The Logic of Turkish

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This work is dedicated to the memory of Chaninah Maschler (October 13, 1931–August 7, 2014), my language tutor during my first year at St. John’s College (Annapolis & Santa Fe). From her I learned Ancient Greek, and I learned about language itself and the life of inquiry.
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1 Introduction

It is a great mystery how a young child can learn a language, seemingly without effort, and without any sense of the analysis that adult scholars will use to understand the language.

These notes are an analysis of the majority language of Turkey, made by a native speaker of English. To me, Turkish is remarkable in a number of ways:

1. It is an inflected language, like Greek or Latin (or French, as far as verbs are concerned). Turkish nouns are declined, and verbs are conjugated: a noun or verb from the dictionary takes on various forms when actually in use.

2. However, while Greek is taught as having three declensions [33], and Latin as having five [22], Turkish has only one (see Chapter 12, page 32).

3. Likewise, while Greek has two conjugations, and Latin has four, and French has three [21], Turkish has only one (Chapter 13, page 38).

4. In Turkish there are no such irregularities as in English, where am, are, is, and were are understood as forms of be, while went is a form of go.

5. A Latin noun is feminine or masculine, and a Greek noun may also be neuter. Thus Latin and Greek nouns have gender; but Turkish nouns have none. English retains the three genders of Greek in the third-person pronouns she, he, and it; Turkish has only one third-person pronoun (page 18).

6. Beyond mere inflexion, Turkish has manifold regular ways of building up complex words from simple roots (page 19).

7. Thus, although much Turkish grammar and vocabulary can be explained through morphology, the explanation need not be cluttered

*Bracketed numerals refer to the Bibliography at the end.
up with many paradigms illustrating the various means to the same end.

8. There is no Turkish verb like *have*; possession is indicated by personal suffixes (pages 24 & 38).

9. Turkish has eight written vowels, like Finnish [17], and their use (in both languages) shows regular variations that correspond to *vowel harmony* in speech (pages 11 & 19).

10. Turkish has many regular formulas for use in social interactions (Chapter 5, page 14).

The present document may be of practical value to the visitor to Turkey. It may help the reader puzzle out what a sign or a package label might mean. I assume the reader will be interested in the variety of ways that humans have developed to express themselves in words.

I first visited Turkey in 1998, and I moved here in 2000, joining the mathematics department of Middle East Technical University in Ankara. But the language of instruction there is English. I have used Turkish for communicating with my students only since 2011, when I moved to Istanbul and joined the mathematics department of Mimar Sinan Fine Arts University.

I first learned Turkish from Bengisu Rona’s *Turkish in Three Months* [31], and then from Geoffrey Lewis’s *Turkish Grammar* [20]. Lewis can be read for literary pleasure. He succeeds in sharing the excitement of the discoveries that he has made about the uses of Turkish. Although I have benefited from other works too (which are found in the Bibliography), Lewis is the main source for the grammatical analysis that I present. I have however made some adjustments and simplifications to suit my purposes and understanding.
2 Origins

Persian is an Indo-European language; Arabic is a Semitic language. Turkish is neither Indo-European nor Semitic, but Turkic. However, Turkish has borrowed many words from Persian and Arabic.

English too has borrowed many words from another language, namely French, but for opposite or complementary reasons. In the eleventh century of the Common Era, in 1066 to be precise, the Normans invaded England, thus making their dialect of French the language of the ruling class. Meanwhile, Seljuk* Turks overran Persia; but rather than imposing their language on the country, they themselves adopted Persian, with its Arabic borrowings, as their administrative and literary language [20, p. xx]. Seljuks under Alp Arslan also invaded Anatolia, defeating the Byzantine Emperor Romanus IV Diogenes in 1071 at the Battle of Manzikert.†

Soon Anatolia was invaded from the west as well. In 1095, in what is now Clermont-Ferrand, Pope Urban II preached the first Crusade. The first Crusaders reached Constantinople (Istanbul) in the following year [32]. Ultimately, from the ruins of the Byzantine and Seljuk Empires, there arose the Osmanlı İmparatorluğu, the Ottoman Empire. Osman himself died as his followers took Bursa in 1326. They went on to take Adrianople (Edirne) in Thrace in 1360, and then Constantinople itself in 1453 [15].

The last Ottoman Sultan was deposed in 1922. The Turkish Republic was declared by Mustafa Kemal, the future Atatürk, in the following year.

Ottoman Turkish freely borrowed words from Persian and Arabic [3].

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*The founder of the Seljuk dynasty is Selçuk in Turkish, but the adjective derived from his name is Selçuklu. See the suffix -l# on page 22.
†The Turkish name for the town is Malazgirt; the order of battle there is shown in an historical atlas [5, p. 38] used by schoolchildren in Turkey.
Many of the borrowings were abolished in the Language Reform, which got going around 1930. As Lewis writes in *The Turkish Language Reform: A Catastrophic Success* [19, p. 2], this reform “could more accurately be termed a revolution than a reform, since ‘reform’ implies improvement”; and indeed, Language Revolution (Dil Devrimi) is what it is called in Turkish. Some Arabic and Persian words have still been retained in the language of the Turkish Republic; others have been replaced, either by neologisms fashioned in supposedly Turkic style, or by borrowings from European languages like French.
3 Alphabet

Ottoman Turkish was generally* written in the Arabic or Arabo-Persian alphabet. Since the Harf Devrimi Letter Revolution, culminating in the law “On the Adoption and Application of the New Turkish Letters” of 1928 [19, pp. 27, 37], Turkish has been written in an alphabet derived, like the English alphabet, from the Latin alphabet. To obtain the 29-letter Turkish alphabet from the 26-letter English alphabet:

1) throw out (Q, q), (W, w), and (X, x);
2) replace the letter (I, i) with the two letters (İ, ğ);† and
3) introduce the new letters (Ç, ç), (Ğ, ğ), (Ö, ö), (Ş, ş), (Ü, ü).

In alphabetical order, the 29 Turkish letters are:

A B C Ç D E F G Ğ H İ ğ İ J K L M N O Ö P R Ş T U Ü V Y Z.

There are 8 vowels, namely a, e, i, ğ, o, ö, u, and ü, and their names are themselves. The remaining 21 letters are consonants. The name of a consonant x is xe, with one exception: ğ is yumuşak ge, soft g.

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*In the museum in Milas (the Mylasa mentioned in Herodotus) in the Muğla province of Turkey for example, there is a stone with a Turkish inscription in Greek letters.

†The dotless i being hard to read in handwriting, Atatürk wrote it as ĭ. This can be seen in samples of his writing in museums.
4 Pronunciation

Turkish words are spelled as they are spoken. They are usually spoken as they are spelled; but some words taken from Persian and Arabic are pronounced in ways that are not fully reflected in spelling.∗ Except in these loanwords, there is no variation between long and short vowels.† There is hardly any variation between stressed and unstressed syllables.

According to their pronunciation, the eight Turkish vowels can be understood as labelling the vertices of a cube. I propose to think of all of the vowels as deviations from the dotless letter ı. As fits its simple written form, ı is pronounced by relaxing the mouth completely, but keeping the teeth nearly clenched: the opening of the mouth can then be conceived of as a sideways ı. The Turkish national drink rakı is not pronounced like rocky: in the latter word’s latter syllable, the tongue is too far forward. Relax the tongue in the latter syllable, letting it fall back; then you can properly ask for a glass of rakı.‡

The letter ı is the back, unround, close vowel. Other vowels deviate from this by being front, round, or open, as tabulated in Figure 1. Physically, the deviations correspond to movements of the tongue, lips, and jaw, respectively; in the geometric conception of Figure 2, the deviations correspond respectively to movement right, up, and forward. For later discussion of vowel harmony, I let # stand for a generic close vowel; @, for a generic unround, open vowel.§

∗This is by design: the alphabet was intended for transcribing “pure” spoken Turkish [37, pp. 189 ff.]. However, a circumflex might be used to indicate a peculiarity, or a distinction such as that between the Persian kār profit and the Turkish kâr snow. Still, the circumflex does not affect the alphabetical order of a word.

