

A LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS ON BASIC SENTENCE TYPES IN TURKISH SIGN
LANGUAGE (TİD)
WITH REFERENCE TO NON-MANUAL ACTIVITY

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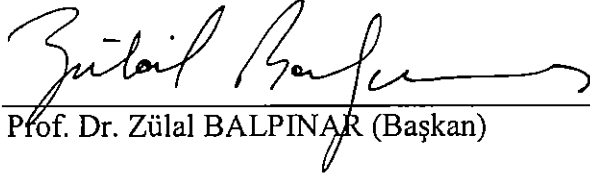
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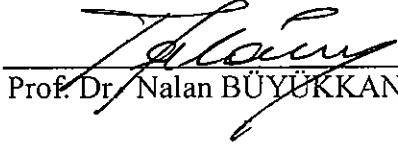


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ÖZET

AÇAN Ayşe Zeynep. *Türk İşaret Dili (TİD)'deki Temel Tümce Türlerinin El-Dışı Göstergeler Açısından Dilbilimsel İncelemesi*, Doktora Tezi, Ankara, 2007.

İşitme engelli bireyler tarafından iletişim amacıyla kullanılan işaret dilleri özellikle toplumun işiten çoğunluğu tarafından sıklıkla merak edilen bir konu olmuştur. Bununla birlikte, işaret dillerinin dilbilimsel olarak incelenmesi oldukça yeni bir çalışma alanıdır ve işaret dilleri zaman zaman yanlış kanılara ve bazı önyargılara maruz kalmıştır. Türkiye'deki durum dikkate alındığında ise toplumun işitme engelli nüfusunun kullandığı dile ilişkin çok az sayıda dilbilimsel çalışmanın olduğu, Türk İşaret Dili (TİD)'in dilbilgisel olarak henüz betimlenmediği görülmektedir. Bu çalışmanın temel amacı TİD'in dilbilgisel betimlenmesine katkıda bulunmaktır. Çalışma, Türk İşaret Dili'ndeki temel tümce türlerinin el ile gerçekleştirilmeyen (el dışı) göstergelere (yüz mimikleri, dudak, baş, gövde hareketleri ve işaretlere eşlik eden bir takım sesler, vb.) de deyinilerek incelenmesi konusuna bir giriş niteliğindedir. Özellikle, bu tür el dışı göstergelerin Türk İşaret Dili'ndeki farklı tümce türlerinin (olumlu, soru, olumsuz ve emir cümleleri) belirlenmesindeki işlevleri betimlenmeye çalışılmıştır. Bu amaçlar doğrultusunda, Türk İşaret Dilini anadili olarak kullanan dört katılımcı seçilmiştir. Katılımcılara çalışmanın amacı doğrultusunda tasarlanmış bir dizi fotoğraf sunulmuş ve kendilerinden fotoğraflarda gördükleri kişiler, yerler, durumlar ve olaylara ilişkin üretebildikleri kadar soru ve sözce üretmeleri istenmiştir. Katılımcılar, sözce ve soruları ürettikleri sırada video kamera ile kaydedilmiştir. Ayrıca, araştırmacı Türk İşaret Dili'nde yetkin olmadığından, işitme engelli katılımcılarla iletişimleri Türk İşaret Dili ve Türkçe'yi çok iyi derecede bilen çevirmenler aracılığı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Daha sonra, farklı tümce türlerini içeren sözcelerden oluşan video kamera ile kaydedilmiş verilerin Türkçe çevrilişleri gerçekleştirilmiş ve böylece veri değerlendirilebilmiştir. Sonuç olarak, Türk İşaret Dili'nde dizgesel olarak yapılanmış el dışı göstergelerin farklı tümce türlerinin belirlenmesindeki işlevleri betimlenmiş, söz konusu dil yapılarının belirlenmesinde anlamlı olan el ile gerçekleştiren yapılar da dikkate alınmıştır.

Anahtar Sözcükler

İşaret Dilleri, Türk İşaret Dili (TİD), Tümce Türleri, İşaret Dillerinde El-dışı Göstergeler

ABSTRACT

AÇAN Ayşe Zeynep. *A Linguistic Analysis on Basic Sentence Types in Turkish Sign Language (TİD) with Reference to Non-manual Activity*, Doktora Tezi, Ankara, 2007.

Sign languages, the communicative medium of hearing and speech impaired people, have often been a topic of interest for the hearing majority. However, linguistic study of sign languages has been a rather recent phenomenon and sign languages have often been exposed to some prejudices and misconceptions. When the situation in Turkey is considered, it is apparent that very little linguistic information is available on the language used by hearing and speech impaired population in Turkey and that their language remained undescribed. Primarily, this study aims at contributing to the linguistic description of TİD. Specifically, it is intended to be a preliminary attempt in the overall consideration of basic sentence types in Turkish Sign Language (TİD) with reference to non-manual activity (the use of the head, facial mimics, body movements, movements of the lips/mouth, sounds produced by vocal organs, and the like). In particular, it aims at the analysis of basic sentence types (declarative, interrogative, negative and imperative). On these grounds, four informants who are native speakers of TİD have been selected. The informants have been presented a set of pictures specifically designed for the purpose of the study and they have been asked to produce as many questions and statements as possible concerning the people, the situations and places (context), and the events in the pictures. The informants have been video-recorded while they produce statements and questions and since the investigator of the study is not a fluent signer of Turkish Sign Language, all the communication with the deaf informants have been carried out through interpreters who are competent in both Turkish Sign Language and Turkish. Later, this recorded corpus of TİD utterances involving declarative, interrogative, negative and imperative sentence types have been transcribed into Turkish glosses and have been evaluated. By this way, a description of the function of systematically structured non-manual activity, as well as of relevant manual components, in the determination of different sentence types in Turkish Sign Language has been achieved.

Key Words

Sign Languages, Turkish Sign Language (TİD), Basic Sentence Types, Non-manual Activity in Sign Languages

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

1.1. THE NEED FOR THE STUDY

With a very broad definition “linguistics” is known to be the scientific discipline the subject matter of which is language and the primary concern of which is to discover and describe the rules that govern languages. “Language”, on the other hand, is generally defined as a system of signs consisting of conventionalized rules and a means of communication. When language is considered, it is generally used in a sense to mean “the specialized sound signaling system which seems to be genetically programmed to develop in humans” (Aitchison 1992: 11). However, the study of sign languages since 1960s has shown that languages are not necessarily oral mediums and the above given definition of language applies not only to spoken languages but also to “sign languages”, systems consisting of rules similar to that of natural human languages, through which hearing and speech impaired people communicate. What follows is that, any scientific study on sign languages deserves its place within the scope of linguistics.

Yet, serious study of sign languages appears to be a rather recent area of investigation which is in its infancy. “Even in the United States and in Britain, where sign languages have been more extensively studied by linguists than in other countries, only after the 70s has it begun to be progressed” (Açan 2001: iv). “Since the very beginning of sign language research, the structure of individual signs in sign languages and the grammar of sign languages in relation to four micro-levels of linguistic analysis (phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics) were dealt mainly, or sometimes only, in terms of the activity of the hands” (Açan 2003: 1).

As Asher and Simpson (1994: 3925) state:

It took researchers some time to realize that in communication between deaf people body language, specifically eye gaze, mime and facial expressions, not only exert the usual psychological functions seeking or avoiding contact, questioning, doubting or negating as well as expressing joy, fear, sadness, anger- but can also be part of the language in a conventionalized, arbitrarily rule-governed way.

As it has been put forward by researchers, non-manual activity accompanying manual signs that is, the use of the head, facial mimics, body movements, movement of the lips/mouth, eyes, and the eyebrows and even some non-linguistic sounds produced by vocal organs have indispensable functions in conveying the complete message. However, a full account of such behaviour still seems to have remained missing.

Although little is yet known about it ... non-manual activity may be significant at several levels of the language... We do not yet know enough about the function of non-manual behaviour in sign language, such as to what extent it is obligatory, providing information that no other channel provides, and to what extent it is redundant in the sense of providing extra information. However, evidence so far suggests that at least some non-manual behaviour has a function in the language directly comparable to that of manual behaviour (Deuchar 1984: 203).

Research on American and British Sign Languages, known as ASL and BSL respectively, seem to exhibit that non-manual activity accompanying the signing by the hands contributes much to what is being communicated. This contribution in question may either be at the level of individual signs distinguishing one sign from another, or at the level of syntax determining the sentence types, marking some grammatical features such as topicalization or even at some other levels of linguistic analysis. As Valli and Lucas (1992: 282) claim, “non-manual signals, and not the signs, often determine the sentence type in ASL. The signs of a sentence can be identical, but it is the non-manuals that make for the difference in sentence type” (whether a sentence is a declarative statement, a ‘yes-no’ question, a negation, or a command, whether it is complex or simple, etc.).

When linguistic studies on Turkish Sign Language ¹(TİD) are considered it may not be proper to claim that TİD has received enough attention. A few studies conducted so far have been far from representing a complete analysis of its grammar, which is indeed a hard task requiring considerable time and effort. Yet, the deaf community in Turkey, along with the native language of its members seems to have remained undescribed. For this reason, this study is intended to be one of the introductory attempts contributing to

¹ ‘TİD’ is an acronym representing the initial letters of each word in ‘Türk İşaret Dili’. Using acronyms as this one is a widespread convention and points out that the sign language in question is a somewhat standard code being different from ‘home signs’ or ‘contact codes’ used among smaller deaf groups.

the linguistic description of TİD. It is expected to provide a basis for further, rather more complete, research on TİD grammar.

1.2. PRESENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.2.1. Aim and Scope

Having noted the gap in the linguistic literature on Turkish Sign Language (TİD) grammar, this study aims at describing some syntactic features of TİD. More specifically, it focuses on the investigation of the basic sentence types and their constructions in TİD, with particular reference to non-manual activity taking place i.e. certain movements of the head, face, mouth, eyes, eyebrows, etc. and the whole body posture as well as the actual signing of the hands and fingers.

Basically, this study is a descriptive one in its approach to the analysis of sentence types. On the other hand, it is partially comparative since it takes into account, time to time, similar constructions both in some other rather more developed and profoundly examined sign languages such as ASL and BSL and also in some spoken languages such as Turkish.

Obviously, this study does not claim to present an analysis of the whole syntactic structure of TİD. Basically, it intends to take into consideration particular issues such as sign structure, syntactic word(sign)-order, sentence types and their grammatical marking, types of non-manual activity (optional/stylistic and obligatory/grammatical), grammatical non-manual components distinguishing sentence types and their realization in TİD. The findings represented here will surely be tentative and open to revision.

1.2.2. Basic Assumptions and Research Questions

Starting out from the assumptions that sign languages are rule governed, conventionalized systems that exhibit structural and functional similarities with spoken languages, and that basic principles of ASL and BSL are applicable to TİD, the following research questions are planned to be investigated within the frame of the study:

1. What is the nature of individual TİD signs? How are they structured?
2. What is the basic word (sign)-order in TİD sentences?
3. Does TİD grammatically mark different sentence types? How are different types of sentences constructed in TİD?
4. Does TİD employ some grammatical operators to distinguish between different types of interrogatives such as ‘wh-’ and ‘yes-no’ questions?
5. Are there any lexical ‘wh-signs’ in TİD similar to those in spoken languages?
6. Is it possible to talk about the obligatory (grammatical) use of non-manual activity in TİD or are non-manual components used only for stylistic purposes?
7. Does non-manual activity have a role in distinguishing between different sentence types? How far non-manual activity can serve so as to distinguish one sentence type from another?

1.2.3. Boundaries of the Research

Due to the following facts, there are some restrictions on the content and the results of the study:

1. The research has been carried out in Ankara, and is restricted to the data collected from a limited number of subjects from one deaf association all of whom are congenitally deaf, and native speakers of TİD. The fact that TİD has not been adequately described led to the reliance on the linguistic intuitions of a small number of TİD signers.
2. As the investigator of the study is not a competent sign language user, all the communication with the deaf subjects has been carried out through interpreters who are competent both in TİD and Turkish.

Besides, during the transcription process of the video-recorded data the investigator has depended primarily upon the intuitions of an interpreter.

3. The data have been collected and evaluated disregarding certain sociolinguistic variables such as gender, ethnic background, social networks or supposedly existing dialectal or idiolectic differences of the informants. Presently, as little linguistic information about TİD is available, it is considered that macro studies need some detailed scientific background.
4. That there is not a written notation system in TİD has made the study, in some measure, impractical to present and made the transcription of the data limited to glossing in Turkish capitals.
5. Due to lack of comprehensive linguistic research and published material on the subject, the study is restricted to the descriptive analysis of four basic sentence types (declarative, interrogative, negative, and imperative) rather than taking into account a complete syntactic analysis and further aspects of TİD grammar.
6. That the investigator is not a competent TİD signer has necessitated the data to be as representative and to the point as possible. For that reason, special techniques have been designed to elicit declarative, interrogative, negative, and imperative TİD sentences. Although the techniques employed have been appropriate for the purpose, video recordings representing real communications between native TİD signers in various situations of discourse would surely increase the quality of the data, especially in terms of the use of non-manuals.

7. The fact that the informants have been aware of the video recordings during the data collection process might have affected the naturalness of the data.

1.2.4. Method: Means of Data Collection, Transcription and Evaluation

This study is a fieldwork type of investigation in that the investigator conducted the study getting in face-to-face interactions with the informants in their daily environments. The data involving declarative, interrogative, negative, and imperative TİD sentences is elicited through techniques which have been specifically designed for the purpose.

1.2.4.1. Data Collection

The data collection involved the following steps:

1. Seven informants, who are native speakers of TİD, and three interpreters who are competent both in Turkish and in TİD were selected after interviews with some signers. For the selection of the appropriate informants, several signers were given a questionnaire which involves queries concerning their social, educational and family backgrounds as well as their degree and duration of hearing loss and competence in TİD. Although the research was carried out with the participation of seven informants, the analysis and findings represented in the thesis depended on the data elicited from four of the informants. The informants (1 male, 3 female) were all congenitally deaf between ages 20 and 28 and they were all high school graduates. Two informants took part only in the elicitation of the pilot study data and the set of data obtained from one of the signers were not taken into consideration since it has later observed to be inadequate due to signer's misunderstanding of the instruction given.
2. Two sets of pictures were designated for the elicitation of declarative, interrogative, negative, and imperative sentences in TİD. The first set involved five pictures with several 'people' and 'events' taking place, in various contexts. The second set consisted of six pictures each involving a universal warning sign

(i.e. “*do not smoke*”, “*be quite*”, “*do not enter*”, etc.). The second set of pictures was designed for the elicitation of imperatives.

3. A pilot study was carried out with the two of the informants.
4. First, the pictures were shown one by one to the informants individually and for the elicitation of “yes-no” and “wh-” types of interrogative TİD sentences, each informant was asked to produce as many questions as possible, concerning the people, the situations, the places (context), and the events that took place in the pictures.
5. In the second phase, in order to obtain negative sentences in TİD, each informant was asked approximately eight to ten previously-prepared questions for each picture, the answers of many of which had been supposed to be negative.
6. In the next step, each informant was asked to explain what he/she had seen in the pictures, making up stories relating to the ‘people’, the events taking place, and the context. Thus, the elicitation of declarative sentences in TİD was achieved.
7. The fourth phase involved a similar procedure in which signers were shown the second set of six pictures. In this phase, the informants produced imperative utterances by looking at the situations in the pictures, which were indicated through certain universal signs for warning.
8. The informants were video-recorded by a video camera at the time they performed TİD utterances concerning with the pictures. During the recording process, one of the interpreters was translating the TİD utterances of native signers into Turkish and the Turkish instructions of the investigator into TİD.

9. The interpreters were given information about the purpose of the study previously. They were asked to observe the interviews carefully and participate where necessary.
10. After the pilot study, the method and the results were evaluated. On the basis of this evaluation certain modifications were done for the actual study: The size of the pictures were enlarged, the number of the pictures was increased (the first set was increased to ten, and the second to seven), and two video cameras were deemed to be necessary; one for the recording of the whole bodies of the signers, and the other for the recording of their faces only.
11. During the video-recordings, the investigator carefully checked the accompanying facial and bodily gestures as the informants perform TİD utterances and she took notes where necessary. The interpreter's judgments and comments have also been of great help.
12. The interviews with the informants were made at intervals on different days and each informant was shown the same set of pictures.
13. After the recording procedure, declarative, interrogative, negative, and imperative TİD utterances gathered were transformed into Turkish glosses and then transcribed for linguistic analysis and evaluation by the help of another interpreter.

1.2.4.2. Transcription of the Data

Transcription is a crucial task in the linguistic analysis of a corpus the primary goal of which is to produce a permanent written representation of communicative events that make analysis and re-analysis possible (see, Hoiting and Slobin 2002: 1, 3). Consequently, transcription of sign language data is not quite different from transcription of data from any other language. However, linguistic research on sign languages is a rather new area and because of the different nature of sign languages in comparison with spoken languages in terms of their media (spoken languages are

spontaneous and oral codes whereas sign languages are simultaneous and visual), one can hardly talk about a fully-established, standardized and a universal tradition on sign language data transcription and an internationally accessible database for sign languages.

So far, various transcription techniques have been suggested by different sign language researchers concerning the range of their goals in linguistic analysis (Stokoe et al. 1976; Klima and Bellugi 1979; Zeshan 2000, etc. cited in Hoiting and Slobin 2002: 4-5).

One of the most popular and traditional ways of sign language data transcription is using spoken language ‘glosses’ in capital letters with additional diacritics and discursive notes. As Hoiting and Slobin (2002: 5) put forward, “the glosses represent the nearest translation equivalent in the spoken language of the particular community”. Although this sort of transcription has some particular shortcomings such as its “inaccessibility to computer programs” and its “biasing the analysis into issues of spoken languages”, it is rather efficient in terms of time and expense and it seems to have been a commonly shared system (see, Hoiting and Slobin 2002: 2, 5).

Zeshan (2004: 9-10) explains this as follows:

Given the fact that signed languages involve dynamic movements in three-dimensional space and transmit linguistic information simultaneously via several channels (hand movements, facial expressions, head positions, body postures), adequately representing signed languages on paper has always been a major problem in signed-language research. Although certain conventions have developed in the signed-language research community, there is still no satisfactory way of representing signed-language data. The most widespread practice is to write labels for the signs in capital letters, with one or several additional lines on top to mark non-manual signals.

In this study, we also preferred the same convention.

The following lines give a summary of the transcription procedure:

1. The fact that we have to deal with a sign language (TİD), a simultaneous visual code which employs both manual and supposedly non-manual components in conveying linguistic messages, has made the transcription of the data necessary.
2. For this reason, the data collected through video recording that is, declarative, interrogative, negative, and imperative TİD utterances, were transcribed into Turkish glosses with additional notes on non-manual components, diacritics and discursive features. The following items present some necessary information and a list of the symbols and abbreviations used in the transcription of the data:
 - a) Turkish glosses given in capital letters represent the signs in TİD.
 - b) The glossing of frequently occurring signs is standardized.
 - c) Non-manual signals are represented on a line indicating the scope of the signal, that is, the line is used for the whole sentence and the abbreviations for the non-manual signals are placed on the corresponding manual signs.
 - d) Possible Turkish translations are given under the transcription of TİD utterances.
 - e) Single sign glosses consisting of more than one Turkish word are indicated with underscores. E.g. ÇEK_GETİR (pull_bring), ÜST(ÜNE)_ÇIK- (top_rise), AT(A)_BİN (horse_ride).
 - f) Complex signs are shown in the transcription with a plus symbol (e.g. YIL+EĞLENCE (year+entertainment), UYU-+KALK sleep+wake up).

- g) The hyphens at the end of Turkish glosses represent that the category of the sign glossed is a verb.
- h) Parentheses within the transcriptions and in the Turkish or English translations indicate linguistic elements which are not expressed overtly or separately by TİD signs. E.g. ÜST(ÜNE)_ÇIK- (top_rise), MERAK_(ET-) (wonder), 'Orada ne var (diye) merak ediyor(lar)' (They are wondering what is over there).
- i) Parentheses that were placed after the Turkish glosses with the symbol 'ref.' represent that the TİD sign is realized with the reference mentioned in the paranthesis. E.g. BAK- (look at) (ref. other side), SANDALYE (chair) (ref. signer's seat).
- j) The symbol '(short)' after the glosses indicates that the TİD sign is reduced either in location, or in movement. E.g. ANNE(short.).
- k) Slash sign '/' is used to indicate two or more alternative glosses or homophonous signs. E.g. YIKA- (wash) /TEMİZLE- (clean), EĞLENCE (entertainment) /OYUN (play).
- l) 'Q-mark.' symbol indicates the manual question mark wiggle (see, section '4.2.2.1. Yes-No Questions').
- m) 'S-end.' represents a manual sign indicating the end of clauses or sentences.
- n) 'y/n-q' symbol is used to represent the non-manual activity for yes-no questions.
- o) 'wh-q' symbol is used to represent the non-manual activity for wh-questions.

- p) ‘neg¹’, ‘neg²’ and ‘neg³’ symbols are used to represent corresponding type of non-manual negation.
- q) The symbol ‘nod-’ is used to represent nodding of the signer’s whereas ‘sing.-nod’ represents that signers do not continuously nod but perform a single nod.
- r) The symbols representing non-manual activity are written in italic form if the investigator has some doubts about their presence.
- s) The abbreviation ‘voc. lex.(...)’ is used to indicate that a vocal linguistic/lexical word or particle is performed by the signer approximating the Turkish one represented in the following parenthesis. E.g. voc. lex. (hayır ‘no’).
- t) The continuous dots are used to represent that a non-manual signal is performed continuously by the signer; that is the signal continues as long as the dots continue.
- u) Moreover, the following symbols are used to represent various indexing signs of the informants:

INDEX-1 p. pr. sg.; BEN	(I)
INDEX-1 p. pr. pl.; BİZ	(we)
INDEX-2 p. pr. sg.; SEN	(you)
INDEX-2 p. pr. pl.; SİZ	(you, plural.)
INDEX-3 p. pr. sg.; O	(he/she/it)
INDEX-3 p. pr. pl.; ONLAR	(they)
INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg.(place); BURASI, BURA	(here)
INDEX-2 dem. pr. sg.(place); ŞURASI, ŞURA	(there)
INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place); ORASI, ORA	(there)
INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg.(person); BU	(this)

INDEX-2 dem. pr. sg.(person);	ŞU	(that)
INDEX-1 det. sg.	BU	(this)
INDEX-2 det. sg.	ŞU	(that)
INDEX-3 det. sg.	O	(that)
INDEX-1 det. pl.	BU	(this)
INDEX-2 det. pl.	ŞU	(that)
INDEX-3 det. pl.	O	(that)
INDEX-neutr	It is used when indexing points no specific direction but the neutral sign space.	

3. During the transcription of data the investigator worked with an interpreter. The comments and participation of the interpreter have been of great significance.

1.2.4.3. Data Evaluation

Finally, the evaluation of the data followed the steps given below:

1. Our raw data consisted of video-recordings of four native TİD speakers who are congenitally deaf.
2. During the transcription of raw data into Turkish glosses, grasping the full account of meaning components of TİD, both manual and non-manual, was deemed to be of great importance.
3. The mass of data transcribed needed to be organized so that it could be meaningful and operational for obtaining results. For this reason, first, declarative, interrogative, negative, and imperative TİD utterances of each informant were sorted out respectively and then different types of interrogatives were also classified. Systematic similarities, both manual and non-manual, in the construction of each type of TİD sentences were examined.

4. The organized data were comparatively analyzed to obtain systematically structured components, both manual and non-manual, in the construction of declarative, interrogative, negative, and imperative sentences. Non-manual components were also sorted out according to the body part involved and according to their functions. Moreover, necessary explanations for all other research questions have been supplied.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introducing Sign Languages

2.1.1. The Nature of Sign Languages

Although ‘language’ can be defined in many ways foregrounding its different aspects, almost all of these definitions emphasize its very basic function, namely, ‘communication’. From this perspective, many systems of communication including animal communication and all kinds of artificial codes could be considered as language. In fact, the terms ‘language’ and ‘communication’ do not mean the same thing and in order to be qualified as a ‘language’ a system of communication requires some further grammatical, structural and functional properties. Due to its high range of applications and various aspects within human life, language involves several different senses. In spite of the diversity of views concerning what ‘language’ is, all definitions consider language as a ‘system’ of symbols, or signs, that are organized in terms of conventionalized rules. On the other hand, as for the nature of the signs they involve, languages are generally considered to be vocal-auditory systems. Yet, there are some other ways of human communication, and language can be revealed through some other media one of which is signing. Consequently, sign language of hearing and speech impaired people is truly a means of communication consisting of rules similar to spoken human languages, deserving its place within the scope of linguistics.

However, the study of sign languages, especially from a linguistic point of view, is a recent phenomenon. Due to the fact that they have not been regarded as ‘worth studying’ until late 60s, sign languages have been exposed to many misconceptions and prejudices and have been considered as primitive and underrated means of communication which can hardly count as language. These misconceptions include such popular views as ‘sign languages are not real languages’, ‘they are the reduced and simpler forms of the coexisting spoken languages of the majority in the same community’, ‘there is just one sign language which can be understood all over the world’, ‘signing is equal to gesturing’, ‘signs are not arbitrary but iconic, being simply

the pictorial representations of external reality'. The following pages will give a brief discussion of these misconceptions:

2.1.1.1. Sign Languages as 'Real' Languages

It is often thought erroneously that sign languages are not real languages, but little more than systems of sophisticated gesturing. In fact, as a result of recent investigations (Kyle and Woll 1998; Valli and Lucas 1992; Asher and Simpson 1994; Deuchar 1984; Isenhath 1990; Liddell 2003), there is evidence to claim that sign languages are rule governed systems of communication and have a structure of comparable complexity to spoken languages. Besides, sign languages seem to exhibit all the defining properties of natural human languages -such as arbitrariness, duality, discreteness, productivity, displacement and cultural transmission- and perform similar range of communicative functions offered by Jacobson (1973: 53-55) -such as referential, conative, emotive, phatic, metalinguistic, and poetic (see, Deuchar 1984: 18-23). As Yule (1985: 164) claims:

It has become very clear that any feature which is characteristically found in spoken languages has a counterpart in sign languages. All the defining properties of human languages are present in ASL; there are equivalent levels of phonology, morphology, and syntax, children acquiring ASL go through many of the recognized stages of children learning spoken languages. ASL is used for a wide range of jokes and sign-play, there are different ASL dialects in different regions and historical changes in the form of signs can be traced since the beginning of the century. In short, ASL is a natural language which is quite remarkable for its endurance in the face of decades of prejudice and misunderstanding.

These claims of Yule are probably valid not only for ASL but also for many other sign languages, excluding perhaps, the ones that are not fully -or equally- developed. Similarly, Asher and Simpson (1994: 3890) consider sign languages as "a class of languages found amongst deaf communities throughout the world: languages which parallel spoken languages in complexity and structural features". Moreover, they emphasize that sign languages occur in communities with their own recognizable culture, and appear to be the first languages of deaf children of deaf families.

2.1.1.2. Sign Languages versus Signed Languages

The fact that sign languages such as ASL, BSL and TİD are confused with signed versions of coexisting spoken languages of the majority such as English and Turkish is not an uncommon situation. However, sign languages have been observed to develop wherever one can talk about the existence of a deaf community, a group of deaf people not in isolation but in social contact with one another within certain contexts such as education or other similar situations. Furthermore, as a deaf community becomes established through social institutions, sign languages have also been observed to develop ‘spontaneously’ –that is to say, they develop naturally within deaf community, and are not invented by the hearing majority-, ‘independently’ –which means they are by no means derived from coexisting spoken languages, being merely their ‘manual’ representations-, and ‘gradually’, -out of ‘home signs’ which are ‘relatively simple’ and grammatically ‘limited’ being restricted to small groups of deaf people such as family members (Deuchar 1984: 2,3,7; Liddell 2003: 1-2; Armstrong and Wilcox 2003: 312-313).

Although it is possible to see instances of signed versions of spoken languages for some specific purposes such as education and especially language learning, sign languages are completely different than coexisting spoken languages in the same community and they have distinctive grammars of their own. Zeshan (2004: 9) summarize this as follows:

²Sign languages are the primary languages of communication in the deaf communities where they are used... They have developed around the world wherever deaf people have come together to form a community, often in the context of a beginning education system for deaf children. From a sociolinguistic point of view, they usually constitute minority languages that are in constant contact with the surrounding spoken languages used by the non-deaf majority. But sign languages are in no way derived from coexisting spoken languages and do not constitute a representation of spoken languages ‘on the hands’. Rather, they have a linguistic structure of their own that can be and often is radically different from the surrounding spoken language or languages.

² In her article (Zeshan, 2004); Zeshan originally uses the term ‘signed language’ for what we have here referred to as ‘sign language’. In order to avoid confusion and misunderstanding, we have changed her original wording in the above quotation.

2.1.1.3. Is Sign Language Universal?

People, who do not think of sign languages as being representations of signed versions of spoken languages that coexist within the same community, sometimes consider them to be ‘universal’ as if there is one single sign language which is intelligible all over the world. What underlies this misconception seems to be another one; that is, people often view sign languages as lacking a grammar as well as lacking some other fundamental properties of natural languages. In fact, studies (such as Jordan and Battison 1976; Siple (ed.) 1978; Klima and Bellugi 1979; Wilbur 1979; Tanokami et.al. 1976; Ahlgren and Bergman (eds.) 1980 cited in Deuchar 1984: 4) have clearly put forward that sign languages of the world differ from each other in terms of both vocabulary and grammar. It is quite noticeable that although American and British communities speak the same language, namely, English -disregarding the dialectal variation-, the language of American and British deaf sub-communities -ASL and BSL, respectively- are quite distinctive codes which are mutually unintelligible (see, Deuchar 1984: 106). Although sign languages share certain features with one another, as well as with spoken languages, it seems to be that sign languages differ from country to country, just as spoken languages do, unless there is considerable contact between different deaf speech communities for specific purposes such as education. Even in such situations, it has been found that the languages of the deaf communities are ‘similar’ to some extent but not totally ‘identical’.

2.1.1.4. Signing versus Gesturing

Another common misconception dominating the attitude towards sign languages has been the habitual confusion between signs and gestures, probably, as a result of another confusion between sign language, non-verbal communication –non linguistic and often visual elements accompanying speech- and body language, a sort of “ad hoc gesture system used to communicate with people whose language one does not speak” (Deuchar 1984: 3-4). In fact, gestures such as body language or non-verbal communication rely on immediate context (i.e., pointing out objects) and are able to convey limited number of messages. On the contrary, sign languages are not restricted to immediate context and to limited number of messages; there seems to be no limits to what signers can communicate through sign language.

