------------------------------|
| 193a. | <i>tam yüz doktor</i> | 193b. | * <i>tam yüz doktor+lar</i> |
| 193c. | <i>yüz adet doktor</i> | 193d. | * <i>yüz adet doktor+lar</i> |
| 193e. | <i>yüz tane doktor</i> | 193f. | * <i>tam yüz tane doktor+lar</i> |

- 194a. *yüz kadar doktor* 194b. * *yüz kadar doktor+lar*
 194c. *yüz civar+ı+nda doktor* 194d. * *yüz civar+ı+ında doktor+lar*
 194e. *yüz gibi doktor* 194f. * *yüz gibi doktor+lar*
- 195a. *yüz+den az doktor* 195b. * *yüz+den az doktor+lar*
 195c. *yüz+den çok doktor* 195d. * *yüz+den çok doktor+lar*
 195e. *yüz+den fazla doktor* 195f. * *yüz+den fazla doktor+lar*

196. *Yüz kadar doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*
 197. *Yüzden fazla doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*
 198. *Yüzden az doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*
 199. *Tam yüz doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*
 200. *Yüz civarında doktor bu öneriye karşı çıktı.*

201.



III.2.3. Adjective + Noun

Adjectives are ideal noun-phrase modifiers. The class of adjectives includes general adjectives such as *blue, small, round, lazy*; ordinal numbers such as *first, second, third, fifth, etc.*; related adjectives such as *next, previous, latter, last, etc.*; and the adjectives like *same* and *other*.

In some languages, the class of adjectives may be extended to include possessive adjectives, for example, Italian *mia* in the following noun phrase:

202. *la mia casa*
 the my-fem.-SG house-fem.-SG
 'myhouse'

In English, the position of adjectives in noun phrase is between determiners and the head noun. For instance:

203a. *that first brave attempt*
 203b. *a large red apple*

The natural ordering relationship between the adjectives preceding a noun head does not block some other alternative orders which deviate from the basic one. The following noun phrases are also grammatical in English:

204a. *that brave first attempt*

204b. *a red large apple*

Payne (1994:2850) suggests that "even quantifiers, which in English typically occupy positions close to (or in complementary distribution with) the determiners, may occur in differing orders with ordinary adjectives":

205a. *those two first brave attempts*

205b. *those first two brave attempts*

205c. *those brave two first attempts*

In Turkish, adjectives are typical premodifiers in a noun phrase:

206. *tembel çocuk*

lazy boy

'thelazyboy'

Some more examples of adjectives in Turkish are given in the following:

207a. **general adjectives:**

sarı çiçek, beyaz gelinlik, kırmızı ceket, mor salkım (color)

büyük ev, küçük oda, geniş salon, dar yol, yüksek dağ (shape)

hızlı araba, yaşlı adam, güzel çocuk, sevimli kahraman (attribute)

207b. **participial forms:**

bil-en adam, yürü-yen kadın, konuş-an toplum

aç-ık kapı, kır-ık sandalye, sök-ük etek

Adjectives themselves can be modified by adverbs both in English and in Turkish. However, in English, it is possible to postmodify an adjective by means of prepositional phrases and clauses, the postmodification of adjectives is not legitimate in Turkish. The following are the examples from English:

- 208a. *very proud*
 208b. *proud of her achievements*
 208c. *proud that she had won so easily*

Payne (1994:2851) further stresses that "the type of modification has an influence on the order of noun head and adjective-phrase modifier within the noun phrase." He proposes that "only premodified adjective phrases pattern with single adjectives in occurring before the head noun":

209. *a very proud woman*

Adjective phrases postmodified by prepositional phrases or clauses must follow the head noun in English:

- 210a. *a woman proud of her achievements*
 210b. *a woman proud that she had won so easily*

An interesting characteristic of adjectives in Turkish is the existence of emphatic reduplication: the first syllable of the original stem and the last consonant of this stem is replaced by one of the following: **m**, **p**, **r**, or **s**. Some examples follow:

211a.	<i>boş</i>	'empty'	<i>bom-boş</i>	'utterly empty'
211b.	<i>uzun</i>	'long'	<i>up-uzun</i>	'very long'
211c.	<i>temiz</i>	'dean'	<i>ter-temiz</i>	'very dean'

(Kornfilt, 1997:108)

The syntactic properties of these intensifier adjectives is similar to that of their original stems:

212a.	<i>boş bir oda</i>	'an empty room'
212b.	<i>mor bir surat</i>	'a purple face'
212c.	<i>koca bir adam</i>	'a huge man'
212d.	<i>uzun bir yol</i>	'a long road'
212e.	<i>yalnız bir kuş</i>	'a lonely bird'
213a.	<i>bir boş oda</i>	'an empty room'
213b.	<i>bir mor surat</i>	'a purple face'
213c.	<i>bir koca adam</i>	'a huge man'
213d.	<i>bir uzun yol</i>	'a long road'
213e.	<i>bir yalnız kuş</i>	'a lonely bird'
214a.	<i>bomboş bir oda</i>	'an utterly empty room'
214b.	<i>mosmor bir surat</i>	'an extremely purple face'
214c.	<i>koskoca bir adam</i>	'a very huge man'
214d.	<i>upuzun bir yol</i>	'a very long road'
214e.	<i>yapayalnız bir kuş</i>	'an absolutely lonely bird'
215a.	<i>* bir bomboş oda</i>	'an utterly empty room'
215b.	<i>* bir mosmor surat</i>	'an extremely purple face'
215c.	<i>* bir koskoca adam</i>	'a very huge man'
215d.	<i>* bir upuzun yol</i>	'a very long road'
215e.	<i>* bir yapayalnız kuş</i>	'an absolutely lonely bird'
216a.	<i>temiz sahiller</i>	'dean coasts'

216b.	<i>açık nedenler</i>	'dear reasons'
216c.	<i>tertemiz sahiller</i>	'very dean coasts'
216d.	<i>apaçık nedenler</i>	'obviously dear reasons'
216e.	* <i>bir tertemiz sahil</i>	'a very dean coast'
216f.	* <i>bir apaçık neden</i>	'an obviously dear reason'

Another interesting construction in Turkish is the formation of adjectives from nouns via the suffixion process of the derivational morpheme *-li*. Kornfilt (1997:105-106) proposes that the resulting adjectives have one of the following three main types of meaning:

'possessing the object or quality indicated by the stem':

217.	<i>akıl</i>	'intelligence'	<i>akıl+lı</i>	'possessing intelligence; intelligent'
	<i>resim</i>	'picture'	<i>resim+li</i>	'possessing pictures; illustrated'

'possessing the object or quality indicated by the stem to a high degree':

218.	<i>hız</i>	'speed'	<i>hız+lı</i>	'having high speed; rapid'
	<i>yaş</i>	'age'	<i>yaş+lı</i>	'having a high age; old'

'belonging to a place or institution'

219.	<i>Ankara</i>	'Ankara'	<i>Ankara+lı</i>	'person living in Ankara'
	<i>üniversite</i>	'university'	<i>üniversite+li</i>	'university student'

(Kornfilt 1997:105-106)

However, it is not possible to provide an exhaustive clear semantic property for the *-li* suffix because it is one of the most productive suffixes in Turkish. For instance, the following noun phrases cannot be interpreted in terms of possession or belonging:

220. *para+lı yol* 'the /a paid road'
 para+lı okul 'the /a paid school'

Comparative constructions can be found in a noun phrase as well. In this case the comparative does not modify the head noun directly. The function of comparative structures is similar to that of adverbs modifying adjectives. As Kornfilt (1997:107) indicates "the member of the comparison introduced by 'than' in English is marked with ablative and precedes the noun":

- 221a. *Ali+den uzun bir çocuk*
 Ali-Abl. tall a boy
 'a boy taller than Ali'
- 221b. *Ali+den uzun çocuk*
 Ali-Abl. tall boy
 'the boy taller than Ali'
- 221c. *Ali+den uzun+u+nu tanı+ma+dı+m.*
 Ali-Abl. tall-3SG-Acc. know-Neg-Past-1SG
 'I haven't met anyone taller than Ali'
- 221d. *Ali+den daha uzun bir çocuk*
 Ali-Abl. more tall a boy
 'a boy taller than Ali'

- 221e. *Ali+den daha uzun çocuk*
 Ali-Abl. more tall boy
 'the boy taller than Ali'
- 221f. *Ali+den çok daha uzun bir çocuk*
 Ali-Abl. much more tall a boy
 'a boy much taller than Ali'
- 221g. *Ali+den çok daha uzun çocuk*
 Ali-Abl. much more tall boy
 'the boy much taller than Ali'
- 221h. *Ali+den çok daha uzun+u+nu gör+dü+m.*
 Ali-Abl. much more tall-3SG-Acc. see-Past-1SG
 'I saw / have met somebody much taller than Ali.'
- 221i. *Ali+den çok daha uzun+ları+nı gör+dü+m.*
 Ali-Abl. much more tall-3PL-Acc. see-Past-1SG
 'I saw / have met people much taller than Ali.'

In Turkish, other constructions are also capable of expressing a comparison as in the following examples:

- 222a. *Ali+den genç bir kadın*
 Ali-Abl. young a woman
 'a woman younger than Ali'
- 222b. *Ali+den genç karı+sı*
 Ali-Abl. young wife-3SG
 'Ali's wife, who is younger than Ali'
- 222c. *Ali+nin genç e karı+sı*
 Ali-Gen. young wife-3SG

'Ali's wife, who is younger than Ali'

'Ali's younger wife'

The superlative construction, on the other hand, is formed by employing *en* 'most' that precedes the adjective in the noun phrase:

223. *en güzel kız*
 most beautiful girl
 'the most beautiful girl'

The equative construction within a noun phrase is formed by using the postposition *kadar* 'as much as':

224. *Ali kadar uzun bir çocuk*
 Ali as much as tall a boy
 'a boy as tall as Ali'

In addition to *kadar*, another postposition *gibi* can also be used for equative constructions:

225. *Ali gibi uzun bir çocuk*
 Ali as much as tall a boy
 'a boy as tall as Ali'

The following are the some of the possible noun phrase examples that include an adjective as a modifier:

226a.	<i>becerikli doktor</i>	226b.	<i>becerikli doktor+lar</i>
226c.	<i>biraz becerikli doktor</i>	226d.	<i>biraz becerikli doktor+lar</i>
226e.	<i>azcık becerikli doktor</i>	226f.	<i>azcık becerikli doktor+lar</i>
226g.	<i>az becerikli doktor</i>	226h.	<i>az becerikli doktor+lar</i>
227a.	<i>daha az becerikli doktor</i>	227b.	<i>daha az becerikli doktor+lar</i>
227c.	<i>çok daha az becerikli doktor</i>	227d.	<i>çok daha az becerikli doktor+lar</i>
227e.	<i>çok az becerikli doktor</i>	227f.	<i>çok az becerikli doktor+lar</i>
227g.	<i>pek az becerikli doktor</i>	227h.	<i>pek az becerikli doktor+lar</i>
228a.	<i>çok becerikli doktor</i>	228b.	<i>çok becerikli doktor+lar</i>
228c.	<i>daha çok becerikli doktor</i>	228d.	<i>daha çok becerikli doktor+lar</i>
228e.	<i>az daha çok becerikli doktor</i>	228f.	<i>az daha çok becerikli doktor+lar</i>
228g.	<i>az çok becerikli doktor</i>	228h.	<i>az çok becerikli doktor+lar</i>
228gi.	<i>pek çok becerikli doktor</i>	228j.	<i>pek çok becerikli doktor+lar</i>
228k.	<i>pek becerikli doktor</i>	228l.	<i>pek becerikli doktor+lar</i>
229a.	<i>fazla becerikli doktor</i>	229b.	<i>fazla becerikli doktor+lar</i>
229c.	<i>daha fazla becerikli doktor</i>	229d.	<i>daha fazla becerikli doktor+lar</i>
229e.	<i>az daha fazla becerikli doktor</i>	229f.	<i>az daha fazla becerikli doktor+lar</i>
229g.	<i>çok daha fazla becerikli doktor</i>	229h.	<i>çok daha fazla becerikli doktor+lar</i>
229i.	<i>pek fazla becerikli doktor</i>	229j.	<i>pek fazla becerikli doktor+lar</i>

As expected, the APs when combined with the head noun to expand the phrase, do not increase the bar-level. They most commonly iterate the N' level, the intermediate level of projection.