†I shall say presently that ğ lengthens the preceding vowel; but one can think of the extra length as belonging to the consonant.

‡Turks who work with tourists may adopt tourists’ mispronunciation of rakı.

§I do not know of anybody else who uses this notation. Göksel and Kerslake [11, pp. xxxiii, 22] use capital I and A respectively. According to Lewis [20, I, 34, p. 17],
Figure 1: The vowels

Figure 2: The vowel cube
The vowel a is like uh in English; ö and ü are as in German, or are like the French eu and u; and Turkish u is like the English oö of put and soot. Diphthongs are obtained by addition of y: so, ay is like the English ı of sky, and ey is the English å of state.*

The consonants that need mention are: c, like English j; ç, like English ch; ğ, which lengthens the vowel that precedes it (and never begins a word); j, as in French; and ş, like English sh. Doubled consonants are held longer: elli fifty is different from eli its hand.

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*The English pronunciation symbols here are as in Fowler’s [10, p. iv] scheme: “å æ ɛ ɪ ɔ ʊ oœ (mate, mete, mite, mote, moot), “å æ ɨ ɨ ʊ oœ (rack, reck, rick, rock, ruck, root).”

some people write -ler², for example, to indicate that there are two possibilities for the vowel; instead, I shall write -l@r. Likewise, instead of -in⁴, which has four possibilities, I shall write -#n.
5 Everyday words and expressions

By learning some of the following, you can impress or amuse Turkish people, or at least avoid embarrassing yourself when trying to open a door or visit the loo.

5.1 Interactions

Lütfen/Teşekkürler/Bir şey değil Please/Thanks/It’s nothing.*
Evet/hayır Yes/no. Var/yok There is/there isn’t.
Affedersiniz Excuse me.†
Efendim Madam or Sir‡ (a polite way to address anybody, including when answering the telephone).
Beyefendi/Hanımfendi Sir/Madam.
Merhaba Hello. Günaydın Good morning.§
Hoş geldiniz/Hoş bulduk Welcome/the response to this.¶
İyi günler/akşamlar/geceler Good day/evening/night.‖
Güle güle Fare well** (said to the person leaving);
Allaha ısmarladık or Hoşça kalın Good bye†† (said to the person staying behind).

*Literally, One thing [it is] not.
†Af, aff- is from an Arabic verbal noun, meaning a pardoning; and edersiniz is the second-person plural (or polite) aorist (present) form of et-make. Turkish makes a lot of verbs with et- this way. For example, thanks is also expressed by Teşekkür ederim I make a thanking. Grammatically, affedersiniz is a statement (You pardon /me/), and not a command; but it is used as a request.
‡Efendi is from the Greek αὐθέντης, whence also English authentic.
§Literally Day [is] bright.
¶Literally You came well/We found well.
‖The suffix -l@r makes these expressions formally plural.
**Literally Go smiling.
††Literally To-God we-commended and Pleasantly stay.
5.2 Signs

Bay/Bayan Mr/Ms, or gentlemen's/ladies' toilet, clothing, &c.
İtiniz/çekiniz Push/pull the door; giriş/çıkış entrance/exit;
sol/sağ left/right; soğuk/sıcak cold/hot.

5.3 Pleasantries

Nasılsınız?/İyiyim, teşekkürler; siz?/Ben de iyiyim.
How are you?/I'm fine, thanks; you?/I'm also fine.*

Elinize sağlık Health to your hand. This is a standard compliment to a chef, who will reply: Afiyet olsun May it be healthy. Anybody may say Afiyet olsun to somebody who is eating, is about to eat, or has finished eating. The closest expression in English is not English, but French: bon appétit.

Kolay gelsin May [your work] come easy.
Geçmiş olsun May [your sickness, difficulty, &c.] have passed (this can also be said after the trouble has passed).
İnşallah If God wills: that is, if all goes according to plan.
Maşallah May God protect from the evil eye: used to avoid jinxing what one praises; also written on vehicles as if to compensate for maniacal driving.

Allah korusun May God protect: also written on vehicles.

Rica ederim† I request, or Estağfurullah, can be used with the sense of I don't deserve such praise! or Don't say such [bad] things about yourself! Çok yaşayın!/Siz de görün Live long!/You too see [long life] (the response to a sneeze, and the sneezer’s acknowledgement‡).

Tanrı/tanrıça god/goddess.

*The second-person forms here are plural or polite; the familiar singular forms are Nasılsın?/. . . sen?
†Literally I make a request; the same kind of formation as affedersiniz.
‡The familiar forms are Çok yaşa/sen de gör.
5.4 Numbers

Sıfır, bir, iki, üç, dört, beş, altı, yedi, sekiz, dokuz 0, 1, 2, ..., 9;
on, yirmi, otuz, kırk, elli, altmış, yetmiş, seksen, doksan 10, 20, ..., 90;
yüz, bin, milyon, milyar $10^2$, $10^3$, $10^6$, $10^9$;
yüz kırk dokuz milyon beş yüz doksan yedi bin sekiz yüz yetmiş
149,597,870.

5.5 Comparisons

Büyük/küçük large/small.
Daha/en more/most; az less, en az least.
Aşağı/yukarı lower/upper; alt/üst bottom/top; dış/iç outside/inside.

5.6 Verbs

Here and elsewhere, a hyphen denotes the stem of a verb. (See Chapter 13, page 38.)
Al-/sat-/ver- take, buy / sell / give;
alış/satış/alışveriş buying/selling/shopping.
İn-/bin-/gir-/çık go: down, off / onto / into / out, up.

5.7 Colors

Çay/kahve tea/coffee; portakal orange; turunç bitter orange;
renk color;
kırmızı / portakalrengi, turuncu / sarı red/orange/yellow;
yeşil/mavi/mor green/blue/purple;
kara, siyah / ak, beyaz / kahverengi black/white/brown.
5.8 Interrogatives

Ne/kim/kaç  *What / who / how many, how much?*
Ne zaman, nerede, nereye, nereden, niçin*, nasıl, ne kadar?
*When, where, whither, whence, why, how, how much?*

*From ne için *for what? Neden *from what? is also used for why?*
6 A bit of grammar

The Turkish interrogatives just given—kim, ne, &c.—also function as rudimentary relatives: Ne zaman gelecekler bilmiyorum I don’t know when they will come (literally What time come-will-they know-not-I). But most of the work done in English by relative clauses is done in Turkish by verb-forms, namely participles: the book that I gave you in Turkish becomes size verdiği kitap: you-wards given-by-me book, or the book given to you by me.

In Turkish, you can describe somebody for a long time without giving any clue to the sex of that person: there is no gender. Even accomplished Turkish speakers of English confuse he and she: in Turkish there is a unique third-person singular pronoun, (o, on-), meaning indifferently he/she/it. In translations in these notes, I shall use he and she alternately;* it should be remembered that it may also be an option.

*There is a \LaTeX{} package called \texttt{he-she} by Alan Munn that allows this alternation to be made automatically.
7 Polysyllabism and euphony

Turkish builds up long words from short meaningful units: it is agglutinative or synthetic. For example,* the question

Avrupalilaştıramadıklarımızdan mıınız?

is written as two words, but pronounced as one, and can be analyzed as a stem with 11 suffixes, which I number:

Avrupa⁰li¹la²ş³tir⁴ama⁵dik⁶lar⁷imiz⁸dan⁹mi¹⁰siiniz¹¹?