Although it may not be wrong to define sign languages as “systems of gestures, made with the hands and other body parts, used to replace speech as a mode of communication on all occasion of interaction” (Crystal 1992: 353), this type of gesturing is totally different than the one used among people who do not share a common language, or the one used to accompany speech. Signing is much more systematic than gesturing and as Asher and Simpson (1994: 3890) state, “signs are, of course, a subset of human gestures, just as phonemes are a subset of human sounds”, yet, “signs are distinguished from gestures by having an internal structure composed of elements which form a system of contrasts, and whose usage is rule-governed”.

2.1.1.5. Arbitrariness and Iconicity in Sign Languages

The degree of iconicity and/or arbitrariness in sign languages has often been an important matter of discussion since arbitrariness is suggested to be a defining property of human languages. However, it has been evident that all languages have both arbitrary and non-arbitrary aspects (see, Bolinger 1975, 1980 in Deuchar 1984: 19). Consequently, languages involve iconic signs as well as those arbitrary ones, as seen in the cases of onomatopoeia in spoken languages. Here, a more crucial point pertaining to arbitrariness appears to be ‘conventionality’ in languages. Deuchar (1984: 16, 20) puts forward that “it is important to realize that while iconicity means non-arbitrariness, it does not necessarily mean non-conventionality. The iconicity in sign languages does not result in a complete freedom; iconic signs too, are determined culturally”. Zeshan also (2004: 12) mentions with reference to a discussion by Armstrong (1983) that:

The status of iconicity in signed languages is certainly one of the important typological differences between signed and spoken languages, though the difference is gradual rather than categorical (Zeshan 2002)... The main reason for the more extensive iconicity that we find in signed languages lies simply in the fact that there is more to represent iconically in the visual than in the auditory medium. That is, iconicity naturally occurs in all languages, but signed languages have a greater potential for iconicity due to the visual modality... All signs, whether iconic or not, have a conventional form and meaning, and it is not possible to modify the form of a sign at will, even if a different form might seem iconically more suitable.

Sign languages seem to display three types of signs, namely, (i) symbolic –which are arbitrary in terms of their connection to their referents; (ii) indexic –which directly point out their referents; and (iii) iconic –which resemble, or depict their referents (see, Dobrovolsky 1997: 591, 592; Deuchar 1984: 13-15).

A final point which is also worth mentioning here is that ‘iconicity’ and ‘transparency’ are not identical terms, either. Although there are considerable amounts of iconic or indexic signs in sign languages, many of them cannot be interpreted unless one knows their meanings beforehand.

2.1.2. Sign Languages as ‘Natural Languages’

Sign languages have often been the subject matter of the debate of whether they are to be considered as full-fledged languages or not. The facts underlying this debate are mainly that these languages are often later-developed when compared to the coexisting spoken language of the majority within the same community, and that they are inevitably associated with ‘lack of something’, with a kind of impairment, imposing on them a sort of deficiency or impoverishment. Such debates on the status and nature of particular sign languages, as well as of sign languages in general, can only be resolved through systematic linguistic analysis. Otherwise, they would remain nothing more than mere speculations.

Previous studies such as the ones mentioned in the previous section (Kyle and Woll 1998; Valli and Lucas 1992; Asher and Simpson 1994; Deuchar 1984; Isenhardt 1990; Liddell 2003) have demonstrated that sign languages such as ASL and BSL can be considered to be fully established, displaying similar range of functions to those of spoken languages and grammatical structures of comparable complexity. Similarly, Zeshan (2004: 7) defines sign languages as “full-fledged natural human languages that operate in a visual-gestural modality”.

However, although all sign languages can perform many of the functions of spoken languages, it would be misleading to claim that all such systems can be considered as full-fledged natural languages. In fact, there are certain properties distinguishing natural

human languages from other systems of communication which all natural languages necessarily possess: the universal properties of human languages. Trask (1999: 200-201) defines a natural language as “a language which is, or once was somebody’s mother tongue” and states:

we generalize our conception of a natural language as follows: a natural language is any conceivable language which possesses all of the universal characteristics of human languages and which, therefore, could in principle serve as a mother tongue... a pidgin, being no one’s mother tongue, is not a natural language, but a creole which develops out of a pidgin is a mother tongue and is hence a natural language.

Subsequently, it would not be surprising to note that while some sign languages, such as ASL and BSL, may present comparatively more -or even fully- developed grammatical systems some others still need linguistic description. Thus, while some sign languages can easily be regarded as natural languages, for some others (i.e., home signs or contact signed codes within a sort of creolization process) this is not possible or at least, too early to claim.

A natural language need not be a spoken language. Today, there are very many deaf people whose first language is a sign language, and we now realize that a sign language used by native signers must be regarded as a natural language. Again though, observe that the sign language used by non-native signers does not count as a natural language; it is clear that sign languages like American Sign Language, when used by native signers, possess important characteristics which were not built into them by the hearing people who deliberately invented them generations ago (Trask, 1999: 201-202).

In conclusion, it has to be mentioned that not all sign languages in the world have been investigated to claim that they all exhibit all the structural, functional and grammatical properties unique to natural human languages and that they all possess the universal properties. In fact, the linguistic literature on sign language research still lacks in depth work on several sign languages of the world, with notable exceptions on some popular ones such as ASL, BSL LSF –Langue des Signes Française (French Sign Language), etc.

Still, it seems obvious that all sign languages have the potential of establishing into full-fledged languages wherever it is possible to talk about a deaf speech community, and as

long as there is considerable contact between the members of the community in question.

2.2. 'Linguistics' of Sign Languages

Although it is still in its infancies, sign language research has been a very promising and fruitful area of investigation over years and studies in the field has been gaining considerable momentum. An attempt at the consideration of the entire domain of the literature would not be a realistic one, exceeding the scope of this study. For this reason, this survey aims to give an idea of the underlying motives, content, scope and methodology of some research on sign linguistics; the ones rather more pertaining to the aim and scope of the one presented here, with some occasional, historical consideration.

2.2.1. Sign Language Studies in the World

Although there has not been sufficient technology or technical support to collect data for the study of sign languages until recently, the use of sign language has a long history dating back at least 2000 years in the Western World and perhaps more, according to Chinese writings (see, Asher and Simpson 1994: 3890). Today it is known that Plato mentions special head, hand and body movements of “deaf and dumb” in *Cratylus*. However, there is no information available concerning the nature of signing at the early times, nor is there any description of “sign” since it is not possible to achieve written records. Because of the common curiosity about the origin of language, on the basis of the belief that “before verbal communication there were physical actions” it had been speculated that signing was an earlier means of communication than speech.

A common speculation throughout the nineteenth was that humans had relied upon some form of sign language before they had turned to spoken language. The idea seems to have originated with the French philosopher Etienne Bonnot de Condillac in the mid eighteenth century (Baynton 1996:38).

On the other hand, there were some contradicting views too, depending on the belief that speech is derived from non-verbal cries.

Veditz believed, as was customary in his time, that signed languages are derived from spoken languages and have been invented by individuals such as Epée (Padden and Humphries 1988: 57).

During the early times, (and perhaps still) the most widespread and dominant views about sign language were that:

- Signs were equal to gestures
- Like gestures, sign languages were universal
- Sign language was a language of low status, primitive and underrated. (A view which is popular especially in Europe, as a result of Milan Convention and ‘oralism method’ in deaf education.)

Sign language studies, which are quite limited and perhaps biased, were carried out under the influence of these views. These studies resulted not from linguistic expectations but from curiosity alone. Only in the past 30 years, the attitudes have changed (see, Crystal 1987: 219-220).

2.2.1.1. Sign Language Studies in Europe and America

The history and development of “sign language” in Europe can be best summarized mentioning a few names with contradicting views, and one dominating event.

Most modern accounts see the systematic education of deaf people as having started in the 16th century (Savage, Evans and Savage 1981) and as becoming a subject for discussion at least in England during the 17th century. Digby (1644) mentions lip-reading and Bulwer in the same year describes gesture as an international communication. John Bulwer and George Dalgarno are the two writers of the 17th century who show the greatest understanding of the basis of sign language (Kyle and Woll 1985:37).

Besides, Wallis and Holder were known as the first two teachers of the deaf; they adopted speech in education. At the early 18th century, Baker too, was famed as a teacher under the influence of Wallis but only after 1760 a great progress had been achieved. Thomas Braidwood was teaching deaf students in Scotland and de L’Epée was teaching, by using signs, in Paris (See, Kyle and Woll 1985:38).

As Asher and Simpson (1994: 3910, 3923) claim, de L'Epée adopted teaching deaf to read and write in French forgoing speech and using their signs as a natural means in education. On the other hand, in Leipzig (Germany) Samuel Heinicke, with an opposing view, took speech and speech reading as the most important educational goal adopting a strict oral approach in education.

During 19th and 20th centuries these views (manualism vs. oralism) comprised a controversy concerning the education of the deaf and spread into France through Paris, into Germany and Austria through Leipzig, also into Switzerland, United Kingdom, Scandinavia, parts of Spain, Portugal, Italy and into United States. A resolution came at the Milan Convention (1880) in Italy where 53 per cent of the members were from Italy, 34 from France, 7 from England and America and only one representative was from Germany. Majority of the participants preferred speech over sign and this resolution affected the education system in Europe. There was an increasing opposition to “signing”; it appeared to be underrated and treated with ignorance and “oralism” in education became dominant (see Asher and Simpson, 1994:3923)

In the United States of America, oralism and Darwinism supported one another. As Baynton (1996: 37) claim, “evolutionary thinking pervaded American culture in the years that oralism became dominant in deaf education...” Baynton (1996: 40) continues as follows:

Linguists of the late 19th century commonly applied to language theory what has been called “linguistic Darwinism”: Inferior languages died out, they argued, and were replaced by superior languages in the ‘struggle for existence’.

However, the situation of deaf education in the United States was still a bit different than Europe. Some oralists like Condillac, as Baynton (1996: 39) claim, revised their views, and come to believe that “language of action was not necessarily inferior to speech in what it could communicate, and could be ‘extended sufficiently to render all the ideas of the human mind’”.

As Asher and Simpson (1994: 3923) state, “at least most state schools favored a combined, simultaneous use of speech and signs accepting signing as a natural means of communication outside the classroom.” Besides, in the United States there had been more progress in sign language research during 60s and 70s due to the higher social status of signing deaf adults and their organizations in USA. In fact, in Britain too, it was discovered with the Lewis Report (1968) that although a strict oralism had been preferred in British schools, this was not the actual case. As Kyle and Woll (1985: 46) claim, “Of 45 schools for the deaf, three-quarters used manual communication in some context...”

During 70s and 80s sign language research began and progressed in some parts in Europe, following the United States. Nowadays, in Europe sign language research is being carried out in almost all areas of linguistics such as phonology (chiology), morphology, syntax, semantics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, lexicology, etc. and the following areas among them, lexicography, acquisition in relation to the education of the deaf child, non-manual features, gained more specific attention in Europe in comparison to American sign language research (see, Asher and Simpson 1994:3924).

2.2.1.2. Sign Language Studies in Asia

Although Asia contains a great deaf population, the studies on Asian sign languages are very limited, not more than some preliminary ones concerning sign language of China, Japan, Taiwan, Hong Kong, India and Thailand. Besides, schools for deaf that provide the standardization, development and spread of sign languages are very limited too, and are highly affected by the “oralist approach” of the West.

Actually, as Asher and Simpson (1994: 3921) claim, when the development of sign language in Asia is considered, it comes out that, it has much to do with the Western missionary activities and colonialism. Moreover, due to the economic supremacy of America, American Sign Language has had a great influence on Asian Sign Languages.

The first school for the deaf in Vietnam was set up by Father Azéma of the French Foreign Missions in 1886. In China the first school was established by the two American Presbyterian missionaries, Anetta Thompson Mills and her husband C.R.Mills (Asher and Simpson, 1994: 3921).

The studies on sign language in Asia has been to a great extend lexical, mostly preparations of dictionaries some of which involve syntactic observation within their introductions. Apart from these, a few sociolinguistic studies that are later published outside Asia, Yau and He (1989) and Peng (1974) as cited in Asher and Simpson (1994: 3922) have carried out revealing dialectal differences.

In Asia, Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Sri Lankan and Nepalese sign languages are said to be of the same language family; besides, Hong Kong, Singapore and Chinese sign languages are of another (see Asher and Simpson 1994:3921, 3922).

2.2.1.3. Sign Language Studies in Australia

As stated in Asher and Simpson (1994: 3922):

Australia has two signing traditions: the alternate sign languages of Aboriginal Australians which are gestural codes used to represent spoken languages, and the primary sign language of deaf Australians which is an autonomous language in its own right.

The Australian Sign Language, namely “Auslan”, has developed out of British and Irish Sign Languages (British signs being more dominant) that were brought to Australia in the 19th century. Recently, the cultural and linguistic impact of ASL is also of question. British deaf immigrants established the first Australian schools for the deaf. Besides, Irish signs and the one-handed alphabet which had been borrowed by Irish deaf community from French Sign Language were also brought to Australia by Irish Catholics (see, Asher and Simpson 1994: 3922).

So far, a good many of lexical and morphosyntactic studies, that is, dictionary studies and research on grammatical organization, have been handled concerning Auslan. Accordingly, it has been noted that Auslan exhibits some complex grammatical processes and markings, which are nonexistent in the corresponding spoken language of the society. As Asher and Simpson (1994: 3923) report, “the possible articulation of signs with reference to various loci in the signing space for pronominal reference and verb agreement, and the articulation of verb signs with various spatial and movement contours to convey aspectual information” are a few examples.

Studies have demonstrated that Auslan appears to be adequate for daily issues, everyday conversation, and further, for abstract talk, linguistic art and humor; being rich in terms of vocabulary.

In fact, Auslan itself does not have a written form and lacks some functional varieties, for example, those associating with literacy. English (both written and signed) is the language for literacy for Australian signers.

Due to close cultural as well as historical relationship between Australia and New Zealand, there are strong similarities between the sign languages of both countries (Asher and Simpson 1994: 3922, 3923).

2.2.1.4. Sign Language Studies in South America

As a result of previous research, it has been discovered that in South America there are several autonomous sign language systems, that is, sign languages are not ‘dialects’ deriving from one source. However, some languages bear linguistic similarities due to language contact. For example, as Asher and Simpson (1994: 3926) state:

The Brazilian Sign Language (LSCB) used in Southern Brazil has imported some lexical items from Uruguay and Argentina. By the same token, linguistic interference from Brazil and Argentina can be noted in Uruguay.

Apart from sign language, finger spelling is also wide spread in the continent.

Studies on sign language in most countries in South America have begun and developed recently; studies in Argentina, Brazil, Uruguay, Chile, Puerto Rico and Venezuela are published as well. Among them, Brazilian is the most studied sign language (see, Asher and Simpson 1994: 3926).

2.2.2. Studies on Micro and Macro Features of Sign Languages

When previous research concerning deaf community is considered, it appears that the point of focus on this area has been “education”, since it has been given the major role within the recognition of the deaf community. Moreover, under the general heading of education, the major concern has been the question “which system is more effective in

education, whether manualism or oralism” a question which bears many contradictions in its resolution and has been a matter of conflict by itself. There are several reasons for this concentration on education.

First of all, as demonstrated by studies on disabled community, education has constituted a significant requirement for the deaf, and a constraint on their social development. Secondly, as Asher and Simpson (1994:3924) mentions among the professional groups, it was educators who were mostly engaged with the deaf. Furthermore, the most important role on the standardization and development of sign languages was performed by the schools for the deaf.

As Winzer (in Davis 1997: 100) claims, the attempts concerning the education of the disabled have flourished with Renaissance and the aim was to achieve the history of human thinking:

The gathering humanistic and philosophical spirit of the Renaissance flowered into genuine educational attempts that, though nascent and primitive, that demonstrated that disabled persons could learn and achieve... Teachers, writers and philosophers based their interventions on the belief that discovering the manner in which deaf persons learned, especially the way in which they acquired language would provide a key to the history of thought and of humankind in general.

As mentioned before, with the spread of “oralism” in deaf education, sign language has been ignored; therefore, research on sign languages, especially from a linguistic perspective, has not been carried out for a long time.

However, signing was widespread and functionally used within deaf community so that as Kyle and Woll (1988: 44) state, “the outspoken advocacy of oralism produced opposition among deaf people”. Consequently, there was a growing claim for signing and signing, which is not a methodology in education but the means of communication for the deaf, has gained importance and received more attention.

Eventually, in terms of linguistics, sign language studies began to be handled and with the support of developing technology in data collection, gained progressed.

As Asher and Simpson (1994: 3919) proclaim,

Sign Language research almost began in 1880, with the first report to the Smithsonian Institution from the Bureau of Ethnology (Mallery 1881); but in that year, educators of the deaf in a world congress at Milan, declared that “sign language has no legitimate place in the education or the lives of deaf people (Elliott 1882).

However, during the mid 50s, sign language research reappeared with the focus on the question whether sign languages are real languages according to the structuralists’ definitions of language. With this perspective, American Sign Language was examined and it was found out that at the word, phrase and sentence levels, ASL has had a structure similar to other languages. After all, sign languages began to be appreciated as true languages. On the other hand, as an outgrowth of the mentioned focus, there arose a necessity in sign language research to represent in what ways the sign language in question resembles the structure of the corresponding spoken language of the society and spoken languages in general. According to Asher and Simpson (1994: 3920), this had much to do with the rise of a new linguistic theory: that “the abstract rules of language generally are in the human brain from birth and that social interaction has only the slightest interest for the study of language so conceived.”

Apart from that, another tendency in sign language research reported by Asher and Simpson (1994: 3920) was the necessity of formalizing notations to enable the work on ‘how signs are constituted and organized’. This was due to ‘standardization’, and before the growing interest in variation studies in linguistics. Consequently, dictionary studies gained importance.

Besides, they continue as follows;

A major priority for sign language research is what new information about language it can disclose. Already it has made clear that hearing and speech are separate systems, neither essential to language itself. It has thus disclosed that language is a deeper, more cerebral system than hearing and speech. To a limited degree, this information has been applied to show educators that intensive training in audiology and speech therapy may be less useful for the children’s teachers than knowledge and communication and cognition” (1994: 3920).

Today, there is evidence to claim that sign language studies are being carried out in almost all areas of linguistics such as phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, lexicography, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, neurolinguistics, etc, especially in America and Europe.

A promising area for future research will join sign language research with research in cognitive psychology, especially that focused on the perception of gestures, whether of vocal or other systems, memory, cognitive maps, and the interaction of information. To this end, researchers have begun comparing myographic recordings made of speakers' and signers' relevant musculature (Wilcox 1992, cited in Asher and Simpson 1994: 3920).

2.2.2.1. Studies on Phonological Features of Sign Languages

At first sight, it does not seem to be suitable to use the terms phonology, phonetics and other “sound associating” ones to refer to a language which is based on non-vocal elements. However, what is meant, as Deuchar (1984: 47) explains, is “the system of visual components making up signs”.

Despite the normal association of the word “phonology” with sound, we saw how BSL could be said to have a phonology in that one can postulate units below the level of the sign. These units can be compared to phonemes of spoken language in that they can be shown to function contrastively, distinguishing one sign from another (Deuchar 1984: 196, 197).

Therefore, it is possible to claim that the elements that make up sign languages can be compared to the auditory elements of spoken languages. The ‘phonemes’ of spoken languages are parallel to those of sign languages that are called ‘cheremes’ in that they have a similar contrastive function. For sign languages, “phonology” refers to “the study of how signs are structured and organized” (Valli and Lucas 1992: 50), and as Deuchar (1984: 48) puts forward the elements of signs can be isolated and combined with one another in various ways to form words. In fact, there is a difference between spoken and signed modes of linguistic communication. In spoken languages sounds are produced from the mouth and appear as sequential units, for example, to form the word “cat” the phonemes /c/, /a/ and /t/ come together within a sequential order. On the other hand, the phonemic units of sign languages combine simultaneously since the linguistic

activity is not restricted to one part of the body. For example, if one moves his hand from left to right with a certain hand shape to indicate a word, it is difficult to talk about the hand shape following the movement or vice versa. Consequently, signs can not exhibit sequential contrast, whereas in spoken languages the order of phonemes can (see, Asher and Simpson 1994: 3916). If we consider the words “nib” (pen point) and “bin”, (storing box), it is obvious that the replacement of /b/ and /n/ phonemes distinguishes meaning.

According to Deuchar (1984: 47), for the phonological analysis of spoken languages three things are required: the inventory of the possible sound elements, specification of the rules or constraints governing their combinations, and the study of processes that can be undergone by those elements.

During the performance of sign languages, we recognize distinct types of activity as well as different parts of the body which will be perceived simultaneously.

...it seems that the inventory of elements for BSL must include elements which act... as well as elements of activity... Elements which act might include the following: head, eyes, eyebrows, mouth, and hands in various shapes... Elements of activity might then include, for example, nodding or shaking (for the head), widening or narrowing (for the eyes), and movement away from and towards the signer (for the hands) (Deuchar 1984: 48, 49).

As for the constraints, one on hand activity can be observed (in ASL and BSL) which is known as ‘symmetry condition’ that is, as Deuchar (1984: 49) puts forward, “if both hands move in a two-handed sign, they must both have the same hand shape and the same movement”.

Finally, to exemplify phonological processes that the elements of signs can undergo, Deuchar (1984: 49) states that “a hand shape can be modified according to the preceding or following signs, and one hand may be deleted in two handed signs”.

The first significant attempts in the fields, phonetics and phonology were proceeded during 60s and became a major concern in linguistic research since then. As Isenhardt (1990: 5) reports;

The first real insight into the phonemic framework of an ASL sign occurred in 1960, when William Stokoe published a monograph that analyzed the structure of a sign in linguistic terms... Later, Stokoe and his colleagues published the first ASL dictionary constructed in accordance with linguistic structure (1965).

By Stokoe's work (see, Isenhath 1990: 6; Valli and Lucas 1992: 123), a new terminology for sign languages was introduced and he posited terms such as "chereme" (deriving from Greek, meaning "hand") to indicate sign parameters, and "cherology" for the study of sign language phonology.

In his work, Stokoe puts forward that signs are composed of three parts, which combine simultaneously: 'the tab', *'tabula'* (location of the sign), 'the dez', *'designator'* (handshape), and 'the sig', *'signation'* (the movement)" which altogether are referred to as "cheremes".

The fact that all spoken languages combine meaningless elements to form meaningful symbols is regarded as one of the defining features of human language... Stokoe regarded cheremes as meaningless elements which combined to form all the signs in the language, in a manner analogous to that of spoken language phonemes (Valli and Lucas 1992: 117).

Besides, Woodward and Klima and Bellugi (in Isenhath 1990: 6) suggest that signs are organized in terms of four basic parameters, namely, hand configuration, palm direction, hand position or place of articulation, and hand movement.

On the other hand, Valli and Lucas (1992: 50) claim that signs consist of five basic parts, or parameters: hand-shape, movement, location, orientation, and non-manual signals (facial expression), and that different signs can share one or more of the same parameters. They exemplify this as in the following:

the sign FEEL has the same hand-shape as the sign SICK, the same movement as the sign HAPPY, and the same location as the sign POLICE. SUMMER and DRY differ in location, RED and CUTE in hand-shape, SHORT and TRAIN in palm orientation, and SIT and CHAIR in movement. It is the difference in one parameter that is responsible for the difference in meaning (Valli and Lucas, 1992: 50).

Stokoe, with his work, put forward that (ASL) signs are compositional and analyzable with a level similar to the phonological level, and that, they are unlike gestures. By this way sign language studies gained progress.

Apart from these, Asher and Simpson (1994: 3892) report that “more recent research has sought to apply approaches to phonological theory in spoken languages, such as autosegmental phonology, to sign structure.”

2.2.2.2. Studies on Morphological and Syntactic Features of Sign Languages

Since sign languages have not been traditionally regarded as proper languages but rather as simple collections of gestures, it has often been thought that sign languages have no grammars. However, as Kyle and Woll (1988: 27) claim, sign languages have grammars that are quite different from those of the corresponding spoken languages although they have many features in common.

According to Asher and Simpson (1994: 3897):

The function of grammar in a spoken language may be regarded as organizing non-linear meanings into a linear order, and the function of grammar in a sign language as organizing non-linear meanings into both spatial and linear order.

As Kyle and Woll (1988: 131) suggest, for sign languages, the term “morphology” refers to “the constructions and changes which affect single signs” and the term “syntax” refers to “the way signs are combined in sentence structure”.

O’Grady, Guzman, and Aronoff (1997: 117) indicate that, “the system of categories and rules involved in word formation and interpretation makes up a language’s morphology”. With a similar description, Valli and Lucas (1992: 162) define morphology as “ the study of the smallest meaningful units in language and of how those meaningful units are used to build new words or signs.”

As mentioned before, in sign language studies the first attempts were focused on providing evidence to prove that sign languages reveal language-like properties, with a structuralist attitude. Indeed, the studies put forward that many sign languages are quite similar to spoken languages in terms of structure, content and processes. It has been

established that signs involve an internal composition of morphemes and that there are internal variations in the form of a single sign stem, therefore several grammatical functions, as in the case of morphologically complex spoken languages, are in question for many sign languages. For example, it has been suggested that many sign languages exhibit complex inflections for person and number agreement. As Asher and Simpson (1994: 3918) report:

The ASL sign usually translated as *ask* or *ask a question* is depicted in Klima and Bellugi (1979: 278) as having a differing direction of motion and initial and final location of the moving hand to signal the meanings of 'I asked you', 'I asked him' and 'You asked me'.

Similarly, it has been observed that sign languages mark distributional and temporal aspects too, through inflections accomplished by cyclic patterns of repeated motions in signing.

Klima and Bellugi (1979: 293) depict various forms of the ASL sign translated as look at inflected as protractive, durational, incessant, continuative, etc. In each case, a distinct physiological path and manner of repeated movement, or lack of movement, which differs from the punctual form, consistently signals a particular meaning related to temporal aspect (Asher and Simpson 1994:3918).

Apart from these, previous research has put forward that in sign languages some other morphological processes proceed too, for the creation of new signs to expand the lexicon, such as "derivation" (to form different items from the same lexical base) and "compounding" (restructuring of two or more signs to form one) (see, Asher and Simpson 1994: 3918; Isenhardt 1990: 62).

As reported in Asher and Simpson (1994: 3918), Supalla and Newport (1978) studied on related noun-verb pairs in ASL. As an example, they considered the verb translated as "fly" or "go by plane". The sign, as they describe, is produced with a "fluid continuous manner and a single movement". When the related noun, translated as "airplane" is considered it is found out that "it exhibits a tense, restrained manner and a repeated movement with the hand shape and general location remaining constant."

As for compounding, Isenhath (1990: 65) suggests that “ a compound sign acquires its own defined meaning and its own specific parameters, which are distinguishable from the root signs that are joined to create it”. Therefore, compounds are to be treated as single semantic entities that took place as separate lexical signs in dictionaries, e.g., “THINK // SAME ” is the sign for the compound “AGREE ”.

Apart from all these, we have sentences as the basic means of communication. Isenhath (1990: 102) defines *sentence* as “a relationship among components in which the meanings of individual units interact with one another in such a way as to convey a whole thought” and *syntax* as “the relationship of signs within a sentential framework and the linguistic strategies that these relationships express” Furthermore, he emphasizes that “a sentence represents something more than just the sum total of the meanings of its lexical units (words or signs).”

Studies carried out so far have put forward that it is possible to talk about different sentence types for sign languages, such as declaratives, questions, negations, commands, etc. and the type of sentences are determined by non-manual signals rather than the signs or the order of the signs (Valli and Lucas 1992: 282; Kyle and Woll 1988: 158).

As for the sign order in ASL and BSL, it has been claimed that subjects, verbs and objects can be arranged in several possible ways in these languages, however, being influenced by the spoken English, SVO structure is more frequently used (Isenhath 1990: 103; Kyle and Woll 1988: 156).

Besides, Isenhath (1988: 102) claims:

Sign order in ASL is constrained by two major principles: first, by how the signs are arranged within the sentence; and second, by the delivery of that sentence. Sign order provides a means to determine who the subject is and what the action is. It offers a way to know *who* is doing *what* and *to whom*.

So far, ASL and BSL have been the two most studied sign languages in terms of morphology and syntax as well as of other levels in linguistics. It has been proved that

BSL has a very complex morphological structure, and is “heavily inflected” (Kyle and Woll 1988: 131) and “ASL has morphological processes that allow a signer to combine individual units of meaning (morphemes) to form new signs. Thus, ASL is a fully expressive language containing its own strategies for modifying its internal signs” (Isenhath 1990: 62). It has also been noted that ASL has a very rich vocabulary that grows rapidly.

2.2.2.3. Studies on Semantic Features of Sign Languages

The simplest definition of semantics is known to be ‘the study of meaning’. Furthermore, as Valli and Lucas (1992:3) explain, semantics describes “how words and sentences are related to the (real or imaginary) objects they refer to and the situations they describe”. In that respect, the semantic component appears to lie embedded within other components of grammar; that is, all parts of grammar (phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics) are actually integrated.

The smaller units of languages are put together to form larger units which represent certain meanings. Similarly, as Deuchar (1984: 81) suggests, “individual signs are put together to form meaningful utterances”. Valli and Lucas (1992:117) also state that “the fact that all spoken languages combine meaningless elements to form meaningful symbols is regarded as one of the defining features of human language”.

Moreover, Lyons (1981: 105) mentions “a close and essential connection between at least some part of the grammaticality of sentences and the meaningfulness of actual or potential utterances”. He (1981: 156) continues as follows: “The meaning of a sentence is the product of both lexical and grammatical meaning: i.e. of the meaning of the consistent lexemes and of the grammatical constructions that relate one lexeme, syntagmatically, to another”.

In sign languages, non-manual signals have a significant role in determining the meaning of sentences as well as in determining the structural function, therefore, non-manuals in sign languages have been of great significance for semantic and pragmatic concerns.

As Valli and Lucas (1992: 282) report, “non-manual signals, and not the signs, often determine the sentence type in ASL”. Yes-no questions, wh questions, relative clauses, negative sentences, etc. are all accomplished by the use of non-manual activity (see, Crystal 1987: 223; Asher and Simpson 1994: 3906, 3907, 3925).

According to Asher and Simpson (1994: 3925), non-manual activity, especially eye-gaze mime and facial expressions “not only exert the usual psychological functions -seeking or avoiding contact, questioning, doubting or negating what is being communicated, as well as expressing joy, fear, sadness, anger- but can also be part of the language in a conventionalized, arbitrarily rule-governed way”.

Isenhath (1990: 220) reports that;

Alteration of facial expression can create different semantic shadings of a given sign or key phrase. Depending on the semantic effect the signer wishes to convey, they might accompany sign delivery with such nonmanual behaviour as sucking in the breath through tightened lips, clenching the teeth tightly, puffing out the cheeks, or opening the eyes and mouth widely while maintaining direct eye contact with the reader (Hoemann, 1978).

Furthermore, he (1990: 220) mentions that altering the size and the manner of a delivery in ASL may function as altering the tone of voice in English, to assign different meanings to statements. His example is that when the command ‘WAIT HERE’ signed ordinarily, it means ‘just wait here a minute’. However, when the movement of hands producing ‘WAIT ’ is extended further with a higher position, the same sentence means ‘wait right here!’