- 231c. *a plastic toy* (a toy that is made of plastic)
 231d. *a plastic object* (an object that shows the property of plasticity)

(Payne, 1994:2851)

Since adjectives usually do not permit modification by other adjectives, a possible alternative is to consider the item *plastic* a noun. It is possible to find examples in which an adjective may seem to be modified by another adjective. Observe the following:

- | | | | |
|-------|------------------------------------------------------|-------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 232a. | <i>sarı gömlek</i>
yellow shirt
'yellow shirt' | 232b. | <i>açık sarı gömlek</i>
light yellow shirt
'light yellow shirt' |
| 233a. | <i>mavi gömlek</i>
blue shirt
'blue shirt' | 233b. | <i>koyu mavi gömlek</i>
dark blue shirt
'dark blue shirt' |

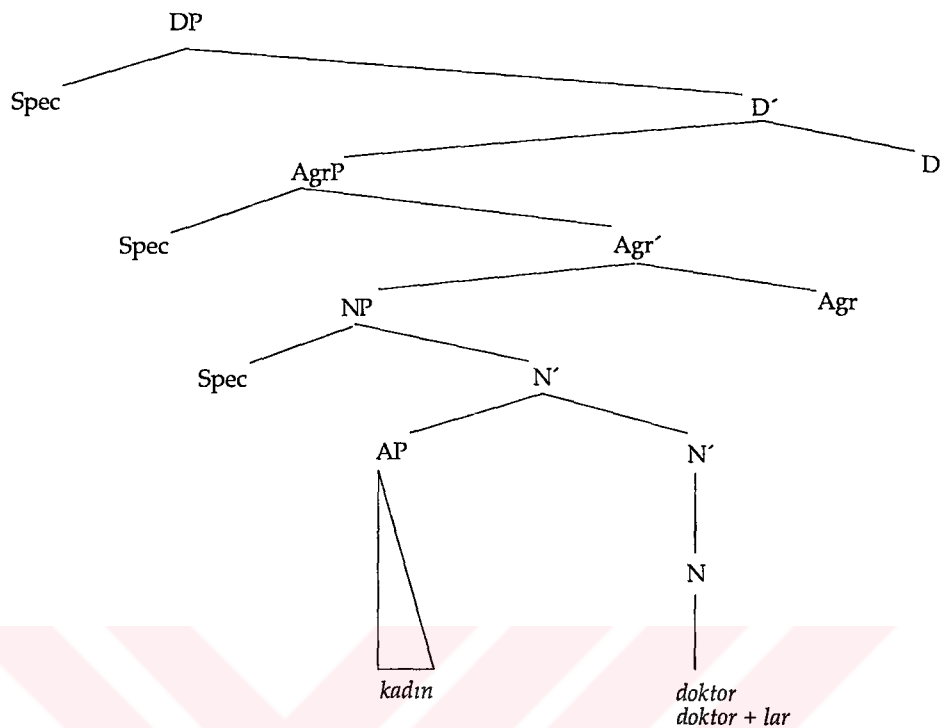
An interesting property of nouns that function as noun-phrase modifiers is their elimination of determiners before them within a noun phrase. However, they may contain quantifiers preceding the modifier nouns:

- | | | |
|-------|-----------------------|------------------|
| 234a. | <i>a party</i> | <i>committee</i> |
| 234b. | * <i>a that party</i> | <i>committee</i> |
| 234c. | <i>a two-party</i> | <i>committee</i> |
| 234d. | <i>an all-party</i> | <i>committee</i> |

The following are some examples of noun phrases formed by the premodification of head nouns by other nouns:

- | | | | |
|-------|----------------------------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------|
| 235a. | mod-N | head-N | |
| | <i>taş</i> | <i>bina</i> | 'stone building' |
| | <i>demir</i> | <i>kapı</i> | 'iron door' |
| 235b. | <i>altın</i> | <i>kalp</i> | 'golden heart' |
| | <i>çelik</i> | <i>bilek</i> | 'a wrist like steel' |
| 235c. | <i>tahta</i> | <i>ev</i> | 'wooden house' |
| | <i>tahta+dan</i> | <i>ev</i> | 'wooden house' |
| | <i>tahta+dan</i> | <i>yap-ıl-mış ev</i> | 'a house that is made of wood' |
| 235d. | <i>ipek</i> | <i>saç</i> | 'silk hair' |
| | <i>ipek</i> | <i>gibi saç</i> | 'hair like silk' |
| | <i>ipek</i> | <i>saç+lı çocuk</i> | 'a silk-haired boy' |
| 236a. | <i>Kadın doktor hasta+yı iyi+leş-tir-di-ø.</i> | | |
| 236b. | <i>Kadın doktor+lar hasta+yı iyi+leş-tir-di-ø.</i> | | |

237.



III.2.5. Adpositional Phrase + Noun

Adpositions are another type of noun-phrase modifiers. They can be divided into two major groups: prepositions and postpositions. Both prepositions and postpositions can be used in order to modify a noun head.

Since Turkish is a head-last language, it employs postpositions to perform the function of supplying information about the location of entities and similar functions.

Adpositions take NP complements.

	Prep.	NP	Turkish Equivalent
238a.	<i>on</i>	<i>the roof</i>	<i>çatı+da</i>
238b.	<i>without</i>	<i>a lid</i>	<i>kapa-k+sız</i>
238c.	<i>underneath</i>	<i>the eaves</i>	<i>saç-ağ+ın alt+ı+nda</i>
	NP	Postp.	English Equivalent
239a.	<i>yaş+lı kadın+a</i>	<i>göre</i>	according to the old woman
239b.	<i>saat üç+ten</i>	<i>beri</i>	since three o'clock
239c.	<i>küçük bir çocuk</i>	<i>kadar</i>	so/as ... as a little boy

Prepositional phrases constitute a common form of noun-phrase postmodifier in English obtained by the reduction of relative clauses:

	NP	PP
240a.	<i>the man</i>	<i>on the roof</i>
240b.	<i>a man</i>	<i>without a lid</i>
240c.	<i>the room</i>	<i>underneath the eaves</i>

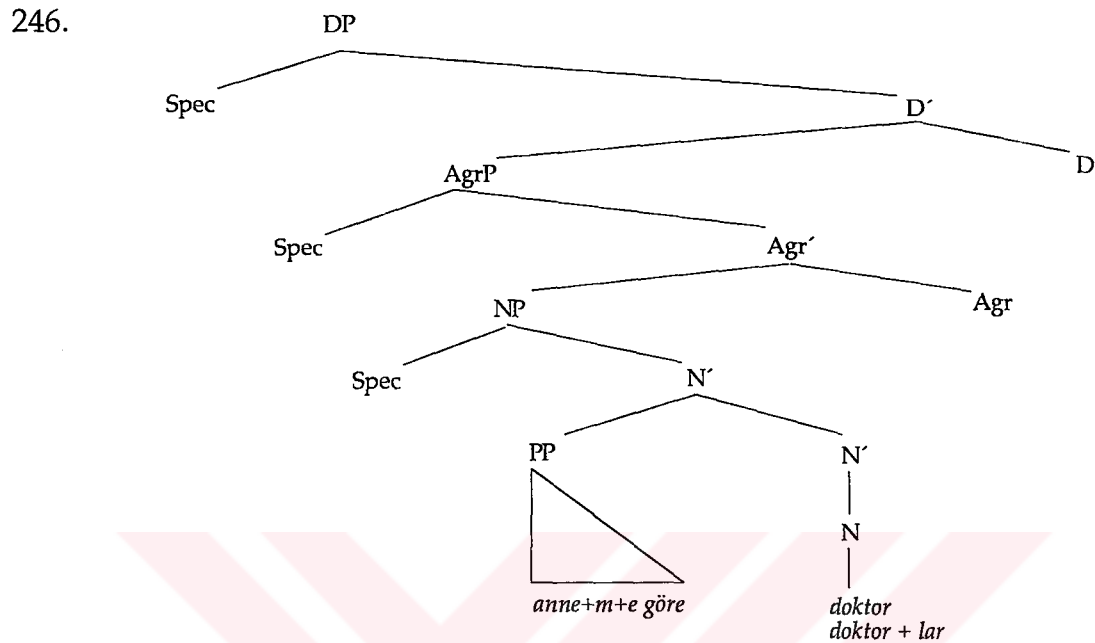
Some prepositions can occur alone as postmodifiers:

241. *the room underneath*

In Turkish, postpositional phrases can modify the noun head within a phrase as well:

	Postpositional	Phrase	Adjective	Article	Noun
242a.	<i>baba+m+a</i>	<i>göre</i>	<i>kullanışlı</i>	<i>bir</i>	<i>ev</i>
242b.	<i>anne+m</i>	<i>için</i>	<i>güzel</i>	<i>bir</i>	<i>hediye</i>
242c.	<i>kardeş+im</i>	<i>gibi</i>	<i>çalışkan</i>	<i>bir</i>	<i>çocuk</i>
242d.	<i>kardeş+im</i>	<i>gibi</i>	<i>çalışkan</i>		<i>çocuk+lar</i>
242e.	<i>deniz+e</i>	<i>karşı</i>	<i>harika</i>		<i>oda+lar</i>

243. *Anne+m+e göre (bir) doktor bul-un-ma-z-ø.*
 244. *Anne+m+e göre doktor bul-un-ma-z-ø.*
 245. *Anne+m+e göre doktor+lar bul-un-ma-z-ø.*



III.2.6. Relative Clause + Noun

Relative clauses follow the head noun in English. Examples of relative clauses in English are as follows:

- 247a. *the Eskimos, who live in igloos*
 247b. *the Eskimos who live in igloos*
 247c. *the Eskimos that live in igloos*
 247d. *the Eskimos who(m) you met*
 247e. *the Eskimos that you met*
 247f. *the Eskimos ø you met*

In Turkish, relative clauses precede the head noun in the noun phrase in accordance with the Head Parameter:

248. [*e* *adam+ı* *sev+en*] *kadını*
 man-Acc love-Sbj.P. woman
 'the woman who loves the man'