The suffixes translate mostly as separate words in English, in almost the reverse order: Are¹⁰you¹¹one-of⁹those⁷whom⁶ we⁸could-not⁵Europeanize (make⁴be²come³Europe⁰an¹)?† Each of the suffixes here displays vowel harmony: each of its vowels adjusts to harmonize with the preceding vowel, as described below. Strictly, the interrogative mıınız are you? is not a suffix, but it still exhibits vowel harmony, and so it is called enclitic. If we change Europeanize to Turkify, the question becomes

Türkleştiremediklerimizden mıınız?

In Avrupalı European, I understand the suffix -lı as a specialization of -l#. The last vowel of Avrupa is a back, unround vowel; so, when -l# is attached to Avrupa, then #, the generic close vowel, settles down to the close vowel that is back and unround, namely i.

Likewise, the suffix -laş is a specialization of -l@ş, with a generic unround, open vowel. Since i is back, the @ becomes the back unround, open vowel in the formation of Avrupalıaş- become European.

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*I take the example from [31, p. 10].

†The numbered correspondence between Turkish and English is somewhat strained here. The interrogative particle mı strictly corresponds to the inversion of you are to form are you. Also, one might treat -laş as an indivisible suffix.
When the modern Turkish alphabet was invented, something like the “generic” vowels # and @ could have been introduced for use in writing down the harmonizing suffixes. But then the Turkish alphabet would have needed 31 letters, since the distinct “specialized” vowels are still needed for root-words (as well as non-harmonizing suffixes), such as the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>an</th>
<th>moment</th>
<th>bal</th>
<th>honey</th>
<th>al-</th>
<th>take, buy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>en</td>
<td>most, -est</td>
<td>bel</td>
<td>waist</td>
<td>el</td>
<td>hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in-</td>
<td>go down</td>
<td>bil-</td>
<td>know</td>
<td>il</td>
<td>province</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on</td>
<td>ten</td>
<td>bol</td>
<td>ample</td>
<td>ol</td>
<td>become</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ön</td>
<td>front</td>
<td>böl-</td>
<td>divide</td>
<td>öl</td>
<td>die</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>un</td>
<td>flour</td>
<td>bul-</td>
<td>find</td>
<td>ulaş-</td>
<td>arrive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ün</td>
<td>fame</td>
<td>bülbül</td>
<td>nightingale</td>
<td>üleş-</td>
<td>share</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for consonants, they may change **voice**, depending on phonetic context. In particular, some consonants oscillate within the following pairs:

\[ t/d; \ p/b; \ \dot{c}/c; \ k/\dot{g}. \]

Agglutination or synthesis can be seen on signs all over: An

\[ \text{indirim (in}^0\text{dir}^1\text{im}^2) \]

is an instance\(^2\) of causing\(^1\) to go-down\(^0\), that is, a reduction, a **sale**: you will see the word in shop-windows. From the same root,

\[ \text{inilir (in}^0\text{il}^1\text{ir}^2) \]

means is\(^2\) got\(^1\) down-from\(^0\), **is an exit**—it is written at the rear door of city busses, so you should not try to enter there.*

As the last two examples suggest, not only can one word feature more than one suffix, but also, many different words can be formed from one root. For example, from the root öl- **die** spring the following words. (The dots indicate syllable divisions and, like the hyphens on verb stems, are not part of normal spelling.)

\*The form inilir can also be understood as an **aorist participle, descended from**, as on page 41.
öl·dür- kill
öl·dür-en killer
öl·dür-esiye murderously
öl·dür-men* executioner
öl·dür-men·lik† (his post)
öl·dür·t- have (someone) killed
öl·dür·ücü deadly, fatal
öl·dür·ül- be killed
öl·dür·ül-en murder victim
öl-esiye to death
öl·et (provincial) plague
öl·eyaz- almost die
öl·gün lifeless, withered
öl·gün·lük lifelessness
öl·mez immortal
öl·mez·leş·tir- immortalize
öl·mez·lik immortality
öl·muş dead

öl·ü corpse
öl·lük deathly looking
öl·ü·lük† morgue
öl·üm death
öl·üm·cül mortal
öl·üm·lü transitory
öl·üm·lük burial money
öl·üm·lü·lük mortality
öl·üm·sü deathlike
öl·üm·süz immortal
öl·üm·süz·lük immortality
öl·üm- (This would be a passive verb, if öl- were transitive; öl- is intransitive, so öl-ün- must be impersonal, referring to the dying of some generic person. See Chapters 13 and 14.)

*Disused neologism for cellât.
†Disused neologism for cellâtlık.
‡Disused neologism for morg.
8 Some common suffixes

The following suffixes are used all the time. Three of them have already been seen among the words derived from öl- in the previous chapter. The meanings of the root-words in the examples below are probably obvious, but they are given later in the Dictionary (Chapter 16, page 55):

-č# person involved with: kebapçı kebab-seller, kilitçi locksmith,
balıkçı fishmonger, dedikoducu rumor-monger,
gazeteci journalist or newsagent.

-č@ language of: Türkçe Turkish (the language of the Turks),
Holländaca Dutch.

-č#/-čz including/excluding: sütlü/sütsüz with/without milk,
şekerli/şekersiz sweetened/sugar-free,
etli/etsiz containing meat/meatless; also
Hollandalı Dutch (person),* köylü villager,
sarılı (person) dressed in yellow.

-č#k container of or pertaining to: tuzluk salt cellar,
kimlik identity, kitaplık bookcase, günlük daily or diary,
gecelik nightly or nightgown.

-daş mate: arka/arkadaş back/friend,† yol/yoldaş road/comrade,
çag/herdaş era/contemporary, karin/kardeş belly/sibling,‡
meslek/meslektas profession/collleague.

*Somebody who does not wish to confuse ethnicity with nationality will refer to a citizen of Turkey as Türkiyeli rather than the usual Türk.
†“I am one, sir, that comes to tell you your daughter and the Moor are now making the beast with two backs”—Iago in Shakespeare’s Othello. But in Turkish, a friend is not necessarily a lover, but is rather somebody with whom you would stand back to back while fending off the enemy with your swords.
‡That’s right, there’s no vowel harmony here, nor in the next example.
-l@ (makes verbs from nouns and adjectives):
  başla- make a head (begin); köpekle- make like a dog (cringe);*
  kilitle- make locked (lock); temizle- make clean (clean).

-l@r more than one of (not normally used if a definite number is named):
  başlar heads; beş baş: five head;
  kişiler people; on iki kişi twelve person.

-#nc# -th: birinci, ikinci, üçüncü first, second, third;
  kaçinci? in which place (“how manyeth”)? sonuncu last.

Two more suffixes are used with numbers, like -#nc#, though they are not so common as this:

-(ş)@r (of or for) each: birer, ikişer one each, two each;
  kaçar? how many, how much each?

-(#)z from a multiple birth: ikiz, üçüz twin(s), triplet(s).

*The example is in [20, XIV, 22, p. 227], but it appears that köpekle- normally means dog-paddle, while cringe is köpekleş-. 
9 More Suffixes

Turkish grammarians distinguish between **constructive** and **inflexional** suffixes.* Words with inflexional suffixes do not appear in the dictionary; words with constructive suffixes (usually) do. Of the common suffixes listed in the previous chapter, only -l@r is inflexional (and perhaps -c@: see page 33).

There are several series of **personal** inflexional suffixes; they are in Figure 3, with the personal pronouns for comparison. The **plural** ending

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1st</th>
<th>2nd</th>
<th>3rd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>person</strong>:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>number</strong>:</td>
<td>sing.</td>
<td>pl.</td>
<td>sing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>pronoun</strong></td>
<td>ben</td>
<td>biz</td>
<td>sen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>possession</strong></td>
<td>-(#)m</td>
<td>-(#)m#z</td>
<td>-(#)n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>predicative</strong></td>
<td>-(y)#m</td>
<td>-(y)#z</td>
<td>-s#n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>verbal</strong></td>
<td>-m</td>
<td>-k</td>
<td>-n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>subjunctive</strong></td>
<td>-(y)@y#m</td>
<td>-(y)@l#m</td>
<td>-(y)@s#n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>imperative</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>#y#n(#z)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3: Personal pronouns and suffixes

- l@r (page 23) combines with the third-person forms here to make

- onlar, -l@r#, -l@r, -l@r, -l@l@r, -s#n/l@r,

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*That is, yapım ekleri and çekim ekleri [30, p. 131].
respectively; but the distinct plural forms of the third-person endings are not always used.*

Second-person plural forms are used politely to address individuals, as in French. In examples below, I use the archaic English second-person singular forms—thou, thee, &c.—to translate the corresponding Turkish singular forms.