Investigations on other functions of non-manual activity have put forward that the functions of non-manuals include; lexical identification, adding adverbial information, showing syntactic domain, marking informational focus, etc. (See, Wilbur and Patschke in *Sign Languages and Linguistics*, 1999: 3). (For the details of specific investigations, see, Asher and Simpson 1994: 3907 and *Sign Languages and Linguistics* Vol.2 nb.1, 1999).

2.2.2.4. Studies on Sign Language Lexicography

Lexicography, as Crystal (1992: 227) defines, is “the art and science of dictionary making and a dictionary is “a reference book which lists the words of one or more languages, usually in alphabetical order, along with information about their spelling, pronunciation, grammatical status, meaning, history, and use.” In addition, we call the vocabulary of a language “lexicon” which, as Kyle and Woll (1988:106) suggest, “ may be thought of as consisting of all the words or signs and their variants which occur in that language.”

Lexicography studies have been very important and deserve a specific attention within sign language research since it can be said that, beginning sign language research requires an inventory of the lexicon as an initial step.

Why is a dictionary so important? Valli and Lucas (1992: 65) mention that several different kinds of information is available in dictionaries and explain the point as follows:

For each lexical entry (separate word or sign), it gives: a coded physical description, telling us how to physically reproduce (pronounce) the word or sign; the meaning of that word or sign, including special nuances; the grammatical functions and properties of that word or sign, telling us how we might use it in a sentence and what variations we might expect depending upon its grammatical form; something of the history of that word or sign, especially a history that relates to other words or items in the language.

It stands for these reasons that the dictionary Stokoe prepared (1965) was a great success. His dictionary included all the above mentioned information. He described more than 2000 different signs in ASL.

On the other hand, as Asher and Simpson report (1994: 3924), in Europe there were no such dictionaries available due to the fact that Europe had many spoken languages instead of one, a fact that affects historical sign inventories. Besides, the existing ones, if any, were to be suppressed in the past.

It has been reported that Paul Jouison from Bordeaux School for the Deaf developed a notation system referring to all aspects of deaf-to-deaf communication. Besides, in Hamburg University Centre and in the Dutch Foundation for the Deaf and Hard of

Hearing Child in collaboration with the General Linguistics Institute of the University of Amsterdam, significant lexicology studies with reference to different contexts -the use of sign in schools, home training programs, performance in various situations, etc.- are being carried out since the late twentieth century (see, Asher and Simpson 1994: 3924).

2.2.2.5. Studies on Sociolinguistic Features of Sign Languages

As human beings, we use language for many reasons, in very different contexts. Besides its communicative function, language has a social function. By using language, we express our social and cultural identity, our group relationships, personality, etc.

Sociolinguistics, with a very simple definition, is known as “the study of language in relation to society” (Hudson 1980 in Lyons 1981: 267). Valli and Lucas (1992: 3, 286), with a similar view, describe sociolinguistics as “the study of the interrelation of language and social structure” and include following study topics into the domain of sociolinguistics: linguistic variation, language contact, language planning and policy, language attitudes, and the relationship between social interaction and language.

‘Variation’ has been one of the most significant and most studied subjects within sociolinguistics. However, as Valli and Lucas (1992: 287) claim, the early studies concerning linguistic variation were often restricted to regional (geographical) variation. In fact, it is possible to talk about other kinds of variation too, such as ethnic variation, social variation, gender variation, age variation, etc.

Studies carried out so far have put forward that sign languages, at least ASL and BSL, exhibit the same kind of variations, at the same kind of levels of the language depending on the same kind of social factors (Deuchar 1984: 130; Valli and Lucas 1992: 287). As Kyle and Woll (1988: 9-10) suggest, “the community of deaf people is unusual in many respects, since it does not form a geographical nucleus. Deaf people do not live in the same street or area of town. They do not all work in the same places.”

Regional variation is quite common in ASL because of the facts that in the past, deaf students attended schools in their region and contact with other deaf people from other regions were restricted and that ASL was not taught formally at schools. Indeed, this is a matter of “standardization” as well as of linguistic variation. For Italian Sign Language (LIS), it has been reported that it exhibits much more regional variation than ASL for the same kind of reasons.

Moreover, ASL is reported (Valli and Lucas 1992: 288-289) to show variation in terms of ethnicity, gender and age, too. The work of A. Aramburo (in Valli and Lucas 1992: 288) puts forward that there are systematic differences between the way black and white signers’ signing SCHOOL, BOSS and FLIRT due to isolation of black and white signers in social life and in education. Similar results are expected to be achieved for the study of Davis and Supalla (1991) (in Valli and Lucas 1992: 288) on the sign language used by Navajo Indians of Arizona.

A related issue with variation, especially with age variation, is the “historical change”. Valli and Lucas (1992: 288) explain historical change as follows:

Variation means a different way of saying the same thing. Often, the same person will have different ways of saying the same thing and will make a choice depending on the situation. And often the different forms will stay in the language indefinitely. But many times, a change in an existing form will be introduced or a whole new form will appear. The old form and the new form may coexist for a while, and then the old form may disappear.

Many studies on the historical change in sign languages have been carried out by researchers. Frishberg, Woodward, Erting and De Santis (in Valli and Lucas 1992: 288) examined historical changes in ASL; it has been found out that many of the ASL signs resemble the signs in French Sign Language. Evidence support that ASL has undergone historical change under the influence of French Sign Language.

Historical change has been known to occur mostly in the lexicon (vocabulary) and in the phonology. Some changes also happen in the grammar.

Deuchar (1984: 131) reports that “hand deletion in two handed signs” is a kind of phonological variation process in BSL and emphasizes that “the likelihood of hand deletion is affected not only by phonological factors... but also by the social factor of formality, since hand deletion is more common in informal settings.”

Apart from these, bilingualism and contact between languages are the two other important areas of sociolinguistics, which recently have become significant issues in sign language research (see, Valli and Lucas 1992: 346).

2.2.2.6. Studies on Psycholinguistic and Neurolinguistic Features of Sign Languages

Sign language has been an interesting field for psychologists and neurologists too. The main focus in neurological studies has been the fundamental difference between sign languages and spoken languages:

All spoken languages have a left hemisphere localization and damage to areas of this side of the brain create major difficulties in language use; sign language, on the other hand, appeared to have all the hallmarks of right hemisphere functioning - it was visual, spatial, and appeared to require the manipulation of hands and body in space (Asher and Simpson 1994: 3907).

Consequently, what was questioned most has been: ‘Do sign languages have localization in the right hemisphere, as opposed to spoken languages?’ It has been reported (Asher and Simpson 1994: 3907) that early research, based on static sign pictures, seemed to confirm this divergence in function and localization. However, when moving sign stimuli were used, it has been observed that deaf people’s identification of signs presented to the left hemisphere was better as it is the case with words.

Further investigation subjected deaf patients with various forms of brain damages in right and left hemispheres. Those with left hemisphere damages were proved to exhibit sign language aphasia affecting sign production, sign syntax, length of utterance and parameters of sign formation. On the other hand, those with right hemisphere damages

showed little effect on these factors and proved not to be sign aphasic cases. However, they exhibit clear difficulties in spatial processing (see, Asher and Simpson 1994: 3907).

Besides, other investigations which concern facial expressions for affect and for linguistic functions put forward that “the linguistic functions of visual stimulation are localized in the left hemisphere and affect perception is localized in the right” (see, Asher and Simpson 1994: 3910).

As a conclusion of all these investigations, Asher and Simpson (1994: 3910) report that “speech processing is not necessary for the development of hemisphere specialization and sign language follows a similar pattern to that of spoken language”.

Today, ‘deaf people and their sign languages’ have been a developing scientific area and many comprehensive and detailed studies are being carried out in the fields phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, lexicography, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, etc. One of the important international conferences on sign languages is “Theoretical Issues in Sign Language Research (TISLR)” the last of which was held in 2006 as an organization of “Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina”, in Brazil. The conference includes lectures from international speakers, panel discussions, plenary presentations and poster sessions concerning the above mentioned fields. (For further information and the topics of the papers and posters, see <http://www.tislr9.ufsc.br/>).

2.3. Non-manual Activity in Sign Languages

In addition to all the misconceptions that are mentioned previously in section ‘2.1.1. The Nature of Sign Languages’, the hearing majority has often thought that in sign languages, the message is conveyed only through the movement of the hands. Similarly, since the beginning of Sign Language Research in the late 60s, researchers have attempted at the definition and description of sign languages in general, as well as that of particular sign languages. What is often foregrounded in that respect has been the articulation by the hands; the role of non-manual activity being disregarded for the most

part, or considered merely as affective. Consequently, in describing and defining such visual-gestural systems, the term ‘manual’ has sometimes been used to refer to sign languages, a term which explicitly ignores the contribution of other parts of the body. The discovery that sign languages are composed of both manual and non-manual grammatical signals, that is, the manual signs in such languages are accompanied by certain facial expressions and bodily movements has been a sort of revolution in sign language research. Over the years, studies on various sign languages have demonstrated, for example, that (Aarons 1994: 41 in <http://www.bu.edu/asllrp/aarons94.pdf>) “a string of manual signs can mean different things depending on the non-manual marking that accompanies it” or “sometimes a string of signs is regarded by native signers as ungrammatical, but would be considered grammatical with the addition of a certain non-manual marking”.

The term non-manual activity is generally used to refer to the use of the face –and parts of the face, such as eyes, eyebrows and mouth–, head and upper torso for conveying some information. Baker-Shenk (1983) as cited in Aarons (1994: 63 in <http://www.bu.edu/asllrp/aarons94.pdf>), makes a distinction between two functions of facial expressions in sign languages: (i) expression of universal human emotions like fear, laughter, surprise, and anger –being similar to their function in spoken languages–; (ii) expression of linguistic phenomena. According to this two-fold distinction, (i) appears to be ‘optional’ (for stylistic purposes) whereas (ii) is obligatory (for the purpose of grammatical marking).

The studies and considerations on non-manual activity in sign languages (Kyle and Woll 1998; Valli and Lucas 1992; Asher and Simpson 1994; Deuchar 1984; Isenhath 1990; Liddell 2003; Zeshan 2004; Aarons 1994; Aboh, Pfau and Zeshan, 2005; Fischer and van der Hulst 2003) have shown that the parts of the body which are responsible for grammatical marking are mainly;

- Face and its parts:
 - Eyes: Eye gaze, eyebrows, eyelids
 - Lips and mouthing: mouth gestures and mouth pictures

- Head
- Shoulders
- Body movements

Besides, in the light of the above mentioned studies, it is noticed that the consideration of non-manual activity in sign languages has been primarily descriptive and typological, and that the grammatical function of non-manuals has been mainly discussed in terms of sentence types (i.e., yes-no questions, wh-questions, negation, imperatives, etc.) and of some other grammatical issues such as topicalization, marking of relative clauses, time, aspect, etc.

However, Aarons (1994: 63 in <http://www.bu.edu/asllrp/aarons94.pdf>) also mentions some research on neural processing which have justified the two-fold distinction between the stylistic and grammatical functions of non-manual activity, in terms of hemisphere specialization:

Important neurolinguistic evidence shows that for signers, there are differences in the processing of linguistic and non-linguistic facial expressions. It is already widely accepted from neurolinguistic research on spoken languages that there is (usually left) hemisphere specialization for language in the brain. Further findings from studies of signed languages reveal that language, specifically syntax, is a left-hemisphere function, irrespective of language modality (Poizner, Klima and Bellugi, 1987). Corina (1989) found that while general facial expressions are processed by the right hemisphere of the brain, linguistic facial expressions are processed by the left hemisphere. Furthermore, other neurolinguistic research on production (Bellugi, Corina, Norman, Klima, and Reilly, 1989) confirms that linguistic facial expression is a left hemisphere function, while affective facial expression is not.

Moreover, as for the linguistic (grammatical) function of non-manual activity in sign languages, again, a two-fold distinction seems to be operating: (i) non-manual activity on the level of individual signs (lexical items); (ii) non-manual activity on the level of syntax. To clarify this two-fold linguistic (grammatical) function of non-manuals Deuchar (1984: 74) explains that “at the level of individual sign, it seems that we may find signs that either entirely non-manual, or signs which have an important non-manual component (entirely non-manual signs are attested for ASL, Providence Island Sign Language and Swedish Sign Language: see Baker 1980, p.44.)”. She exemplifies this with a citation from Brennan et. al. (1980: 2) as “the signs ENOUGH and FED-UP are

distinguished only by facial expression: FED-UP is shown with the mouth turned down at the corners” emphasizing the role of non-manual activity in distinguishing ‘minimal pairs’. Similarly, according to Liddell (2003: 12) some signs require not only certain locations, hand shapes, and movements but also correct configuration of the face and/or some other parts of the body; he states that “to properly produce RELIEVED not only must the hand move..., but the lips must be rounded and pursed throughout the sign. In addition, the signer blows out a puff of air as the hands moves downward”.

On the other hand, the assignment of a particular non-manual activity in, for example, the marking of negation, question and/or tense expression indicates its use on the level of syntax, rather than on the level of individual sign. Fischer and van der Hulst (2003: 326) explain this as follows:

It has been suggested that in sign languages the face and the attitudes of the body serve the same function as intonation does in spoken languages. Signing without facial expression is certainly boring for deaf people, just as someone speaking in a monotone can put a listener to sleep. But NMBs (non-manual behaviors) such as facial expression and body shift are more than just intonation; in some ways they are closer to grammatical (or sometimes lexical tone) in spoken language, in that they contribute to differences in meaning.

Furthermore, they (2003: 326,321) exemplify the issue stating that “in some African languages (Goldsmith 1979), a tone melody of high-low versus low-high can differentiate between present and past tense” being similar to the situation in NS (Sign Language of the Netherlands) that “a mouth-picture like ‘po’ can make a difference between present and past tense”.

2.4. The Deaf Community in Turkey and Studies on TİD

In all over the world, deaf people comprise minority groups within corresponding larger communities that control social life and thus, encounter with many difficulties. In Turkey, where a lesser degree of importance is attached to the impaired population, and where there is not enough awareness and sensitivity concerning the deaf community, the situations are even harder for the deaf. They lack many opportunities of social life. For example, they do not usually have direct access to the media and other means of audio-oral communication. They have limited chances for telecommunication in that they can

not use telephones, listen to the radio or follow TV programs except for the ‘news for hearing impaired’ on TRT 2, unless they are really good at lip-reading. They are usually unable to benefit from socio-cultural activities such as visiting movies, theatres, etc. and for the most important of all, they do not have the chance to get a complete education. There are limited number of schools in Turkey that provide education for the deaf, almost all of which are in big cities and are all at primary school level. Besides, it is difficult to claim that education in these schools has been adequately developed according to the needs of the deaf. Most of the educators working in these schools are not enough qualified since the education of disabled children, including the deaf, requires special training which those educators usually lack.

As reported by the Ministry of Education (M.E.B. Özel Eğitim ve Rehberlik Dairesi Başkanlığı 1991:10), in Turkey, hearing-impaired children are educated in three different ways:

1. At special Schools for Deaf (33, in number)
2. In special classes at ordinary schools (68, in number)
3. By ‘integration’, (with normal children, at ordinary schools)

In all of these schools, oral education is favoured for the integration of deaf students into the larger community. For that reason, the students are practising lip-reading and are given voice training within Turkish lessons (M.E.B. Özel Eğitim ve Rehberlik Dairesi Başkanlığı 1991: 35, 37). Unfortunately, these practices seem to remain inadequate for the students; they prefer using TSL among each other. As for the teachers, most of them are not competent in TSL since it is not possible for hearing people to learn it unless they make an effort to do so. The only possible way of learning this language seems to be acquiring it from deaf people by spending a considerable time among them. TSL has remained undescribed and not been ‘planned’ as a language, being regarded as ‘inferior’ over speech.

The most well-known school for deaf in Turkey is the one in Eskişehir which belongs to the University of Anadolu, where again speech is preferred for education. However, the

education there is being supported by academic researches too, as well as speech therapies and voice training that are more intensive and systematic.

Unfortunately, deaf students in Turkey are not capable of receiving special high school and further education unless there is significant progress in their oral and audial skills. Among the total population in Turkey, there are few students who can manage to attend universities. Consequently, employment is another problem for the deaf people.

All these absences bring about the opinion that hearing - and speech-impaired people are being isolated from the society. Actually they are not given the chance of socialization. Most of their social activities are restricted to those organized by their associations and social clubs.

As Kyle and Woll (1988: 5) claim:

Since one of the primary concerns of all education has been the acquisition of spoken communication as the most acceptable means of interaction, people who are unable to communicate through speech are regarded in some measure as inferior. Deaf people are such one group, set apart from the hearing community.

Sign Language is a very new field of investigation for linguists in all over the world. Even in the United States and in Britain, only after 70s has it begun to be progressed. When the situation in Turkey is considered, it is possible to claim that the deaf community has not received enough attention from linguists and their sign language has not yet been fully regarded as the subject matter of language and communication studies. Studies that have been carried out so far, concern mostly educational or medical issues. The linguistic description and explanation of TİD data appears to have been peripheral to the concerns language studies.

A previous preliminary study on TİD (Açan 2001), although it is quite far from being a complete grammatical analysis, has suggested that TİD, being similar to Turkish and other natural languages, is a rule-governed language consisting of systematic and conventional rules and that it seems to exhibit all of the so called “defining characteristics” of language such as creativity, duality, discreteness, displacement, arbitrariness, and cultural transmission that distinguish human languages from other

means of communication. Consequently, on the basis of these findings, it has been put forward that although TİD differs from spoken languages in many ways, and is limited in certain grammatical phenomena, it still appears to be adequate to fulfill its communicative role in most parts of life.

However, although providing the possibility of evaluating TİD as a ‘language’, this study on its own, is not sufficient to conclude that this system of signs is a full-fledged natural language due to such facts as it has not yet been scientifically determined whether TİD is somebody’s mother tongue or not, and that the signing community in Turkey is exhibiting a somewhat rambling profile, together with the fact that there is little done for the description of its grammatical aspects.

Descriptive work on TİD’s grammar is very exciting and of great significance both for a better understanding of it as a ‘language’ and for the reconsideration of even some fundamental issues in linguistics from a different and wider perspective.

CHAPTER III: LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

3.1. ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This section illustrates the analysis and transcription of the data gathered from four informants through the glossing technique. Pictures designated for the elicitation of declarative, interrogative, negative, and imperative sentences in TİD, were shown one by one to the informants individually and this process has been repeated in each phase. During the first three phases which involve elicitation of interrogative, negative, and declarative sentences same set of pictures were used. However, during phase four a different set of pictures were used which had been specifically designated for the elicitation of imperative sentences. In phase I, for the elicitation of interrogative sentences, each informant was asked to produce as many questions as possible, concerning the people, the situations, the places (context), and the events that took place in the pictures. In the second phase, each informant was asked approximately eight to ten previously-prepared questions for each picture, the answers of many of which had been supposed to be negative. Negative sentences were elicited as the informants gave answers to the questions. However, some of the questions received affirmative answers from signers. These answers were also transcribed and presented in this section. In phase III, each informant was asked to explain what he/she had seen in the pictures, making up stories relating to the ‘people’, the events taking place, and the context. Thus, the elicitation of declarative sentences in TİD was achieved. Finally, phase IV involved a similar procedure in which signers were shown the second set of seven pictures. In this phase, the informants produced imperative utterances by looking at the situations in the pictures, which were indicated through certain universal signs for warning. The declarative, interrogative, negative, and imperative TİD utterances gathered were later transformed into Turkish glosses and then transcribed with additional notes on non-manual components, diacritics and discursive features. Thus, an approximate representation of visual TİD utterances onto paper was made possible.

3.1.1. INFORMANT I

3.1.1.1. Phase I (Interrogative Sentences)

Picture 1

- wh-q
1. INDEX-1 det. sg. BİSİKLET ANNE VE BABA HEDİYE HANGİ(Sİ)
Bu bisikleti annesi mi babası mı, hangisi hediye etmiş?

wh-q.....

 2. INDEX-1 det. sg. EV TAPU KİM SAHİP/KENDİ
Bu evin tapusu kime ait?

y/n-q y/n-q

 3. BAHÇE HEPSİ BAK- BERABER İKİ _INDEX-3 p. pr. pl. BAK- Q-mark.
Bu bahçenin tümüne ikisi beraber mi bakıyorlar?

wh-q

 4. ÇOCUK ELBİSE/KIYAFET ANNE BABA NE GİYDİR- ELBİSE
Çocuğun kıyafetini annesi mi, babası mı kim/hangisi giydirmiş?

wh-q sing.-nod(one side) (ref. other side)

 5. ELBİSE İSİM AL- ANNE BABA
Kıyafeti kim aldı, annesi mi babası mı?

sing.-nody/n-q

6. BABA ANNE İKİ_INDEX-3 p. pr. pl. BAHÇE ÇALIŞ- BAŞKA ÇALIŞ- VAR
Anneyle baba, ikisi bahçede çalışıyorlar başka işleri (de) var mı?

wh-qsing.-nod
$$\underline{neg^3}$$

7. BAHÇE ÇALIŞ- NE DÜŞÜN- SEV- ÇALIŞ- YOKSA/DEĞİL

wh-qwh-qwh-q

YİYECEK ÇİÇEK NE BAHÇE NE SEV- HOŞLAN- ZEVK_(AL-) NE

Bahçeye ne ekmeyi düşünüyorlar, ne ekmekten hoşlanıyorlar, sebze mi çiçek mi?

voc. lex.(kim)

wh-q.....

8. INDEX-1 + INDEX(ref. other side) det. sg. EV İSİM SAHİP/KENDİ INDEX-3
p. pr. sg.
Öteki evin sahibi kim, onlar mı?

Picture 2

$$\frac{y}{n-q}$$

9. ÜÇ ÖĞRENCİ / EVLAT Q-mark.
Üçü (de) öğrenci mi?

$$\underline{y/n-q}$$

10. MÜZİK EĞİTİM VER-
Müzik eğitimi mi veriyor.

-
11. ÜÇ ÖĞRENCİ / EVLAT BAŞKA ÖĞRENCİ / EVLAT VAR
-

HEPSİ/INDEX-3 dem. pr. pl sg.(place)

Üç öğrenci var başka öğrenci var mı?

Picture 3

-
12. INDEX-3 p. pr. sg. DEDE Q-mark.

O dede(si) mi?

-
13. HEDİYE VER- ÇUKULATA S-end. YOKSA/DEĞİL OYUNCAK/OYUN

y/n-q y/n-q

/EĞLENCE S-end. İÇİNDE HEDİYE VER- VAR OYUNCAK

neg³ wh-q

YOKSA/DEĞİL ÇUKULATA İÇİNDE VER- NE

Verdiği hediye çukolata mı yoksa oyuncak mı? Verdiği hediyenin içinde ne var, oyuncak mı yoksa çukolata mı?

-
14. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. İÇİNDE HEDİYE YENİ YIL Q-mark.

Bunun içindeki yeni yıl hediyesi mi?

Picture 4

- neg²
-
15. BAVUL ALT_İÇ(İNE)_KOY- BİL- HABER DEĞİL KIYAFET
 voc.lex.(‘mu’) neg²
 ARA- KIYAFET ALT_İÇ(İNE)_KOY- BAVUL BİL DEĞİL
-
- ÇEKMECE BAK-(ref. inside) ARA- (short.) Q-mark.
 Kıyafetini altındaki bavulun içine koymuş da, haberi olmadığı için mi arıyor?
 Kıyafetinin altındaki bavulun içinde olduğunu bilmediği için çekmecedeki mi arıyor?
-
16. YÜKSEL- BAK(ref. downwards)- İSTE- OL- KISA/ALÇAK
-
- ÇEK- _GETİR(ref. an object)- ÜSTÜNDE(ref. surface) YÜKSEK BAK-
-
- YÜKSEK ÇEKMECE BAK-(ref. inside) ARA- (short.) Q-mark.
 Kısa olduğu için bir şeyi çekip üstüne çıkıp yükselerek mi çekmecenin içinde (bir şey) aramak istiyor?
-
- y/n-q
-
17. PANTOLON ARA- INDEX-3 p. pr. sg.
 O, pantolon mu arıyor?
-
18. ELBİSE DEĞİŞTİR- YAT- GİT- Q-mark.
 Elbisesini değiştirip yatmaya mı gidecek?

Picture 5

- wh-q _____ sing.-nod _____
19. NEDEN SAKLAN- ÖĞRETMEN KORK- SAKLAN-
Neden saklanıyor, öğretmenden korktuğu için mi saklanıyor?

- _____ neg³ _____ sing.-nod _____
20. ÖDEV YAP- DEĞİL KORK- SAKLAN-
Ödevini yapmadığı (için) mi korkup saklanıyor?

- _____ sing.-nod _____ y/n-q _____
21. SAAT BEŞ OKUL BİT- SAAT DÖRT DÖRT_BEŞ KAÇ- İSTE- KAÇ-
Saat 5'te okul bitiyor; saat 4.45, kaçmak mı istiyor?

- _____ y/n-q _____
22. ÇOK KİTAP ÖDEV Q-mark.
Çok kitap (var), (hepsi) ödev mi?

- _____
23. DERS AĞIR Q-mark.
Ders(ler) ağır mı?

Picture 6

-
24. INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place) BAK(ref. down behind something)- BİRŞEY
 y/n-q _____ y/n-q _____
 MERAK BAK- Q-mark.
 Orada merak ettiği bir şeye mi bakıyor?

-
25. INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place) OYUN VAR KISKAN- BAK-(ref. down behind
 _____ y/n-q _____
 something) Q-mark.
 Orada oyun var, kıskandığı için mi bakıyor/bakıp kıskanıyor mu?

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| _____ voc. lex.('mı') | _____ voc. lex.('mi') |
| _____ y/n-q | _____ y/n-q |
26. ELBİSE KIRMIZI YOKSA PEMBE Q-mark.
 Kıyafet(leri) kırmızı mı yoksa pembe mi?

-
27. _____ y/n-q _____
 AYAKKABI GRİ VEYA PEMBE KARIŞIK Q-mark.
 Ayakkabı(ları) gri veya pembeyle karışık mı?

_____ wh-q _____

28. ÇANTA NEDEN BIRAK-
Çantayı neden bırakmışlar?

Picture 7

_____ y/n-q.....

29. EV HEPSİ SAHİP/KENDİ Q-mark.
Evin sahibi onlar mı?/Ev hepsine mi ait?

_____ y/n-q _____

30. İKİ EVLAT INDEX-3 poss. pr. Q-mark.
İki çocuk onların mı?

_____ y/n-q _____

31. İKİ_INDEX-3 p. pr. pl. ÇOCUK KARDEŞ Q-mark.
Çocukların ikisi kardeş mi?

_____ y/n-q _____

32. DİĞER(ref. one side) KIZ DİĞER(ref. other side) KIZ VEYA
_____ y/n-q _____
ERKEK/BABA S-end.
(Çocukların biri kız,) diğeri kız mı erkek mi?

- _____ y/n-q _____
33. KADIN/KIZ ANNE GİYSİ MOR
Kadının, annenin elbisesi mor mu?

- _____ y/n-q _____
34. BABA PANTOLON_(GİY-) LACİVERT(ref. letter 'L') KOT LACİVERT
sing.-nod
S-end.
Babanın pantolonu, kotu lacivert mi?

- _____ y/n-q neg³ _____
35. BABA GÖZLÜK VAR YOK
Babanın gözlüğü var mı yok mu?

- _____ y/n-q _____
36. HAVA SICAK/YAZ KIŞ Q-mark.
Hava sıcak/yaz mı, kış mı?

Picture 8

- _____ wh-q _____ sing.-nod _____
37. BİLGİSAYAR LAPTOP(ref. kapak_aç) İÇİNDE NE ANLAT- Q-mark.
_____ y/n-q _____
ÖĞRET-(ref. bilgisayar) Q-mark.
Bilgisayarda ne anlatıyor, bilgisayar mı öğretiyor?

wh-q

38. INDEX-3 poss. pr. sg. BAŞLIK VAR BAŞLIK NE
Onun başlığı/başında birşey var, (o) başındaki/başlık ne?

wh-q

39. İKİ_INDEX-3 p. pr. pl. NE BULUŞ-
İkisi neden/ne için buluşmuş?

y/n-q neg³

y/n-q neg³

40. BARDAK İÇİNDE SU VAR YOKSA/DEĞİL ÇAY VAR YOKSA/DEĞİL
Bardakta/bardağın içinde su mu var, yoksa çay mı var?

y/n-q y/n-q

41. TELEFON CEP İKİ BİR
Cep telefonu iki (tane) mi, bir (tane) mi?

y/n-q neg²

42. INDEX-3 det. sg. ADAM BAŞLIK ADAM YÜZÜK(ref. parmak) VAR YOK
O başlıklı adamın yüzüğü var mı yok mu?

voc. lex.('mı')

43. ADAM INDEX-3 det. sg. (ref. other side) ADAM SAÇ SARI

y/n-q

BOYA S-end.

Öteki adamın saçları sarı mı, boya mı?

y/n-q.....

44. GAZETE ARAPÇA(ref. yazı) S-end.

Gazete Arapça mı?

Picture 9

y/n-q neg³

y/n-q

45. TAVUK BÜYÜK ANNE YE- YOKSA/DEĞİL ÜÇ_INDEX-3 p. pr. pl. YE-
Tavuk büyük; anne mi yiyecek yoksa üçü mü yiyecek?

y/n-q.....

46. ÜÇ_INDEX-3 p. pr. pl. TAVUK BAK- Q-mark.
Üçü tavuğa mı bakıyor?

-nod voc. lex.('mu')

47. YEMEK/YİYECEK ÖĞRET- ÇOCUK
Yemek mi öğretiyor(lar) çocuğa?

- _____ y/n-q sing.-nod
48. ÇOCUK ANNE Q-mark.
Çocuğun annesi mi ?

- _____ y/n-q voc. lex. ('mı')
49. ÇOCUK SAÇ KIVIRCIK DÜZ Q-mark.
Çocuğun saçları kıvrık mı düz mü?

50. ANNE INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place) GİYSİ YEMEK/YİYECEK KIYAFET
neg³ _____ voc. lex.(elbise) wh-q
YOKSA/DEĞİL GİYSİ HANGİ(Sİ)
Orada annenin kıyafeti mutfak önlüğü mü yoksa elbise mi, hangisi?

- | | | | |
|--|----------------|------------------|-----------|
| | head(one side) | head(other side) | sing.-nod |
| | y/n-q | | y/n-q |
51. INDEX-3 det. sg. YEMEK/YİYECEK ÇİLEK KİRAZ S-end.
O yiyecek çilek mi yoksa kiraz mı?

- _____ y/n-q
52. INDEX-3 det. sg. ÇOCUK JAPON
O çocuk Japon mu?