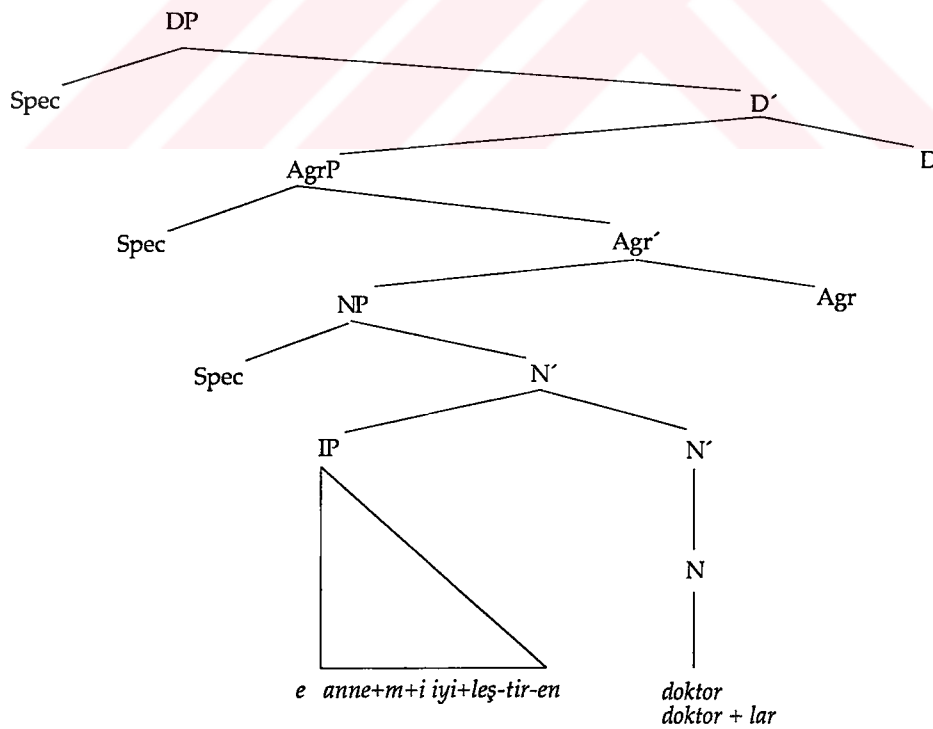
Here are some more examples of relative clauses in Turkish:

- 249a. [*e cam+ı kır-an*] *çocuk* 'the boy who broke the window'
 249b. [*e okul+a git-me-yen*] *kız* 'the girl who doesn't go to school'
 249c. [*e yarış+ı kazan-acak*] *adam* 'the man who will win the race'
 249d. [*e adam ol-acak*] *çocuk* 'the child who will be a great man'
 249e. [*e sınav+da çöz-e-me-diğ-im*] *soru-lar* 'the questions that I could not solve in the exam'

250. *e Annemi iyileştiren doktor okul birincisiymiş.*

251. *e Annemi iyileştiren doktor+lar okul+u yeni bit-ir-miş-ler.*

252.



III.2.7. Adpositive Clause + Noun

Another type of clausal complement which may occur in a noun phrase is adpositive clause. The major difference between relative clauses and adpositive clauses is that " Adpositive clauses unlike relative clauses, do not contain a position relativized. Rather, the clause represents the propositional content of a thought or utterance expressed by abstract nouns like *belief, statement, rumour, etc.* " Examples are:

- 253a. *the belief that linguistics is easy*
 253b. *the statement that the pound would not be devalued*
 253c. *the rumour that the prime minister would resign*

In Turkish, adpositive clauses always precedes the head noun whose content is expressed by them. Examples of adpositive clauses in Turkish are as follows:

254. *Ali+nin cam+ı kır-diğ-i iddia-sı*
 'the claim that Ali broke the glass'
 255. *Ayşe+nin okul+a git-me-diğ-i gerçeğ-i*
 'the fact that Ayşe does / did not go to school'
 256. *Ahmet+in yarış+ı kazan-ma arzu-su*
 'Ahmet's desire to win the race'

Related relative clauses, however, can be constructed in the following way:

- 257a. *Ali+nin kır-dıĝ-ı cam*
 257b. *Ayşe+nin git-me-diĝ-i okul*
 257c. *Ahmet+in kazan-acaĝ-ı yarış*

III.3. Ordering of Elements in a Noun Phrase

The number of adjectives in a noun phrase can be more than one. In fact, there is no grammatical limitation on the number of adjectives as premodifiers in the noun phrase. If there is any limitation, it should be a pragmatic limitation rather than a grammatical one.

Kornfilt (1997:108) suggests that "there is no preferred order among various types of adjectives." However, when both adjective and relative clause cooccur as modifiers in a noun phrase, the unmarked order is as follows:

relative clause - adjective - noun

Occasionally, the adjective might precede the relative clause. Then, an intonational break must be inserted between the adjective and the relative clause:

- 258a. [*yol+da yürü-yen*] *genç kadın*
 road walk-Part. young woman
 'the young woman who is walking on the road'
- 258b. *genç* [*gelecek+ten kork-ma-yan*] *insan+lar*
 young future-Abl. fear-Neg.-Part. people
 'the young people who are not afraid of the future'

The following is the unmarked word order for the elements in a noun phrase:

demonstrative - relative clause - (quantifier) - adjective - (indefinite article) - Noun

In any case, the head noun of the noun phrase is unexceptionally the last item in the string.

Various combinations of modifiers are permitted in noun phrase. However, there is an exception to this generalization: it is the mutual exclusion of demonstratives and quantifiers, which cannot co-occur with the so-called indefinite article *bir* 'a/an' in a noun phrase:

259a.	<i>bu adam</i>	'this man'
	<i>bir adam</i>	'a man'
	* <i>bu bir adam</i>	'this a man'
	<i>Bu bir adam.</i>	'This is a man.'
259b.	<i>üç kitap</i>	'three books'
	<i>bir kitap</i>	'a book'
	* <i>üç bir kitap</i>	'three a book'
	* <i>bir üç kitap</i>	'* an three book'
	* <i>Üç bir kitap.</i>	'* Three is a book.'
259c.	<i>Bir bu adam gelmedi.</i>	'Only this man didn't come.'
	<i>Bir tek bu adam gelmedi.</i>	'Only this man didn't come.'
	<i>Bu adam gelmedi bir tek.</i>	'Only this man didn't come.'

In short, as our data and discussions indicate, depending on their structural properties, the elements that may occur within a noun phrase form a variety of structural relations with the head noun of the phrase. Depending on the form of relationship that is established, these elements occur at different levels of phrasal projection and thus assigned specific status. Finally, the ordering restriction that are observed within a phrase again derives from the type of the relation that they establish with the head.



CHAPTER IV: NOMINAL COMPOUNDS AND SENTENTIAL NOMINALIZATIONS IN TURKISH

Nominal Compounds are the nominal expressions of the form N + N in general. Since Turkish is a head-final language, the head of the nominal compound is always the last element.

Nominal Compounds are traditionally divided into three types:

- i. Attributive Compounds
- ii. Genitive Phrase Construction
- iii. Nominal Compounds

The term **compound** implies that the whole string forms a unit that is similar to a lexical element rather than a phrasal projection. In this respect, it is appropriate to restrict the range of elements that the term Nominal Compound is used for. Thus, a string which is composed of two nouns (N + N) without any morphological markers on either nouns is usually called Attributive Compounds (AC) while a string that includes a nominal element which is assigned a Genitive Case in its possessor/subject position is called the Genitive Phrase Construction (GPC) (Dede, 1982).

These two constructions seem to be a phrasal projection of some kind of nominal element. Therefore, it is possible to claim that these two types of nominal strings are phrasal projections of the element D within the framework of DP Hypothesis. On the other hand, the third type of nominal strings (traditionally N + N-Poss) can be considered to be a lexical element rather than a syntactic projection because its main function in the grammar of Turkish language is to name entities which do not have a specific name as a lexical element. Thus, it is safe to reserve the term Nominal Compound for this third category. These three types of nominal expressions can be re-categorized as follows:

- i. **Noun Phrase** or **DP** including a Noun as a modifier (traditionally Attribute Compound)
- ii. **Noun Phrase** or **DP** with a Possessor and an agreement marker (traditionally Genitive Phrase Construction)
- iii. **Nominal Compound** (similar to a lexical noun)

IV.1. Attributive Compounds

The relationship between the head-N and the mod-N in an Attributive Compound is similar to that between the adjective and the head noun in a noun phrase.

- | | | |
|-----|---------------------|--------------------|
| 1a. | <i>kadın doktor</i> | Doktor kadın(dır). |
| 1b. | <i>güzel doktor</i> | Doktor güzel(dir). |

The basic semantic relationship between the mod-N and the head-N can be restored as X (mod-N) is Y (head-N). Similar relations can also be proposed for the semantic properties of mod-N and head-N relationship in an Attributive Compound as in the following:

- | | | |
|------|----------------------------------------|---------------------|
| i. | head-N is mod-N | <i>kadın doktor</i> |
| ii. | head-N is made of mod-N | <i>bakır kap</i> |
| iii. | head-N is in the shape of mod-N | <i>top kek</i> |
| iv. | head-N is similar to mod-N | <i>altın kalp</i> |
| | etc. | |

IV.1.1. Head-N is Mod-N (Attribute) (X is Y) or (Y is X)

- | | | | |
|-----|---------------------|--------------------|--------------|
| 2a. | <i>doktor kadın</i> | Kadın doktor(dur). | |
| 2b. | <i>kadın doktor</i> | Doktor kadın(dır). | |
| 3a. | <i>çocuk katil</i> | Katil çocuk(tur). | |
| 3b. | <i>katil çocuk</i> | Çocuk katil(dır). | |
| 4a. | <i>berber kız</i> | Kız berber(dır). | |
| 4b. | <i>kız berber</i> | Berber kız(dır). | (Dede, 1982) |

IV.1.2. Head-N is Made of Mod-N (Material)

- | | | |
|-----|----------------------|----------------------------------------|
| 5a. | <i>altın top</i> | Top altın. Top altından (yapılmıştır). |
| 5b. | ? <i>top altın</i> | Altın top(tur)/(şeklinde)(dır). |
| 6a. | <i>hasır şapka</i> | Şapka hasırdan (yapılmıştır). |
| 6b. | ? <i>şapka hasır</i> | Hasır şapka(dır)/(şeklinde)(dır). |
| 7a. | <i>taş duvar</i> | Duvar taştan (yapılmıştır). |
| 7b. | ? <i>duvar taş</i> | ? Taş duvar(dır) |

- 8a. *kağıt para* Para kağıttan (yapılmıştır).
 8b. ? *para kağıt* ? Kağıt para(dır) (Dede, 1982)

IV.1.3. Head-N is in the Shape of Mod-N (Shape)

- 9a. *top kek* Kek top şeklidir.
 9b. ? *kek top* Top kekten yapılmıştır.

IV.1.4. Head-N is Similar to Mod-N (Similar Property)

- 10a. *altın kalp* Kalp (onun kalbi) altın gibidir.
 10b. *kalp altın* Altın kalp şeklidir.

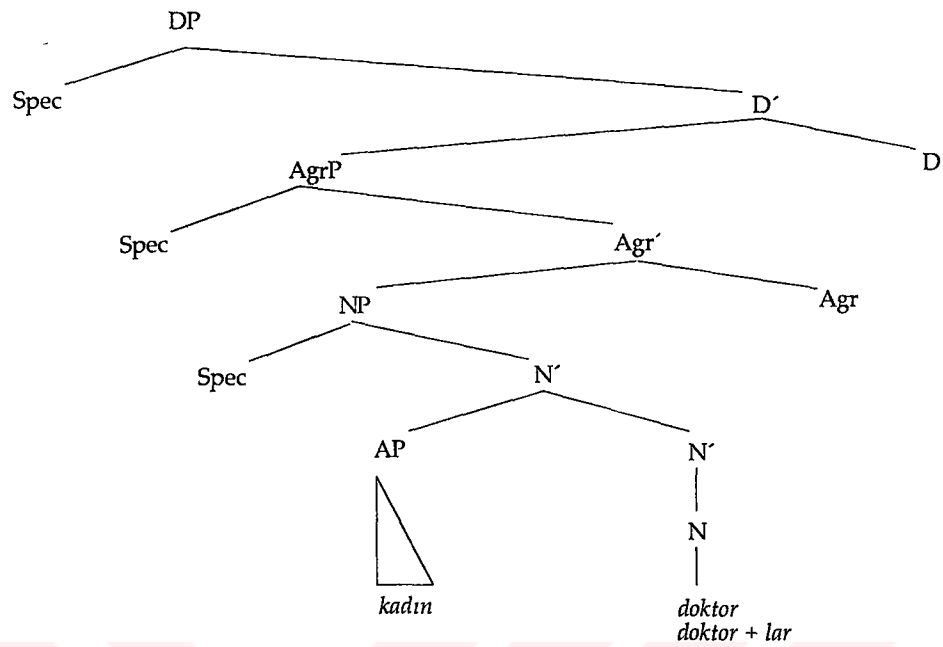
In conclusion, the interpretation of Attributive Compounds depends on the semantics of modifying noun (mod-N). If mod-N has a semantic content related with a shape, then, the interpretation of the whole compound is in the form of head-N is in the shape of mod-N. If mod-N is likely to be interpreted as an element denoting a material, then, the interpretation of the attributive compound becomes one of source material from which the head-N is made.