A **suffix of possession** attaches to a noun to show the person of the **possessor of** the named entity:

- kitabım  
  *my book*
- kitabımız  
  *our book*
- kitabın  
  *thy book*
- kitabınız  
  *your book*
- kitabı  
  *his book*

The suffix does **not** indicate that the entity is a possessor of something else: that job would be done by the **possessive case-ending** (page 32).

A **predicative suffix** can make a complete sentence: it turns an expression into a predicate whose subject is the person indicated:

- kitabım  
  *I am a book*
- kitabız  
  *we are a book*
- kitapsın  
  *thou art a book*
- kitapsınız  
  *you are a book*
- kitap  
  *she is a book*

While the example of kitabım is ambiguous, being either a noun or a sentence, examples with nouns ending in vowels are not ambiguous:

- ağam *my lord*
- ağayım *I am lord.*

But su *water* is an exception, its possessed forms being

- suyum, suyumuz, suyun, suyunuz, suyu.

*The last four series of suffixes in the table do not seem to be given names else-where. Neither have I seen them gathered together with the possession suffixes and the pronouns in this way. For example, Lewis [20] has the pronouns on page 64, the possession suffixes (which he calls personal suffixes) on page 37, and the remaining suffixes on pages 105–6, where they are simply said to be of Types I, II, III, and IV, respectively. The corresponding page numbers for Özkırımlı [30] are 211, 158, and 162; he does use the term possession suffix (iyelik eki), but numbers the other suffixes 1–4.*
The ending -d#r* is also predicative:

\[ \text{Abbas yolcu} \text{ Abbas the traveller;} \]
\[ \text{Yolcudur Abbas} \text{ Abbas is a traveller.} \]

See §12.3, page 34, for the interaction of the plural ending -l@r with the possession suffixes, the predicative suffixes, and -d#r.

Predicative suffixes are also used with some verb-forms. The remaining personal suffixes in Figure 3 are used only with verb-forms. See Chapter 13, page 38.

Nouns are declined, roughly as in Latin: they take the case-endings discussed in Chapter 12, page 32. However, a big difference from Latin is that Turkish adjectives are not inflected to “agree” in any way with the nouns that they modify. Thus, Turkish adjectives as such are indeclinable.† They may however be used as nouns, in which case they are declinable, like every noun. Comparison of adjectives is achieved with the particles daha, en, and az given above on page 16; these precede adjectives.

---

*It derives from an ancient verb-form meaning he stands [20, VIII, 3, p. 93].
†Abbas yolcu is a proverbial name for a traveller. See 20, page 51.
‡The native English speaker may have a jolt upon realizing that, when used as an adjective, the Turkish bu (page 34) is translated by either this or these, depending on the number of the associated noun; but these as a noun is in Turkish bunlar.
10 Parts of speech

Besides nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and verbs, Turkish has adverbs, conjunctions, particles, and interjections. At least, these are approximate English names for the Turkish parts of speech listed in Figure 4.*

10.1 Conjunctions

Some Turkish conjunctions are given in Fig. 5, along with the Boolean connectives used to symbolize them.† In the table, de and da are specializations of the enclitic d@; for ise, see Chapter 13, page 38.

10.2 Interjections

Concerning Turkish interjections, my English sources [18, 11] say almost nothing. The enormous Cambridge Grammar of the English Language [14], weighing in at 1842 pages, spends one paragraph on English interjections. But Atabay et al. [2] devote almost ten percent of their book to Turkish interjections, mostly by giving literary examples of about forty of them. Those that seem most common in my experience are as follows, with some possible translations of some instances of their use:

E What’s this all about? Of I’m fed up
Eh So-so Tu That’s too bad
Ay Ouch Aman That’s terrible

* Atabay et al. [2] use the terms ad, sıfat, belirteç, adıl, ilgeç, bağlaç, ünlem, and eylem, but give the Ottoman terms zarf, edat, rabıt, and nida in footnotes. Özkerimli [30] gives both modern and Ottoman terms, except rabıt and nida. Redhouse [3] says conjunction is not simply rabıt, but rabıt edatı, i.e. conjoining particle.
† My main source for propositional logic in Turkish is Nesin [23].
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ottoman</th>
<th>modern</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>isim</td>
<td>ad</td>
<td>noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sıfat</td>
<td>önad</td>
<td>adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zarf</td>
<td>belirteç</td>
<td>adverb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zamir</td>
<td>adıl</td>
<td>pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>edat</td>
<td>ilgeç</td>
<td>particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rabıt</td>
<td>bağlaç</td>
<td>conjunction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nida</td>
<td>ünlem</td>
<td>interjection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fiil</td>
<td>eylem</td>
<td>verb</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4: Parts of speech

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>¬A</th>
<th>A değil</th>
<th>not A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A ∧ B</td>
<td>A ve B</td>
<td>A and B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A ile B</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A; B de</td>
<td>A; B too</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A ama B</td>
<td>A but B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A fakat B</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A ancak B</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hem A hem B</td>
<td>both A and B</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A ∨ B</th>
<th>A veya B</th>
<th>A or B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A ya da B</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ya A ya B</td>
<td>either A or B</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>¬A ∧ ¬B</td>
<td>ne A ne B</td>
<td>neither A nor B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A → B</td>
<td>(eğer) A ise (o zaman) B</td>
<td>if A (then) B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A ↔ B</td>
<td>A ancak ve ancak B</td>
<td>A if and only if B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5: Connectives and conjunctions
10.3 Particles

Among the particles may be listed the postpositions, which are somewhat like prepositions in English. Some common examples are in Figure 6. They follow their objects instead of preceding them, but they still do work that might otherwise be done with cases, such as are given in Chapter 12, page 32. Like the object of a Greek or Latin preposition, the object of a Turkish postposition may itself be a case of a noun. A difference from Greek and Latin (and for that matter English) is that a Turkish postposition itself may take a personal suffix.

The objects of gibi, için, and ile are possessive when they are pronouns, bare when they are nouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particle</th>
<th>English Equivalent</th>
<th>Case of Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gibi</td>
<td>like</td>
<td>possessive or bare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kadar</td>
<td>as far as</td>
<td>dative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doğru</td>
<td>towards</td>
<td>dative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dolayı</td>
<td>because of</td>
<td>ablative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>göre</td>
<td>according to</td>
<td>dative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>için</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>possessive or bare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ile</td>
<td>with</td>
<td>possessive or bare</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6: Postpositions

Eyvah  Oh my god (in a bad sense)  Yazık  What a shame
Haydi  Come on, let’s go  Yahu  Look here now
Bravo  Bravo  Yaşa  All right, excellent
benim için *for me*, Türkiye için *for Turkey*;  
onun gibi *like her*;  
gibisi yok *there’s nothing (nobody) like it (him), she has no like*;  
yağmur yağacak gibi görünüyor *it looks like rain*.

The postposition ile can also be suffixed as -l@ and understood as a case-ending; see page 33.

the big *Oxford Turkish-English Dictionary* to which he refers; I have only the concise version, which seems not to assign parts of speech to its entries, except to distinguish transitive from intransitive verbs. In any case, van Schaaik himself argues that gibi should be understood as a *predicate*. 
11 Word order

In a Turkish sentence, the modifier *usually* comes before the modified. This means:

- adjective (used attributively) precedes noun;
- adverb precedes verb;
- object of postposition precedes postposition.