_____ y/n-q _____

53. TAVUK BÜYÜK HEPSİ ÇOCUK YE-
Tavuk büyük; hepsini çocuk mu yiyecek/ çocuk hepsini yer mi?

Picture 10

_____ y/n-q _____

54. BİSİKLET AL- İSTE- S-end.
Bisiklet mi almak istiyor?

_____ y/n-q _____

55. BİSİKLET UZUN BAK- Q-mark.
Bisiklete uzun süre mi bakıyor?

_____ y/n-q _____

56. BİSİKLET AL- Q-mark.
Bisikleti alacak mı?

_____ y/n-q y/n-q _____

57. BİSİKLET OTUR- BİR İKİ
Bisikletin oturma yeri bir (tane) mi iki (tane) mi?

- y/n-q y/n-q
58. BİSİKLET LASTİK İKİ DÖRT
Bisikletin lastiği iki (tane) mi dört (tane) mi?

- y/n-q - sing.-nod
59. BİSİKLET IŞIK VAR
Bisikletin ışığı/farı var mı?

- y/n-q
60. BİSİKLET RENK YEŞİL Q-mark.
Bisikletin rengi yeşil mi?

- sing.-nod y/n-q
61. BİSİKLET FREN VAR
Bisiklette/bisikletin fren(i) var mı?

3.1.1.2. Phase II (Negative Sentences and Some Affirmatives)

Picture 1

- nod.....
1. EVET VAR
Evet, var.

-neg²

2. HAYIR BAHÇE EŞ-
Hayır, (adam) bahçe eşiyor.

.....-neg²

3. INDEX-3 p. pr. sg. ARABA YIKA-/TEMİZLE- DEĞİL
O araba yıkamıyor.

vac. lex. (evet)

-nod.....

4. BİN-(ref. onto something/bicycle)-
Evet, (bisiklete) biniyor.

vac. lex. (evet)

-nod.....

5. BAHÇE TOPRAK VAR
Evet, bahçede toprak var.

-neg¹ -neg²

6. HAYIR BAHÇE KÖPEK YOK
Hayır, bahçede köpek yok.

- neg¹ -neg².....
7. HAYIR BİN-(ref. onto something/horse)- DEĞİL
Hayır, ata binmiyor.

- neg¹ -neg²
8. HAYIR TOP OYNA- DEĞİL
Hayır top oynamıyor.

- neg¹ -neg²
9. HAYIR TATİL GİT- DEĞİL
Hayır, tatile gitmiyor.

Picture 2

- nod
10. OKUL EVLAT/ÖĞRENCİ
Evet, (onlar) öğrenci.

- nod sing.-nod
11. GÖZLÜK MÜZİK ÖĞRETMEN
Evet, gözlüklü (olan) müzik öğretmeni.

- nod.....
12. ŞARKI/MÜZİK SÖYLE-
Evet, şarkı söylüyor.

-neg¹ -neg²

13. HAYIR YAP- DEĞİL

Hayır, yapmıyor.

-nod.....

14. VAR KEMAN YAP-

Evet, keman çalan var.

-neg¹ -neg²

15. HAYIR MATEMATİK EĞİTİM DEĞİL

Hayır, matematik dersi (yapmıyorlar).

-neg¹ -neg²

16. HAYIR ÖĞRETMEN GİTAR YAP- DEĞİL

Hayır, öğretmen gitar çalmıyor.

voc. lex. (evet)

-nod.....

17. SINIF İÇİNDE

Evet, sınıfta(lar).

voc. lex. (evet)

-nod.....

18. YAZI YAP-

Evet, yazı yazıyor.

Picture 3

- neg¹ -neg²
19. HAYIR AĞABEY/ADAM/ERKEK DEĞİL
Hayır ağabeyi değil.

- voc. lex. (evet)
-nod.....
20. VAR ÇAM AĞAÇ VAR
Evet var, çam ağacı var.

- voc. lex. (evet)
-nod
21. YENİ YIL HEDİYE
Evet, yeni yıl hediyesi.

- neg¹ -neg²
22. HAYIR DOĞUM GÜN DEĞİL
Hayır, doğum günü değil.

- neg¹ -neg²
23. HAYIR AĞLA- DEĞİL
Hayır, ağlamıyor.

-neg¹ -neg²

24. HAYIR KIRMIZI CEKET_(GİY-) DEĞİL
Hayır, kırmızı ceket giymemiş.

-neg¹ -neg²

25. HAYIR YIL ÜÇ pl.(OTUZ) DEĞİL
Hayır, otuz yaşında /yaşı otuz değil.

Picture 4

-neg¹ -neg²

26. HAYIR ADAM/ERKEK DEĞİL
Hayır, erkek değil.

-neg¹ -neg²

27. HAYIR ÇOCUK PANTOLON_(GİY-) DEĞİL
Hayır çocuk pantolon giymiyor.

voc. lex. (evet)

-nod.....

28. ARA- BİRŞEY ARA-
Evet, birşey arıyor.

-neg¹ -neg²

29. HAYIR AĞLA- DEĞİL
Hayır, ağlamıyor.

-neg¹ -neg²

30. HAYIR EV KAÇ- DEĞİL
Hayır, evden kaçmıyor.

voc. lex.(evet)

-nod

31. EVET ELBİSE TOPLA-
Evet, elbiselerini topluyor.

Picture 5

-neg¹ -neg²

32. HAYIR BAĞIR- DEĞİL
Hayır, bağırıyor.

-neg¹ -neg²

33. HAYIR İŞ YER DEĞİL
Hayır, iş yeri değil.

voc. lex.(evet)

-nod.....

34. GİZLİ SAKLAN-
Evet, saklanıyor.

-neg¹

35. HAYIR SANDALYE(ref. signer's seat) SAKLAN-(ref. under something)

-neg²

DEĞİL

Hayır, sandalyenin (altında) saklanmıyor.

-neg³

-neg²

36. HAYIR YEŞİL DEĞİL

Hayır, yeşil değil.

-neg¹

-neg²

37. HAYIR DÜŞ-/BAYIL- DEĞİL

Hayır, düşmemiş (bayılmamış).

-neg³

-neg²

38. HAYIR KİTAP OKU- DEĞİL

Hayır, kitap okumuyor.

Picture 6

.....-neg²

39. ERKEK ÇOCUK YOK

Erkek çocuk yok.

voc. lex.(evet)
-nod.....

40. OKUL EVLAT/ÖĞRENCİ
 Evet, (kızlar) öğrenci

- neg³ -neg²
 41. HAYIR OKUL ELBİSE_(GİY-) DEĞİL
 Hayır, okul forması giymemişler.

- neg²..... -neg²
 42. HAYIR İP ATLA- DEĞİL
 Hayır, ip atlamıyor.

- neg² -neg²
 43. HAYIR TOP OYNA- DEĞİL
 Hayır, top oynamıyor(lar).

- neg³..... -neg²
 44. KIZ BİRBİRİNE_BAK- DEĞİL
 Kız(lar) birbirlerine bakmıyor.

-neg².....

45. YAĞ- YOK
Yağmıyor/ Yağış yok.

Picture 7

voc. lex.(evet)

-nod.....

46. AİLE
Evet, (onlar) aile.

-neg³ -neg²

47. AİLE EV BAHÇE DEĞİL
Aile evin bahçesinde değil.

-neg³ -neg²

48. İNSAN/KİŞİ OTUR- DEĞİL
İnsanlar oturmuyor.

-neg³... -neg²

49. AİLE DENİZ BAK-/GÖR- DEĞİL
Aile denize bakmıyor.

voc. lex.(evet)
-nod.....

50. BALKON DIŞARI BAK-
 Evet balkondan dışarı bakıyor.

-neg³ -neg²

51. ÇOCUK SAÇ SARI DEĞİL
 Çocukların saçları sarı değil.

neg¹..... -neg²

52. ÇOCUK KOŞ- DEĞİL
 Çocuklar koşmuyor.

-neg² -neg².....

53. ANNE BABA BERABER/YANYANA DEĞİL
 Anne (ve) baba yanyana (durmuyor)/değil.

Picture 8

-neg¹-neg³-neg²

54. HAYIR ÖĞRENCİ DEĞİL
 Hayır, (adamlar) öğrenci değil.

-neg² -neg².....

55. HAYIR BEYAZ CEKET_(GİY-) KAHVE İÇ- DEĞİL

Hayır, beyaz giysili (adam) kahve içmiyor.

voc. lex.(evet)

-nod.....

56. EVET İŞ ADAM

Evet, (onlar) iş adamı.

-neg² -neg³

57. HAYIR TELEVİZYON BAK- DEĞİL

Hayır, televizyon seyretmiyor(lar).

-neg¹-neg³ -neg²

58. HAYIR YİYECEK/YE- DEĞİL

Hayır, yemek yemiyor(lar).

-neg¹.....

59. HAYIR TELEFON KONUŞ- DEĞİL

Hayır, telefonda konuşmuyor(lar).

voc. lex.(resim)

-neg³ neg²

60. KADIN YOK

Resimde kadın yok.

Picture 9

- $\frac{-neg^2}{-neg^2}$
 61. HAYIR BEŞ KİŞİ DEĞİL
 Hayır, beş kişi değil.
- $\frac{-neg^3}{-neg^2}$
 62. HAYIR YİYECEK/ YE- DEĞİL
 Hayır, yemek yemiyor.
- $\frac{-neg^1}{-neg^2}$
 63. HAYIR ELMA KES- DEĞİL
 Hayır, elma kesmiyor.
- $\frac{-neg^2 \dots \dots \dots}{-neg^2 \dots \dots \dots}$
 64. RESİM PASTA YAP- DEĞİL
 Resimdeki(ler) pasta yapmıyor.
- $\frac{voc. lex.(evet)}{-nod \dots \dots \dots}$
 65. TAVUK VAR MASA
 Evet, masada tavuk var.

Picture 10

-neg¹ -neg²

66. HAYIR MAĞAZA BAK- DEĞİL
Hayır, mağazaya bakmıyor(lar).

voc. lex.(evet)

67. ÇOCUK OYUNCAK ARABA İSTE-
Evet, çocuk oyuncak araba istiyor.

.....-neg²

68. ÇOCUK ARABA OYUNCAK İSTE- DEĞİL PARDON BİSİKLET
Çocuk oyuncak araba istemiyor, pardon, bisiklet...

.....-neg²

69. HEDİYE AL- DEĞİL
Hediye almayacak.

voc. lex.(evet)

-nod -nod

70. YAP- YARAMAZ YAP-
Evet, yapıyor... yaramazlık yapıyor.

71. -neg³ -neg²
 HAYIR ÇOCUK BABA KIZ- DEĞİL
 Hayır, çocuğa babası kızmıyor.

72. -neg²
 BİSİKLET RENK KIRMIZI DEĞİL
 Bisikletin rengi kırmızı değil.

73. voc. lex.(evet)
-nod
 BİSİKLET YEŞİL
 Evet, bisiklet yeşil

3.1.1.3. Phase III (Declarative Sentences)

Picture 1

1. INDEX-1 dem pr. sg. ANNE BAHÇE (ÇİM)_BİÇ-
 Burada, anne bahçede çim biçiyor.
2. BABA ÇİÇEK EK-
 Baba bahçeye çiçek ekiyor.

-
3. KIZ EVLAT BİR BİSİKLET OYNA-/EĞLENCE BİSİKLET
Bir kız bisiklete (biniyor), bisikletle oynuyor/eğleniyor.

-
4. ANNE(short.) KIZ/KADIN ERKEK EŞ/EVLİ
Kadın (ve) erkek evli.

-
5. BİR KIZ KÜÇÜK KIZ BİSİKLET OYNA-
Küçük bir kız bisikletle oynuyor/eğleniyor.

Picture 2

-
6. ÖĞRETMEN KORO/ÖĞRETMEN MÜZİK ÖĞRETMEN
Öğretmen müzik öğretmeni.

-
7. ÖĞRENCİ/EVLAT ÜÇ FLÜT ÖĞREN-/ANLA- FLÜT ÖĞREN-/ANLA- KIZ
head(other side)
DİĞER KEMAN ÖĞREN- KEMAN DİĞER KIZ GİTAR ÇALIŞ-

(DERS)AL-
Üç öğrenci flüt öğreniyor, diğer kız keman öğreniyor, diğer kız (da) gitar çalışıyor. Müzik dersi alıyorlar.

-
8. MASA KIZ İKİ AYAKTA_(DUR-) BİR OTUR SEBEP/NEDEN
 sing.-nod
 GİTAR(MÜZİK ALETİ) BÜYÜK YÜZÜNDEN OTUR-
 Masa var. İki kız ayakta duruyor, biri oturuyor çünkü müzik aleti büyük.

Picture 3

-
9. DEDE YENİ YIL EĞLENCE YENİ YIL İÇİNDE HEDİYE VER-
 voc. lex. (torun)
 T (TORUN) KENDİ
 Dede yeni yılda/yılbaşında torununa hediye veriyor.

-
10. KIZ SEVİN- ÇOCUK T (TORUN) SEVİN-
 Kız çocuk, torunu, seviniyor.

-
11. YENİ YIL AĞAÇ
 Yeni yıl/yılbaşı ağacı (var).

Picture 4

-
12. KIZ GİYSİ ARA-
 Kız elbise arıyor.

- voc. lex.(giy-) sing.-nod
-
13. PANTOLON_(GİY-) PANTOLON_(GİY-) İSTE- BİR PANTOLON
-
- BAK- ARA-
- Pantolon giymek istiyor, bir pantolon arıyor.
-
- neg²
-
14. BEĞEN- BEĞEN- DEĞİL BAŞKA BAK- ARA-(short.) ARA-(ref.
-
- neg²
- çekmece) BAK- ÇEKMECE BAK-(ref. inside something) BUL- DEĞİL
- Beğenmiyor, başka arıyor. Çekmeceye bakıyor, bul(a)mıyor.
-
- neg²
-
15. ÇEKMECE BAK- KIYAFET/GİYSİ VAR ÇİZGİ(Lİ) BEYAZ KIRMIZI
-
- neg²
- ÇİZGİLİ BAK- BEĞEN- DEĞİL AT-
- Çekmeceye bakıyor. Beyaz kırmızı çizgili (bir) elbise var; beğenmiyor, atıyor.
-
- neg²
-
16. ELBİSE BAŞKA GİY- İSTE- BAK- ARA-(ref.çekmece) ARA-
- Başka kıyafet giymek istiyor, bakıyor, arıyor.
-
- neg²
-
17. BAVUL İÇİNDE BİRŞEY YOK ÇEK_GETİR- ÜST(ÜNE)_ÇIK- YÜKSEK
-
- BAK-(ref. down, inside something)

-
18. INDEX-3 p. pr. sg. YAT- ODA UYU- +KALK- ARA-
O, yatak odasında uyanmış arıyor.

-
19. ÇİÇEK VAR
Çiçek var.

-
20. SABAH KALK- GİYSİ DEĞİŞTİR-
Sabah kalkmış, kıyafet(ini) değiştiriyor.

Picture 5

-
21. AĞIR DERS AL-
Ağır ders alıyor.

-
22. KENDİ ARKADAŞ TELEFON KONUŞ- İSTE- ZOR YAP- SAKLAN-

TELEFON KONUŞ-
(Kendi) arkadaşıyla telefonda konuşmak istiyor; zor yapıyor, saklanıp telefonda konuşuyor.

_____ -sing. nod

23. KİTAP(pl.) DUR-
Kitap(lar) duruyor.

_____ voc. lex.(altında)

24. MASA VAR SAKLAN-
Masa var; altında saklanıyor.

_____ -neg²

25. ÖĞRETMEN BEN GÖR- DEĞİL BEN TELEFON KONUŞ- KIZ- BEN GÖR-
_____ -neg²
BEN DEĞİL SAKLAN-
Öğretmen beni telefonda konuşurken görmesin, kızar saklanayım, beni görmesin
(diye düşünüyor).

26. TELEFON KONUŞ- BİT- (AYAĞA)+KALK- BİT- DERS EĞİTİM AL-

_____ DERS

Telefon konuşması bitince ayağa kalkıp derse (devam edebilir/edecek)

-
27. ÇANTA/BAVUL VAR İÇİNDE ÇOK/FAZLA AĞIR KİTAP ÇOK/FAZLA
-sing. nod

VAR

Çanta var, içinde çok ağır bir sürü/çok fazla kitap var.

-
28. KAĞIT YAZ- YANLIŞ YAP- KAĞIT BURUŞTUR- AT- YAZ- BAŞKA

DERS

Kağıt(lar)a yanlış yazmış, buruşturup atmış. Başka (yeniden) ders yazacak.

-
29. BOYA DUVAR SARI

Duvar sarı boyalı.

-
30. DUVAR SAAT VAR SAAT(ref. duvar)

Duvar da duvar saati var.

-
31. PROGRAM RESİM/ÇERÇEVE RENK KOYU AÇIK KOYU AÇIK
-sing. nod

DUVAR

Duvar da koyu ve açık renklerde resim(ler) ve (ders) programı (var).

-sing. nod

32. KİTAP VAR BİR TANE KALIN KİTAP VAR OKU- BAŞKA KİTAP

BAK- ARA- OKU-

Kalın bir kitap var; kitabı okuyor. Başka kitaplar da arıyor, okuyacak.

Picture 6

-
33. İKİ KIZ ARKADAŞ BERABER GEZ- SIKIL-

İki kız arkadaş sıkılmışlar, beraber geziyorlar.

-
34. OKUL BİT- SONRA GEZ- SIKIL- INDEX-3 dem. pr.sg.(ref. behind) NE

VAR MERAK_(ET-) İÇİNDE NE MERAK_(ET-)

Okul bittikten sonra, sıkılmışlar, geziyorlar. Orada ne var (diye) merak ediyorlar.

-
- (ref. one side) -neg¹ (ref. other side) (ref. one side)
35. BEN BAK-(ref. one side) HAYIR BEN BAK-(ref. other side)

BEN BAK- SEBEP KIZ BOY KISA DİĞER(index-ref. other side) KIZ

UZUN

Biri ben bakacağım diyor, diğeri hayır ben bakacağım diyor. Diğeri bakacak çünkü ötekinin boyu kısa, onun uzun.

voc. lex. (ol-)

-neg²

36. ÇOK AĞIR KALDIR- DEĞİL ÇANTA BIRAK- KALDIR-
Çok ağır, kaldır(a)mıyor. Çantayı bırakıp kaldırıyor.

37. INDEX-3 p. pr. sg. KALDIR- ÇANTA BIRAK- KALDIR- BAK- NE

İÇİNDE NE VAR ÇOCUK_(ref. index-3 p.pr. pl.) OYNA- İZLE-
O, çantayı bırakıp kaldırıyor; orada ne var (diye) bakıyor. Oynayan
çocukları izliyor.

38. BAHÇE GÜNDÜZ ÇOK SICAK HAVA ÇOK SICAK GÜNEŞ HAVA GÜZEL

BAHÇE İÇİNDE

Gündüz bahçe çok sıcak. Hava çok sıcak. Bahçede hava güzel, güneşli.

39. DUVAR YÜKSEK/UZUN BOYA BEYAZ DUVAR TEMİZ BOYA
Yüksek duvar beyaz boyanmış/boyalı. Duvar temiz boyanmış/boyalı.

40. ÇOCUK PEMBE GİY-
Çocuk(lar) pembe giyinmiş/giymiş.

Picture 7

-
41. INDEX-3 p. pr. sg. AİLE HEPSİ
Onların hepsi (bir) aile.

-
42. BEN INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg. BEN İŞ INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg. ÇOCUK ANLAT-
BAK-
(Baba) çocuk(lar)a “bakın benim işim orada” diyor/(diye gösteriyor).

-
43. INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg. BAK ANLAT- INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg. ETRAF/ÇEVRE
sing.-nod sing.-nod
ALİŞVERİŞ VAR YİYECEK/(BAKKAL) VAR INDEX-3 dem. pr.
ANLAT-
O, “bakın orada alışveriş (yerleri) var, bakkal var” diyor/ (diye gösteriyor).

-
44. ANNE BAK- DÜŞÜN- KONUŞ-
Anne bakıyor, düşünüyor, konuşuyor.

45. HEPSİ AİLE MUTLU

Bütün aile mutlu.

46. HAVA ÇOK GÜZEL SICAK

Hava çok güzel, sıcak.

47. KIZ SAÇ UZUN(ref. omuz-kol)

Kızın saçları uzun

48. SAÇ SİYAH HEPSİ

Hepsinin saçları siyah

49. ÇOCUK GÖMLEK SARI KARE(Lİ) SARI GİY-

Çocuk sarı kareli gömlek giymiş.

Picture 8

-sing. nod.

50. İKİ_INDEX-3 p. pr. pl. İŞ ADAM/ERKEK ÇALIŞ- VAR KAFE BULUŞ-
İkisi iş adamı kafede buluşmuşlar, çalışıyorlar.

- head(one side) head (other side)
51. INDEX-3 p. pr. sg.(ref. one side) ARABİSTAN GEL- INDEX-3 p. pr. sg.(ref. other side) İSVİÇRE *BULUN-* İKİ_INDEX-3 p. pr. pl. BULUŞ- Birisi Arabistan'dan gelmiş, diğeri İsviçre'den; ikisi buluşmuşlar.
52. İKİ_INDEX-3 p. pr. pl. BULUŞ- İŞ ADAM BULUŞ- KAFE BULUŞ- KONUŞ- İkisi iş adamı; kafede buluşmuş, konuşuyorlar.
- wh-q sing.-nod
53. BİLGİSAYAR NE YAP- LAPTOP BAK- İŞ PROGRAM TİCARET ALIŞVERİŞ PROGRAM FİYAT ORTALAMA ANLAŞ- OTUR- ADAM KAHVE İÇ- KAHVE BİT- FİKİR ALIŞVERİŞ Bilgisayarda ne yapıyorlar? Laptop'a bakarak ticari işleri ve programları ile ilgili sözleşme, pazarlık yapıyorlar. Adamlar oturup kahve içmişler, kahve bitince fikir alışverişi yapıyorlar.
- sing.-nod sing.-nod
54. INDEX-3 det. sg. ADAM GAZETE ARAPÇA VAR MASA VAR O adamın Arapça gazetesi var..... Masa var.

Picture 9

55. BABAANNE TORUN YİYECEK/YE- ÖĞREN- İSTE-

Babaannenin torunu yemek öğrenmek istiyor.

56. ^{wh-q} ÇOCUK ^{wh-q} MERAK_(ET-) ^{wh-q} INDEX-3 det. sg. NE YEMEK NE MERAK_(ET-)
Çocuk yemeğin ne olduğunu merak ediyor.

57. ANNE ANLAT- INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. TAVUK BÜYÜK VAR ^{sing.-nod}
Anne anlatıyor; burada büyük (bir) tavuk var.

58. HEPSİ YİYECEK/YE- HAZIRLA- BABA GEL- DEDE GEL- BEKLE-

HEPSİ HAZIRLA-
Hepsi yemek hazırlıyor/hazırlamış, dede ve babayı bekliyor.

Picture 10

59. ^{sing.-nod} ÇOCUK INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg. ÇOCUK BABA BERABER GEZ-
Orada çocuk babasıyla beraber geziyor.

sing.-nod

60. BİR MAĞAZA/VİTRİN VAR ÇOCUK BAK- BİSİKLET AL- İSTE-

sing.-nod

BAK- (ref. through the window) BU BEN AL- İSTE-

Bir mağaza/vitrin var, çocuk bisiklet görüyor (onu) almak istiyor.

sing.-nod

61. INDEX-3 poss. BABA GÜL- BİSİKLET AL- DÜŞÜN-

Babası gülüyor, bisikleti almayı/ alayım mı diye düşünüyor.

y/n-q

-neg²

62. EVLAT BİSİKLET AL- İZİN VER İZİN VER- DEĞİL DÜŞÜN- GÜL-

Çocuğun bisiklet almasına izin vereyim mi vermeyim mi diye düşünüyor, gülüyor.

sing.-nod

63. ÇOCUK BEN AL- İSTE- BİSİKLET GÜZEL YEŞİL GÜZEL

Çocuk; “ben almak isityorum, yeşil bisiklet (çok) güzel”

64. BABA GÜL- AL- DÜŞÜN-

Baba gülüyor, almayı düşünüyor.

3.1.1.4. Phase IV (Imperative Sentences)

-
1. INDEX- neutr.(ref. sign-space downwards)/(BURADA) SİĞARA_(İÇ-)YASAK
burada sigara içmek yasak!

voc. lex.(hayır)

-neg¹

2. HAVUZ ATLA YASAK
Havuzda atlamak yasak!

-neg²

3. SES GÜRÜLTÜ... YÜKSEK GÜRÜLTÜ BAĞIR- DEĞİL
Yükses sesle bağırma!

voc. lex.(atmayın)

-neg²

4. TUVALET KLOZET BİRŞEY AT- DEĞİL
Tuvalette klozete birey atmayın!

voc. lex.(konuşmayın)

-neg²

5. İŞ VAR KONUŞ- DEĞİL
İş var, konuşmayın!

voc. lex.(girmeyin)

-neg².....

6. AĞAÇ GİR- DEĞİL

Bahçeye girmeyin!

Voc. lex.(yapma)

-neg³

-neg³ -neg²

7. HAYIR PRİZ AL- DEĞİL TEHLİKE

Hayır, yapma! Prizi çekme, tehlikeli!

3.1.2. INFORMANT II

3.1.2.1. Phase I (Interrogative Sentences)

Picture 1

1. BAHÇE ÜÇ KİŞİ VAR Q-mark.

Bahçede üç kişi mi var?

2. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg.(place) KIZ INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. KIZ VAR INDEX-3

y/n-q.....

y/n-q.....

det. sg./p. pr. sg. KIZ/(KADIN) EVLAT S-end. ... KIZ/(KADIN) EVLAT

.....

S-end.

Burada (bir) kız var, o kadının çocuğu mu.... Kadının çocuğu mu?

y/n-q.....

3. INDEX-3 p.pr.sg.(ref. one side) INDEX-3 p.pr.sg.(ref. other side) EŞ/EVLİ

 S-end.
 O (ve) o evli/eş mi?

Picture 2

-
4. INDEX-1 det.sg. MÜZİK INDEX-3 p.pr.sg. ÖĞRETMEN Q-mark.
 Bu/O müzik öğretmeni mi?

y/n-q

5. INDEX-1 det.sg. MÜZİK YER OKUL Q-mark.
 Bu müzik (çalıştıkları) yer okul mu?

-
6. INDEX-3 det. pl / p. pr. pl. ÇOCUK ÜÇ ÖĞRENCİ/EVLAT Q-mark.
 O üç çocuk öğrenci mi?/ Onlar, (o) üç çocuk öğrenci mi?
 Are these three children students?

-
7. INDEX-1 det.sg. ÜÇ ÇOCUK ÖĞRENCİ/EVLAT OKUL KORO/MÜZİK

 y/n-q
 ÖĞREN- Q-mark.
 Bu üç öğrenci okulda müzik mi öğreniyor?

-
8. INDEX-1 det. sg. INDEX-right ÖĞRETMEN KORO/MÜZİK ELpl. ÖĞRET-

Q-mark.

Bu sağdaki öğretmen elleriyle mi müzik öğretiyor?

-
9. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg.(place) INDEX-1 det. sg. ÖĞRETMEN ÖĞRET- ELpl.

y/n-q

ÖĞRET- KORO/MÜZİK

Burada, bu öğretmen elleriyle mi müzik öğretiyor?

-
10. BİR ERKEK VAR INDEX-3 p.pr.sg. FLÜT INDEX-other KIZ INDEX-3

p.pr.sg. KEMAN INDEX-other KIZ INDEX-3 p.pr.sg. GİTAR_(ÇAL-) S-end.

Bir erkek (çocuk)var; o flüt, diğer kız keman, diğer kız gitar mı çalıyor?

-
11. MASA KAHVE(RENGİ) Q-mark.

Masa kahverengi mi?

sing-nod

-
12. ÇOCUK KIZ SAÇ SARI Q-mark.

Kız çocuğunun saçları sarı mı?

sing.-nod.

13. INDEX-3 det.sg._INDEX-right ÖĞRETMEN GÖZLÜK VAR Q-mark.
O sağdaki/sağda duran öğretmenin gözlüğü var mı?

Picture 3

14. INDEX-3 p.pr.sg BABA Q-mark. KIZ INDEX-3 det.sg. BABA Q-mark.
O, (kızın) baba(sı) mı? O kızın babası mı?

.....y/n-q

15. BABA INDEX-3 p.pr.sg HEDİYE VER- Q-mark.
Babası ona hediye mi verdi?

Wh-q.....

wh-q

16. KIZ NE GÜL- İÇİNDE NE VAR... HEDİYE VER- İÇİNDE NE VAR.
Kız neden gülüyor; içinde ne var... (babasının) verdiği hediyein içinde ne var?

-
17. INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place) ARKA ÇAM_(AĞAÇ) YIL+EĞLENCE/TATİL

Q-mark.

Orada, arkada çam ağacı (var), yılbaşı mı?

Picture 4

18. INDEX-3 det.sg. KIZ [AYAK_ALT]+YUKARI/ÜSTÜNDE(ref. surface)

BAVUL KIRMIZI VAR BAVUL YÜKSEL-/YÜKSEK_ÇIK- ARA-

wh-q

ÇEKMECE ARA- İÇİNDE NE ARA- KIZ

O kızın ayaklarının altında kırmızı bavul var, (kız) bavulun üstüne (çıkış) çekmecenin içinde ne arıyor?

.....wh-q

y/n-q.....

19. KIZ İÇİNDE ARA- ARA-(ref. inside something) TARAK AL- Q-mark.

Kız çekmecenin içinde ne arıyor; tarak mı alacak?

sing.-nod

y/n-q.....y/n-q.....

20. İÇİNDE KÜPE OL- AL- Q-mark.

İçindeki küpeleri mi alacak?

neg²

sing.-nod

sing.-nod

21. YOKSA/DEĞİL GİYSİ/ELBİSE AL- Q-mark... VEYA ÇORAP(ref. the letter

“Ç”) İÇİNDE AL- Q-mark.

yoksa elbise mi alacak... veya içinden çorap mı alacak?

22. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg.(place) EV... INDEX-1 det.sg. EV ANNE(short.) BABA
neg² voc. lex.(-mu)

YOK S-end.

Burası ev... Bu evde anne baba yok mu?

voc. lex.(-mu)

neg²

23. KIZ ANNE(short.) BABA EV YOK S-end.

Kızın annesi babası evde yok mu?

y/n-q

24. KIZ KENDİ OYUN (OYNA-) Q-mark.

Kız kendi kendine/ kendisi oyun mu oynuyor?

Picture 5

y/n-q.....

25. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg.(place) İŞ YER Q-mark.

Burası iş yeri mi?

y/n-q.....

26. KIZ OTUR- KENDİ GİZLİ GÖR/BAK- SAKLAN- TELEFON Q-mark.

S-end.

Kız saklanmış gizlice mi telefonda konuşuyor?

- _____ wh-q y/n-q.....
27. KIZ TELEFON NE MÜDÜR BAK-/GÖR- KORK- SAKLAN- Q-mark

S-end.