	Mod-N	Head-N	
11a.	<i>taş</i>	<i>bina</i>	'stone building'
11b.	<i>ipek</i>	<i>pelerin</i>	'silk spectre'
11c.	<i>demir</i>	<i>kapı</i>	'iron door'
11d.	<i>cam</i>	<i>kase</i>	'glass plate'
11e.	<i>plastik</i>	<i>oyuncak</i>	'plastic toy'
11f.	<i>altın</i>	<i>yüzük</i>	'golden ring'

- 11g. *toprak* *çanak* 'earthware'
- 12a. *şeker* *kız* 'candy girl'
- 12b. *taş* *yürek* 'stone heart'
- 12c. *altın* *kalp* 'golden heart'
- 12d. *toprak* *yüz* 'earthen face'
- 12e. *pamuk* *prenses* 'cotton princess' (=snow white)
- 13a. *tahta* *ev* 'wooden house'
- 13b. *tahta+dan* *ev* 'wooden house'
- 13c. *tahta+dan* *yapılmış ev* 'a house that is made from wood'
- 14a. *ipek* *saç* 'silk hair'
- 14b. *ipek gibi* *saç* 'hair like silk'
- 14c. *ipek* *saç+lı çocuk* 'a silk-haired boy'
- 15a. *Kadın doktor çok çalışkan.*
- 15b. *Kadın doktor+lar çok çalışkan.*

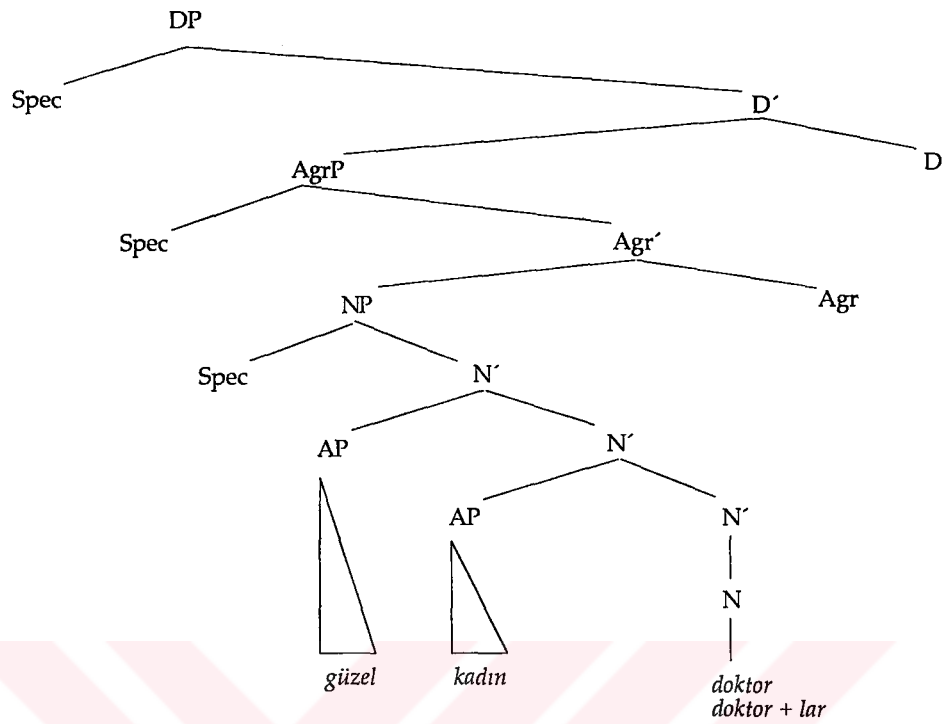
Since the basic semantic relationship between the mod-N and the head-N in an Attributive Compound is one of attribution (as in the case of adjectives used as premodifiers), it is possible to propose that mod-Ns can be placed under an AP node in the configurational representation of the compound.

16.



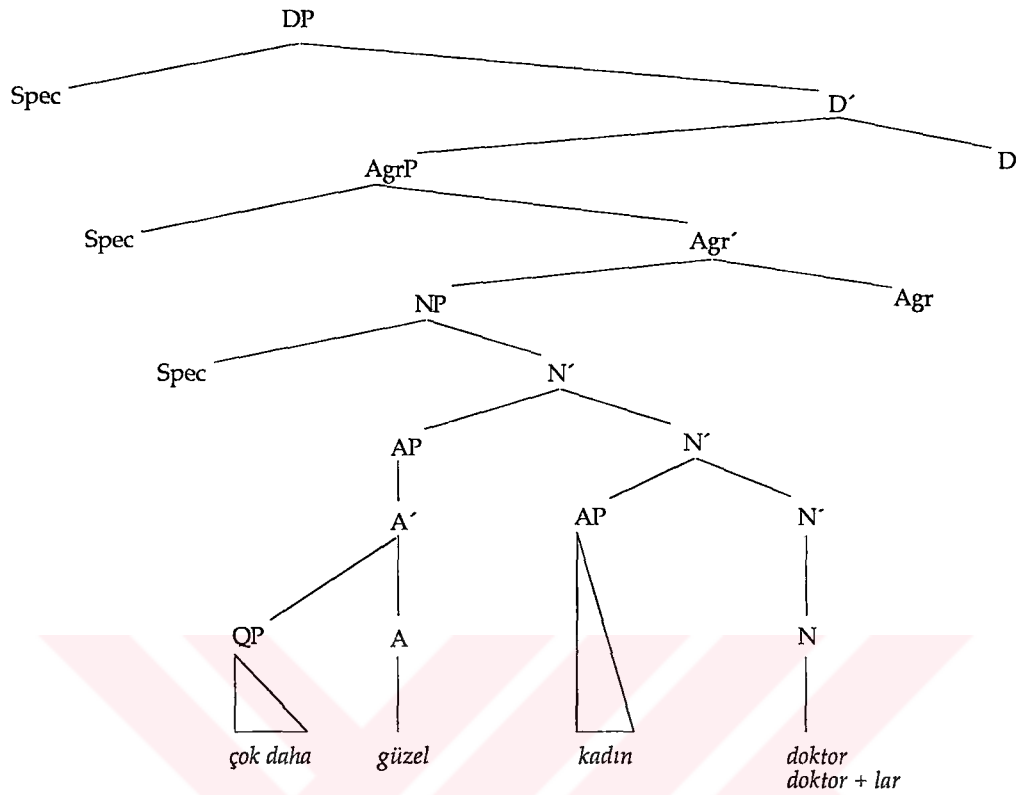
However, this similarity does not imply that both types of attribution are identical. In fact, there is a preferred order when these two types are used in the same noun phrase: the mod-N follows the adjective.

17.



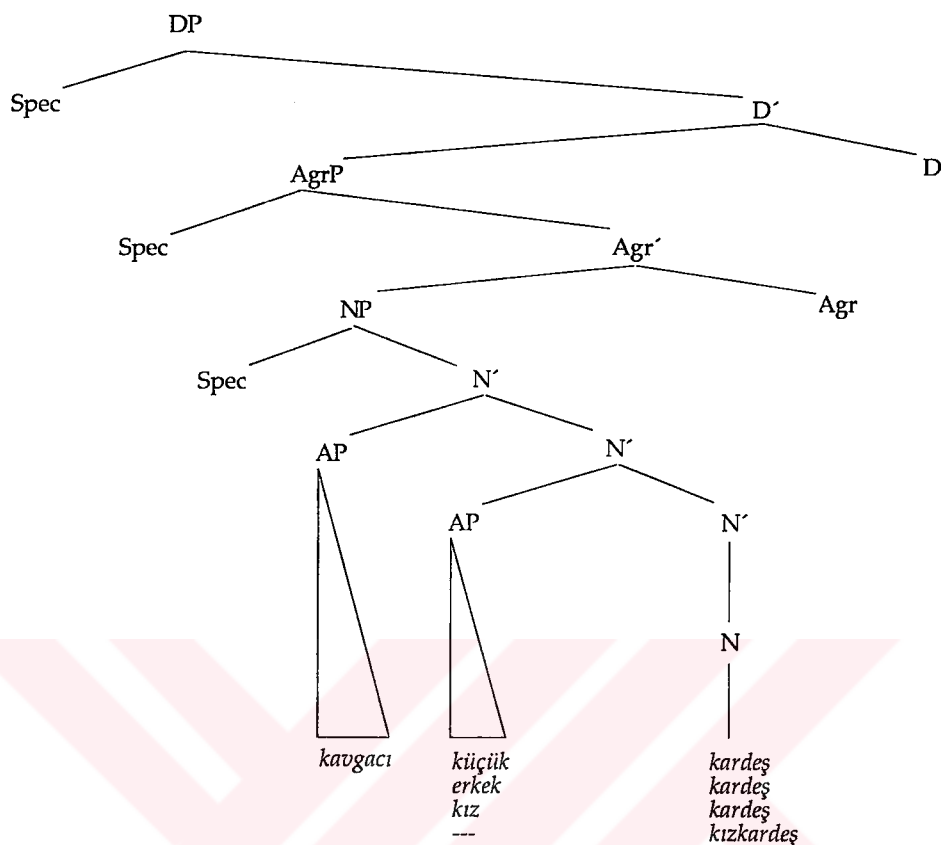
In addition to this preferred order, the mod-N cannot be modified by a degree expression or similar elements while the adjective can be modified by such expressions.

18.



Thus, the intermediate phrasal projection N' which dominates AP *kadın* and the head-N *doktor/doktor+lar* in the PM is likely to be interpreted as a syntactic unit, which might be the phenomena that leads this unit (N') to be treated as a new lexical item (N) as in the example of *kızkardeş*. In this case, the attributive complex has probably become one lexical unit in the course of linguistic change.

19.



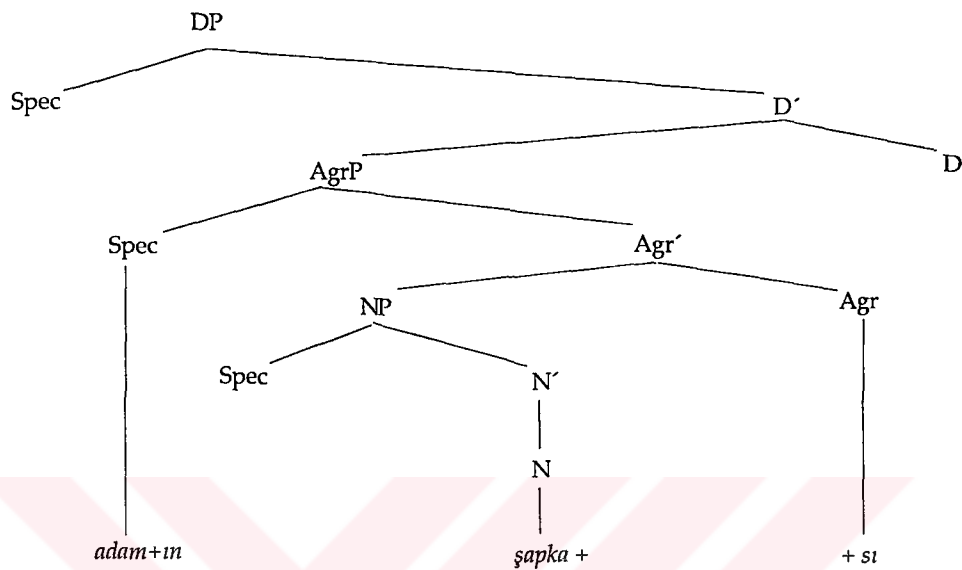
IV.2. Genitive Phrase Construction

The genitive phrase construction (GPC) is composed of two marked nouns. The first noun is assigned Genitive Case and therefore it is marked with the genitive suffix and the second noun agrees with the first noun in terms of person and number by means of nominal agreement markers.