In a sentence,

- subject precedes predicate;
- objects precede verb;
- indirect object precedes direct object.

But these are not absolute rules; see for example the sayings numbered 3 and 20 in Chapter 14 (page 50).
12 Inflection of nouns

A Turkish noun can take inflexional endings, usually in the following order:

1) the plural ending, -l@r (page 23);
2) a possession suffix (Chapter 9, page 24);
3) a case-ending (below);
4) a predicative suffix (Chapter 9, page 24).

12.1 Declension

The cases of Turkish nouns that do not have the third-person possession suffix -(s)# are as follows.*

1. **Bare.** The dictionary-form of a noun, used for subjects and *indefinite* direct objects.

2. **Clarifying.** In (y)#, for *definite* direct objects.

3. **Dative.** In -(y)@, for indirect objects.

4. **Ablative.** In -d@n, for that *from which*.

5. **Locative.** In -d@, for *place where*.

---

*The Turkish term for *case* is *dur-um state of affairs*. Turkish names for the following cases are, respectively, yalın durum, then belirtme, yönelme, bulunma, çıkma, tamlayan, benzerlik durumu, then araççı durum [30, p. 155]; but some variation is possible. Atabay et al. [2, p. 35] give also the Latin terms nominativus, accusativus, dativus, locativus, ablativus, determinativus, and aequativus for the first seven; they do not give Özkirimli’s eighth case. Some grammarians [6, p. 120] [20, p. 194] do not recognize the seventh case.
6. **Possessive.** In -(n)#n.

7. **Relative.** In -c@, with meanings like *according to* or *in the manner of*; one use was given in Chapter 8, page 22.

8. **Instrumental.** In -(#)n, this case is obsolescent, but can be seen in examples like *yaz·ın* *during the summer* [20, p. 20] and the neologism *örneğ·in* *for example* [20, p. 195]. The instrumental sense is achieved now with the postposition *ile* *with*, which can be suffixed as -l@.

For example:

Gül·ler güzel·dir; bana bir gül al *Roses are beautiful; buy me a rose.*
Gül·ü koparmayın *Don’t pick the rose.*
Gül·e/gül·den/gül·de *to/from/on (a/the) rose.*
Gül·ün diken·i *Rose’s thorn.*
Gül·ce according to Gül; çocuk·ça *childishly or baby-talk.*
Gül·le Ayş·e Ayş·e and Gül; biçak·la *cut with a knife.*

The third-person possession suffix -(s)# is followed by -n before the case-endings are added, except for ile:

gülünün, gülünü, gülüne, gülünden, gülünde, gülünün, gülünce, gülüyle.

The singular personal pronouns from Figure 3 are declined as follows:

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ben</td>
<td>beni</td>
<td>bana</td>
<td>benden</td>
<td>bende</td>
<td>benim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sen</td>
<td>seni</td>
<td>sana</td>
<td>senden</td>
<td>sende</td>
<td>senin</td>
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<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>onu</td>
<td>ona</td>
<td>ondan</td>
<td>onda</td>
<td>onun</td>
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</tbody>
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Note that
- *ben* and *sen* show a vowel change in the dative;
- their possessive forms take the corresponding *possession* suffixes from Table 3 (although the second-person singular possession suffix is the same as the possessive suffix anyway);
- the postposition *ile* is suffixed to the possessive forms, as in the rule given on page 29.
12.2 Demonstratives

The third-person pronoun o/on- is also the demonstrative adjective that; other demonstratives are

bu/bun- this/these*

şu/şun- (for the thing pointed to).

12.3 Two kinds of person

Nouns can indicate person in two senses:

1. A possession suffix shows the person of a possessor of the named entity.

\[ \text{gül·üm/gül·ümüz/gül·ün/gül·ünüz my/our/thy/your rose;} \]
\[ \text{gül·ü/Deniz’in gül·ü his rose/Deniz’s rose.} \]

2. A predicative suffix shows the person of the entity itself.

\[ \text{Gül·üm/Gül·üz/Gül·sün/Gül·sünüz} \]
\[ \text{I am/We are/Thou art/You are a rose.} \]

Recall from page 24 that the plural suffix -l@r combines with

1) the third-person possession suffix -(s)# to make -l@r#, 

2) the third-person predicative suffix (which is empty) to make -l@r.

Thus the plural ending -l@r can show multiplicity of three different things:

1) the entity itself:

\[ \text{gül·ler roses, gül·ler·i her roses;} \]

*See page 26, note ‡.
2) its (third-person) possessor:

\[ \text{gül·ler·i their rose}; \]

3) the (third-person) subject of which the entity is predicated:

\[ \text{Gül·ler They are roses.} \]

The plural ending will not be repeated. Thus also:

\[ \text{gül·ler·i their roses.} \]

Whether -l@r denotes plurality of subject or predicate can be indicated by use of -d@r:

\[ \text{Gül·dür·ler They are roses} \]
\[ \text{Gül·ler·dir They are the roses.} \]

The four kinds of noun suffixes are used in order in:

\[ \text{Gül·ler·im·de·siniz You are in my roses.} \]

### 12.4 Negation

A sentence made from a noun with a predicative ending is negated with değil; the predicative ending is added to this:

\[ \text{Gül değil·im I am not a rose, I am not Rose.} \]
\[ \text{Gül·ler·im·de değil·siniz You are not in my roses.} \]

### 12.5 Annexation

When two nouns are joined, even though the first does not name a possessor of the second, the second tends to take the third-person suffix of possession:

\[ \text{böl·üm department; matematik böl·üm·ü mathematics department.} \]
You can see this feature in many names of things:

İş Banka-şı Business Bank; Tekirdağ raki-şı Tekirdağ [brand] raki; Eski İmaret Camii Old Soup-kitchen Mosque.*

Note that cami is usually construed, as here, as ending in a consonant, albeit a consonant not shown in spelling: the glottal stop [20, pp. 7, 31]. Thus we have camii rather than camisi.†

The plural ending, if used, still precedes the suffix of possession, as before:

deniz anası, deniz anaları jellyfish‡ (one or several).

However, if the two nouns are written as one word, they may or may not still be treated grammatically as two:

ata-sözü father saying (proverb), ata-sözlerı proverbs;§
ayak-kabı foot container (shoe), ayak-kabılar shoes.

The possession suffix is not normally repeated:

*This little mosque in Istanbul, off the tourist trail, was built in the 11th century as the Church of St Savior Pantepoptes [34, p. 220].
†One does sometimes see camisi instead camii, as for example in [12]. The English mosque shares its ultimate Arabic origin with the Turkish mescit small mosque [13, 27], while cami is related, through its Arabic source, to Cuma Friday. Thus a cami would appear to be, strictly, a Friday mosque, a mosque where communal Friday prayers are made. This is made explicit in Iran, where a grand mosque may be called Masjed-e Jameh Mosque of Friday; the Turkish would be Cuma Mescidi. Thus Persian and Turkish alike join nouns by adding an ending to the noun being qualified; but then they write the nouns in opposite order. However, the Persian construction was used in Ottoman Turkish and can still be seen in some names, as of the Abide-i Hürriyet Monument of Liberty in Şişli, Istanbul, and of the road that runs south from it, Abide-i Hürriyet Cadde-şi. The monument commemorates the Constitutional Revolution of 1908 [37, p. 93] and is normally closed to visitors, though I was invited in by the caretaker when I walked up to the gate. It memorializes a progressive development in Turkey that predated Atatürk’s rise; but it also contains the last remains of two of the instigators of the Armenian Genocide of 1915, namely Enver and Talât. In any case, the modern form of its name would be hürriyet anıtı or even özgür-lük anıtı.
‡literally sea mother(s)
§As in the titles of [16, 28, 35], the sources for Chapter 14, page 50.
Türk sözü, Türk atasözü *Turkish saying, Turkish proverb*. However, from *doğum günü* *birthday* I have seen the formation *Nida’nın doğum günü* *Nida’s birthday* as a grafitto near the Süleymaniye Camii in Istanbul: *Nida’nın doğum günü* would be correct.