Kız müdürün gelip görmesinden korktuğu için mi telefonda saklanarak
(konuşuyor)?

- _____
28. INDEX-1 det.sg. YER(ref. duvar) RENK SARI BOYA SARI INDEX-3 dem. pr.
_____ voc. lex.(-mı)

pl.(place) GÖR-/BAK- SARI S-end.

Bu duvar sarı renge mi boyalı? Oralarda gördüğüm (renk) sarı mı?

- _____ y/n-q
29. BOYA SARI DUVAR SARI GÖR- S-end.

Duvarda gördüğüm boya sarı mı?

- _____ wh-q y/n-q.....
30. SAAT DUVAR(ref. saat) KAÇ VAR SAAT DUVAR(ref. saat) BİR VAR
_____ wh-q.....

KAÇ SAAT DUVAR(ref. saat) KAÇ S-end.

Duvardaki saat kaç, bir mi?

wh-q

31. TABLO/ÇERÇEVE RENK VAR YEŞİL KIRMIZI BAŞKA_BAŞKA NE

VAR

Tabloda yeşil, kırmızı renkler var... başka ne var?

wh-q.....

32. KİTAP VAR ÜSTÜSTE KİTAP ÜSTÜSTE İÇİNDE NE VAR S-end.

Kitaplar var üstüste... Üstüste duran kitapların içinde ne var?

y/n-q

33. INDEX-3 det.sg/p. pr. sg. KAĞIT BURUŞ- ÇÖP_AT- Q-mark.

O kağıtlar buruşturulup çöpe mi atılmış?/ O, kağıtları buruşturup çöpe mi atmış?

Picture 6

sing.-nod

34. INDEX-3 dem. pr.sg.(place) KIZ İKİ VAR INDEX-1 det.sg. YER BAHÇE

sing.-nod

non-man.(distance-direction).....

AĞAÇ VAR INDEX-3 det.sg. YER ÜST_ÇIK_BAK-(ref. INDEX-3 dem..

pr. sg [place]) NE VAR KIZ BİR YARDIM KALDIR-

non-man.(distance-direction)..... wh-q

BAK-(ref. INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.[place]) NE VAR

Orada iki kız, bahçe, ağaçlar var... O yerin üstüne çıkıp orada(diğer tarafta) neye bakıyorlar? Bir kız yardım edip (diğerini) kaldırıyor orada(diğer tarafta) ne var diye bakıyorlar?

- y/n-q
35. KIZ KOL YORUL- VAR Q-mark.
Kızın kolu yorulmuş mu?

- non-man.(distance-direction)
36. KIZ YÜKSEL_BAK- İÇİNDE INDEX-3 dem. pr.sg.(place) DÜŞÜN-
y/n-q voc. lex.(-mi)
KÖPEK Q-mark.
Kız yükselip (nereye) bakıyor, acaba orada köpek mi var?

- wh-q..... y/n-q
37. INDEX-3 dem. pr.sg.(place) ÇANTA VAR AT- ÇANTA VAR INDEX-3 det.sg.
ÇANTA İÇİNDE NE OKUL Q-mark.
Orada atılmış bir çanta var, o çantada ne var okul (eşyaları) mı?

Picture 7

- y/n-q
38. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. EV Q-mark.
Burası ev mi?/Bu ev mi?

- sing.-nod wh-q
39. DÖRT INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place)İÇİNDE DÖRT KİŞİ VAR Q-mark. ...
y/n-q
AİLE Q-mark.
O (resim)de dört kişi mi var? (Onlar) ne/kim; aile mi?

- wh-q
-
40. BALKON DÖRT BAK_ETRAF NE VAR
Dördü balkondan nereye bakıyor, (etrafta) ne var?
- wh-q.....
-
41. EVLAT BABA EVLAT YANINA_ÇEK- INDEX-3 dem. pr.sg. İÇİNDE NE
.....
BAK-(ref. INDEX-3 dem. pr.sg.[place]) NE İÇİNDE VAR
Baba çocuğunu yanına çekmiş orada neye/nereye bakıyorlar, orada ne var?
-
42. INDEX-3 det.sg. ANNE KIZ INDEX-3 det.sg. KIZ BAK-(ref. distance) ANNE
.....wh-q.....
BAK-(ref. distance) İÇİNDE ANNE NE KONUŞ- NE VAR
Anne ve kız bakıyorlar, orada anne ne söylüyor?
-
- wh-q.....
-
43. INDEX-3 det.sg. KIZ ANNE BERABER BAK- ANNE KONUŞ- NE İÇİNDE
.....
VAR INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place)
O kızla anne beraber bakıyorlar, (ora)da anne ne söylüyor?

y/n-q.....

44. BABA INDEX-3 dem. pr.sg. İŞARET_(ET-)(INDEX-ref. distance)... ARABA

 İÇİNDE İŞARET_(ET-) Q-mark.
 Orada babanın işaret ettiği (onun) arabası mı?

Picture 8

45. INDEX-3 det.sg. YER NE VAR KAFE OTUR- KAHVE_İÇ- OTUR- Q-mark.

 S-end.
 O yer neresi?/Orada ne var... (Onlar) kafede oturmuş kahve mi içiyorlar?

46. INDEX-neutr +INDEX-right det. sg. (ADAM)/BABA NE ADAM/BABA

 INDEX-3 det.sg.(ref. other side) (ADAM)/BABA INDEX-3 p. pron.pl.

 wh-q

 KONUŞ- İÇİNDE NE BİLGİSAYAR BAK- O BİLGİSAYAR BAK-
 wh-q.....

 İÇİNDE NE VAR
 Sağdaki adamla diğer adam bilgisayara bakıp ne konuşuyorlar? Bilgisayarda
 baktıkları ne?

y/n-q

47. KAHVE_İÇ- INDEX-3 det.sg. ADAM KAHVE_İÇ- INDEX-3 p. pr. sg(ref.

other side) Q-mark.

O adam kahve mi içiyor, diğeri de mi?

wh-q.....

48. INDEX-1 det.sg. BİLGİSAYAR İÇİNDE INDEX-3 p. pron.pl. KONUŞ-

.....

BİLGİSAYAR İÇİNDE NE SOR- INDEX-3 poss.sg. İÇİNDE NE

Onlar bu bilgisayarda (bir şey) konuşuyorlar, neyi soruyorlar? Onun içinde/bilgisayarda ne var?

-
49. BAŞ_SARI(K)LI ERKEK BİLGİSAYAR İÇİNDE INDEX-neutr p. pron.sg.

wh-q.....

SOR-(-ref. other side)/ONA_SOR- İÇİNDE NE

Başı sarılı adam diğeri bilgisayarda ne soruyor?

Sing.-nod

Sing.-nod

50. GAZETE CEP_TELEFON VAR

Gazete (ve) cep telefonu var.

Picture 9wh-q

51. INDEX-1 det.sg. EV İÇİNDE (MUTFAK)/YİYECEK OTUR- KİM KİŞİ KAÇ

VAR

Bu evde mutfakta oturanlar kim? Kaç kişi var?

y/n-q.....

52. INDEX-3 p.pron.sg. ANNEANNE Q-mark.

Yoksa o anneanne mi?

y/n-q.....

53.. INDEX-3 p.pron.sg. INDEX-3 p.pron.sg.(ref. other side) ANNE S-end.

O onun/diğerinin annesi mi?

y/n-q

54. YİYECEK VAR TAVUK BÜYÜK TAVUK S-end.

Yiyecek var, tavuk mu?

y/n-q.....

55. ANNEANNE GÜL- KIZ EVLAT YE- YE- DÜŞÜN- Q-mark.

Anneanne gülüyor, kızı/(torunu) yesin (yesin) diye mi düşünüyor?

Picture 10

56. INDEX-3 p.pron.sg. INDEX-3 p.pron.sg.(ref. other side) BABA INDEX-3

_____ y/n-q.....

p.pron.sg.(ref. other side) YOKSA AĞABEY Q-mark.

O onun babası mı yoksa ağabeysi mi?

_____ wh-q.....

57. INDEX-1 det.sg. BİSİKLET KENDİ /(SAHİP) KİM

Bu bisikletin sahibi kim? (Bu bisiklet kimin?)

_____ y/n-q.....

58. BİSİKLET AĞABEY KENDİ /(SAHİP) Q-mark.

Bisiklet ağabeynin mi?

_____ -nod

_____ y/n-q

59. INDEX-1 det.sg. ÇOCUK BİSİKLET (OYNA-)/EĞLENCE İSTE- Q-mark.

Bu çocuk bisikletle oynamak ister mi?

_____ -nod

_____ -nod

60. ÇOCUK AĞABEY GİT_(BUYUR/DAVET) İSTE- GİT_(BUYUR/DAVET)

_____ y/n-q.....

ÇOCUK KORK- Q-mark.

Çocuğun ağabeysi çocuğu (bisikletle) gitmeye davet ediyor (da) çocuk korkuyor mu? (Çocuğun ağabeysi “bu bisikleti al git” diyor, çocuk korkuyor mu?)

_____ voc. lex. (hangisi)

_____ wh-q

61. BİSİKLET BÜYÜK KÜÇÜK NE Q-mark.
Bisiklet büyük mü küçük mü ne/(hangisi)?

3.1.2.2. Phase II (Negative Sentences and Some Affirmatives)

Picture 1

_____ neg²

1. BAHÇE ÇOCUK ERKEK YOK
Bahçede erkek çocuk yok.

_____ neg²

2. INDEX-3 det.sg. BAHÇE ERKEK/(ADAM) ARABA TEMİZ YIKA- DEĞİL
O bahçedeki adam arabasını yıkamıyor.

_____ -nod

3. BAHÇE ADAM ŞAPKA VAR
Bahçedeki adamın şapkası var.

_____ sing.-nod sing.-nod -nod voc. lex.(evet)

4. KIZ ÇOCUK BİSİKLET BİN- S-end.
Evet, kız çocuk bisiklete biniyor.

- _____ neg²
5. BAHÇE KÖPEK YOK
Bahçede köpek yok.
- _____ neg²..... neg¹
6. INDEX-1 det. sg. BAHÇE KIZ ÇOCUK AT BİN- DEĞİL YOK
Bahçedeki kız çocuk ata binmiyor.
- _____ neg²
7. INDEX-3 det.sg. BAHÇE ÇOCUK AİLE TOP EĞLENCE/OYNA- YOK
O bahçedeki çocukla aile top oynamıyor.
- _____ neg¹.....
8. TATİL INDEX-1 det. sg. AİLE TATİL DEĞİL BAHÇE İÇİNDE S-end.
Bu aile tatile (gitmiyor), (aile) bahçede.

Picture 2

- _____ voc. lex.(evet)
- _____ -nod.....
9. INDEX-3 det. sg. ÇOCUK HEPSİ ÖĞRENCİ/EVLAT S-end.
Evet, o çocukların hepsi öğrenci.

_____ voc. lex.(evet)

_____ -nod.....

10. INDEX-neutr det.sg. + INDEX-right ÖĞRETMEN OL-
Evet, sağdaki öğretmen.

_____ neg²

11. INDEX-3 dem.pr.sg.(place) İÇİNDE BİLGİSAYAR/PIYANO_(ÇAL-) YOK
neg¹.....
GÖR- YOK
Orada piyano yok; görmüyorum.

_____ sing. -nod

12. BİR KIZ KEMAN_(ÇAL-) VAR
Bir kız keman çalıyor.

_____ neg¹.....

13. ÖĞRETMEN GİTAR_(ÇAL-) DEĞİL
Öğretmen gitar (çalmıyor).

_____ neg¹..... neg²

14. MATEMATİK DERS DEĞİL
Matematik dersi (yapmıyorlar).

15. YER SINIF GALİBA

(Orası) sınıf galiba.

-nod -nod

16. VAR TAHTA/ÇERÇEVE/VİTRİN YAZI VAR

Tahtada yazı var.

-nod.....

17. ÖĞRETMEN YAZI OL-

Öğretmen yazmış olabilir.

neg²..... neg¹

18. INDEX-(ref. neutr. sign-space downwards) YAZ- DEĞİL YOK

Şimdi yazmıyor.

Picture 3

neg²

19. INDEX-3 p. pr. sg. ÇOCUK AĞABEY DEĞİL

Çocuğun ağabeyi değil.

-nod.....

20. EVET ÇAM(ref. tree) EVET

Evet, çam (ağacı) evet.

- neg¹..... y/n-q..... neg¹...
21. BİL- DEĞİL INDEX-3 det. sg. ÇOCUK DOĞUM GÜNÜ Q-mark. BİL-
.....
DEĞİL
Bilmiyorum. Çocuğun doğum günü mü bilmiyorum.
- nod nod-
22. OL- YIL+EĞLENCE/OYUN ÇAM(ref. tree)VAR OL-
Olabilir, çam ağacı var yılbaşı olabilir.
- neg² neg² neg¹
23. YOK... AĞLA- DEĞİL
Yok, ağlamıyor.
- neg²
24. ADAM KIRMIZI CEKET_(GİY-) DEĞİL
Adam kırmızı ceket (giymemiş).
- neg²
25. ADAM/BABA YÜZ YAŞ OTUZ DEĞİL YÜKSEK GİBİ
Adamın yaşı otuz değil fazla gibi.

Picture 4neg²

26. INDEX-3 p. pr.sg. RESİM ERKEK DEĞİL
O resimdeki erkek değil

neg²

27. KIZ ÇOCUK SANDALYE/OTUR- ÜSTÜNDE DEĞİL
Kız çocuk sandalyenin üstünde değil.

neg²

28. ÇOCUK PANTOLON_(GİY-) YOK
Çocuğun pantolonu yok.

nod-.....

29. ÇOCUK ARA- EVET
Evet, çocuk arıyor.

neg² neg¹.....

30. ÇOCUK AĞLA- YOK
Çocuk ağlamıyor.

neg² neg²- neg¹

31. ÇOCUK YATAK TOPLA- DEĞİL

Çocuk yatağını toplamıyor.

neg¹.....

32. ÇOCUK EV KAÇ- DEĞİL

Çocuk evden kaçmıyor.

neg²

33. ÇOCUK EŞYA TOPLA- DEĞİL

Çocuk eşya toplamıyor.

Picture 5

neg²

34. KADIN/KIZ BAĞIR- YOK

Kadın bağırıyor

sing.-nod -nod -nod.....

35. KIZ İŞ YER OL-

Kızın iş yeri olabilir.

-nod.....

36. KADIN/KIZ KORK- SAKLAN- EVET

Evet, kız korkmuş saklanıyor.

neg²

37. KADIN/KIZ SANDALYE/OTUR- ALT(INDA) DEĞİL

Kadın sandalyenin altında değil.

neg²

neg²

38. INDEX-3 det. sg. İŞ YER BOYA RENK YEŞİL DEĞİL

O iş yeri yeşil boyalı değil.

neg²

39. KADIN/KIZ BAYIL- + DÜŞ- DEĞİL

Kadın bayılmamış.

neg¹.....

40. KADIN/KIZ KİTAP OKU- DEĞİL

Kadın kitap okumuyor.

Picture 6

neg¹

41. ERKEK ÇOCUK YOK

Erkek çocuk yok.

- neg²
42. KIZ OKUL GİYSİ DEĞİL
Kızlar okul forması (giymemiş).

- neg²
43. KIZ İP ATLA- DEĞİL
Kızlar ip atlamıyor.

- neg¹.....
44. KIZ TOP EĞLENCE/OYNA- YOK
Kızlar top oynamıyor.

- neg² neg¹ neg³ neg¹
45. YOK.... KIZ BİRBİRİ(NE)_BAK- YOK
Kızlar birbirlerine bakmıyorlar

- neg²
46. KAR/BEYAZ YAĞ- YOK
Kar yağmıyor.

Picture 7

- nod.....
47. INDEX-3 p.pr.pl. AİLE EVET
Onlar aile, evet.

- sing.-nod neg²
-
48. INDEX-3 det. sg. AİLE EV BAHÇE DEĞİL
O aile evin bahçesinde değil.

- neg¹
-
49. OTUR- YOK
Oturmuyorlar.

- neg²
-
50. DENİZ BAK- DEĞİL
Denize bakmıyorlar.

- nod.....
-
51. AİLE BALKON DIŞARI EVET
Aile balkondan dışarı (bakıyor), evet.

- neg²
-
52. ÇOCUK KÜÇÜK SAÇ SARI YOK
Küçük çocukların sarı saçlı /saçları sarı değil.

- neg¹
-
53. ÇOCUK KOŞ- YOK
Çocuklar koşmuyor.

 neg¹

54. HAYIR ANNE(short.) BABA BERABER HAYIR AYRI
Hayır, anneyle baba yanyana değil, ayrı.

Picture 8

 neg²

55. ÇOCUK ÖĞRENCİ DEĞİL
Çocuk öğrenci değil.

 neg¹

56. ADAM/ERKEK BEYAZ GİYSİ/CEKET KAHVE İÇ- DEĞİL
Beyaz giysili adam kahve içmiyor.

 -nod.....

57. GALİBA ADAM/ERKEK İŞ/ÇALIŞ- GALİBA
Galiba adamlar iş adamı.

 neg²

58. ADAM/ERKEK TELEVİZYON BAK- DEĞİL
Adamlar televizyon seyretmiyor.

 neg¹

59. ADAM/ERKEK YE- YOK
Aadamlar yemek yemiyor.

neg¹

60. ADAM/ERKEK SAÇ SARI CEP_TELEFON KONUŞ- YOK
Sarı saçlı adam cep telefonuyla konuşmuyor.

neg¹

61. ADAM/ERKEK BİRA İÇ- YOK
Adamlar bira içmiyor.

neg²

62. INDEX-3 dem. pr. pl.(place) RESİM İÇİNDE KADIN/KIZ YOK
Orada, resimde kadın yok.

Picture 9

-nod neg²

63. RESİM İÇİNDE BEŞ KİŞİ DEĞİL
Resimde beş kişi yok.

-nod -nod

64. ÇOCUK KÜÇÜK ÇOCUK KADIN ANNEANNE GİBİ/GALİBA OL-
Kadın küçük çocuğun anneannesi olabilir.

-nod.....

65. RESİM İÇİNDE YEMEK MASA
Resimde masada yemek (var).

neg²

66. YİYECEK/YE- DEĞİL MASA
Yemek yemiyorlar; (yemek) masada.

-nod

neg²

67. ANNE ÇOCUK ELMA KES- DEĞİL
Anne ve çocuk elma kesmiyor.

neg²

68. PASTA YAP- DEĞİL
Pasta yapmıyorlar.

-nod

69. MASA TAVUK VAR
Masada tavuk var.

Picture 10

-nod.....

70. BABA KÜÇÜK VİTRİNE BAK- EVET
Baba (ve) oğlu vitrine bakıyorlar.

neg²

71. ÇOCUK ARABA İSTE- DEĞİL
Çocuk araba istemiyor.

72. $\frac{\text{neg}^2}{\text{AL- DEĞİL...ÇOCUK AL- DEĞİL}}$
 Almayacak, çocuk almayacak.
73. $\frac{\text{ÇOCUK BİR VAR}}{\text{Bir çocuk var.}}$
74. $\frac{\text{HAYIR ÇOCUK YARAMAZ/ŞIMARIK DEĞİL}}{\text{Hayır çocuk yaramaz değil.}}$
75. $\frac{\text{BABA ÇOCUK KIZ- DEĞİL}}{\text{Babası çocuğa kızmıyor.}}$
76. $\frac{\text{BİSİKLET RENK KIRMIZI YOK}}{\text{Bisikletin rengi kırmızı değil.}}$

3.1.2.3. Phase III (Declarative Sentences)

Picture 1

1.

sing.-nod

INDEX-1 dem. pr. pl.(place) BAHÇE INDEX-1 det. sg. AİLE İÇİNDE

DÜŞÜN- HAZIR ÇİÇEK ÇİM/EK- HAZIR SONRA HAFTA /HAFTA

sing.-nod

SON(U) MİSAFİR DAVET/GEL- S-end.
Burası bahçe; bu aile çiçek ekelim diye düşünmüş... Hafta sonu /(bir hafta sonra) misafir gelecek, hazırlık yapıyorlar.

2.

sing.-nod

INDEX-3 det. sg. ÇOCUK BİSİKLET RAHAT BIRAK- BİSİKLET GEZ-
O çocuğu rahat bırakmışlar, bisikletle geziyor.

3.

sing.-nod

INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place) ANNE ÇİÇEK YAP- EK- HAZIR
Orada, anne çiçek ekiyor, hazırlık yapıyor.

-
4. INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place) BABA BAHÇE ÇALIŞ- TEMİZ(LE)- DÜZELT-

HAZIR

Orada, baba bahçede çalışıyor, bahçeyi temizleyip düzeltiyor, hazırlık yapıyor.

wh-q.....

y/n-q

5. INDEX-3 det. sg. EV İÇİNDE NE VAR YAŞLI ANNE YEMEK YAP-

HAZIR HAZIR

O evde yaşlı anne (büyük anne) yemek (hazırlıkları mı) mi yapıyor?

-
6. SONRA İKİ_HAFTA EĞLENCE ARKADAŞ MİSAFİR GEL- S-end.

İki hafta sonra/(bir) hafta sonu bir arkadaşları eğlenmeye (pikniğe) gelecek.

Picture 2

sing.-nod

sing.-nod

7. INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place) İÇİNDE ÖĞRETMEN OKUL İÇİNDE YER

-nod.....

INDEX-3 det. sg. ÖĞRETMEN EĞİTİM_(VER-) EĞİTİM_(VER-)

Orada, okulda (sınıfta) o öğretmen eğitim veriyor...

- y/n-q y/n-q
-
12. DEDE INDEX-3 p. pr. sg. BEĞEN- DEDE BEĞEN- INDEX-3 det. sg.
-
- ÇOCUK SEVİN- HEDİYE HAYAL GEL- S-end.
 Dede çocuk beğendi mi (diye düşünüyor). Çocuk hayalindeki hediye geldi (diye) seviniyor.

Picture 4

-
13. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg.(place) ÇOCUK EĞLENCE/TATİL GİT- BAVUL
-
- HAZIR TOPLA EĞLENCE/TATİL GİT-
 Burada çocuk tatile gidiyor, bavulunu hazırlayıp tatile gidiyor.

-
14. ELBİSE GÜZEL İÇİNDE_KOY- TATİL INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place)
-
- ARKADAŞ KIZ VAR GÜZEL ELBİSE GÜZEL ELBİSE DÜŞÜN- ELBİSE
-
- HAZIR(LA)- İÇİNDE S-end.
 (Bavulun) içine güzel elbiseler koyuyor. Tatilde güzel elbiseli kız arkadaş(lar)ı var, bavulun içine (ona göre) elbiseler hazırlayıp koyuyor/ koymayı düşünüyor.

Picture 5

sing.-nod

sing.-nod

15. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg.(place) İŞ İÇİNDE İŞ KIZ TELEFON İÇİNDE

TELEFON KIZ SEVGİLİ ERKEK SEVGİLİ TELEFON KONUŞ- BELKİ

BULUŞ- HAYAL GİT- BULUŞ- GİT-

Burada kız iş (yerinde) telefonda erkek (arkadaşıyla)/sevgilisiyle konuşuyor
belki onula buluşup gitmeyi hayal ediyor/ düşünüyor/ planlıyor.

neg³neg³

16. TELEFON GÖR- DEĞİL MÜDÜR GÖR- DEĞİL TELEFON INDEX-3 p. pr.

sg. SEVGİLİ BULUŞ- VE GEZ- GİT- S-end.

Müdür görmeden sevgilisiyle telefonda (konuşuyor); (onunla) buluşup gezmeye
gidecek.

Picture 6

17. INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place) ÇOCUK İKİ ARKADAŞ KIZ... İKİ_INDEX-3 p.
 non.-man.(distance)
 pr. pl. BAK-(ref. over something) İÇİNDE BEĞEN- O KENDİ KÖPEK AYNI
 y/n-q.....
 İSTE- AL- ... KÖPEK AYNI KIZ OL- İSTE- AL- INDEX-3 det.sg.(ref.
 other side) KIZ İSTE- DÜŞÜN- AYNI KÖPEK BAK- EV YAP- EV KÖPEK_
 EV VAR BAK- AYNI İSTE- AL- EV YAP- S-end.
 Orada iki arkadaş kız çocuğu (var)... İkisi (çitin) üzerinden bakıyorlar, biri orda
 beğendiği köpeğin aynısını kendi almak istiyor diğeri olur mu diyor. Kız köpeği
 istiyor; köpeği alıp köpek klübesinin aynısını yapmayı düşünüyor.

Picture 7

18. INDEX-3 det.sg. AİLE BERABER BALKON BAK-(ref. INDEX-3 dem.
 sing. nod.)
 pr. sg.)
 O aile beraber balkondan (dışarı/oraya) bakıyorlar.
19. INDEX-3 det.sg. ÇOCUK INDEX-3 det.sg. BEĞEN- ARABA INDEX-3
 det.sg. RENK İSTE- ...
 O çocuk o (arabayı) beğeniyor o renk araba istiyor.

- nod.....
-
20. INDEX-3 poss. pr. sg. BABA INDEX-3 p. pr. sg. İSTE- AL- DÜŞÜN-
 neg² -nod.....
-
- MERAK ET DEĞİL BEN ARABA AL- INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg. AYNİ AL-
 Babası almak istiyor/ almayı düşünüyor “merak etme araba alacağım onun
 aynısını alacağım” (diyor).

- nod.....
-
21. ANNE DÜŞÜN- OL- OL- INDEX-3 det. sg. ARABA AL- S-end.
 Anne “olabilir, o arabayı alabiliriz” diye düşünüyor.

Picture 8

-
22. INDEX-1 det. sg. ERKEK INDEX-1 det. sg. ERKEK SARI SAÇ ERKEK
-
- INDEX-3 det.sg.(ref. other side) BAŞKA BAŞ_SARI(K)Lİ ERKEK
 Bu erkek sarı saçlı; diğer erkeğin başı sarı(k)lı (diğer erkek Arap).

23. BAŞ_SARI(K)LI INDEX-1 det. sg. MİSAFİR GEL- ... BAŞ_SARI(K)LI

YER MEMLEKET SÜPER BİLGİSAYAR BAK- İKİ_INDEX-3 p. pr. pl.

-nod

RESİM BAK- DİĞER ERKEK SARI SAÇ ŞAŞIR- DÜŞÜN- YER GÜZEL

-nod.....

DÜŞÜN- BEN GİT- DÜŞÜN-

Bu başı sarı(k)lı olan misafir gelmiş. Onun memleketi süper; ikisi bilgisayarda resim(lere) bakıyorlar. Sarışın erkek şaşıyor “yer güzel, ben gidebilirim” diye düşünüyor.

Picture 9

sing.-nod

24. INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place) AİLE INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place) ANNE

sing.-nod

ÇOCUK ANNEANNE S-end.

Orada aile, anne çocuk anneanne (var).

25. INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place) ANNEANNE INDEX-1 det.sg. AKŞAM

sing.-nod

sing.-nod

MİSAFİR GEL- VAR YEMEK HAZIR YAP- ÇOCUK YE- ANNE

neg³.....

DEĞİL ELLE- DEĞİL MİSAFİR GEL- GÜZEL MİSAFİR AKŞAM

MİSAFİR GÜZEL YEMEK DAVET MİSAFİR S-end.

Akşam misafir gelecek, anneanne yemek hazırlığı yapıyor. Çocuk (yemekleri) yiyor, anne “dokunma, elleme misafir gelecek; akşam misafirlere güzel yemek daveti var” diyor.

.....neg³

sing.-nod

26. YE- ANNE YAP- DEĞİL MİSAFİR GEL- LAZIM BİRAZ BEKLE- ANNE

BİR İKİ TANE VER-

Anne “yeme misafir gelecek biraz beklemen lazım” diyor, bir iki tane veriyor (çocuğa).

Picture 10

sing.-nod

27. INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place) BABA ÇOCUK EVLAT BERABER DÜKKAN

BİSİKLET GÖR-.... BEN İSTE- BEN DÜŞÜN- SONRA TATİL GİT-

sing.-nod y/n-q.....

BİSİKLET LAZIM... BABA İSTE- BİSİKLET AL- SONRA TATİL

- nod.....

GİT- LAZIM... EVET ÇOCUK INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg. BEĞEN-

-nod.....

INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.... BABA TAMAM BİR HAFTA İÇİNDE AL- SONRA

TATİL GİT- BİSİKLET GEZ-

Orada, baba (ve) oğlu beraber dükkanda bisiklet görüyorlar... (Çocuk) “ben (bisiklet) istiyorum, sonra tatile gidince bisiklet lazım” diyor... Baba “öyle mi, bisikleti istiyorsun sonra tatile gidince mi lazım” diyor... Çocuk “evet onu beğendim” diyor... Baba “tamam bir hafta içinde alacağım sonra tatile gidince bisikletle gezersin” diyor.

3.1.2.4. Phase IV (Imperative Sentences)

neg¹

1. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg.(place) ARKADAŞ SİGARA_(İÇ-) HAYIR
Burada arkadaş(ım) sigara içme!

neg³

neg¹

neg²

2. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg.(place) DENİZ ADAM ATLA- HAYIR ATLA- DEĞİL
Burada denize atlama!

- neg¹
3. INDEX-1 det. sg. YER İÇİNDE ÇALGI SES HAYIR
Burada ses /(gürültü) yapma!
- sing.-nod
4. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg.(place) TUVALET KLOZET KOLA YEMEK VS. ÇÖP
neg³ neg¹
AT- HAYIR
Burada klozete kola, yemek, çöp vs. atma!
- neg¹ sing.-nod
5. INDEX-1 det. sg. İŞ YER İÇİNDE BAĞIR- HAYIR SUS
Bu işyerinde bağırma, sus!
- neg¹
6. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg.(place) BAHÇE ÇİM BAS- AYAK HAYIR
Burada çimenlere basma!
- sing. nod neg¹ sing. nod
7. BU ÇOCUK PRİZ /FİŞ ÇEK- HAYIR DİKKAT... TEHLİKE VAR...
sing. nod sing. nod
TEHLİKE VAR PRİZ /FİŞ TEHLİKE VAR... ÇOCUK KÜÇÜK ÇEK-
neg¹
HAYIR
Çocuk... fişi çekme! ... Dikkat et! Tehlike var... Alma!

3.1.3. INFORMANT III

3.1.3.1. Phase I (Interrogative Sentences)

Picture 1

-
1. HEPSİ AİLE EV BABA ERKEK ÇALIŞ-(ref. kürek) BAHÇE S-end.
Bütün aile evde. Baba bahçede toprakla iş yapıyor.

-
- sing.-nod
2. KIZ EVLAT BİSİKLET OYNA- S-end.
Kızları bisikletle oynuyor/bisiklete biniyor.

-
3. KIZ /ZEVK_(AL-)/İZLE- S-end.
Kız zevk alıyor.