As Dede (1982) points out that "the relationship between the members of the GPC is temporary and the mod-N is generally derived

from either **definite noun** or **indefinite specific noun**. Thus, *adam-ın şapka-sı* refers to a hat which belongs to a definite man."

20.



The relationship between the mod-N and the head-N in a GPC can be analyzed as **possessive** or as **belonging** of an entity to another. However, the degree of possession or belonging changes with respect to the relation between the mod-N and the head-N:

- | | | | |
|------|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 21a. | <i>Ali+nin</i> | <i>göz+ü</i> | 'Ali'seye' |
| 21b. | * <i>Ali+nin</i> | <i>göz</i> | 'Ali'seye' |
| 22a. | <i>Ali+nin</i> | <i>gömleğ+i</i> | 'Ali'sshirt' |
| 22b. | <i>Ali+nin</i> | <i>gömlek</i> | 'Ali'sshirt' |
| 23a. | <i>Ali+nin</i> | <i>kız+ı</i> | 'Ali'sdaughter' |
| 23b. | <i>Ali+nin</i> | <i>kız</i> | 'Ali'sdaughter' |

24a.	<i>Ali+nin</i>	<i>karı+sı</i>	'Ali's wife'
24b.	<i>Ali+nin</i>	<i>karı</i>	'Ali's wife'
25a.	<i>Ali+nin</i>	<i>kiracı+sı</i>	'Ali's tenant'
25b.	<i>Ali+nin</i>	<i>kiracı</i>	'Ali's tenant'
26a.	<i>Ali+nin</i>	<i>düğün+ü</i>	'Ali's wedding'
26b.	<i>Ali+nin</i>	<i>düğün</i>	'Ali's wedding'

As it is clear from the examples, the degree of possession decreases downward. The agreement marker in a GPC can be dropped only when the type of the relation between the possessor and the possessed element is alignable. In other words, grammatically, it is not possible to think Ali and his eyes separately. Then, * *Ali+nin göz* is ungrammatical while *Ali+nin ev* is allowed.

The following are the examples of some of possible GPCs in Turkish, which includes personal pronouns as possessors:

27a.	<i>ben+im</i>	<i>doktor+u m</i>
27b.	<i>sen+in</i>	<i>doktor+u n</i>
27c.	<i>o+nun</i>	<i>doktor+u</i>
27d.	<i>biz+im</i>	<i>doktor+u muz</i>
27e.	<i>siz+in</i>	<i>doktor+u nuz</i>
27f.	<i>onlar+ın</i>	<i>doktor+u/+ları</i>

As it is clear from these examples, the personal pronouns *ben* 'I,' *sen* 'you-SG,' *o* 'he, she, it,' *biz* 'we,' *siz* 'you-PL,' *onlar* 'they' can be used as mod-N or subject in a noun phrase. In such cases, the head noun

is marked with an appropriate agreement marker with respect to person. However, the forms of subject noun other than personal pronouns require a third person singular/plural agreement markers on the head noun since they are treated as third person singular/plural. The following examples illustrates this observation:

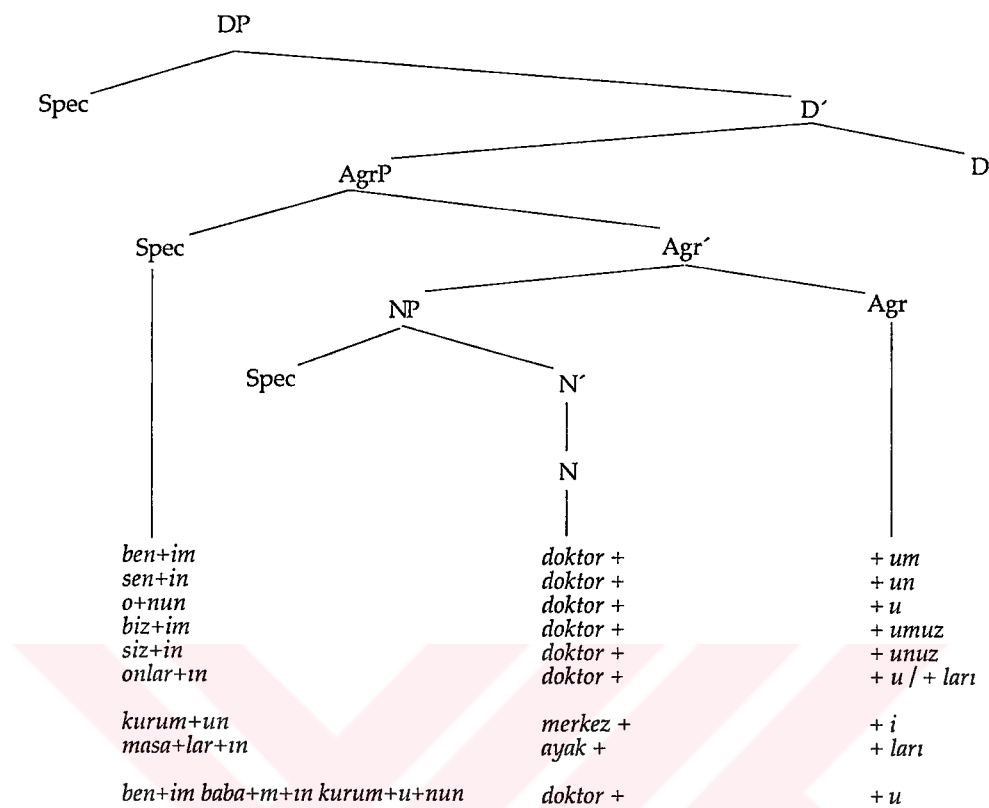
28a. *kurum+un merkez+i*

28b. *masa+lar+ın ayak+lari*

Thus, they require 3SG/PL agreement markers as in the examples. It is possible to produce a GPC by inserting another GPC under the node of mod-N:

29. *[[ben+im baba+m]+ın kurum+u]+nun doktor+u*

30.



In Turkish, the Genitive Phrase Construction can fulfill a number of functions in the language system such as possession, part-whole relation, temporal or locational relations, etc.

A GPC can serve as a constituent that express the belonging of an entity to a possessor as in the following example:

31. *adam+ın* *ev+i*
 kadın+ın *para+sı*
 ben+im *araba+m*

Another function that a GPC performs is to express a part-whole relation:

32. *pasta+nın* *parça+sı*
adam+ın *göz+ü*
masa+nın *ayağ+ı*
çocuk+lar+ın *beş+i*

Similarly, a GPC can be used to state a location, a function which is usually carried out by prepositional phrases in English:

33. *masa+nın* *alt+ı*
ev+in *ön+ü*
sokağ+ın *son+u*
kutu+nun *iç+i*

An interesting aspect of GPCs is their ability to denote a temporal or locational reference:

34. *1920+ler+in* *Ankara+sı*
gün+ün *çorba+sı*
Şam+ın *şeker+i*
İstanbul+un *fethi*

It is important to note that this construction is extremely productive in Turkish. Even adjectives can be used as heads in GPCs. For instance:

35. *Ali* *akıllı+sı*
Ayşe *deli+si*
Murat *sev-im+siz+i*

A GPC can also express an indefinite reference for the nouns which are specified for [+human] as in the following example:

36. *adam+ın* *bir+i*
 ? *masa+nın* *bir+i*
 eşeğ+in *bir+i* (a person who is like a donkey)
 ? *at+ın* *bir+i*
37. *aptal+ın* *tek+i*
 öküz+ün *tek+i*
 kadın+ın *tek+i*

In Turkish, sentential nominalizations have the form of GPC since the subject of the gerund is assigned Genitive Case and the predicate is marked with an agreement morphology that is identical with those in GPCs. Observe the following examples:

- 38a. *Ali+nin ev+i*
 38b. *Ali+nin ev+e git-tiğ+i*
- 39a. *ben+im ev+im*
 39b. *ben+im ev+e git+me+m*
- 40a. *siz+in ev+iniz*
 40b. *siz+in ev+e gid+eceğ+iniz*

IV.3. Nominal Compounds

Nominal Compounds (NC) are the nominal expressions of the form N + N-poss traditionally. The mod-N precedes the head-N as in the

previous types of compounds. In a way, NCs can be considered a construction which is between the Attributive Compounds and Genitive Phrase Constructions: the mod-N does not have a morphology as in the case of Attributive Compounds and the head-N is marked with an agreement marker as the head noun in a GPC is.

As Dede (1982) emphasizes, the main function of NCs is to express entities and concepts that do not have a specific name. Thus, NCs serve to provide new entities with names in the language system. NCs form a syntactic and semantic unit as if they are lexical items.

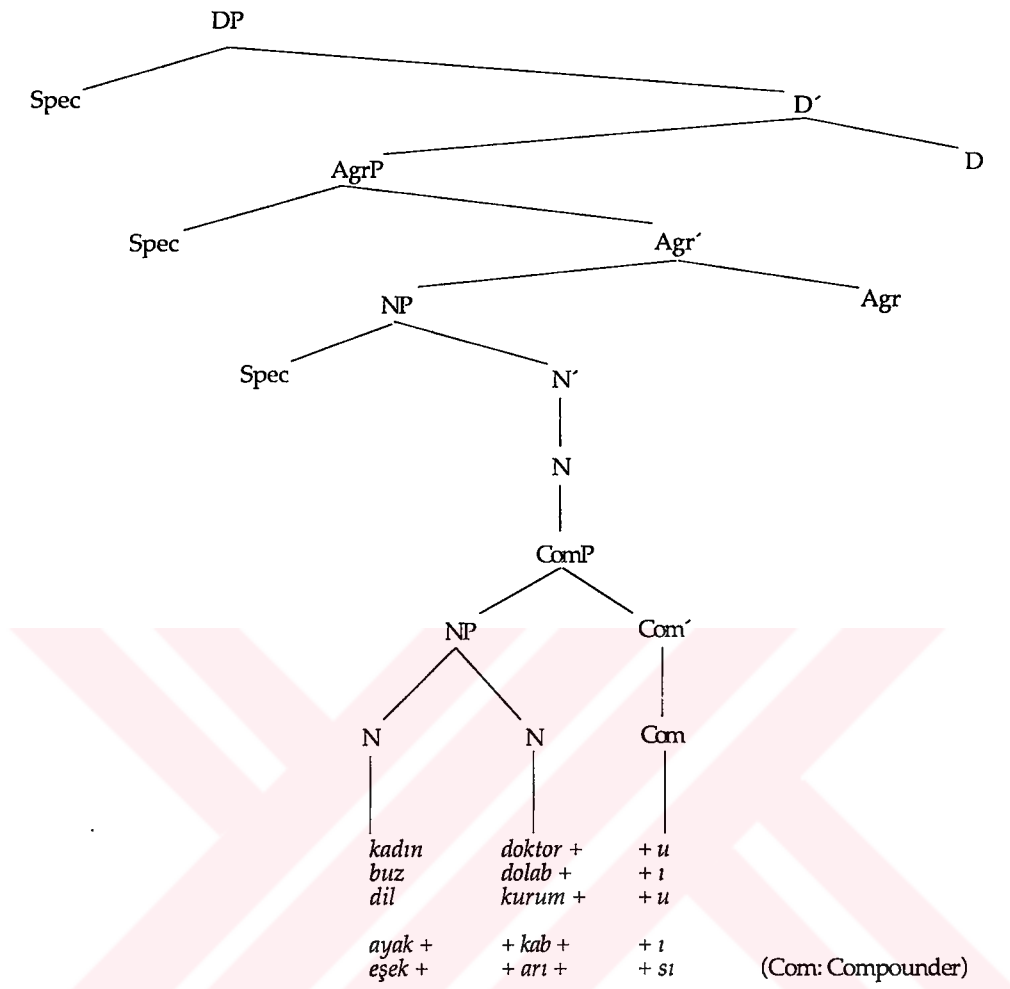
- 41a. *buz* *dolab+ı*
 41b. *çamaşır* *makina+sı*
 41c. *dil* *kurum+u*
 41d. *kalp* *vakf+ı*
 41e. *Nesin* *Vakf+ı*

In this respect, nominal compounds are similar to lexical nouns. Due to this similarity, most of the Nominal Compounds are treated as one lexical unit.