Sometimes two bare nouns are combined without change:

mercimek çorbası or mercimek çorba *lentil soup.*
13 Conjugation of verbs

13.1 Possession and Existence (To have and to be)

There is no Turkish verb corresponding to the English have. Possession is normally indicated by suffixes of possession (Chapter 9, page 24). The existence of possession, or of anything else, is expressed by the predicative adjective var; non-existence is expressed by yok.

Gül-üm var My rose exists; I have got a rose.
Gül-üm yok I have not got a rose.

One can also express ownership by means of the noun sahip owner, or else the postposition ait belonging to, which follows nouns in the dative case.

13.2 Verbal nouns

The dictionary-form of a verb is usually the infinitive, in -m@k; remove this ending, and you have a stem. However, not every stem is found in this way; some stems are further analyzable, and they might not be found as part of a dictionary form. We shall consider these in the next section. Meanwhile, there are (at least) two more kinds of verbal noun that may be in the dictionary, with endings

-m@ resembling the -ing of the English gerund, and
-(y)#ş indicating manner.

So we have

okumak/okuma/okuyuş to read / reading / way of reading.*

*See also saying 10 on page 51.
The common stem in these examples is oku-. This is the dictionary-form in one dictionary [3], and I wish it were so in all dictionaries, since then simple verbs would always come before those obtained from them by means of constructive suffixes (Chapter 9, page 24). I give verbs as stems in this document.*

13.3 Stems

A finite Turkish verb generally consists of a *simple* stem, followed in order by endings that I shall call

1) *vocal*,
2) *modal*,
3) *characteristic*, and
4) *personal*.

The vocal endings (or *voice suffixes* [11, p. 145]) seem to be treated generally as constructive suffixes, while the modal endings are inflexional suffixes. Neither of these kinds of endings need be present in a verb.

A verb with only vocal or modal endings, and no characteristic and personal endings, is a *stem*. Although stems with modal endings are not found in the dictionary, they can still be made into verbal nouns with -m@k, -m@, or -(y)#ş.

13.3.1 Vocal endings

One or more vocal endings may be found in a stem in the following order:

1) *reflexive*: -(#)n;
2) *reciprocal*: -(#)ş;
3) *causative*: -(d)#r, -(#)t, or -@r (depending on the verb);
4) *passive* or *impersonal*: -#l or -(#)n.

*See also page 55 and its note *.
Two or more causative endings can be used. A reciprocal and a causative ending together make the **repetitive** ending, -(#)ş·t#r.

oku-n- **be read**, oku-t- **make (somebody) read**,
ölä-/öl· dúr-/öl· dúr·t-/öl· ün-  (see Chapter 7, page 20);
sev- **love**, sev-iş- **make love**;
bul- **find**, bul·un- **be**;
ara- **look for**, ara-ş·tir- **do research**.

### 13.3.2 Modal endings

**Modal endings** indicate affirmation, denial, impossibility and the **possibility** of these. Strictly, **lack** of a modal ending indicates affirmation; denial is with -m@; impossibility, -(y)@m@; possibility, -(y)@bil:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>meaning</th>
<th>modal verb</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>oku-</td>
<td><strong>read</strong></td>
<td>oku-yabil-</td>
<td><strong>can read</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oku·ma-</td>
<td><strong>not read</strong></td>
<td>oku·ma-yabil-</td>
<td><strong>may not read</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oku·yama-</td>
<td><strong>cannot read</strong></td>
<td>oku·yama-yabil-</td>
<td><strong>may be unable to read</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Once, in Ankara, when a taxi driver found out he would be taking me all the way to the airport, he told his friend,

Gelemeyebilirim  *Maybe I can't come [drink tea with you]*.

The modal endings can be analyzed as follows [20, pp. 109, 153 f.]. The suffix -m@ negates; the obsolete verb u- **be able**, negated, becomes the impotential suffix -(y)@m@; the (living) verb bil- **know**, with a buffer, becomes the potential suffix -(y)@bil. But you cannot combine these just as you please; only the six given formations are available. However, there are a few other verbs that can be suffixed as bil- is; one example is yaz- in öl·eyaz- (Chapter 7, page 20).

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*I use this terminology, having failed to find a better. Lewis groups these endings together [20, p. 155], but does not give them a name.
†Göksel and Kerslake group these suffixable verbs together [11, 8.2.3.2, p. 79], but analyze the impotential suffix -(y)@m@ into two suffixes, -(y)@ and the negating -m@, which they consider separately [11, 8.2.3.1, 8.2.2].
13.4 Verbs from verbal nouns

Again, a simple stem, possibly with vocal and modal endings added, is still a stem. From this, we can make verbal nouns, such as the infinitive and the gerund. Both

- the locative case (in -m@k) of the infinitive, and
- the instrumental case (in -l#, page 33) of the gerund,

can take predicative endings, thus becoming finite verbs:

\[
\text{Oku·mak·ta·dir } \text{He is engaged in reading;}
\]
\[
\text{Oku·ma·lı } \text{She must read.}\]

13.5 Verbal adjectives

Also obtained from a stem are five verbal adjectives, or participles:†

- present, in -(y)@n;
- future, in -(y)c@k;
- past-present, in -d#k;
- past, in -m#ş;
- (positive) aorist,‡ in -(@)r or -#r.

Aorist participles with negative or impotential stems are anomalous, so we must speak of the

---

*Among Turkish speakers, I have encountered resistance to the analysis of the -m@l# of okumalı as -m@ plus -l#. Göksel and Kerslake [11] present the -m@l# suffix without further analysis. The older Lewis does analyze the suffix [20, VIII, 30, p. 126], while noting that, rarely, the gerund with -l# may be a simple adjective: in addition to he must hang, asmalı can just mean vine-covered [20, X, 9, p. 172].

†Lewis refers to the past-present and the past participles as the di-past andmiş-past, respectively, while noting [20, IX, 6, p. 164] that the former may denote present activity, like done in things done today as opposed to things done yesterday.

‡Geniş zaman broad tense; see below.
negative aorist, in -m@z;

impotential aorist, in -(y)@m@z.

A future or past-present participle can take a suffix of possession, indicating the person of the subject of the action indicated by the participle:

oku·duğ·um kitap book that I did read or am reading,
oku·yacağ·im kitap book that I shall read.

Thus a possession suffix indicates, so to speak, the possessor of the action named by the participle. This possessor may be named by a noun in the possessive case:

Gül‘ün okuduğu kitap The book read by Gül.

The present, past, and aorist participles do not take possession suffixes, except with the usual sense:

gel·en, gid·en that which comes, that which goes;
dol·muş filled, minibus (because it is usually filled);
dol·muş·umuz our minibus;
ak·ar·su flowing water, stream;
say·il·abil·ir, say·il·amaz countable, uncountable [25].

A number of the proverbs in Chapter 14, page 50 feature present participles, often with case-endings.

13.6 Verbs from verbal adjectives

The future, aorist, and past participles can take predicative endings, thereby becoming finite verbs. Since the third-person predicative ending is empty, the participles themselves may also be finite verbs:

Oku·yacak She will read.
Oku·r He reads, is a reader.
Oku·maz She does not read.
Oku·yamaz He is illiterate.
Oku·muş She read [in the past, according to what we are given to understand].
Another family of verbs can be understood under this scheme as follows. The verb yürü- *walk* was originally yor- [27]. We can conceive of this as being suffixable to a verb, just as bil- is (page 40). Then we should be able to form aorist participles like *sayılayorır*, on the pattern of *sayılabilir*. Thus we would be using a suffix -(y)@yorır on the pattern of -(y)@bilir, that is, -(y)@bil + #r.