-
- wh-q
4. TOPRAK ÇALIŞ-(ref. kürek) NE
(O), toprakta ne iş yapıyor?

-
- wh-q y/n-q
5. BİSİKLET ZEVK_(AL-)/İZLE- NE Q-mark.
Bisiklet (çocuk için) nasıl, zevkli mi?

- _____ y/n-q _____
6. ANNE ZE VK_(AL-)/İZLE- Q-mark.
Anne zevk alıyor mu?
- _____ y/n-q wh-q _____
7. EV AİLE Q-mark. NE
Evdekiler aile mi, ne/kim?
- _____ y/n-q _____
8. ANNE BABA EVLAT Q-mark.
(Onlar) anne, baba (ve) çocuk/(onların) çocuğu mu?
- _____ sing.-nod y/n-q _____
9. EV BABA ANNE Q-mark.
Evin anne (ve) babası mı (onlar)?

Picture 2

- _____
10. HEPSİ ÖĞRENCİ MÜZİK(ref. flute) ÖĞRETMEN ÖĞRET- INDEX-3 p.
_____ y/n-q _____
pr. pl. Q-mark.
Hepsi öğrenci. Öğretmen onlara müzik mi öğretiyor?

_____ y/n-q

11. HEPSİ ÖĞRENCİ ÖĞREN- Q-mark.

Öğrencilerin hepsi/bütün öğrenciler öğren(-ebil)iyor mu?

Picture 3

_____ voc. lex.(torun) _____ y/n-q.....

12. DEDE TORUN HEDİYE VER- Q-mark

Dede torun(un)a hediye mi vermiş?

_____ non-man.(suprise) wh-q

13. ŞAŞIR- NE Q-mark.

Ne (olmuş), (o) şaşırmış mı?

_____ non-man.(suprise)

14. HEDİYE VER- KIZ TORUN HEDİYE VER- ŞAŞIR- Q-mark.

Kız torununa hediye verince (o) şaşırmış mı?

Picture 4

_____ y/n-q

15. EV Q-mark.

(Burası/bu) ev mi?

_____ y/n-q

16. ÇEKMECE MERAK_(ET-) Q-mark.

Çekmece(yi) (içindekini) merak mı ediyor?

neg²

17. BAK- NE MERAK_(ET-) BUL- BUL- DEĞİL Q-mark.
Merak ettiği şeyi buldu mu bul(a)madı mı?

Picture 5

18. İŞ (Mİ)
(Burası/orası) iş (yeri) mi?

Picture 6

19. KARDEŞ İKİ KARDEŞ BAK-(ref. INDEX-3 dem. pr.sg.[place])
.....y/n-q
MERAK_(ET-) Q-mark.
İki kardeş merak etmiş (birşeye) mi bakıyorlar?

20. İÇİNDE SES NE MERAK_(ET-) Q-mark.
Oradaki ses ne (diye) mi merak ediyorlar?

21. ÇANTA KİTAP BIRAK- Q-mark.
Çanta ve kitap(larını) bırakmışlar mı?

- _____ $y/n-q$ _____ $y/n-q$
22. KIZ KOL YORUL- Q-mark. AĞIR
Ağır (olduğu için) kızın kolu mu yorulmuş?

Picture 7

- _____ $y/n-q$
23. KADIN/KIZ EV DÜŞÜN- BAK- AL- Q-mark.
Kadın bakıp ev almayı mı düşünüyor?

- _____
24. KADIN/KIZ EV AL- İSTE- Q-mark.
Kadın ev almak mı istiyor?

- _____
25. KIZ PARK ZEVK_(AL-)/İZLE- GİT- Q-mark. ... PARK BAK-(ref. INDEX-3

- dem. pr. sg.[place]) GİT- Q-mark.
Kız parka bakmaya gitmek mi istiyor?/ Kız gidip parka bakmak mı istiyor?

- _____
26. ERKEK EVLAT FUTBOL BAK- GİT- İSTE- Q-mark.
Erkek çocuk/oğulları futbol izlemeye mi gitmek istiyor?

y/n-q

27. BABA/ADAM EŞ EV AL- KARAR_(VER-) DÜŞÜN- Q-mark.
Baba ve eşi karar verip ev almayı mı düşünüyorlar?/Baba ve eşi düşünüp ev almaya mı karar vermişler?

Picture 8

y/n-q

28. KAFE DIŞARIDA KAFE Q-mark. INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg. (place)
Burası kafenin dışarısı mı?

y/n-q

y/n-q

29. BİLGİSAYAR İÇİNDE NE MERAK ARAŞTIR- Q-mark.
Bilgisayarın içinde birşeyi mi merak edip araştırıyorlar?

-
30. ERKEK TÜRK VATANDAŞ KONUŞ- FİKİR Q-mark.
(Farklı) vatandaşlar fikir mi tartışıyorlar/fikir alışverişi mi yapıyorlar?

Picture 9

voc. lex.(mutfak)

31. AİLE INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg. [place] AİLE INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.

voc. lex.(mutfak)

[place] AİLE YER YİYECEK/YEMEK EL YAP- ZEVK_(AL-)

/İZLE- Q-mark.

Aile mutfakta yemek yapmaktan (elleriye yapmaktan) zevk alıyor mu?

.....y/n-q

32. KIZ EVLAT BAK- MERAK_(ET-) Q-mark.

Kız çocuk merak mı ediyor?

...wh-q

33. KIZ ANNE INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. NE MERAK_(ET-) Q-mark.

Kız merak edip “anne bu ne” mi (diyor)?

Picture 10

34. BABA EVLAT BİSİKLET AL- İSTE- DÜŞÜN- Q-mark.

Baba çocuğuna bisiklet almayı mı istiyor/düşünüyor?

35. ADAM/ERKEK PARA ÖDE- DÜŞÜN- KARAR Q-mark.

Adam düşünüp para ödemeye karar mı verecek?

y/n-q

36. ÇOCUK SEVİN- AL- İSTE- Q-mark.

Çocuk seviniyor, almak mı istiyor?

3.1.3.2. Phase II (Negative Sentences and Some Affirmatives)

Picture 1

1.

neg² sing.-nod

 ARABA YIKA- /TEMİZLE- DEĞİL HAYIR
 Araba yıkamıyor hayır.

2.

sing.-nod

 ADAM ŞAPKA VAR EVET
 Adamın şapkası var, evet.

3.

-nod sing.-nod sing.-nod sing.-nod

 EVET ÇOCUK BİSİKLET BİN- EVET
 Evet, ocuk bisiklete biniyor.

4.

neg² sing.-nod

 KÖPEK YOK HAYIR
 Köpek yok, hayır.

5.

neg² sing.-nod neg²

 HAYIR KIZ AT _BİN- HAYIR
 Hayır, kız ata binmiyor.

$$\underline{\text{neg}^2}$$

6. AİLE TOP OYNA-/EĞLENCE YOK

Aile top oynamıyor.

$$\underline{\text{neg}^2}$$
$$\underline{\text{neg}^2}$$

- ## 7. YOK TATİL HAYIR... AİLE TATİL HAYIR

Hayır, tatile (gitmiyor). Aile tatile (gitmiyor).

Picture 2

sing. -nod

8. ÇOCUK ÖĞRENCİ/EVLAT EVET

Çocuk(lar) öğrenci evet.

-nod sing.-nod sing.-nod sing.-nod sing.-nod

9. VAR EVET GÖZLÜK ADAM ÖĞRETMEN VAR

Evet, gözlük(lü) adam öğretmen.

$$\underline{\text{neg}^2 \quad \text{neg}^3}$$

sing.-nod

$$\underline{\text{neg}^2}$$

10. YOK HAYIR ERKEK/ADAM ÇOCUK MÜZİK/ŞARKI YOK

Hayır, adam (ve) çocuk(lar) şarkı (söylemiyor).

- neg²
11. ÇOCUK ŞARKI/ MÜZİK YOK HAYIR
Hayır çocuk(lar) şarkı (söylemiyor).
- neg²
12. ÖĞRENCİ/EVLAT PİYANO_(ÇAL-) YOK
Öğrenci(ler) piyano çalmıyor.
- nod sing.-nod -nod
13. VAR EVET ÖĞRENCİ KEMAN_(ÇAL-) VAR
Var evet, keman çalan öğrenci var.
- neg²
14. ÖĞRENCİ MATEMATİK EĞİTİM YOK
Öğrenci(ler) matematik eğitimi (almıyorlar).
- neg¹....
15. ÖĞRETMEN GİTAR_(ÇAL-) YOK HAYIR
Öğretmen gitar çalmıyor hayır.
- nod.....
16. ÖĞRENCİ BERABER EVET
Evet, öğrenciler beraber.

- neg¹
17. ÖĞRETMEN TAHTA YOK
Öğretmen tahta(ya) (yazı yazmıyor).

Picture 3

- neg² neg³-sing.-nod
18. AĞABEY DEĞİL HAYIR
Ağabey(si) değil, hayır.

- neg²
19. KIZ AĞLA- DEĞİL
Kız ağlamıyor.

- neg²
20. ADAM CEKET_(GİY-) KIRMIZI DEĞİL
Adam kırmızı ceket giymemiş.

- neg² neg²
21. ADAM YAŞ ÜÇ(pl.) DEĞİL DEĞİL HAYIR
Adam otuz yaşında değil, hayır.

Picture 4

- neg²
22. EVLAT/ÖĞRENCİ ERKEK DEĞİL
Çocuk erkek değil.
- neg²
23. EVLAT/ÖĞRENCİ SANDALYE/OTUR- DEĞİL
Çocuk sandalye(de) değil.
- neg¹
24. EVLAT/ÖĞRENCİ PANTOLON_(GİY-) YOK
Çocuk pantolon giymiyor.
- nod.....-nod.....
25. MERAK_(ET-) EVET... EVLAT/ÖĞRENCİ ÇOCUK MERAK_(ET-)
Çocuk merak ediyor/arıyor, evet.
- neg²
26. ÇOCUK AĞLA- DEĞİL
Çocuk ağlamıyor.

- neg²
27. ÇOCUK EVLAT YATAK TOPLA- DEĞİL
Çocuk yatağını toplamıyor.

- neg¹ neg²
28. EV KAÇ- DEĞİL DEĞİL
Ev(den) kaçmıyor.

- neg¹ neg¹ neg²
29. DEĞİL HAYIR ÇOCUK TOPLA- DEĞİL
Hayır, çocuk toplamıyor.

Picture 5

- neg² neg²
30. DEĞİL KADIN/KIZ BAĞIR- DEĞİL HAYIR
Kadın bağırıyor, hayır.

- sing.-nod sing.-nod sing.-nod
31. İŞ EVET İŞ EVET... INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg. (place) İŞ EVET
İş (yeri), evet... Orası iş (yeri), evet.

-nod.....

32. SAKLAN- GİZLEN- EVET
Saklanıyor, gizleniyor, evet.

$$\underline{\text{neg}^2}$$

33. KADIN/KIZ SANDALYE SAKLAN- DEĞİL
Kadın sandalye(nin) (altına) saklanmıyor.

$$\frac{\text{neg}^2}{\text{neg}^2}$$

34. İŞ YEŞİL DUVAR DEĞİL.... HAYIR
İş yeri(nin) duvar(ları) yeşil değil, hayır.

$$\underline{\text{neg}^2}$$
$$\underline{\text{neg}^2}$$

35. DEĞİL KADIN/KIZ BAYIL- DEĞİL HAYIR
Kadın bayılmamış, hayır.

$$\underline{\text{neg}^2}$$
$$\frac{\text{neg}^2}{\text{neg}^2}$$

36. DEĞİL KADIN/KIZ OKU- DEĞİL HAYIR
Kadın (kitap) okumuyor, hayır.

Picture 6

- _____ neg²
 37. ÇOCUK ERKEK YOK
 Erkek çocuk yok.

- _____ neg²
 38. KIZ ÖĞRENCİ DEĞİL
 Kız(lar) öğrenci değil.

- neg² _____ neg¹
 39. YOK KIZ İP_ATLA- HAYIR
 Kız(lar) ip atlamıyor, hayır.

- _____ neg² _____ neg²
 40. KIZ OYNA-/OYUN/EĞLENCE YOK TOP YOK
 Kız(lar) oynamıyor, top oynamıyor.

- _____ neg²
 41. KIZ BİRBİRİNE_BAK- YOK
 Kız(lar) birbirlerine bakmıyor.

- neg²
42. YAĞIŞ/YAĞ- YOK
Yağmıyor/yağış yok.

Picture 7

- nod
43. AİLE EVET AİLE EVET
(Onlar) aile, evet.

- neg² neg²
44. YOK BAHÇE YOK HAYIR
Bahçede değil, hayır./Bahçe yok, hayır.

- neg² neg¹ neg³
45. OTUR-/SANDALYE YOK HAYIR DEĞİL
Oturmuyor(lar), hayır.

- neg² neg²
46. YOK DENİZ YOK HAYIR
Deniz yok, hayır. / Deniz(e) (bakmıyorlar), hayır.

$$\frac{\text{neg}^3 \quad \text{neg}^1 \quad \text{neg}^2}{\text{neg}^2}$$

47. KOŞ- YOK YOK HAYIR...ÇOCUK KOŞ DEĞİL
Koşmuyor, hayır... Çocuk(lar) koşmuyor.

neg²

48. BERABER DEĞİL
(Onlar) beraber değil.

Picture 8

neg²

49. ÖĞRENCİ DEĞİL HAYIR
Öğrenci değil, hayır.

neg²
neg²

50. ADAM YOK HAYIR KAHVE DEĞİL
Adam (içmiyor), hayır kahve (içmiyor).

-nod.....

51. ADAM İŞ EVET
İş adamı, evet.

- neg^2 neg^2
-
52. TELEVİZYON DEĞİL HAYIR... TELEVİZYON İZLE-/ZEVK_(AL-) DEĞİL
Televizyon değil, hayır... Televizyon izlemiyor(lar).

-
53. DEĞİL YE-/YİYECEK DEĞİL
Yemek yemiyor(lar).

- neg^2
-
54. SARI TELEFON YOK
Sarı(şın)/sarı (saçlı) (adam) telefon(da) (konuşmuyor).

- neg^2 neg^2 neg^2
-
55. YOK DEĞİL HAYIR BİRA DEĞİL
Hayır, bira (içmiyorlar).

- neg^1 neg^1 neg^3 neg^2
-
56. YOK HAYIR KADIN YOK
Yok, hayır kadın yok.

Picture 9

- neg¹ neg³ sing.-nod neg²
57. YOK HAYIR BEŞ KİŞİ YOK
Yok hayır, beş kişi yok.

- nod.....
58. ANNEANNE EVET GALİBA
(O), anneanne evet.

- nod
59. YEMEK YAP- EVET... YİYECEK/YE- YOK HAYIR
Yemek yapıyor(lar), evet... Yemiyor(lar), hayır.

- neg² neg³ neg²
60. YOK HAYIR ELMA KES- YOK
Yok hayır, elma kesmiyor(lar)/doğramıyor(lar).

- neg² neg²
61. YOK HAYIR PASTA YAP- DEĞİL
Yok hayır, pasta yapmıyor.

- neg²
62. TAVUK MASA DEĞİL
Tavuk masada değil. / Masada tavuk yok.

- nod
63. TAVUK VAR EVET
Tavuk var, evet.

Picture 10

- nod.....
64. VAR EVET DÜKKAN BAK- EVET
Evet, dükkan(a) bakıyor(lar)... Evet.

- nod..... neg²
65. İSTE- BİSİKLET İSTE- ARABA DEĞİL HAYIR
Bisiklet istiyor; araba değil, hayır.

- neg² neg²
66. YOK HAYIR YARAMAZ YOK
Yok hayır, yaramazlık (yapmıyor).

neg² neg² neg²

67. YOK HAYIR BABA KIZ- DEĞİL YOK

Yok hayır, baba kızmıyor.

neg²

68. BİSİKLET KIRMIZI DEĞİL

Bisiklet kırmızı değil.

-nod

69. BİSİKLET YEŞİL EVET

Bisiklet yeşil, evet.

3.1.3.3. Phase III (Declarative Sentences)

Picture 1

sing.-nod

1. EV KENDİ VAR INDEX-3 p. pr. pl

Evin sahibi onlar./Ev onlara ait.

sing.-nod

2. ADAM ÇALIŞ-(ref. kürek) BAHÇE YAP- EL YAP-

Adam eliyle bahçede çalışıyor/ bahçeyi (düzenliyor).

sing.-nod

3. KADIN/KIZ TOPRAK YARDIM ET-
Kadın toprak (işine) yardım ediyor.

-
4. BİSİKLET KIZ ZEVLK_(AL-)/İZLE- İSTE- BİN- İSTE- S-end
Kız bisikletten/bisiklete (binmekten) zevk alıyor, binmek istiyor.

Picture 2

sing.-nod

5. ÖĞRENCİ MÜZİK(ref. flüt) EĞİTİM GİT-
Öğrenci(ler) müzik eğitimine gidiyor.

-
6. ÖĞRETMEN ÖĞRET- S-end... ÖĞREN- İSTE-/SEVİN-
Öğretmen öğretiyor; öğrenmek istiyorlar.

Picture 3

- head one side
-
7. KIZ TORUN EV DEDE GEL- SEVİN-/İSTE- S-end... YIL_EĞLENCE
-
- head other side sing.-nod
-
- VEYA/EVET DOĞUM... S-end... HEDİYE VER- KIZ ÇOK/OL-
-
- SEVİN- /İSTE-
- Kız torunu evine dedesi geldiği (için) seviniyor. Yılbaşı veya doğum günü...
(Dedesi) hediye veriyor, kız çok seviniyor.

Picture 4

8. KIZ EV EVLAT/ÖĞRENCİ GİT-
- Kız çocuk ev(den) çıkacak.
-
- neg²
-
9. KOT VEYA PANTOLON BUL- DEĞİL ÇEKMECE BAK- ARA- BUL-
- neg¹
- S-end
- Kot(unu) veya pantolon(unu) bul(a)mıyor, çekmeceye bakıyor, arıyor,
bul(a)mıyor.
-
- neg²
-
10. PANTOLON_(GİY-) BUL- DEĞİL MERAK_(ET-)
- Pantolon(unu) bulamıyor, merak ediyor.

Picture 5

-
11. KIZ İŞ GİT-
Kız işe gitmiş.

-
12. YAZI/YAZ- HATA YAP-
Yazıda hata yapmış. /Yazıyı yanlış (yazmış).

- wh-q _____ wh-q..
13. NE YAP- KIZ KAÇ- SAKLAN- TELEFON ARA- KIZ YARDIM NE
.....sing.-nod
YAP-
Ne yapacak kız? Kaçıp saklanıp telefonla yardım (mı isteyecek), ne yapacak?

- wh-q y/n-q neg²
14. NE... BAŞAR- BAŞAR- DEĞİL
Ne (olacak)? Başaracak mı, başar(a)mayacak mı?

Picture 6

-
15. KIZ ARKADAŞ KARDEŞ YÜRÜ-
Kız arkadaş(lar), kardeşler yürüyor.

- _____wh-q_____
16. INDEX-3 det. sg.(ref. distance) SES NE MERAK_(ET-)
“O ses ne” diye merak ediyorlar.
- _____wh-q_____y/n-q?_____
17. INDEX-3 det. sg. (ref. distance) SES(pl.) NE EĞLENCE MERAK_(ET-)
O sesler ne, eğlence mi diye merak ediyor(lar).
- _____
18. KIZ YAP- YARDIM BAK-(ref. downwards) KALDIR- BAK-
_____sing.-nod_____
MERAK_(ET-) S-end
Kız “ben sana yardım edeyim, kaldırıyım (sen) bak” diyor, merak ediyor.
- _____neg²_____
19. KIZ CEVAP S-end.
Kız cevap vermiyor.

Picture 7

- _____
20. EV APARTMAN BAK- GİT-
Ev, apartman bakmaya gitmişler.

sing.-nod

21. BAK-(ref. etraf) EV AL- İSTE- S-end.

Etrafa bakıyor(lar); ev almak istiyorlar.

sing.-nod?

y/n-q.....

22. EŞ KONUŞ- EVET AL- KARAR_(VER-) DÜŞÜN- S-end.

Eş(iyle) alalım mı diye konuşuyor; düşünüp karar verecek(ler).

voc.lex.(kız)

sing.-nod

23. EVLAT PARK BAK-(ref. etraf) S-end.

Kız çocuk parka bakıyor.

-
24. ERKEK ÇOCUK FUTBOL BAK- SEYRET-

Erkek çocuk futbol izliyor.

Picture 8

-
25. ADAM TÜRK INDEX-3 det.sg. ADAM VATANDAŞ GEL-

O adam Türk vatandaşı; gelmiş.

sing.-nod

26. İŞ BAK-(ref. etraf) ARAŞTIR- S-end. MERAK_(ET-)
Etrafta iş bakıyor araştırıyor... merak ediyor.

Picture 9

wh-q

sing.-nod

27. AİLE GİT- YİYECEK NE MERAK_(ET-) S-end.
Aile gitmiş, ne yemek (yapacaklarını) merak ediyorlar.

sing.-nod

sing.-nod....

28. AİLE GİT- AİLE INDEX-3 p. pr. pl. YİYECEK MUTFAK GİT- TAVUK
.....
YAP- S-end.
Aile gitmiş; onlar mutfağa gitmiş tavuk yapıyor(lar).

Picture 10

sing.-nod

29. DÜKKAN BİSİKLET ALIŞVERİŞ GİT- BAK- SEYRET- S-end.
Dükkana alışverişe gitmiş(ler), bisiklete bakıyorlar(lar).

30. BABA PARA VER- KARAR_(VER-) DÜŞÜN- AL-
Baba para verip alsın mı diye düşünüyor.

3.1.3.4. Phase IV (Imperative Sentences)

- | | | |
|----|---|-----------------|
| | voc. lex.(‘me’) | |
| | neg ² | |
| 1. | SİGARA_(İÇ-) DEĞİL
Sigara içme! | |
| | | |
| | voc. lex.(‘me’) | voc. lex.(‘me’) |
| | neg ² | |
| 2. | YÜZ- ATLA-/GİR- DEĞİL
Yüz(me), atlama! | |
| | | |
| | voc. lex.(‘ma’) | |
| | neg ² | |
| 3. | KORNA_(BAS-) DEĞİL
Kornaya basma! | |
| | | |
| | voc. lex.(‘ma’) | |
| | neg ² | |
| 4. | ÇÖP AT- DEĞİL
Çöp atma! | |

- | | |
|--|---|
| <u>voc. lex.('ma')</u>
<u>neg²</u> | <u>voc. lex.('ma')</u>
<u>neg²</u> |
| 5. | SES DEĞİL SUS SES DEĞİL
Ses yapma/bağırma, sus! |

- | | |
|--|--|
| <u>voc. lex.('ma')</u>
<u>neg²</u> | |
| 6. | ÇİÇEK BAS- DEĞİL
Çiçek(lere) basma! |

- | | | |
|---|--|---|
| <u>voc. lex.(yapma)</u>
<u>neg²</u> | <u>voc. lex.(yapma)</u>
<u>neg²</u> | <u>voc. lex.(yapma)</u>
<u>neg¹</u> |
| 7. | EL- DEĞİL ÇEK- DEĞİL HAYIR
Elleme! Çekme! Hayır, yapma! | |

3.1.4. INFORMANT IV

3.1.4.1. Phase I (Interrogative Sentences)

Picture 1

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| <u>sing.-nod</u> | <u>wh-q</u> |
| 1. | INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. (place) AİLE HEPSİ BİSİKLET BAK- NE
Burada bütün aile bisiklete bakıyor, niye/ne (için)? |

2. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. (place) AİLE HEPSİ BİSİKLET BAK- ÇOCUK
 _____ neg² wh-q
 DÜŞ- DEĞİL NE
 Burada bütün aile bisiklete bakıyor, çocuk düşmesin (diye) mi, niye/ne (için)?
3. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. (place) BABA BAHÇE ÇALIŞ-(ref. kürek) ÇİÇEK AÇ-
 _____ -nod y/n-q
 Burada baba bahçede çalışıp çiçek mi (yetiştiriyor)?
4. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. (place) ANNE BAHÇE BAK- KIZ NE DÜŞ-
 _____ sing.-nod wh-q
 _____ neg² sing.-nod
 DÜŞ- DEĞİL MERAK_(ET-) S-end.
 Burada anne bahçede kız(ın)a bakıyor, kız nasıl düştü mü düşmedi mi merak ediyor.
5. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. (place) ANNE BAHÇE(short.) BAK- KIZ EVLAT
 _____ -nod
 _____ sing.-nod neg²
 BİSİKLET İYİ DÜŞ- BAK- YOK RAHATLA- ÇALIŞ-(ref. kürek)
 Burada anne bahçeyle uğraşıyor. Bakıyor bisiklete (binen) kız(ı) düşmemiş, iyi; rahatlıyor, çalışmaya (devam ediyor).

4. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. (place) ANNE BAHÇE BAK- KIZ NE DÜŞ-
 neg² sing.-nod
 DÜŞ- DEĞİL MERAK_(ET-) S-end.
 Burada anne bahçede kız(ın)a bakıyor, kız nasıl düştü mü düşmedi mi merak ediyor.
5. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. (place) ANNE BAHÇE(short.) BAK- KIZ EVLAT
 sing.-nod neg²
 BİSİKLET İYİ DÜŞ- BAK- YOK RAHATLA- ÇALIŞ-(ref. kürek)
 Burada anne bahçeyle uğraşıyor. Bakıyor bisiklete (binen) kız(ı) düşmemiş, iyi; rahatlıyor, çalışmaya (devam ediyor).

- 5.
- | | | |
|------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------------------|
| | -nod | |
| INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. (place) | ANNE BAHÇE(short.) | BAK- KIZ EVLAT |
| sing.-nod | neg ² | |
| BİSİKLET İYİ | DÜŞ- | BAK- YOK RAHATLA- ÇALIŞ-(ref. kürek) |
- Burada anne bahçeyle uğraşıyor. Bakıyor bisiklete (binen) kız(ı) düşmemiş, iyi; rahatlıyor, çalışmaya (devam ediyor).

-nod.....

6. INDEX-1 det. sg. KIZ ANNE ÇALIŞ-(ref. kürek) KIZ GEL- BEN GİT-

....-nod.....

ANNE TAMAM GİT- ÇALIŞ-(ref. kürek)

Bu kız(ın) anne(si) (bahçede) çalışıyor, kız(ı) geliyor “ben gidiyorum” diyor.

Anne “tamam git” diyor, çalışmaya (devam ediyor).

y/n-q

7. INDEX-1 det. sg. EV RENK Q-mark

Bu ev renk(li) mi?

-nod..... y/n-q

8. BABA ÇALIŞ- İŞ VAR Q-mark.

Babanın (bahçede) işi var mı?/ Baba (bahçede) mi çalışıyor?

y/n-q

9. ANNE BAHÇE(short.) ÇALIŞ-(ref. kürek) ZEVK AL-

Anne bahçede çalışmaktan zevk alıyor mu?

y/n-q.....

10. ÇOCUK BİSİKLET GİT- İSTE- Q-mark.

Çocuk bisikletle gitmek istiyor mu?

Picture 2

-
11. ÇOCUK+INDEX-3 p. pr. pl. BABA/ADAM ÖĞRETMEN ÖĞRET-
Erkek öğretmen çocuklara öğretiyor.

-
- nod
-
12. ÇOCUK+INDEX-3 p. pr. pl. ÖĞRETMEN MÜZİK / KEMAN_(ÇAL-)
y/n-q
ÖĞRET- Q-mark.
Çocuklara öğretmen müzik mi öğretiyor?

-
- nod
-
13. INDEX-3 det. sg. KIZ KENDİ KEMAN_(ÇAL-) DÜŞÜN- İYİ KAZAN-
y/n-q.....
İSTE- Q-mark.
O kız kendisinin iyi keman çaldığını düşünüyor; başarılı olmak, kazanmak mı istiyor?

-
14. DİĞER ERKEK FLÜT_(ÇAL-) KAZAN- ŞARKI/MÜZİK GİT-(ref. yüksek-
y/n-q.....
ileri) HAYAL_(ET-) Q-mark. S-end.
Flüt çalan diğer erkek müzikte yükselip, kazanmayı/ başarılı olmayı mı hayal ediyor?

- y/n-q.....
15. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. (person) GİTAR_(ÇAL-) ZEVK AL- Q-mark.
Bu, gitar çalmaktan zevk alıyor mu?

- non.-man.(exaggeration)
16. INDEX-1 det. sg. ÖĞRETMEN ÖĞRET- ÇALIŞ- İSTE- FAZLA
y/n-q
Q-mark.
Bu öğretmen öğretmek (için) çok fazla çalışmalarını mı istiyor?/Bu öğretmen öğretmek için çok fazla mı çalışıyor/(çaba gösteriyor)?

Picture 3

- y/n-q
17. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. (place) DEDE TORUN HEDİYE VER- Q-mark.
Burada, dede torun(una) hediye mi veriyor?
- y/n-q..... y/n-q
18. KIZ INDEX-1 det. sg. SEVİN- Q-mark. HEDİYE AL- SEVİN- Q-mark.
Bu kız seviniyor mu? Hediye aldığına seviniyor mu?

Picture 4

- _____ wh-q _____ y/n-q
19. INDEX-1 det. sg. KIZ ARA- NE PANTOLON_(GİY-) ARA- Q-mark.
Bu kız ne arıyor? Pantolon mu arıyor?

- _____ y/n-q wh-q _____
20. AYAKKABI ÇORAP ARA- Q-mark. HANGİSİ... PANTOLON_(GİY-)
_____ y/n-q wh-q
VEYA ÇORAP ARA- Q-mark. NE
Ayakkabı (mı) çorap mı arıyor, hangisi? Pantolon veya çorap mı arıyor, ne?

- _____ neg³ _____ y/n-q
21. EV BABA YOK ÇOCUK GİZLİ ARA- Q-mark.
Evde baba yok, çocuk gizli mi arıyor?

Picture 5

- _____ y/n-q _____ y/n-q
22. İŞ İÇİNDE Q-mark. INDEX-1 dem. pr. pl. (place) İŞ İÇİNDE Q-mark.
Burası iş yeri mi? (Buranın içinde iş mi var?)

- neg² y/n-q
23. GİZLİ ÖĞRETMEN GÖR- DEĞİL SAKLAN- TELEFON_(ET-) Q-mark.
Öğretmen görmeden/görmesin diye saklanıp gizlice mi telefon ediyor?

- wh-q y/n-q
24. RENK INDEX-3 dem. pr. pl (place) NE RENK VAR...
Orada ne renk(ler) var?/Orası ne renk? Renk var mı?