- 42a. *ayak+kab+ı*
 42b. *eşek+arı+sı*

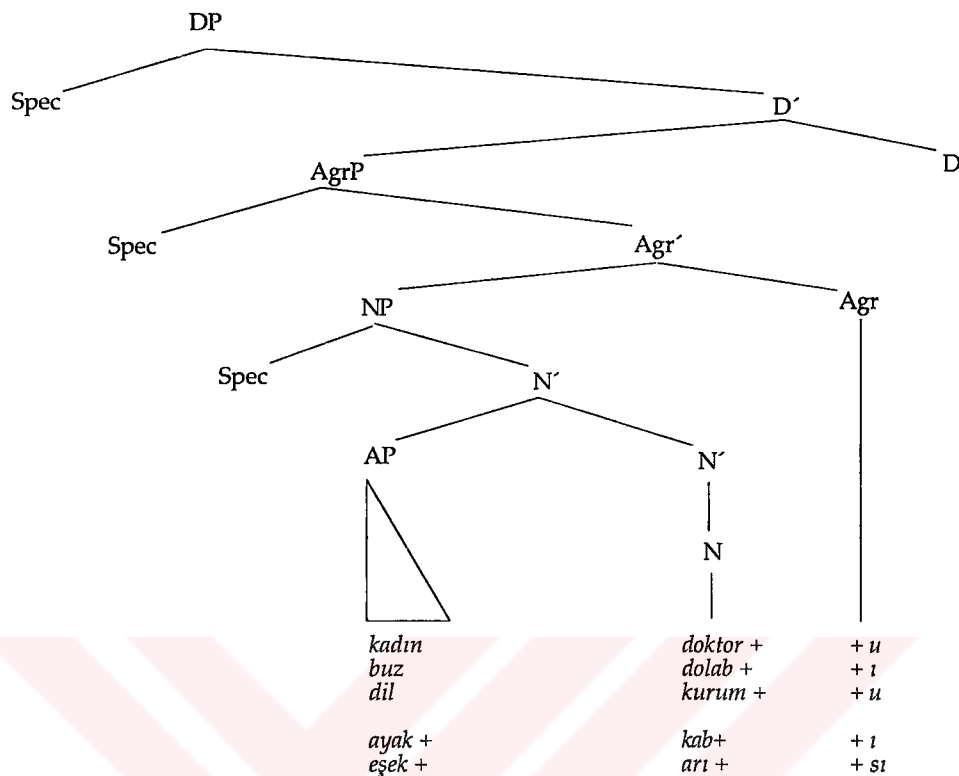
As for the internal configurational structure of Nominal Compounds, it is possible to propose two different representations. In the first representation, the NCs are treated as the phrasal projections of a Compounder (Com) (Sezer, 1999):

43.



An alternative representation can also be considered as in the following PM in which a Nominal Compound is taken to be a DP, which has a modifier and whose possessor does not exist:

44.



Another interesting example of Nominal Compounds in Turkish is the following question/exclamation construction:

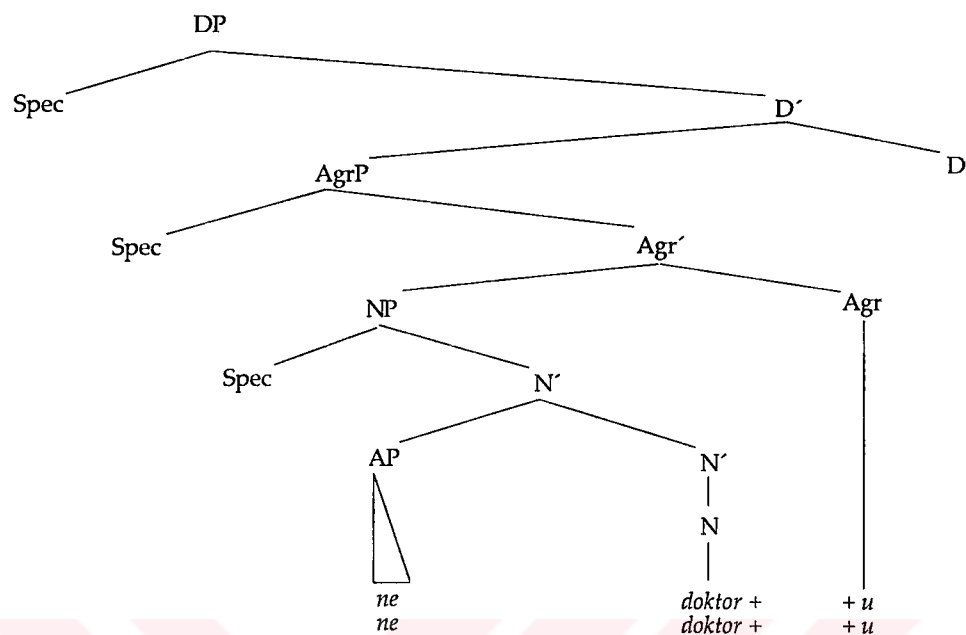
45a. *ne doktor+u?* (**question:** what is his/her subfield?)

45b. *ne doktor+u!* (**exclamation:** what doctor?)

It is extremely difficult to speculate on the internal structure of these two nominal expressions which display marked structures. However, (45b) can be restored to a exclamation sentence as in the following:

46. *Ne doktor+u+ndan bahsed-iyor-sun?*

47.



We may conclude that the most frequently occurring types of Nominal Compounds in Turkish are also DPs. Depending on the type of the morphology involved, weak and strong in the sense of Kornflit (1984), these compounds display different internal structure. In the following section, we will review the properties of sentential constituents which also display nominal properties and try to illustrate the fact that they too share similar morphology.

IV.4. Sentential Nominalizations

We examined three related constructions in English in the Chapter I. These are given again as follows:

- 48a. *Mary translated the book.*
 48b. *Mary's translating the book*
 48c. *Mary's translation of the book*

These three constructions preserve the same argument structure although the last two have a nominal status rather than an independent sentence. The second construction which is traditionally called a **gerundive** construction is somehow intermediary structure between the simple sentence and the lexical nominalization of the verb *translate* into the deverbal noun *translation*.

On the other hand, Turkish usually employs sentential nominalizations for events rather than lexical nominalization. The most frequent alternative to form a nominal constituent that expresses an event or action is the Genitive Phrase Constructions formed by addition of appropriate nominalization suffixes. For example:

- 49a. *Mary+nin kitab+ı çevir-diğ+i*
 49b. *Mary+nin kitab+ı çevir-eceğ+i*
 49c. *Mary+nin kitab+ı çevir-me+si*
 49d. *Mary+nin kitab+ı çevir-iş+i*
 49e. *Mary+nin kitab+ı çevir-miş-ø ol-duğ+u*

but English has three distinct structures for the same event:

- 50a. [*That Mary translated the book*]
 50b. [*Mary's translating the book*]
 50c. [*Mary's translation of the book*]

The main reason for the difference in producing nominal constituents out of verbs is the existence of different strategies of human

languages. In English, this process is carried out both in the lexicon and in the syntax while Turkish has only a syntactic process, resulting in a gerundive construction.

- 51a. *translate (v)* -----> *Mary's translation of the book* (in lexicon)
 51b. *translate (v)* -----> *Mary's translating of the book* (in syntax)
 51c. *translate (v)* -----> *That Mary translated the book* (in syntax)

In Turkish, verbal strings can be nominalized by adding nominalization suffixes such as *-Dik*, *-mE*, *-(y)EcEk*, *-Iş*, etc. Nominalized string acquire a status different than that of verbal string in terms of its syntactic properties. For instance, a nominalized sentence is not a whole sentence any more, which can stand alone in a context. Rather, it is a part of sentence: it can occupy argument positions although there are some restrictions on the type of nominalization on the basis of the nominalization suffix added to the original string when the nominalized constituent is to occupy an argument position.

Turkish is consistently a SOV language. Given the unmarked order of constituents within a sentence, the verb is always the last element. Since Turkish is an agglutinating language, which employs suffixation process abundantly, the verb of the sentence has a number of suffixes to fulfill the requirement to mark subject-verb agreement (person and number), tense, aspect, mood, etc.

52. *Sen ev+e geç gel -di -n*
 You house-Dat late come -Past 2SG
 'You came home late.'

When a sentence is nominalized, the nominalization suffixes are added to the verb stem instead of tense suffix:

53. *sen+in ev+e* *geç* *gel- -diğ -in*
 You-Gen house-Dat late come N.S. 2SG
 'that you came home late'

As it can be observed clearly, there is an agreement marker, 2nd person singular *-(I)n*, at the end of nominalized string. However, this agreement marker is morphologically different than the verbal agreement marker. The verbal agreement paradigm is as follows:

- | | | | | |
|-----|------------|-------------|---------|-------------|
| 54. | 1SG | {-yIm}, | {-(I)m} | |
| | 2SG | {-(sIn)}, | {-ø} | |
| | 3SG | {-ø}, | {-sIn} | |
| | 1PL | {-(y)Iz}, | {-k}, | {-IIm} |
| | 2PL | {-(s)InIz}, | {-nIz}, | {-In} |
| | 3PL | {-ø}, | {-lAr}, | {-sIn(lAr)} |

Nominal agreement paradigm, on the other hand, can be listed in the following way:

- | | | | |
|-----|------------|-----------|---------|
| 55. | 1SG | {-(I)m} | |
| | 2SG | {-(I)n} | |
| | 3SG | {-(s)I} | |
| | 1PL | {-(I)mIz} | |
| | 2PL | {-(I)nIz} | |
| | 3PL | {-(s)I}, | {-lArI} |

Although both verbal and nominal agreement paradigms are quite similar, there exist distinct forms for the same person in both lists.

An interesting issue related with sentential nominalizations is the presence of a number of nominalization suffixes in Turkish. The most frequent nominalization suffixes are as follows:

56. **-dik**
Ali+nin ev+e geç gel- -diğ -i
 Ali-Gen house-Dat late come N.S. 3SG
 'that Ali came home late'

57. **-me**
Ali+nin ev+e geç gel- -me -si
 Ali-Gen house-Dat late come N.S. 3SG
 'that Ali came / comes home late'

58. **-iş**
Ali+nin ev+e geç gel- -iş -i
 Ali-Gen house-Dat late come N.S. 3SG
 'that Ali came / comes home late'

59. **-(y)ecek**
Ali+nin ev+e geç gel- -eceğ -i
 Ali-Gen house-Dat late come N.S. 3SG
 'that Ali will come home late'

In Turkish, nominalization suffix is followed by the agreement marker, which, in turn, may be succeeded by a case suffix.