It seems that speakers of an ancestor of modern Turkish did this [20, p. 106 f.], but now the suffix -(y)@yorır has been abraded to -(#)yor. This ending is not used to make participles as such; but with the predicative endings, it still forms finite verbs, namely verbs of the **present tense**:

| okuyorum       | I am reading       | okuyoruz      | we are reading |
| okuyorsun      | thou art reading   | okuyorsunuz   | you are reading|
| okuyor         | he is reading      | okuyorlar     | they are reading|

Compare with the aorist:

| okurum         | I read             | okuruz        | we read          |
| okursun        | thou readst        | okursunuz     | you read         |
| okur           | she reads          | okurlar       | they read        |

A difference between aorist and present-tense verbs is illustrated in a comment on Turkish driving habits [20, VIII, 25, p. 117]:

Başka memleketlerde kazara ölürler; biz kazara yaşyoruz.
*In other countries they die by accident; we are living by accident.*

The difference between the aorist

*anlamam* *I am not somebody who understands*

and the present-tense

*anlamıyorum* *I don’t understand at the moment*
is shown by Ali Nesin [24]: In 2005, Nesin was selling copies of Matematik Dünyası magazine at the Istanbul Book Fair when a man visited the stand, identified himself as a mathematician, said he had heard of the magazine, but declined to buy a copy, saying Ben bunları anlamam I don’t understand these things. Nesin responds:

I never saw a mathematician who said anlamam. Many say anlamıyorum, everybody says it, but I never encountered somebody who said, anlamam.

### 13.7 Pure verbs

A verb without characteristic or personal endings is a *stem* (page 39); a verb without personal endings is a *base*. Thus a base is a stem plus a characteristic. So far then, from the stem sev- for example, we have the bases

\[
\text{sevmekte, sevmeli,} \\
\text{seven, sevecék, sevdik, sevmiş,} \\
\text{sever, sevmez, sevemez,} \\
\text{seviyor.}
\]

All are nouns or adjectives, at least in origin, and all take predicative endings.

There are verbs that do not start out as any other part of speech. The subjunctive and imperative endings in Figure 3, page 24, attach directly to stems, without a characteristic. The second- and third-person subjunctives are rarely seen, and the first-person subjunctive has the effect of an imperative. Since there are no official first-person imperative endings, it may be useful to combine the subjunctive and imperative endings into one series of verbs that are imperative (or perhaps optative) in meaning:

\[
\text{seveyim} \quad \text{sevelim} \quad \text{sev!} \quad \text{sevin!} \quad \text{sevsin} \\
\text{let me love} \quad \text{let us love} \quad \text{love, thou!} \quad \text{love, you!} \quad \text{let him love}
\]

Finally, there are a
**definite past tense** with characteristic -d#, and a

**conditional mood** with characteristic -s@.

The personal endings used with these bases are the endings called *verbal* in Figure 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ending</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Ending</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>okudum</td>
<td><em>I did read</em></td>
<td>okuduk</td>
<td><em>we did read</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>okudun</td>
<td><em>thou didst read</em></td>
<td>okudunuz</td>
<td><em>you did read</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>okudu</td>
<td><em>she did read</em></td>
<td>okudular</td>
<td><em>they did read</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Oku-sa If only he would read!**

Roughly, the difference between okumuş and okudu is that the latter connotes eyewitness knowledge, the former inference or hearsay. Thus the past in -m#ş may be called the *inferential past*.

In practice, a past-tense form need not have a past meaning:

`geldim`, literally *I came*, may mean *I’m coming right away*.

You can say good-bye to your friend on the telephone with either of

`öptüm I kissed, öpüyorum I am kissing [thee].`

The conditional characteristic -s@ appears in the logical form `A ise B` of Figure 5, page 28. Here ise is understood as attached to A. It is normally used in compounds, as considered in §13.9. Let us just note here that conditional forms are used to denote *sufficient* conditions, not *necessary* conditions. In the implication `A → B`,

- A is sufficient for B, and
- B is necessary for A.

In Turkish, it is A that will feature the conditional characteristic, while in French, B would be conditional.

All of the characteristics can now be collected as in Figure 7.

*I use *did* here simply because of the ambiguity of the written form of *read* by itself: is it pronounced *rêd* or *rëd*?
### 13.8 Questions

The interrogative particle m# (which appeared in Chapter 7, page 19) precedes the predicative endings, but follows the other personal endings:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>participle</th>
<th>base</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>necessitative</td>
<td>-m@l#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present</td>
<td>-@n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future</td>
<td>-(y)cak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aorist</td>
<td>positive: -(@)r, -#r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>negative: -m@z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>impotential: -(y)m@z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past</td>
<td>-m#ş</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-d#/k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conditional</td>
<td>-s@</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imperative</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Oku·mak·ta mı·yım?** Am I engaged in reading?
- **Oku·ma·lı mı·yım?** Must I read?
- **Oku·yacak mı·yım?** Am I going to read?
- **Oku·r mu·yum?** Do I read?
- **Oku·maz mı·yım?** Do I not read?
- **Oku·yama·z mıyım?** Can I not read?
- **Oku·muş mu·yum?** Did I supposedly read?
- **Oku·yor mu·yum?** Am I reading?
- **Oku·dum mu?** Did you see me reading?
- **Oku·sa·m mı?** Should I read, I wonder?
- **Oku·yayım mı?** Shall I read, do you want me to read?
13.9 Compound tenses

Compound tenses are formed by means of the defective verb

\[ \text{i- be.} \]

The stem \( \text{i-} \) takes no vocal or modal endings. It forms no verbal nouns. It \textit{does} form the participle \( \text{iken} \), which has a suffixed form \(-(y)\text{ken}\) and may follow a verb-base:

\[ \text{Gel-ir-ken, bana oyun-cak tren ge-tir-ir mi-sin?}^{*} \]

\textit{When you come, will you bring me a toy train?}

The stem \( \text{i-} \) forms the bases \( \text{i-miş, i-di, and i-se} \), which can be suffixed as \(-(y)m\#ş, -(y)d\#, and -(y)s\@.\) Hence two \textbf{compound bases} in \( \text{i-} \) are formed: \( \text{i-miş-se} \) and \( \text{i-di-yse} \). Verbs in \( \text{i-} \) are negated with a preceding \( \text{değil} \), and “interrogated” (made into questions) with a preceding \( m\#\); the \( \text{değil} \) precedes the \( m\# \) if both are used. Verbs in \( \text{i-} \) may be attached to nouns; verbs in \( \text{i-} \) with simple (not compound) bases may be attached to verb-bases not in \( \text{i-} \). Missing forms in \( \text{i-} \) are supplied by \( \text{ol-} \) \text{become}.

\[ \text{Kuş-muş It was apparently a bird.} \]
\[ \text{Hayır, uçak-tı No, it was a plane.} \]

\[ \text{Uçak ise, niçin uç-mu-yor? If it is a plane, why is it not flying?} \]
\[ \text{Uç-acak-tı It was going to fly.} \]
\[ \text{Uç-ar-sa, bin-ecek mi-siniz? If it flies, will you board?} \]
\[ \text{Çabuk ol! Be quick!} \]

\[ \text{Ol-mak ve sahip ol-mak To be and to be an owner (the Turkish title of the French movie \textit{Etre et avoir}).} \]

The sentence

\[ \text{Geçmiş olsun} \]

\[ ^{*} \text{Said in a cartoon (in \textit{Penguen}) by a calf to his father, who is trying to explain why he (the bull) is going with the butcher on a long trip from which he will never return.} \]
was listed on page 15. Formally it is a perfect imperative: *Passed may it be, let it have passed.* The form is useful for translating Euclid. When, in Proposition I.6 of the *Elements* [7], Euclid says

\[\varepsilon\pi\varepsilon\zeta\varepsilon\upChi\omega \ h \ \Delta\Gamma,\]

this is not quite, as Heath [8, p. 7] would have it, *Let \(\Delta\Gamma\) be joined*; it is more like *Suppose \(\Delta\Gamma\) has already been joined*. This reminds us that Euclid did not have erasable writing boards like ours; in his lectures (not to mention his completed manuscripts), the diagrams had already been drawn [26, p. 25]. This may not be enough reason to bother with the periphrastic perfect imperative of English; but the Turkish translation is somewhat simpler:

**Birleştirilmiş olsun** *Let it have been joined* [9],

as opposed to

**Birleştirilsin** *Let it be joined.*

In any case, as noted on page 15, *Geçmiş olsun* may be said of bad things, such as sickness, that are already known to have passed. Perhaps it should be understood as a wish that the bad things should pass even from memory—and not just that they should pass, but that they should *already have passed*.