Picture 6

- head(pointing upwards) neg²
25. BAHÇE YÜRÜ- GÖR-/BAK- KALDIR-
non-man.(suprise) wh-q y/n-q
BAK- (ref. downwards-behind) NE Q-mark.
Bahçede yürürken yukarıyı göremiyorlar; “kaldır bakayım arkasında ne var” mı (diyor)?
- non-man.(effort) head(pointing upwards) wh-q
26. KIZ INDEX-3 det. sg. KALDIR- SÖYLE- NE
y/n-q
YUKARI(DA)_AŞAĞI_BAK- _BİR _DAKİKA _BEKLE Q-mark.
O kaldıran kız “söyle orada ne var”, yukarıdan aşağı bakan da “bir dakika bekle” mi (diyor)?

Picture 7

- sing.-nod
-
27. INDEX-1 det. sg. AİLE BALKON BAK- _ ETRAF ÇOCUK ÖĞREN-

 Q-mark.
 Bu aile balkondan etrafa bakıyor; çocuk çevreyi mi öğreniyor?

- y/n-q
-
28. ARABA GÖSTER- _ ETRAF Q-mark.
 Etraftaki arabaları mı gösteriyor?

- y/n-q
-
29. KIZ ANNE SÖYLE- BABA LAF UZAT- Q-mark.
 Kız annesine babasının lafı uzattığını mı söylüyor?

Picture 8

- nod
-
30. INDEX-3 det. sg. ADAM/ERKEK TÜRKİYE DIŞARI GEL- İŞ KONUŞ-
 y/n-q
 Q-mark.
 O adam Türkiye'ye gelmiş, iş mi konuşuyorlar?

31. y/n-q
VEYA PARA KONUŞ- İÇİNDE ANLAT- Q-mark.
Veya para mı konuşuyorlar?
32. y/n-q y/n-q
INDEX-3 p. pr. sg. INDEX-1 p. pr. sg. KÖPRÜ(İŞBİRLİĞİ) İKİ INDEX-3 p.
pr. pl. KARŞILIK(LI) YARDIM Q-mark. PARA YARDIM Q-mark.
İkisi (“o” ve “ben”) karşılıklı işbirliği, yardım mı yapıyorlar? Para yardımını mı?
33. -nod y/n-q
INDEX-1 dem. pr. pl. YER NE KAFE Q-mark.
Bunlar nerede, kafede mi?
34. y/n-q wh-q y/n-q
YER INDEX-3 dem. pr. pl. KAFE Q-mark. YOKSA OTEL İÇİNDE Q-mark
Orası, o yer kafe mi? Yoksa neresi, otel mi/otel(de)(ler) mi?

Picture 9

35. y/n-q
ANNE KIZ KÜÇÜK YEMEK YAP- ZEVK(ref. letter ‘z’) AL- Q-mark
Anne (ve) küçük kız yemek yamaktan zevk alıyor mu?

- neg² _____ y/n-q
36. YOKSA/DEĞİL ANNE KIZ EVLAT ÖĞRET- YEMEK ÖĞRET- Q-mark.
Yoksa anne kızına yemek mi öğretiyor?

- _____ non.-man.(strange) wh-q _____ y/n-q
37. ÇOCUK INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. NE ANNE ANLAT- Q-mark.
Çocuk bu ne (diye soruyor), anne anlatıyor mu?

- _____ -nod _____ -nod
- _____ y/n-q y/n-q
38. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. EV Q-mark. İÇİNDE EV Q-mark.
Burası ev mi? Evin içi mi/evde(ler) mi?

- _____ y/n-q
39. ÇOCUK MERAK_(ET-) Q-mark.
Çocuk merak ediyor mu

Picture 10

- _____ y/n-q
40. KÜÇÜK/UFAK BİSİKLET BAK- BEĞEN- AL- İSTE- Q-mark.
Ufaklık/çocuk baktığı bisikleti beğenip almak mı istiyor?

- _____ neg² y/n-q _____
41. BABA PARA CEP YOK Q-mark.
Babanın cebinde para yok mu?
- _____ wh-q _____ y/n-q _____
42. INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg. İÇİNDE INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg NE DÜKKAN Q-mark.
Orada(resimde) orası neresi, dükkân mı?

3.1.4.2. Phase II (Negative Sentences and Some Affirmatives)

Picture 1

- _____ -nod sing.-nod _____
1. ERKEK VAR ANNE VAR ÇOCUK YÜRÜ-
Erkek var, anne var, çocuk yürüyor.
- _____ -nod _____
2. ADAM/ERKEK INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place) ARABA YIKA-/TEMİZLE-
neg² neg¹
DEĞİL HAYIR
- _____ sing.-nod -nod -nod..... _____
3. VAR ŞAPKA VAR EVET... EVET ŞAPKA VAR.
Var, şapka var evet. Evet, şapka var.

-nod.....

4. EVET ÇOCUK BİSİKLET BİN-
Evet, çocuk bisiklete biniyor.

neg¹..... neg²

5. YOK HAYIR... BAHÇE KÖPEK YOK
Yok, hayır. Bahçede köpek yok.

neg¹..... neg²

6. HAYIR ÇOCUK AT_BİN- YOK
Hayır, çocuk ata binmiyor.

neg¹..... neg¹

7. HAYIR TOP OYNA-/ EĞLEN- YOK
Hayır, top oynamıyor.

neg¹..... neg²

8. HAYIR AİLE TATİL YOK
Hayır, aile tatile (gitmiyor).

- | | neg ¹ | neg ¹ | neg ² |
|-----|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------|
| 14. | HAYIR YOK | ÖĞRETMEN GİTAR_(ÇAL-) YOK | |
| | Hayır, öğretmen gitar (çalmıyor). | | |

15. -nod.....
EVET SINIF İÇİNDE EVET
Evet, sınıfta.. Evet.

- | | | | | |
|-----|-----------------------------------|------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|
| | <u>neg¹</u> | <u>sing.-nod</u> | <u>sing.-nod</u> | <u>neg¹</u> |
| 16. | HAYIR | ÖĞRETMEN | TAHTA(letter “T”) YAZI/YAZ- | YOK |
| | Hayır, öğretmen tahtaya yazmıyor. | | | |

Picture 3

- | | | |
|-----|-------------------------------------|------------------------|
| | <u>neg¹</u> | <u>neg²</u> |
| 17. | HAYIR AĞABEY/BÜYÜK ÇOCUK/UFAK DEĞİL | |
| | Hayır, çocuğun ağabeyi değil. | |

- | | | |
|-----|------------------------|--------------|
| | <u>voc. lex.(evet)</u> | |
| | <u>-nod.....</u> | <u>-nod</u> |
| 18. | VAR | EVET ÇAM VAR |
| | Var. Evet, çam var. | |

19. -nod -nod
 EVET ÇOCUK KÜÇÜK/UFAK HEDİYE VAR... DOĞUM GÜN HEDİYE
-nod
 VAR
 Evet, küçük çocuğun doğum günü; hediye var.

20. neg²
 HAYIR YIL+EĞLENCE HEDİYE DEDE KIZ UFAK/KÜÇÜK HEDİYE
neg¹
 VER- HAYIR
 Hayır, dede küçük kıza yılbaşı hediyesi vermiyor.

21. neg¹ neg²
 HAYIR AĞLA- YOK
 Hayır, ağlamıyor.

22. neg¹ neg²
 HAYIR ERKEK/ADAM CEKET_(GİY-) KIRMIZI YOK
 Hayır adam kırmızı ceket giymemiş./Hayır, adamın kırmızı ceketini yok.

23. $\frac{\text{neg}^1 \quad \text{sing.}-\text{nod} \quad \text{neg}^2}{\text{HAYIR ADAM/ERKEK YAŞ/YIL ÜÇ(pl.) DEĞİL}}$
 Hayır, adamın yaşı otuz değil.

Picture 4

24. $\frac{\text{neg}^1 \quad \text{neg}^2}{\text{HAYIR ERKEK/ADAM FOTOĞRAF YOK}}$
 Hayır, fotoğrafta erkek yok.

25. $\frac{\text{neg}^1 \quad \text{neg}^2}{\text{HAYIR ERKEK DEĞİL}}$
 Hayır, erkek değil.

26. $\frac{\text{neg}^1 \quad \text{neg}^2}{\text{HAYIR ÇOCUK SANDALYE(ref. signer's seat) ÜST ÇIK- DEĞİL}}$
 Hayır çocuk sandalyenin üstüne çıkmamış.

27. $\frac{\text{neg}^2 \quad \text{neg}^1 \quad \text{sing.}-\text{nod} \quad \text{neg}^2}{\text{YOK HAYIR ÇOCUK PANTOLON_(GİY-) YOK}}$
 Yok hayır, çocuk pantolon giymemiş.

-nod -nod -nod

Picture 5

- neg¹ neg²
33. HAYIR KADIN/KIZ BAĞIR- DEĞİL
Hayır, kadın bağırmıyor.
- nod -nod
34. EVET KIZ INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. (place) İŞ YER VAR
Evet, burası kızın iş yeri.
- nod.....
35. EVET KIZ/KADIN GİZLİ VAR
Evet kız saklanıyor.
- neg¹ neg²
- 36.. HAYIR KIZ/KADIN SANDALYE(ref. signer's seat) ALT DEĞİL
Hayır kız sandalyenin altında değil.
- neg¹ neg²
37. HAYIR İŞ DUVAR RENK YEŞİL DEĞİL
Hayır, iş (yerinin) duvarları yeşil renk değil.

38. $\frac{\text{neg}^1}{\text{HAYIR KADIN/KIZ BAYIL- DEĞİL}} \frac{\text{neg}^2}{\text{Hayır, kadın bayılmamış.}}$

39. $\frac{\text{neg}^1}{\text{HAYIR KADIN/KIZ OKU- DEĞİL}} \frac{\text{neg}^2}{\text{Hayır, kadın okumuyor.}}$

Picture 6

40. $\frac{\text{neg}^1}{\text{INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg.(place) HAYIR ERKEK ÇOCUK YOK}} \frac{\text{neg}^2}{\text{Hayır, burada erkek çocuk yok.}}$

41. $\frac{\text{neg}^2}{\text{HAYIR KIZ ÖĞRENCİ/EVLAT DEĞİL}} \frac{\text{neg}^2}{\text{Hayır, kız(lar) öğrenci değil.}}$

42. $\frac{\text{neg}^1}{\text{HAYIR KIZ OKUL GİY-/(CEKET) DEĞİL}} \frac{\text{neg}^2}{\text{Hayır, kız(lar) okul (kıyafeti) giymemiş.}}$

neg¹ neg²

43. HAYIR KIZ İP ATLA- YOK

Hayır, kız(lar) ip atlamıyor.

neg¹ neg²

44. HAYIR KIZ TOP OYNA-/EĞLEN- YOK

Hayır, kız(lar) top oynamıyor.

neg¹ neg²

45. HAYIR KIZ ÇOCUK BİRBİRİNE_BAK- YOK

Hayır kız çocuk(lar) birbirine bakmıyor.

neg¹..... neg¹

46. HAYIR YAĞIŞ YOK

Hayır, yağış yok/hayır, yağmıyor.

Picture 7

-nod -nod

47. VAR INDEX-3 dem. pr. pl. AİLE VAR

Var, orada aile var.

- neg¹ neg³
48. HAYIR AİLE BAHÇE YOK
Hayır, aile bahçede değil.

- neg² neg¹ neg²
49. YOK HAYIR BALKON OTUR- YOK
Hayır, balkonda(lar), oturmuyorlar.

- neg¹ neg³
50. HAYIR AİLE DENİZ DEĞİL
Hayır, aile deniz(e) (bakmıyor).

- nod sing.-nod -nod
51. EVET AİLE BALKON BAK- VAR
Evet, aile balkondan bakıyor.

- neg¹ neg³
52. HAYIR KIZ SARI SAÇ YOK
Hayır, kızın saçları sarı değil./ Hayır, sarı saçlı kız yok.

neg¹ neg³

53. HAYIR ÇOCUK KOŞ- YOK

Hayır, çocuklar koşmuyor.

neg¹ neg²

54. HAYIR BABA ANNE BERABER DEĞİL

Hayır, baba ve anne beraber/yanyana değil.

Picture 8

neg¹ neg²

55. HAYIR BEYAZ CEKET_(GİY-) KAHVE YOK

Hayır, beyaz giysi(li) kahve (iç)miyor.

-nod -nod

56. EVET ERKEK/ADAM İŞ ERKEK/ADAM VAR

Evet iş adamı var./Evet, adam(lar) iş adamı.

neg¹ neg²

57. HAYIR ADAM INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. (place) TELEVİZYON BAK- DEĞİL

Hayır, adam(lar) televizyon seyretmiyor.

neg¹ neg²

58. HAYIR ADAM YİYECEK/YE- YOK

Hayır adam(lar) yemek yemiyor.

neg¹ neg²

59. HAYIR SARI SAÇ ADAM TELEFON KONUŞ- DEĞİL

Hayır, sarı saçlı adam telefonda konuşmuyor.

neg¹ neg²

60. HAYIR ADAM BİRA DEĞİL

Hayır, adam(lar) bira içmiyor

neg¹ neg³

61. HAYIR KADIN/KIZ FOTOĞRAF YOK

Hayır fotoğrafta kadın yok.

Picture 9

neg¹ neg²

62. HAYIR KİŞİ BEŞ YOK

Hayır, beş kişi yok.

-nod -nod

63. EVET INDEX-3 p. pr. sg. KADIN/KIZ ANNEANNE EVET
Evet, o kızın anneanesi.

neg¹ neg²

64. HAYIR ÇOCUK YİYECEK/ YE- DEĞİL
Hayır çocuk yemek yemiyor.

-nod -nod

65. EVET INDEX-3 p. pr. pl. KİŞİ YİYECEK/ YE- EVET
Evet, o insanlar yemek yiyor.

neg¹ neg²

66. ÇOCUK ANNE ELMA KES- DEĞİL
Hayır, çocuk (ve) anne(si) elma kesmiyor.

neg³ neg²

67. HAYIR PASTA YAP- DEĞİL
Hayır, pasta yapmıyor(lar).

-nod -nod

68. EVET MASA TAVUK VAR

Evet, masada tavuk var.

Picture 10

-nod sing.-nod. -nod

69. EVET BABA ÇOCUK VİTRİN BAK- EVET

Evet, baba (ve) çocuk vitrine bakıyor.

neg¹ neg²

70. HAYIR ÇOCUK OYUN/OYNA-/OYUNCAK İSTE- DEĞİL

Hayır, çocuk oyuncak istemiyor.

neg¹ neg²

71. HAYIR BABA ÇOCUK HEDİYE DEĞİL

Hayır, baba çocuğa hediye (almıyor).

neg¹ neg²

72. HAYIR ÇOCUK ŞIMARIK/ŞIMAR-/YARAMAZ YOK

Hayır, çocuk yaramaz değil.

neg¹ neg²

73. HAYIR BABA ÇOCUK KIZ- YOK

Hayır, baba çocuğa kızmıyor.

neg¹ neg²

74. HAYIR BİSİKLET KIRMIZI YOK

Hayır, bisiklet kırmızı değil.

-nod -nod

75. EVET BİSİKLET YEŞİL VAR

Evet, bisiklet yeşil.

3.1.4.3. Phase III (Declarative Sentences)

Picture 1

sing.-nod -nod

1. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. (person) HEPSİ AİLE KENDİ BAHÇE ÇALIŞ-

DÜŞÜN- ÇİÇEK AÇ- İSTE ANNE ÇALIŞ- YAĞMUR YAĞ-

Bunların hepsi (bir) aile. Kendi bahçelerinde çalışıyorlar. Çiçeklerin açacağını düşünüyorlar. Bahçede çalışan anne yağmur yağsın istiyor.

neg²

2. ÇOCUK OYNA- /OYUN ZE VK_(AL-) ANNE BAK- DÜŞ- DEĞİL

RAHAT/RAHATLA-

Çocuk oynamaktan zevk alıyor. Anne bakıyor, çocuk düşmemiş (diye)
rahatlıyor.

Picture 2

sing.-nod

sing.-nod

sing.-nod -nod

3. INDEX-1 det. sg. ÖĞRETMEN ÜÇ ÖĞRENCİ ÖĞRET-
Bu öğretmenin üç öğrencisi var.

neg.....

4. KIZ GİTAR_(ÇAL-) KENDİ ZE VK_(AL-) S.-end.
Kız kendisinin gitar çalmasından zevk almıyor.

5. KIZ KEMAN_(ÇAL-) KENDİ DÜŞÜN- BİR NUMARA DÜŞÜN- ŞARKI

GELECEK ÜNLÜ OL- HAYAL

Keman çalan kız kendisinin birinci olacağını düşünüyor. İleride müzikte ünlü olmayı hayal ediyor.

- neg³
-
6. ÇOCUK FLÜT INDEX-1 det. sg. GEREK YOK METALİCA GEZ- İSTE-
O çocuk flüte gerek yok (diye düşünüyor), metalica (rock müzik) (dinlemeye)
gitmek istiyor.

- nod -nod
-
7. ÖĞRETMEN AĞIR ÖĞRET- MECBUR INDEX-3 det. sg. ÜÇ KİŞİ

YÜKSEL- ÖĞRETMEN İSTE-
Öğretmen çok ağır eğitim vermek/çok çalıştırmak zorunda (çünkü) o üç kişinin
yükselmesini istiyor..

Picture 3

- sing.-nod sing.-nod..... -nod
-
8. INDEX-1 det. sg. DEDE TORUN DAHA ÖNCE SÖZ VER-.....ŞİMDİ

HEDİYE(ref. hediye kutusu) VER-
Dede torununa daha önce söz vermiş, şimdi hediye veriyor.

- y/n-q wh-q neg³
-
9. ÇOCUK HEYECAN HEDİYE İÇİNDE KÜÇÜK BÜYÜK NE BİL-
Çocuk heyecanlanıyor, hediyenin içindeki küçük mü büyük mü hangisi bilmiyor.

-nod.....

10. ÇOCUK KÜÇÜK ÜZÜL-... DEDE SONRA PARA VAR BÜYÜK VER-
Çocuk (hediye) küçük (diye) üzülüyor. Dede sonra parası olunca büyük (hediye)
verecek.

Picture 4

sing.-nod

wh-q

11. INDEX-1 det. sg. KIZ ARA- PANTOLON_(GİY-) NEREDE AT- ARA-
neg³ wh-q y/n-q
 ÇAMAŞIR DEĞİL NE ARKADAŞ VER-
 Bu kız pantolonunu arıyor, nereye attı çamaşırların (arasında) değil ne oldu,
 arkadaşına mı verdi?

wh-q

12. NE ANNE SAKLA- PANTOLON_(GİY-) ARA- GÜZEL BAŞKA İSTE-
neg³
 DEĞİL
 Ne oldu anne mi sakladı? Aradığı pantolon güzel, başkasını istemiyor.

Picture 5

```
-nod.....
```

$$\text{neg}^3$$

13. INDEX-3 det. sg. KIZ ÇOCUK İŞ TELEFON ŞEF GÖR- DEĞİL GİZLİ
neg²
LAZIM MASA+ALTINDA+GİZLİ+TELEFON_(ET-) ŞEF GÖR- DEĞİL
O kızın (çocuk) iş (yerinde) telefonda konuştuğunu şefin görmemesi lazım;
masanın altında gizlice telefonda konuşuyor şef görmesin diye.

Picture 6

- nod.....
-
14. KIZ İKİ KARDEŞ YÜRÜ- INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg. (place)(ref. beyond something)
- wh-q
-
- SES INDEX-3 dem.pr. sg. (place) NE MERAK_(ET-)
- İki kız kardeş yürürken orada arka taraftaki ses ne (diye) merak ediyor(lar).
-
- wh-q (ref. other girl)
-
15. KIZ AŞAĞI NE (VAR)... BİR+DAKİKA ÇOK GÜZEL
-
- EĞLEN-/EĞLENCE-/OYUN ZEVK_(AL-) İZLE- ..
- Aşağıdaki kız ‘ne var orada’ diye soruyor, diğer kız ‘bir dakika çok güzel eğlence var çok zevkli izliyorum’ diyor.

Picture 7

- sing.-nod -nod
-
16. INDEX-1 dem. pr. pl. (person) AİLE BALKON BAK-(ref. etraf)
- y/n-q neg³
-
- ARABA(short.) GÜZEL GÜZEL DEĞİL
- Bunlar (bir) aile. Balkondan etrafa bakıyorlar araba(lar) güzel mi değil mi (diye).
-
-
17. KIZ AŞAĞI İSTE- BABA HAYDİ BAK- ÖĞRET-
- Kız aşağı gitmek istiyor; baba ‘hadi bak’ diyor, öğretiyor.

Picture 8

- nod
-
18. INDEX-1 det. sg. ADAM TÜRK DİĞER AVRUPA DUBAİ INDEX-3 p. pr.
-nod
-
- sg. GEL- TANIŞ- KONUŞ- PARA YARDIM EŞYA İTHAL ET- LAZIM

KONUŞ- ANLAŞ-

Bu adam Türk, diğeri Dubai'den gelmiş. Tanışmışlar, konuşuyorlar 'para yardımı, eşya ithal etmek lazım' diyorlar anlaşıyorlar.

-
19. İŞBİRLİĞİ /KÖPRÜ GİBİ
İşbirliği yapıyorlar galiba

- sing.-nod sing.-nod
-
20. YER KAFE GALİBA.
Yer kafe galiba.

Picture 9

-
21. ÇOCUK YİYECEK/YE- ANNE DUR PİŞ- LAZIM ÇOCUK

neg³

YE- / YİYECEK DEĞİL BİT- PASTA LAZIM.

Çocuk yiyor, anne 'dur çocuğum pişmesi lazım, yeme pastanın bitmesi lazım' diyor.

Picture 10

22. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. (place) BABA ÇOCUK BERABER BİSİKLET İSTE-
sing.-nod sing.-nod sing.-nod sing.-nod
sing.-nod sing.-nod
 BABA SÖZ SONRA MAAŞ AL- INDEX-1 det. sg. BİSİKLET VER-
sing.-nod
 SÖZ
 Burada baba ve çocuk beraber. (Çocuk) bisiklet istiyor, baba ‘söz maaş aldıktan sonra bu bisikleti vereceğim söz’ (diyor).
23. ÇOCUK BAK-(ref. through something) ŞİMDİ ŞİMDİ BABA CEP
PARA AZ SÖZ MAAŞ AL-
 Çocuk vitrine bakıyor, ‘şimdi şimdi’ diyor. Baba ‘cebimdeki para az, söz maaş alınca (alacağım)’ diyor.
24. ÇOCUK ANLA- DEĞİL.
neg³
 Çocuk anlamıyor.
25. BABA ANLAT- ÇOCUK İNATÇI GİBİ.
 Baba anlatıyor (ama) çocuk inatçı gibi

3.1.4.4. Phase IV (Imperative Sentences)

1. INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg. (place) neg¹
SİGARA YASAK SİGARA HAYIR YASAK

voc. lex. (içme)

sing.-nod neg²

SİGARA YASAK DEĞİL

Burada sigara yasak. Sigara yasak, içme!

2. neg²
HAVUZ GİR- DEĞİL
Havuza girme!

3. neg² neg²
MÜZİK ALETİ(FLÜT) DEĞİL... KORNA DEĞİL
Müzik aleti (çalma)! Korna yapma!

4. neg²
ÇÖP+AT- DEĞİL
Çöp atma!

- $\frac{\text{neg}^2 \quad \text{sing.}-\text{nod}}{\quad}$
5. SUS BAĞIR- DEĞİL SUS
Sus! Bağırma, sus!

- $\frac{\text{neg}^2 \quad \text{neg}^2}{\quad}$
6. GİT- DEĞİL BAHÇE GİT- DEĞİL
Gitme/girme! Bahçeye gitme/girme!

- $\frac{\text{voc. lex.}(\text{yapma})}{\quad}$
- $\frac{\text{neg}^1 \quad \text{neg}^2}{\quad}$
7. HAYIR DOKUN- DEĞİL...
Yapma! Hayır, dokunma!

3.2. FINDINGS

3.2.1. Sign Structure

When the data represented here is observed, it is obvious that the visual elements that constitute TİD are quite parallel to the sound elements of spoken languages, and to those of Turkish. As linguistic units, individual signs in TİD and words in Turkish can be thought of as being equivalent to each other. Both can be considered as ‘smallest forms which are independently meaningful’ and as having an internal structure, being composed of smaller components which are combined in various rule governed ways. Just as Turkish words consist of ‘phonemes’ – a series of meaning distinguishing speech sounds-, TİD signs are made up of three major components ‘hand shape’(dez),

‘movement’(sig), ‘location’(tab), altogether referred to as parameters, in terms of their internal structure.

However, there is one major difference between Turkish words and TİD signs. Turkish words are made up of a sequential series of phonemes whereas, TİD signs involve a simultaneous combination of the above mentioned components of their internal structure. What is sequential in TİD, as well as in other sign languages, is the order of the tabs (location) and/or the order of sigs (movements) involved during the sign production. To give one example, the Turkish word ‘kitap (book)’ consists of the phonemes [k], [i], [t], [a] and [p] respectively; a change in the order of these phonemes results either in meaningless remainders –such as, ‘akipt’ or ‘pikat’ or in a totally different word such as ‘patik’. On the other hand, as represented in the data of this study (i.e, informant I, phase I, picture 5, sentence 22; informant II, phase I, picture 5, sentence 32), the TİD sign ‘KİTAP (book)’ requires the following simultaneous combination:

- TAB: The upper part of the signer’s torso between the chest and the chin, upper neutral space in front of signer’s body.
- DEZ1-DEZ2: Vertical flat hands touching each other from the sides of the little fingers.
- SIG: Palms facing each other first, and then signer’s face repeatedly.
(These parameters are often accompanied with some sort of non-linguistic vocal sounds, as well as some facial expressions depending on linguistic and/or non-linguistic context.)

All of the TİD signs in the data have been observed to be consisting of these parameters. The above given illustration of the TİD sign ‘KİTAP (book)’ is the internal representation of a two-handed sign where both hands move together, and therefore, can be said to form a double dez. Majority of the signs in the data are of this type (such as, ‘KARDEŞ (sibling)’, ‘OTUR- (to sit down)’, ‘EĞLENCE/OYUN (fun/game)’, etc.). There are also some other two-handed signs observed in the data where the non-dominant hand (usually the left hand, unless the signer is left handed) is kept stationary,

letting the other hand (dominant one) operate on it. In such signs, the non-dominant hand functions as the tab, while the dominant one as the dez. However, such signs are less numerous in the data. E.g. TĪD sign for the verb ‘SAKLAN- (to hide)’ (i.e, informant III, phase II, picture 5, sentence 32; informant I, phase III, picture 5, sentences 24, 25):

TAB: Non-dominant rounded hand in the shape of an open fist.
 DEZ: Dominant flat hand, palm looking downwards.
 SIG: Direct movement of the dominant hand passing through the tab, from the signer towards the addressee.

Furthermore, there are also signs found in the data exhibiting (1) more than one sig such as the TĪD verb for ‘BAK- (to look at)’ (i.e. informant IV, phase I, picture 1, sentences 1, 2, 4; informant I, phase I, picture 1, sentence 3), and (2) more than one tab :

(1)

TĪD Sign: ‘BAK-’ (to look at)

TAB: upper part of the cheek (under the eye) of the dominant hand side.
 DEZ: index finger extended from the closed fist.
 SIG1: contact with tab.
 SIG2: movement away from the tab towards the addressee or the direction of the supposedly existing object referent.

(2)

TĪD Sign: ‘ANNE’ (mother)

TAB1: one breast
 TAB2: the other breast
 DEZ: horizontal rounded hand, palm facing the signer’s torso
 SIG: contact with tab1 and then tab2

A rather more complex analysis may be demonstrated as follows:

TİD Sign: 'BAHÇE' (garden)

TAB1: mouth.

TAB2: upper neutral space in front of the signer.

DEZ1: rounded vertical dominant hand, finger tips touching each other, back of the hand towards the addressee.

DEZ2-DEZ3: flat hands side by side, palms facing downwards.

SIG1: dez1 moves towards the signer's mouth

SIG2: dez2 and dez3 move apart from each other with a very slight circular movement.

It may not be wrong to consider such signs with more than one tabs, which often require a change of dez also, as compound signs since they are usually combinations of more than one separate signs, as illustrated above. In the above given example, the sign can be thought to be consisting of the signs for 'ÇİÇEK (flower)' and 'ZEMİN (ground)'.

So far, we have shown how TİD signs can be analyzed into smaller components (tab, dez, sig) just as words can be analyzed into phonemes. A further point to mention is that, contrasts in terms of these components between two TİD signs can be said to exhibit a similar situation to that of 'minimal pairs' such as 'pig' and 'big', where distinctive phonemes in words result in distinctive meanings. One example from the data can be given as:

TİD Sign: 'BEN' (I)

TAB: signer's chest.

DEZ: horizontal *flat* hand with fingers joint together, back of the hand facing the addressee.

SIG: contact with tab, with a direct movement towards the signer.

TİD Sign: ‘KENDİ’ (Self)

TAB: signer’s chest.

DEZ: horizontal *rounded* hand with fingers joint together, back of the hand facing the addressee

SIG: contact with tab, with a direct movement towards the signer.

The above given TİD signs can be considered as a ‘minimal pair’ since they only contrast in dez. Other than ‘minimal pairs’ pointing to distinctive meanings, it is also possible to observe variant forms of tab, dez and sig, which are not capable of distinguishing meaning.

For example, in producing the TİD sign ‘VAR’ (there + to be), it is observed that dez. has variant forms as can be demonstrated below:

(1)

TAB: upper torso, between the two breasts

DEZ: vertical flat hand, thumb indexing towards the signer, *other fingers up-straight*.

SIG: movement towards signer so as to contact with tab.

(2)

TAB: upper torso, between the two breasts

DEZ: vertical flat hand, thumb indexing towards the signer, *other fingers slightly bended*.

SIG: movement towards signer, so as to contact with tab

Apart from the internal structure of TİD signs, it is worth mentioning three constraints which TİD tends to bear in terms of the performance of TİD signs: The first one has to do with the use of the sign space. The sign space in TİD vertically covers the distance

from below the waist, up to the top of the head. All signs are performed within this area, some of them being excluded such as indexing an object nearby instead of using the TİD counterpart, or pointing the knee for the sign 'DİZ', for example. This limitation in the use of the sign space seems to support 'the least effort hypothesis' in providing the signers practicality and economy in effort as well as make the signs visible and explicit for the listeners, so that they are clearly understood.

The other constraint seems to restrict the use of the hands during speech. TİD involves signs that are produced either with one hand or with both hands. As it is observed during data collection, the shifting of the dominant and non-dominant hands within two-handed signs is avoided during the signing activity -except once, or twice-. Similarly, during the production of one-handed signs, signers have not been observed to change their preferences on the selection of the hand to be used throughout the whole signing activity.

The third constraint observed is known to be the 'symmetry condition' according to which "if both hands move in a two-handed sign, they must both have the same hand shape and the same movement (Deuchar 1994: 49)" Relevant examples can be seen in signs such as 'EĞLENCE/OYUN (fun/game)', 'KARDEŞ (sibling)', 'ÇOK (very)', 'ANLAT- (to tell)', 'OTUR- (to sit down)' and in many more, from the data.