60. Verb Stem + Nom. Suffix + Nominal AGR + Case Marker

V	{-mE}	{-(I)m}	{-ø}
	{-DIk}	{-(I)n}	{-(y)I}
	{-Iş}	{-(s)I}	{-(y)E}
	{-EcEk}	{-(I)mIz}	{-DE}
		{-(I)nIz}	{-DEn}
		{-(s)I}, {-lArI}	{-(n)In}
			{-(y)IE}

For example, the simple sentence *Ahmet hep biz+im ev+e gel-ir-ø* can be used as an internal argument in the following sentence after the nominalization by the addition of the suffix *-mE*:

61. [*Ahmet-in biz+im ev-e gel -me -si -ni*] *iste -mi -yor -um.*
 Ahmet-Gen our-Gen house-Dat come-N.S.-3SG-Acc want-Neg-Pres-1SG
 'I don't want Ali to come our house.'

Although the four nominalization suffixes that we list here are the most frequent ones, there are also some other nominalization markers such as *-Ip / -mEdIk, -Ip / -mEmE, -mEk, -ø, diye*.

62. *Ali+nin cam+ı kır-ıp kır-ma-dıĝ-ı-nı bil-mi-yor-uz.*

63. *Ali+nin cam+ı kır-ıp kır-ma-ma-sı önem+li deĝil.*

64. [*e Cam+ı kır-mak*] *son derece yanlış bir davran-ış-ø.*

65. ? [*e Cam+ı kır-mak*] *son derece yanlış bir davran-ış-tır-ø,*

66. [*e Cam kır-mak*] *son derece yanlış bir davran-ış-tır-ø.*

67. *Ali cam+ı kır-dı mı?*
 68. *Cam+ı kim kır-dı-ø?*
69. *[Ali cam+ı kır-dı mı-ø] bil-mi-yor-um.*
 70. *[Cam+ı kim kır-dı-ø] bil-mi-yor-um.*
71. *[Alij cam+ı kır-dı-ø] diye [çok ej üz-ül-müş-ø].*
 72. *[Alij cam+ı kır-dı-ø] diye [çok ej üz-ül-müş-ø].*

The first two nominalization suffixes *-Ip / -mEdIk* and *-Ip / -mEmE* can be considered as a special type of reduplication. On the other hand, the suffix *-mEk* is the regular infinitivization suffix in Turkish. The *-ø* suffix seems to be used in the nominalization process of questions and formation of indirect speech sentences.

The following table is adapted from Sezer (1982) in order to summarize the features of nominalization suffixes in Turkish. The relativizer *-En* is also included for it retains a [+nominal] feature even though the main concern of the study is basic ones that can render a string an argument.

73.	-DIğ	-EcEğ	-En	-mE	-mEk	[-Iş]
+Relativizer	+	+	+	-	-	+
+Nominalizer	+	+	-	+	+	+
+Infinitival	-	-	-	-	+	-
+Future	-	+	-	-	-	-
+Factive	+	+	+	-	-	-
+Agreement	+	+/-	-	+	-	+

(Sezer, 1982:134)

IV.5. The External Distribution of Nominal Elements

In Turkish, a noun phrase can function as subject, direct object, indirect object, and object of postposition in the sentence:

subject

74. *Adam karı-sı-na seslen-di-ø.*
 man wife-3SG-Dat call-Past-3SG
 'The man called his wife.'

direct object

75. *Bu adam çocuk-lar -ı-nı çok sev-iyor-ø.*
 this man child -PL.-3SG-Acc. much love-Prog.-3SG
 'This man loves his children very much.'

indirect object

76. *Kadın koca-sı -na güzel bir hediye al-mış -tı-ø.*
 Woman husband-3SG-Dat nice a present buy-Nar.-Past-3SG
 'The woman has bought a present to her husband.'

object of postposition

77. *Bu adam kadar çirkin-i-ni gör-me-di-m.*
 this man as much as ugly-3SG-Acc see-Neg -Past-1SG
 'I have never seen such an ugly man.'

Generally speaking, sentential nominalizations can occupy argument positions within other sentences. However, there are also some restrictions on the type of the nominalization with respect to the type of argument position in a sentence. For example, factual sentential nominalizations which have a time reference on their nominalization

suffixes cannot occupy the subject position (external argument of a verb) in a sentence.

Sentential nominalizations can be the subject of a sentence:

-DIk

78a. * [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-dıĝ-ı*] *biz+i sinir+len-dir-di-ø*
'That Ali broke the glass made us angry.'

78b. [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-dıĝ-ı*] *gerçeĝ+i biz+i sinir+len-dir-di-ø*
'The fact that Ali broke the glass made us angry.'

-mE

79a. [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-ma-sı*] *biz+i sinir+len-dir-di-ø*.
'That Ali broke the glass made us angry.'

79b. [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-ma*] *olası-lıĝ-ı biz+i sinir+len-dir-di-ø*.
'The possibility that Ali will break /broke the glass made us angry.'

79c. * [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-ma-sı*] *olası-lıĝ-ı biz+i sinir+len-dir-di-ø*.
'The possibility that Ali will break /broke the glass made us angry.'

-(y)EcEk

80a. * [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-acaĝ-ı*] *biz+i sinir+len-dir-di-ø*
'That Ali will break the glass made us angry.'

80b. [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-acaĝ-ı*] *söylenti+si biz+i sinir+len-dir-di-ø*
'The rumour that Ali will break the glass made us angry.'

-Iş

81a. [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-ış-ı*] *biz+i sinir+len-dir-di-ø*
'Ali's manner/method to break the glass made us angry.'

- 81b. [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-ış*] *tarz+ı biz+i sinir+len-dir-di-ø*
'Ali's manner/method to break the glass made us angry.'

Sentential nominalizations can also be the subject of a copular sentence:

-DIk

82. [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-dığ-ı*] *doğru değil.*
'It is not correct that Ali broke the glass.'

-mE

83. [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-ma-sı*] *doğru değil.*
'It is not right for Ali to break the glass.'
? 'Ali's method to break the glass is not correct'

-(y)EcEk

84. [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-acağ-ı*] *doğru değil.*
'It is not correct that Ali will break the glass.'

-İş

85. [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-ış-ı*] *doğru değil.*
'Ali's manner/method to break the glass is not correct.'

Sentential nominalizations can be the direct object of a sentence:

-DIk

- 86a. *Biz* [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-dığ-ı*]+nı *gör-dü-k.*
'We saw that Ali broke the glass.'

- 86b. *Biz* [*Ali+nin cam+ı nasıl kır-dığ-ı*]+nı *gör-dü-k.*
'We saw how Ali broke the glass.'

-mE

- 87a. *Biz [Ali+nin cam+ı kır-ma-sı]+nı gör-dü-k.*
'We saw how Ali broke the glass.'
- 87b. *Biz [Ali+nin cam kır-ma-sı]+nı gördük.*
'We saw Ali's breaking glass.'
- 87c. * *Biz [Ali+nin cam+ı nasıl kır-ma-sı]+nı gör-dü-k.*
'We saw how Ali broke the glass.'
- 87d. *Biz [Ali+nin cam+ı nasıl kır-ma-sı] gerek-tiğ-i-ni gör-dü-k.*
'We saw how Ali must break the glass.'

-(y)EcEk

- 88a. *Biz [Ali+nin cam+ı kır-acağ-ı]+nı gör-dü-k.*
'We understood that Ali would break the glass.'
* 'We saw that Ali would break the glass.'
- 88b. *Biz [Ali+nin cam+ı nasıl kır-acağ-ı]+nı gör-dü-k.*
'We saw how Ali will break the glass.'

-Iş

- 89a. *Biz [Ali+nin cam+ı kır-ış-ı]+nı gör-dü-k.*
'We saw how Ali broke the glass.'
- 89b. * *Biz [Ali+nin cam+ı nasıl kır-ış-ı]+nı gör-dü-k.*
'We saw how Ali broke the glass.'
- 89c. *Biz [Ali+nin cam+ı kır-ış-ı]+nın nasıl ol-acağ-ı-nı gör-dü-k.*
'We saw how Ali's breaking the glass would be.'

-(y)EcEk

90a. * *Biz [Ali+nin cam+ı kır-acağ-ı]+nı gör-eceğ-iz.*
'We will see that Ali will break the glass.'

90b. *Biz [Ali+nin cam+ı kır-acağ-ı]+nı tahmin ettik.*
'We predict that Ali will break the glass.'

-(y)EcEk

91a. * *Biz [Ali+nin cam+ı kır-acağ-ı]+nı gör-dü-k.*
'We saw that Ali will break the glass.'

91b. *Biz [Ali+nin cam+ı kır-acağ-ı]+nı duy-du-k.*
'We heard that Ali will break the glass.'

Noun phrases can function as the indirect object of the sentence:

92a. *Biz kitab+ı Ali+ye ver-di-k.*
'We gave the book to Ali.'

92b. *Biz kitab+ı Ali+den satın al-dı-k.*
'We bought the book from Ali.'

92c. *Biz kitab+ı Ali+ye bağış-la-dı-k.*
'We donated the book to Ali.'

Sentential nominalizations can be the indirect object of a sentence as well:

-DIk

93. * *Biz kitab+ı [Ali+nin ders çalış-tığ-ı]+na ver-di-k.*

-mE

94. * Biz kitab+ı [Ali+nin ders çalış-ma-sı]+na ver-di-k.

-(y)EcEk

95. * Biz kitab+ı [Ali+nin ders çalış-acağ-ı]+na ver-di-k.

-İş

96. * Biz kitab+ı [Ali+nin ders çalış-ış-ı]+na ver-di-k.

Some interesting constructions are as follows:

-DIk

97. ? Biz Ali+nin terbiye+siz+liğ+i+ni [e çok ders çalış-tığ-ı]+na ver-di-k.

-mE

98. Biz Ali+nin; terbiye+siz+liğ+i+ni [e; çok ders çalış-ma-sı]+na bağ-lı-yor-uz.

-(y)EcEk

99. * Biz Ali+nin terbiye+siz+liğ+i+ni [e çok ders çalış-acağ-ı]+na ver-di-k.

-İş

100. ? Biz Ali+nin terbiye+siz+liğ+i+ni [e çok ders çalış-ış-ı]+na ver-di-k.

Sentential nominalizations can be the object of postpositions in a sentence:

- 101a. Ali [e cam+ı kır-dığ-ı] için biz+i çok üz-dü-ø.

- 101b. Biz [Ali cam+ı kır-dığ-ı] için çok kız-dı-k.

- 101c. [*Ali cam+ı kır-dıĝ-ı*] için dün hiçbir yer+e gid-e-me-di-k.
- 101d. *Ali* [*e cam+ı kır-dıĝ-ı*] gibi, bir de *masa+yı devir-miř-ø*.
- 101e. [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-dıĝ-ı*] gibi, [*e masa+yı da devir-miř-ø*]
ol-duĝ-u-nu gör-dü-k.
- 101f. *Biz* [*Ali+nin cam+ı kır-dıĝ-ı*] gibi, bir de [*e masa+yı devir-miř-ø*]
ol-ma-sı-na çok kız-dı-k.
- 101g. *Ali* [*e cam+ı kır-dıĝ-ı*] ile *kal-sa-ø yine iyi.*
- 101h. *Ali* [*e cam+ı kır-dıĝ-ı*]+na göre en büyük *ceza+yı hak et-ti-ø.*
- 101i. *Ali* [*e cam+ı kır-dıĝ-ı*] kadar, *masa+yı da devir-miř-ø.*

As it is clear from the data presented, both nominal compounds and sentential nominalization behave similarly in term of their external distribution. Although they differ from each other in many different ways, i.e., internal structure, temporal reference etc., they are by all means nominals for syntax. There appears to be no syntactic restriction on their fulfilling basic grammatical relations such as subject, object, or indirect object. The observed differences between sentential nominalizations mainly concern their semantics which, in most cases, derives from the semantics of the underlying verb or the semantics of the nominalization suffix — *fact vs. act., event vs. result*, and the like.