### 13.9.1 Subordination

As noted, -(y)ken is used with a verb-base to subordinate the verb. There are various endings used with verb-*stems* that subordinate the verb to another:

- -(y)#nc@ (denotes action just before that of the main verb);
- -(y)#nc@y@ kadar *until* —ing;
- -(y)# (the ending used in Güle güle, page 14, Chapter 5);
- -(y)r@k *by* —ing;
• -m@d@n *without* —ing;
• -m@d@n öne *before* —ing;
• -d#kt@n sonra *after* —ing.

Here are a couple of literary examples given in [2]:

Çiftliğe doğru iste-me-yerek yürüdü.  
*She walked towards the farm without wanting to.*

İlkyazarla yeniden canlanışı doğanın, kış baş-la-yınca sönmesi.  
*With spring comes nature’s rebirth; with winter, its extinction.*
14 Sayings

Various collections of Turkish proverbs are available [16, 28, 35]. The sayings below are taken from these books. Ideally, if a translation is not given (or even if it is), the reader should be able to supply a translation on the basis of the present document. All needed root-words should be in Chapter 16.

1. Bakmakla öğrenilse, köpekler kasap olurdu.
   *If learning were done by watching, dogs would be butchers.*

2. Bal tutan parmağını yalar.
   *The worker takes a share of the goods.*

3. Balcının var bal taşı; oduncunun var baltası.*
   *A honey-seller has a honey-pot; a woodsman has an axe.*


5. Çok yaşayan bilmez, çok gezen bilir.

   *Let it be late; just don’t let it be difficult.*

7. Gelen gidişini aratır.
   *What comes makes you look for what goes. (The new makes you miss the old.)*

8. Gönül ferman dinlemez.

9. Görünen köy kılavuz istemez.
   *You don’t need a weatherman to know which way the wind blows.*

*Normal word order would be Balcının bal taşı var; oduncunun baltası var.*
10. Her yiğidin bir yoğurt yeyişi vardır.
   Everyone has his own way of doing things.

11. Hocanın dediğini yap, yaptığını yapma.

12. İsteyenin bir yüzü kara, vermeyenin iki yüzü.
   The person who asks for something has a black face, but the person
   who doesn’t give it has two.

13. Kedi uzanamadığı çigeré pis der. (sour grapes)


15. Nasihat istersen, tembele iş buyur.
   If you want to hear advice, ask a lazy person to work.


17. Ölenle ölümmez. One doesn’t die with the dead.

18. Söz gümüşse, süküt altındır.

19. Üzümü ye, bağını sorma.

20. Yolcudur Abbas, bağlasan durmaz.*
   Abbas is a traveller; tie him down, he does not stop.


---

*Normal word order would be Abbas yolcudur.
One may in theory know all of the grammar presented so far, without being able to make sense of sentences in a newspaper. This chapter represents my attempt to analyze two such sentences. First, here are (1) one of these sentences, (2) a word-by-word translation, and (3) a proper English translation:

In the decision numbered 1701, as it is desired that the peace forces will help the Lebanese army so that it can fulfill this duty, it is made clear that, in case the duty under discussion is being hindered, force can be used.

In Figure 8, I diagram the Turkish sentence by the following principles:
1. No two verbs (or forms of verbs) are on the same line.
2. The complements of a verb are on the same line with the verb, or—if they involve verbs themselves—are attached to that line from above.
3. Modifiers of nouns are raised above the nouns.
4. The diagram retains the original word-order.

Another example concerns the electricity that my spouse and I experienced in Ankara before moving to Istanbul. Here I merely embolden all words that are verbs or are derived from verbs:

Özellikle işten eve geliş saatlerinde
karsılıştıkları kesintilerin “bıktırdığını” söyleyen
Ankaralılar, aile bireylerinin evde olduğu, bir
arada yemek yediği saatlerin elektrik kesintileri
yüzünden karanlıkta geçirilmesinin modern
şehirlerde eşi az rastlanılır bir durum olduğu
ifade etti.

Especially from-work homewards coming at-these-hours encountered by-the-cuts “fed-up-with” saying
Ankarans, family members’ at-home being, one
in-an-interval meal eating its-hours’ electric cuts
from-their-face in-the-dark being-passed’s modern

*The sentence is from Birgün, November 7, 2006; I didn’t record the source of the earlier sentence.
in-cities to-its-equal little encountered a state being 
expression made.

*Saying they are fed up with cuts, experienced especially at 
the hours of coming home from work, Ankarans indicated 
that the passing of hours when family members are at home 
eating a meal together, in the dark because of electricity cuts, 
was a situation rarely meeting an equal in modern cities.*
16 Dictionary

Nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs used elsewhere in these notes (except perhaps Chapter 5) are listed here. For postpositions, see Chapter 10. Verbs are given as stems, with a hyphen.* Forms with constructive suffixes are generally not given, unless they are anomalous.

aga lord
agaç tree
ak- flow
akıl wisdom
aile family
al- take, buy
altın gold
an- think of
ana, anne mother
anla- understand
ara interval
ara- look for, call
arka back
as- hang
at horse
ata father
ayak foot
bağ 1 tie, bond
bağ 2 vineyard
bak- look
bal honey

balık fish
balta axe
banka bank
barış peace
baş head
belir- become visible
bıçak knife
bık- get bored
bil- know
bin- go up or on
birey individual
bırleşme- unite
böl- divide
bul- find
buyurur- command
cadde road
cami mosque
can soul, life
ciger liver
Cuma Friday
çabuk quick, fast

*The big Redhouse dictionary [3] lists verbs this way, but with an equal sign (=) in place of a hyphen. Other dictionaries, as [29] or [4], list verbs in their infinitive forms, in -m@k.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>çağ</td>
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<td>çalış-</td>
<td>work</td>
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<td>çiftlik</td>
<td>farm</td>
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<tr>
<td>çocuk</td>
<td>child</td>
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<td>çorba</td>
<td>soup</td>
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<td>say</td>
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<td>dedikodu</td>
<td>gossip</td>
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<td>mad</td>
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<td>overturn</td>
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<td>tongue, language</td>
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<td>dinle-</td>
<td>listen to</td>
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<td>doğ-</td>
<td>be born</td>
</tr>
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<td>nature</td>
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<td>world</td>
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<td>obstacle</td>
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<td>old, not new</td>
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<td>et</td>
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<td>make, do</td>
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<tr>
<td>gün</td>
<td>day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hoca</td>
<td>(religious) teacher</td>
</tr>
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<td>iç-</td>
<td>drink, smoke</td>
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<td>ifade</td>
<td>expression</td>
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<td>ilkyaz</td>
<td>spring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imaret</td>
<td>soup-kitchen (Ottom. hist.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iste-</td>
<td>desire, ask for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iş</td>
<td>work, business</td>
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<td>kap</td>
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</tr>
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<td>who?</td>
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<td>village</td>
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