CONCLUSION

In the previous chapters we have presented the arguments and analyses that led to the development of X-bar Theory. The format proposed in the new formulation of fundamental configurational relations within phrases provided a better understanding and explanation towards the representation of complex linguistic structures compared to previous formats. First of all, the X-bar representation of basic relations provided not only three levels of projection which captures the different behavior of adjuncts and complements as well as specifiers, it also introduced the notion of Head Parameter which provided a cross-linguistic generalization. The Head Parameter stated that all human languages allow for two options for the relative place of the heads in their phrasal projection, contributing to the understanding of language acquisition where a language learned is expected to set the place of the head for once and all phrases of the language he or she is exposed to.

The studies that followed the initial three-level analysis of phrase structure did not produce significant counter arguments or conclusions, in other words, three-level representation is generally accepted and applied in linguistic studies. As studies expanded to cover

the data from the least studied languages, there appeared no significant observation that invalidates the essential assumptions of the X-bar Theory. The major input for these assumptions are produced by the introduction of the functional categories which are rather limited in number and are supposed to project their own phrases. Here again, despite certain difficulties, it became clear through conclusions drawn from many studies that the projections of the functional categories too follow the basic formulation of X-bar Theory. The only observable differences between the projection of functional categories and lexical categories are reduced to their peculiarities which in turn are closely associated to their fundamental differences, such as argument taking and role-assignment capabilities, and the like. The other major point of discussion concerning the functional categories and their projections focused on the number of these categories. To put it in other ways, while some argued for Case Phrase for languages which have relative rich and overtly marked Case system some others argued for expansion of functional categories to cover all syntactically relevant morphology like voice where voice appears as a morphological marking on verbs.

As for the second and equally important discussions on the proposals of the X-bar theory that concerns the position of the heads in phrases, recent studies indicated that the position of the head may not be uniform across all phrasal projections in a language. We know that in languages, mainly in Germanic languages, the basic word-order in matrix clauses differs from the order observed in embedded clause. In German, for example, while the basic word order is SVO in the matrix clause, it is

SOV in the embedded clauses, mostly irrespective of the type of the embedded clause. Similar conclusions also drawn from studies focusing on the position of the heads in phrases and thus ordering of the phrasal elements inside the phrase. Gradually, it has become clear that within a language, the relative position of the heads may be different for some phrasal projections.

When these conclusions combined with the fact that Turkish lacks a separate word class of articles as opposed to many Indo-European languages, two related questions emerge: should we argue for a projection of a DP, and consequently, should the position of a such phrase be consistent with the position of heads across all phrases in Turkish?

This study argued for a projection of a DP in Turkish and all throughout the study tried to indicate that language makes use of different devices in order to mark the different referential statuses for its nominal expressions. It became clear that Turkish relies on other linguistic means to make nominal expression definite or indefinite. Hence, the conclusion arguing for a DP in Turkish is favorable over non-existence of a DP in many ways. First, there are elements that may occur with a head noun in a phrase and form a variety of relations that can be best captured through a DP-analysis. Second, as it lies at the heart of the proposal for a DP-analysis of noun phrases, despite the lack of the fully developed article system, many languages successfully differentiate the referential status of nominals, through rich agreement systems. Given the obvious fact that Turkish, by all standards taken as a rich agreement

language, is naturally expected to prefer a DP-analysis. As it is indicated in the introduction, the DP-analysis further provides an important option in capturing the similarities between bare nominals, compounds and nominalizations. This is achieved, as we have tried to indicate in our discussions, through and AGRP which occurs inside all nominal phrases in Turkish.

The second question related to the relative position of the head of a DP in Turkish calls for a further research which we do not aim here. However, two options seems to emerge. If we accept the position that Turkish lacks a definite article but has an indefinite article, then we have to propose that this indefinite article, wherever it heads a DP, should appear as the last element. This follows from the basic premise of X-bar Theory as is indicated before. Yet, whenever *bir* appears with a nominal element, it appears as the first element in a phrase, quite consistent with the fact that languages with article system universally place the articles before the nouns and no movement takes from somewhere else in the phrase. This leads to a contradiction for Turkish: a head last language, placing a functional head in a head-initial position. However, it is now clear from many studies that position of the heads may vary across phrases in a language. Hence, we may claim that a functional head like D may be phrase-initial. The second option may indicate that the language lacks an article system all together and treat the supposed indefinite article *bir* no different than any other premodifier inside an NP. This is the position that we have defined and defended in our study. Finally,

note here that no other proposed functional phrasal projection produces any problem concerning the position of the head in Turkish.

This study tried to apply the DP-analysis to the Turkish nominal expressions as it is proposed by Abney and others within the generative framework. We have tried to provide as many data as possible to figure out problems that Turkish data may produce for the theory. We conclude that a DP with an AGRP provides a valid analysis for Turkish and also captures the parallelisms observed between different types and forms of nominal phrases. Since the primary aim of any theoretical work is to explain most complicated data through simplest rules system, the DP Hypothesis fulfills this purpose for noun phrases in Turkish.

ÖZET

Bu çalışmada Türkçe'deki adsıl yansımalar Belirten Öbeği (BÖ) Denencesi ile İlkeler ve Değiştirgenler Kuramı çerçevesinde ele alınmakta ve çözümlenmektedir.

Birinci bölüm çalışmanın kuramsal çerçevesini ve üretici dilbilgisinin sorunlarını sunmaktadır. Bu bölümde İlkeler ve Değiştirgenler Kuramı'nın gösterim düzeyleri ve bölmeleri (alt kuramları) ele alınmaktadır. Bölüm I, X-bar Kuramı olarak adlandırılan özel bir alt kuramı da ayrıntılı olarak inceler çünkü çalışma boyunca kullanılan temel gösterim X-bar Kuramı'nca tanımlanmaktadır. İlk bölüm adsıl öğelerin aslında tümce yapısının gösteriminde kullanılan Ç (Çekim) benzeri işlevsel bir ulamın öbek yansıması olduğunu vurgulayan BÖ Kuramı aracılığıyla bunların farklı bir biçimde çözümlenmesi önerisi ile sonlandırılmaktadır. U (Uyum) ile birlikte, işlevsel baş B tümce içinde eylem üyesi olarak kullanılabilir göndergesel ifadeleri (G-ifadeleri) üretmek için kendi öbek ulamlarını yansıtır.

Bölüm II sözcüksel bir birim olarak adın sözdizimsel, anlambilimsel, ve biçimbilimsel özelliklerini tartışır. Bu bölümdeki ana konular adlar üzerindeki çoğul ekinin rolü ve işlevi ile dilbilgisel cinstir. Bölüm II'de sözcüksel bir birim olan 'ad' eylem üyesi konumunda bulunabilme yetisine göre işlevsel bir ulam olan B'nin en üst öbek yansıması olarak verilmiştir.

Bölüm III bir ad öbeği içerisinde niteleyici olarak işlev görebilecek mümkün olan tüm öğeleri listeler ve bu dizilişlere uygun Öbek Gösterimleri vermeye çalışır. Bu bölümde ele alınan ana konulardan biri de Türkçe'de 'gerçek' belirsiz tanımlığın (*bir* 'a/an') varlığı üzerine yapılan tartışmadır. Bunun nedeni belirsiz tanımlık *bir*'in yerinin BÖ Denencesi'nde öne sürülen adsıl öğelerin genel Öbek Gösterimleri ile uyum içinde olmamasıdır. İlgili kısımda, belirsiz tanımlık *bir* Türkçe'nin dilbilgisi sistemi tarafından zaman zaman tanımlık olarak da kullanılabilen bir niceleyici gibi görülmektedir. III. Bölüm ad öbeği içerisinde niteleyen olarak görev yapabilen öğelerin temel dizilişleri ile sona ermektedir.

Son bölüm ise Türkçe'deki adsıl bileşikler, adlaştırmaları ve adsıl öğelerin dış dağılımlarını çalışır. İlk olarak adsıl bileşikler BÖ Denencesi bağlamında incelenir ve bunlara B ve U öğelerinin yansımaları olarak birbirleriyle tutarlı Öbek Gösterimleri önerilir. Daha sonra bunlar BÖ'ler olarak yeniden sınıflandırılmaktadırlar. Ek olarak, IV. Bölüm adlaştırmaları farklı adlaştırma ekleri ile birlikte mümkün olduğunca çok örnek vererek ele alır.

Sonuç bölümünde adsıl öğeleri işlevsel ulamlar olan B ve U'nun öbek yansımaları olarak gören bakış açısı vurgulanır. Çalışma adsıl öğeleri çözümlerken bazı kuram-îçi kaygıları ön plana almış olsa da pek çok adsıl yansıma kendi iç yapılarını gösteren uygun Öbek Gösterimleri ile birlikte BÖ'ler olarak sunulabilirler.

SUMMARY

In this study, nominal projections in Turkish are reviewed and analyzed in terms of DP Hypothesis within the framework of the Principles and Parameters Theory.

The first chapter presents the theoretical framework of the study and the problems of generative tradition. In this part, levels of representation and modules (subtheories) of the Principles and Parameters Theory are introduced. Chapter I also examines a particular module, called X-bar Theory, in detail since the basic notation which is adopted throughout the study is defined by the X-bar Theory. The first chapter concludes with a proposition for a distinct analysis of nominal expressions in terms of DP Hypothesis which stresses that nominal elements are actually the phrasal projections of a functional category which is similar to I (Inflection) in the representation of sentences. Together with Agr (Agreement), the functional head D projects its phrasal categories in order to produce referential expressions (R-expressions) that can function as arguments in sentences.

Chapter II discusses with the syntactic, semantic, and morphological characteristics of noun as a lexical unit. The main issues in this chapter are the discussions on the role and function of a plural marking on nouns and the grammatical gender. In Chapter II, the lexical category 'noun' is represented as the maximal projection of a functional category D due to its capacity to occupy an argument position.

Chapter III lists all possible elements that can function as a modifier in a noun phrase. It also tries to assign appropriate Phrase Markers to these combinations. One of the major issues discussed in this chapter is the discussion on the existence of a 'true' indefinite article (*bir* 'a/an') in Turkish since the place of the indefinite article *bir* is not in harmony with the general phrasal representation of nominal elements in terms of DP Hypothesis. In the related section, the indefinite article is considered as a quantifier-like modifier which can also be employed as an article by the grammatical system of Turkish. Chapter III concludes with unmarked order of the elements that can function as a modifier in a noun phrase.

The last chapter studies nominal compounds, sentential nominalizations, and the external distribution of nominal elements in Turkish. Firstly, the nominal compounds are investigated in terms of DP Hypothesis and are assigned consistent Phrase Markers as the projections of D and Agr. Later they are recategorized as DPs with distinct internal organizations. Moreover, the fourth chapter reviews sentential nominalizations by providing as many examples as possible with distinct nominalization suffixes.

In the Conclusion, the standpoint that regards nominal elements as the phrasal projections of functional categories D and Agr is emphasized. Even though there are some theory-internal considerations when the study analyzes nominal elements, most nominal projections can be represented as DPs with appropriate Phrase Markers displaying their internal structures.

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