Although they may represent how signs are structured, the analyses of TİD signs in terms of tab, dez and sig can hardly reveal the exact vision of the TİD signs, since they lack some necessary details, such as the angular position of the hand(s) or movement(s) in question.

Moreover, such underlying parallels between the Turkish word and TİD sign must not lead to such a conclusion as perceiving them to be identical and interchangeable. Although we have represented TİD signs through Turkish glosses within the study, TİD signs do not necessarily carry the exact meaning represented by the Turkish glosses; those inscriptions in Turkish capitals are merely for practical purposes and they represent the closest correspondences of TİD signs in Turkish.

3.2.2. The Word Order in TİD

We have mentioned earlier that words in languages are capable of conveying a meaning in isolation. However, it is doubtless to say that they have greater expressive functions when they are part of sentences, units of complete thought. Isenhardt (1990: 102) explains this as follows:

The sentence is the basic vehicle of communication. Its components are so interrelated that one element may affect the form or occurrence of another element. 'Sentence' can be defined as a relationship among components in which the meanings of individual units interact with one another in such a way as to convey a whole thought. A sentence represents something more than just the sum total of the meanings of its lexical units (words or signs).

Every language has a basic pattern to order the units that the sentences are made up of and according to the word order typology, languages are classified as S V O, S O V, V S O, O S V, etc. in terms of the predominant order of the elements -functional categories of subjects objects and verbs- constituting sentences. According to such a classification, Turkish is known to be an S O V language whereas, English is an S V O type. Yet, in both languages there are situations which require certain transformations in the ordering of these elements, such as passivization where object appears in the sentence initial position, contradicting with the basic word order pattern.

When the order of signs in TİD is concerned, it is apparent from the data that TİD exhibits an S O V pattern, being parallel to the ordering in Turkish. At first sight, this may appear to be no accident considering that Turkish signers are bilinguals, at least to some extent, and that Turkish which is dominant in the society can influence TİD, the language of a minority group, through contact and education. However, the fact that a sign language shares the same word order pattern with the spoken language of the same community does not mean that their grammars are identical (see, Fisher and Hulst 2003: 325). Although Turkish and TİD have a similar pattern of word order, TİD seems to have some constraints despite the flexible word order of Turkish -resulting from the use of inflections and other markers of grammatical relationship. Since TİD lacks in its morphology, the wide range of inflections that Turkish makes use of, its word order seems not to allow extreme deviations from the regular S O V pattern, especially in such sequences as '(subject)NP-(object)NP-transitive verb'.

(Informant III, phase I, picture 8, sentence 29)

- y/n-q y/n-q
- (3). BİLGİSAYAR İÇİNDE NE MERAK ARAŞTIR- Q-mark.
Bilgisayarın içinde birşeyi mi merak edip araştırıyorlar?

(Informant II, phase II, picture 2, sentence 18)

- neg²..... neg¹
- (4). INDEX-(ref. neutr. sign-space downwards) YAZ- DEĞİL YOK
Şimdi yazmıyor.

Secondly, cases of verb deletion have also been noticed in the data, though very limited in number. Such omission of verbs have been observed usually in a group of verbs that are known to be transitive and as light verbs in Turkish, such as hediye et-/ver- (to make a present), cevap ver- (to give answer), teşekkür et- (to thank), bira/kahve iç- (to drink beer/coffee), etc. In such cases, the nouns (usually the direct object) preceding the light verbs are verbalized. Furthermore, the approximate sign for the Turkish predicate ‘var’ (there + to be) is also omitted sometimes.

Here are some examples:

(Informant I, phase I, picture 1, sentence 1)

- wh-q
- (5). INDEX-1 det. sg. BİSİKLET ANNE VE BABA HEDİYE HANGİ(Sİ)
Bu bisikleti annesi mi babası mı, hangisi hediye etmiş?

(Informant II, phase I, picture 3, sentence 15)

- y/n-q
- (6). BABA INDEX-3 p.pr.sg. HEDİYE VER- Q-mark.
Babası ona hediye mi verdi?

(Informant III, phase II, picture 2, sentence 14)

- neg²
- (7). ÖĞRENCİ MATEMATİK EĞİTİM YOK
Öğrenci(ler) matematik eğitimi (almıyorlar).

(Informant III, phase II, picture 8, sentence 50)

- neg² neg²
- (8). ADAM YOK HAYIR KAHVE DEĞİL
Adam (içmiyor), hayır kahve (içmiyor).

(Informant III, phase II, picture 8, sentence 55)

- neg² neg² neg²
- (9). YOK DEĞİL HAYIR BİRA DEĞİL
Hayır, bira (içmiyorlar).

(Informant II, phase II, picture 8, sentence 56)

- neg¹
-
- (10). ADAM/ERKEK BEYAZ GİYSİ/CEKET KAHVE İÇ- DEĞİL
Beyaz giysili adam kahve içmiyor.

(Informant I, phase III, picture 5, sentence 31)

-
- (11). PROGRAM RESİM/ÇERÇEVE RENK KOYU AÇIK KOYU AÇIK
-sing. nod
DUVAR
Duvarda koyu ve açık renklerde resim(ler) ve (ders) programı (var).

Thirdly, object nouns or pronouns in some sentences –though very limited in number– are observed to be used sentence initially, instead of subjects. In such cases, what follows the object is either the subject or the verb. This issue will be discussed and exemplified in section 3.2.3.1. ‘Declarative Sentences’, in terms of topicalization process.

Finally, object deletion in some transitive verbs has also been noticed in the data. However, that TİD allows deletion of indirect objects in transitive verbs is deemed to be due to the nature of certain transitive verbs. Some verbs in TİD such as VER- (to give), SÖYLE- (to tell), BAK-/GÖR- (to look at/to see) contain information about the subject and/or object. In some of these verbs, a change in the ‘sig’ (movement) component is observed to indicate a sort of subject-verb agreement. The following is an example from the data:

(Informant I, phase II, picture 7, sentence 49)

- _____ -neg³... _____ -neg² _____
- (12). AİLE DENİZ BAK-/GÖR- DEĞİL
Aile denize bakmıyor.

(Informant II, phase I, picture 5, sentence 27)

- _____ wh-q y/n-q.....
- (13). KIZ TELEFON NE MÜDÜR BAK-/GÖR- KORK- SAKLAN- Q-mark

S-end.
Kız müdürün gelip görmesinden korktuğu için mi telefonda saklanarak
(konuşuyor)?

In (13) above, the sign for the verb BAK-/GÖR- is different than that of (12) in terms of the movement component (sig). In (12), the sign moves from signer's face towards the addressee whereas in (13) the movement is in just the reverse direction.

Such verbs can be thought to be directional, the objects -and sometimes the subjects too- can be expressed within the verb itself not requiring an overt expression. Consequently, the Turkish and English sentences 'Ben sana veririm' (I give you) or 'ben ona söylerim' (I tell him/her) could be performed with a single sign in TİD. Their Turkish glosses are as follows:

TİD: INDEX-1 p. pr. sg. _ VER- _ INDEX-2 p. pr. sg (a single sign)

TR: Ben sana veririm.

TİD: INDEX-1 p. pr. sg. _ SÖYLE- _ INDEX-3 p. pr. sg (a single sign)

TR: Ben ona söylerim.

Therefore, sentences including such directional verbs in TİD are thought to allow a more flexible word order, without the overt realization of subjects and/or objects.

Below is an example from the data, where the indirect object is missing:

(Informant I, phase I, picture 3, sentence 13)

- (14). $\frac{\text{y/n-q} \quad \text{neg}^3}{\text{HEDİYE VER- ÇUKULATA S-end. YOKSA/DEĞİL OYUNCAK/OYUN}}$
 $\frac{\text{y/n-q} \quad \text{.....y/n-q}}{\text{/EĞLENCE S-end. İÇİNDE HEDİYE VER- VAR OYUNCAK}}$
 $\frac{\text{neg}^3 \quad \text{wh-q}}{\text{YOKSA/DEĞİL ÇUKULATA İÇİNDE VER- NE}}$
 Verdiği hediye çukolata mı yoksa oyuncak mı? Verdiği hediyenin içinde ne var,
 oyuncak mı yoksa çukolata mı?

3.2.3. Basic Sentence Types with Reference to Non-manual Activity

From the perspective of such grammatical concepts as statements, negations, questions, and commands, sentences exhibit distinctive types in terms of their constructions on the basis of the relationship of the predicate with reality and intent. So, sentences can function so as to make affirmations or assertions (declaration), to make negative statements (negation), to request information (interrogation) or to command (imperatives), depending on their ‘illocutionary force’. Many languages of the world show distinctions of declarative, interrogative, imperative and negative sentences by making use of grammatical phenomena such as word order (i.e. inversion of subject and verb for interrogation in English), special linguistic particles or lexical units (i.e. insertion of verb final $\square$ -mI $\square$ for interrogation and ‘değil’ for negation in Turkish), morphological inflections, and intonation (i.e. raising in the pitch towards the end of sentences for making yes-no questions as in English, ‘he is coming?’). (See, http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammatical_mood; Kyle and Woll 1988: 158; Isenhath 1990: 103). As Lyons (1977: 760) puts forward (cited in Kyle and Woll 1988: 158), the

distinction between such sentence types, especially those between wh- questions and yes-no questions are rather logical (semantic), therefore universal, so that they are expected to be found in sign languages too.

On these grounds, we have supposed that TĪD also distinguishes declaratives, from negatives, and interrogatives; and yes-no questions from wh-questions, either through certain transformations (which is seemingly the least probable alternative due to the fact that a change in the word order would possibly result in a different or even an absurd meaning rather than distinguishing the sentence type, since the subject and object of a sentence is often identified by the word order unless subject-object relationship is also marked by further use of non-manuals) , or through insertion of some sort of linguistic elements, or by significantly regular use of non-manual activity – with a supposedly similar function with intonation in spoken languages, assuming that both are suprasegmental- or a combination of these.

Through the examination of the data, we have found out that in distinguishing different sentence types, TĪD regularly makes use of non-manual activity as well as insertion of some lexical units and/or linguistic particles.

3.2.3.1. Declarative Sentences

Declarative sentences are used to refer to grammatical constructions used in expressing statement, sentences that assert or report information (see, Crystal 1987: 418, 431). As Langacker (1972: 178) puts forward, “the most basic elements of a simple declarative sentence are a predicate and zero or more noun phrase adjunct” apart from “some other entities that can appear in declarative such as adverbials, modals, auxiliary verbs, etc.” Langacker (1972: 179-180) continues as follows:

In most if not all languages there are grounds for recognizing subjects, direct objects, and oblique objects among the nominal adjuncts of predicates. Subjects, direct objects, and oblique objects have special grammatical properties that distinguish them from one another. In English, for example, the subject nominal is the one that the predicate agrees with; the direct object differs from oblique objects in that it typically occurs immediately after the verb and is the only object not preceded by a preposition. The distinguishing properties of subjects and objects of course vary from language to language.

The syntactic function of a nominal may be indicated by a special particle that precedes or follows it... Affixation or case inflection is also commonly used to specify the syntactic function of nominals. Finally, agreement often makes it possible to determine which nominal in a sentence is the subject or direct object.

When TİD declaratives are observed, it has been noticed that TİD seems to agree with the statement that a declarative sentence is the sum of a predicate and zero or more noun phrase adjunct. However, there seems to be no other indicator of the syntactic functions of nominals than the word order itself and the word order in declaratives seems to be the unmarked word order, unless there is topicalization.

Hear, topicalization appears to be another important notion. The ‘topic’ of a sentence refers to the element that the whole sentence is about whereas, the rest of the sentence is referred to as the ‘comment’ providing the ‘new’ information about the ‘given’ topic. The topic of a sentence normally occurs in the sentence-initial position. Therefore, in subject initial languages, the subject is usually interpreted as the topic. On the other hand, in subject initial languages, sometimes, the object appears to be the first element; the replacement of the object to the sentence initial position is called ‘topicalization’ (see, Valli and Lucas 1992: 272; Langacker 1972: 181).

Although limited in number, our data show examples of topicalization in TİD.

(Informant III, phase 3, picture 1, sentence 4)

-
- (15). BİSİKLET KIZ ZEVLK_(AL-)
Kız bisikletten/bisiklete (binmekten) zevk alıyor.

(Informant I, phase I, picture 4, sentence 17)

-
- (16). PANTOLON ARA- INDEX-3 p. pr. sg.
O, pantolon mu arıyor?

Since TİD does not grammatically mark the syntactic functions of nominals, the identification of nominals as subjects and/or objects is observed to be closely dependent on their positions within sentences. Accordingly, it is customary to consider sentence initial nominals as subjects, but not as objects. Consequently, one might argue whether topicalization, placing the object to the sentence initial position, is an acceptable process in TİD or not, unless the object –or the subject- is specifically marked when topicalization takes place. However, TİD sentences in our data in which topicalization is observed have revealed no such subject and/or object indicators, either manual or non-manual. On these grounds, we have hypothesized that such flexibility in the ordering of subjects and objects is allowable if the grammatical relationships could be determined by the meaning of the predicate and the arguments, the nominals, involved. Therefore, (17) appears to be a grammatical sentence for TİD since it is obvious that books cannot buy children, whereas (18) does not, because both the child and the mother could love each other.

(17). KİTAP ÇOCUK AL-

Kitabı çocuk aldı.

The book, the child bought.

*(18). ÇOCUK ANNE SEV-

Çocuğu annesi seviyor.

The child, his/her mother loves him/her.

Actually, our data may not be sufficient enough to justify such an hypothesis since it does not involve significant number of topicalized sentences. Yet, it has failed to reject either.

As for declaratives, we can conclude by repeating that they seem to be the unmarked constructions –both manually and non-manually- , generally following the regular S O V pattern. However, it is possible to observe in the data some use of non-manual activity.

(Informant III, phase III, picture 6, sentence 16)

- _____ wh-q..... _____
- (19). INDEX-3 det. sg.(ref. distance) SES NE MERAK_(ET-)
 “O ses ne” diye merak ediyorlar.

(Informant II, phase III, picture 3, sentence 12)

- _____ y/n-q _____ y/n-q _____
- (20). DEDE INDEX-3 p. pr. sg. BEĞEN- DEDE BEĞEN- INDEX-3 det. sg.

 ÇOCUK SEVİN- HEDİYE HAYAL GEL- S-end.
 Dede çocuk beğendi mi (diye düşünüyor). Çocuk hayalindeki hediye geldi (diye) seviniyor.

(Informant II, phase III, picture 10, sentence 20)

- _____ -nod..... _____
- (21). INDEX-3 poss. pr. sg. BABA INDEX-3 p. pr. sg. İSTE- AL- DÜŞÜN-
 _____ neg² -nod..... _____
 MERAK ET DEĞİL BEN ARABA AL- INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg. AYNİ AL-
 Babası almak istiyor/ almayı düşünüyor “merak etme araba alacağım onun aynısını alacağım” (diyor).

In (20) above, although the sentence is not a question, there is yes-no interrogation in the embedded clause. Consequently, within the embedded clause ‘y/n-q’ non-manual is observed. Similarly, in (21) there is a negative particle ‘DEĞİL’ within the embedded

clause which involves ‘neg²’ non-manual, although the sentence –the main clause- is declarative.

Besides, it has been observed that often nodding or a single nod takes place in declarative sentences. These non-manuals seem to function either to mark the end of a sentence or a clause or to mark the affirmative, that is, to strengthen the affirmation in declarative sentences (in this case, often nodding is preferred rather than a single nod), or to stress the focus in the sentence, regardless of whether it is declarative, interrogative, negative or imperative (in such cases, usually signers use a single nod instead of nodding.) However, the data have revealed no use of single nod –or nodding- in wh-questions. This may be due to the fact that in wh-questions, the stress is on the question word.

Examples from the data are as follows:

(Informant I, phase II, picture 10, sentence 70)

	<u>voc. lex.(evet)</u>	
	<u>-nod</u>	<u>-nod</u>
(22).	YAP- YARAMAZ YAP-	
	Evet, yapıyor... yaramazlık yapıyor.	

(Informant I, phase II, picture 10, sentence 60)

	<u>voc. lex.(evet)</u>	
	<u>-nod</u>	
(23).	ÇOCUK OYUNCAK ARABA İSTE-	
	Evet, çocuk oyuncak araba istiyor.	

(Informant IV, Phase II, Picture 4, sentence 27)

(28). $\frac{\text{neg}^2 \quad \text{neg}^1 \quad \text{sing.-nod}}{\text{YOK HAYIR \u00c7OCUK PANTOLON_ (G\u0130Y-) YOK}}$
 Yok hayır, \u00e7ocuk pantolon giymemi\u015f.

(Informant II, phase I, picture II, sentence 12)

(29). $\frac{\text{sing-nod}}{\text{ÇOCUK KIZ SAÇ SARI Q-mark.}}$
Kız çocuğunun saçları sarı mı?

(Informant II, phase IV, picture, sentence 5)

(30). INDEX-1 det. sg. İŞ YER İÇİNDE BAĞIR- HAYIR SUS
Bu işyerinde bağırma, sus!

(Informant I, phase I, picture II, sentence 12)

(31). INDEX-3 p. pr. sg. DEDE Q-mark.
O dede(si) mi?

(Informant I, phase III, picture 8, sentence 53)

- | | | | |
|-------|---|--------------------|--|
| | wh-q | sing.-nod | |
| (32). | BİLGİSAYAR NE YAP- LAPTOP BAK- | İŞ PROGRAM TİCARET | |
| | | | |
| | ALİŞVERİŞ PROGRAM FİYAT ORTALAMA ANLAŞ- | OTUR- ADAM | |
| | | | |
| | KAHVE İÇ- KAHVE BİT- FİKİR ALİŞVERİŞ | | |
- Bilgisayarda ne yapıyorlar? Laptop'a bakarak ticari işleri ve programları ile ilgili sözleşme, pazarlık yapıyorlar. Adamlar oturup kahve içmişler, kahve bitince fikir alışverişi yapıyorlar.

3.2.3.2. Interrogative Sentences

Depending on the scope of information required, there are two basic ways of asking for information in languages which are usually distinguished grammatically as well as semantically (logically). These fundamental types of question sentences are known to be yes-no questions (polar questions) which simply require one of the two alternative answers 'yes' and 'no' (e.g. Biz gidiyor muyuz?/Are we going?) and wh- questions (content questions), in which the information expected requires a more detailed explanation concerning with the constituent marked by an interrogative word such as what, where, who, when, why, etc. (e.g. Nereye gidiyoruz?/Where are we going?). These two types of questions are distinguished by either word order, or by insertion of special question markers, or further, by intonation. Certain combinations of these can also be possible for some languages. A third, and rather peripheral, category of questions can also be included to the classification, namely rhetorical questions, the answers of which are already known by the speakers who are not actually expecting responds (see, Isenath 1990: 154; Langacker 1972: 188-190). Our concern in this study is restricted to the first two types of questions in TİD.

3.2.3.2.1. Yes-No Questions

Examining our data of TĪD questions, we have found out that TĪD distinguishes yes-no questions from declaratives and wh- questions grammatically, by the use of non-manual activity, specifically by the face and special orientations of the body. This function of the face and the body can well be compared to that of intonation in spoken languages. In asking a yes-no question, the eyebrows are raised, the eyes are widened and the head and the upper part of the body are tilted forward, as a regular pattern. The total of this non-manual behaviour is represented with the ‘y/n-q’ symbol in the transcription of the data. However, no syntactic change in the order of signs has been detected as a distinctive feature of yes-no questions. On the other hand, it has been observed that sometimes, a ‘question mark wiggle’ is also attached to the end of the yes-no question sentences or clauses, a sign realized by either one or rarely two hands, resembling the orthographical question mark. Although this question mark wiggle usually occurs in sentence final position, there are examples in the data –though very limited- where the wiggle is followed by another lexical sign in the flow of speech.

As the data reveals, this question mark sign can be used together with the non-manual marker, or there occurs either the question mark sign or the non-manual marking. We have also noticed in TĪD, a tendency to perform the ‘y/n-q’ non-manual toward the end of the sentence, usually together with the sentence final predicate, -whether the predicate is a verb or a nominal. When both ‘y/n-q’ non-manual and question mark wiggle occur together in a sentence, the ‘y/n-q’ non-manual is often articulated simultaneously with the question mark, or it begins with the predicate and continues with the question mark sign, till the end of the sentence. However, there are also cases where the y/n-q appears only with the predicate, but not with the question mark wiggle. When the question sentence is a complex one involving two clauses, the y/n-q non-manual has been observed to occur with both predicates separately, or with only one of them.

The following are various examples of yes-no questions from the data:

(Informant IV, phase I, picture 1, sentence 7)

- _____ y/n-q
- (33). INDEX-1 det. sg. EV RENK Q-mark
Bu ev renk(li) mi?

(Informant IV, phase I, picture 1, sentence 9)

- _____ y/n-q
- (34). ANNE BAHÇE(short.) ÇALIŞ-(ref. kürek) ZEVK AL-
Anne bahçede çalışmaktan zevk alıyor mu?

(Informant II, phase I, picture 1, sentence 1)

- _____
- (35). BAHÇE ÜÇ KİŞİ VAR Q-mark.
Bahçede üç kişi mi var?

(Informant II, phase I, picture 2, sentence 5)

- _____ y/n-q
- (36). INDEX-1 det.sg. MÜZİK YER OKUL Q-mark.
Bu müzik (çalıştıkları) yer okul mu?

(Informant I, phase I, picture 1, sentence 3)

- _____ y/n-q _____ y/n-q _____
- (37). BAHÇE HEPSİ BAK- BERABER İKİ_INDEX-3 p. pr. pl. BAK- Q-mark.
Bu bahçenin tümüne ikisi beraber mi bakıyorlar?

(Informant I, phase I, picture 6, sentence 24)

- _____
- (38). INDEX-3 dem. pr. sg.(place) BAK(ref. down behind something)- BİRŞEY
y/n-q _____ y/n-q _____
MERAK BAK- Q-mark.
Orada merak ettiği bir şeye mi bakıyor?

(Informant I, phase I, picture 6, sentence 26)

- _____ voc. lex.('mı') _____ voc. lex.('mi') _____
_____ y/n-q _____ y/n-q _____
- (39). ELBİSE KIRMIZI YOKSA PEMBE Q-mark.
Kıyafet(leri) kırmızı mı yoksa pembe mi?

(Informant III, phase I, picture 6, sentence 22)

- _____ y/n-q _____ y/n-q _____
- (40). KIZ KOL YORUL- Q-mark. AĞIR
Ağır (olduğu için) kızın kolu mu yorulmuş?

(Informant III, phase I, picture 7, sentence 27)

y/n-q

- (41). BABA/ADAM EŞ EV AL- KARAR_(VER-) DÜŞÜN- Q-mark.
Baba ve eşi karar verip ev almayı mı düşünüyorlar?/Baba ve eşi düşünüp ev almaya mı karar vermişler?

(Informant IV, phase I, picture 1, sentence 10)

y/n-q.....

- (42). ÇOCUK BİSİKLET GİT- İSTE- Q-mark.
Çocuk bisikletle gitmek istiyor mu?

3.2.3.2.2. Wh-Questions

Wh-questions in TİD also seem to exhibit a regular, distinctive pattern just as yes-no questions do. Similar to those in spoken languages like Turkish and English, TİD makes use of a set of signs in wh-questions such as ‘NE’ (what), ‘HANGİ (which)’ ‘NEDEN’ (why), ‘KAÇ’ (how many), etc. However, it has been observed from the data that the range of wh-question signs in TİD are not as wide as it is in Turkish; the sign for ‘NE’ (what) is sometimes generalized to cover a variety of meanings such as ‘ne zaman’ (when), ‘nasıl’ (how) or ‘nere(ye)’ (where).

An important thing to mention here is that, the use of these wh-question signs seems not to be sufficient to form an interrogative question. To clarify this issue we may give examples from Turkish and English:

(Interrogative)

(43). TR: Neden geleceğini söyledi?

ENG: Why did he tell (that) he will come?

(Declarative)

(44.) TR: Neden geleceğini söyledi.

ENG: He told (us) why he will come.

In the examples from English, although the two sentences share almost the same lexical units, the type of the sentence is distinguished by the word order. In Turkish examples, however, the two sentences are exactly the same on the surface structure. What distinguishes the two as different types of sentences is the intonation. In the interrogative sentence, the stress is on the question word ‘neden’ (why) whereas in the declarative it is on the verb ‘söyledi’. Moreover, in the interrogative sentence pitch rises in the final syllable (-di) of the sentence final verb, while it falls in the declarative one. Although the situation in TİD is not that much drastic, it is similar to Turkish in that many of the sentences can only be interpreted as wh-questions when accompanied by a certain non-manual behaviour. Whether the non-manual activity is performed in declaratives or not seems to be optional, whereas it is obligatory in wh-questions. Subsequently, we have observed in the data some wh-questions without manual wh-question signs, in which ‘wh-’ meaning is provided through non-manual activity only. In such cases, the content of information that is asked –whether it is place, or time, or number- is inferred via the context. One interesting example from the data shows that when wh-question non-manual is performed with the sign ‘İSİM’(name) the sign gets the meaning ‘kim’ (who).

The wh-questions in the data have revealed that, the specific non-manual pattern assigned regularly in TİD wh-questions is the wagging of the head quickly and repeatedly to left and right, raising the eyebrows a little, and tilting the head slightly forward. It is also observed that this non-manual activity takes place during the performance of the manual wh-question signs. Besides, TİD does not seem to have

constraints on the place and order of the wh-question signs in wh-questions. Yet, they often occur towards the end of the sentence. Sometimes, wh- and yes-no question markers can occur together in sentences.

Here are some examples from the data:

(Informant III, phase I, picture 1, sentence 4)

- _____ wh-q
- (45). TOPRAK ÇALIŞ-(ref. kürek) NE
(O), toprakta ne iş yapıyor?

(Informant III, phase I, picture 1, sentence 5)

- _____ wh-q y/n-q
- (46). BİSİKLET ZEVLİ_(AL-)/İZLE- NE Q-mark.
Bisiklet (çocuk için) nasıl, zevkli mi?

(Informant III, phase I, picture 1, sentence 7)

- _____ y/n-q wh-q
- (47). EV AİLE Q-mark. NE
Evdekiler aile mi, ne/kim?

(Informant III, phase I, picture 6, sentence 20)

- _____ wh-q y/n-q.....
- (48). İÇİNDE SES NE MERAK_(ET-) Q-mark.
Oradaki ses ne (diye) mi merak ediyorlar?

(Informant I, phase III, picture 2, sentence 8)

- _____
- (49). MASA KIZ İKİ AYAKTA_(DUR-) BİR OTUR SEBEP/NEDEN
_____ sing.-nod
GİTAR(MÜZİK ALETİ) BÜYÜK YÜZÜNDEN OTUR-
Masa var. İki kız ayakta duruyor, biri oturuyor çünkü müzik aleti büyük.

(Informant III, phase III, picture 5, sentence 14)

- _____ wh-q y/n-q neg²
- (50). NE... BAŞAR- BAŞAR- DEĞİL
Ne (olacak)? Başaracak mı, başar(a)mayacak mı?

(Informant III, phase III, picture 9, sentence 27)

- _____ wh-q sing.-nod
- (51). AİLE GİT- YİYECEK NE MERAK_(ET-) S-end.
Aile gitmiş, ne yemek (yapacaklarını) merak ediyorlar.

(Informant I, phase I, picture 1, sentence 5)

- _____ wh-q _____ sing.-nod(one side) (ref. other side) _____
- (52). ELBİSE İSİM AL- ANNE BABA
Kıyafeti kim aldı, annesi mi babası mı?

(Informant I, phase I, picture 1, sentence 8)

- _____ voc. lex.(kim) _____
- _____ wh-q..... _____
- (53). INDEX-1 + INDEX(ref. other side) det. sg. EV İSİM SAHİP/KENDİ INDEX-3
p. pr. sg.
Öteki evin sahibi kim, onlar mı?

(Informant I, phase III, picture 9, sentence 56)

- _____ wh-q _____ wh-q _____ wh-q _____
- (54). ÇOCUK MERAK_(ET-) INDEX-3 det. sg. NE YEMEK NE MERAK_(ET-)
Çocuk yemeğin ne olduğunu merak ediyor.

(Informant IV, phase I, picture 8, sentence 34)

- _____ y/n-q wh-q _____ y/n-q _____
- (55). YER NDEX-3 dem. pr. pl. KAFE Q-mark. YOKSA OTEL İÇİNDE Q-mark
Orası, o yer kafe mi? Yoksa neresi, otel mi/otel(de)(ler) mi?

3.2.3.3. Negative Sentences

With a very broad definition (Payne 1997: 282), a negative sentence is “one which asserts that some event, situation, or state of affairs does not hold” or as Valli and Lucas (1992: 280) simply mention, negation is “the process of changing an affirmative sentence to a negative one”. Cross-linguistic studies have shown that different languages of the world exhibit different strategies for negating assertions; some employ morphological negation through insertion of negative affixes or morphemes of other kinds, some use negation particles, and some others make use of lexical negation in which negation is part of the word semantics -as in the English word ‘lack’. It is also possible to note more than one of such negative operators in some other languages (see, Payne 1997: 282-284).

As far as the data is concerned, it seems to be that TİD also has a regular way of negating sentences. Firstly, it has three basic manual signs for negation. These signs seem to approximate Turkish ‘değil’(not), ‘yok’(there + to be + not) and ‘hayır’ (no). Secondly, these signs are accompanied by some regular non-manual activity. The non-manual activity in question is three-fold, that is, there seems to be three different ways of non-manual negation, two of which are somehow similar. In the transcription of the data, these non-manual signals have been represented as ‘neg¹’, ‘neg²’, and ‘neg³’. In ‘neg¹’ the head is shaken from side to side repeatedly, sometimes with frowning or with the raising of the eyebrows. In ‘neg²’ we have observed the raising of the chin, head being tilted backwards; also eyebrows are raised as a consequence, and sometimes, eyes widened too. ‘Neg³’ seems to be similar to ‘neg²’ during which the head moves backwards slightly and returns back to the neutral position, with the slight raising of the eyebrows. The difference between neg² and neg³ can be assumed to be a matter of emphasis on the negation, where neg² seems to be the more stressed pattern. Throughout the data, ‘neg²’ has been observed to be the most frequently used negation non-manual and ‘neg¹’ has appeared to be more frequent than ‘neg³’. Another observation concerning with the data has been that, particular non-manual signals for negation tend to accompany particular manual negation signs.

For example, ‘neg¹’ is usually used together with the sign for ‘hayır’ (no). Here, there seems to be a sort of agreement between the finger moving side to side together with the

movement of the head. Besides, ‘neg²’ tends to go with the sign for ‘değil’(not) and ‘yok’ (there + be +not), where again, there seems to be a sort of agreement between the movements of the head and face. These non-manual signals usually occur only with the negative manual signs but still, there are cases where they continue for the rest of the clause or sentence. Furthermore, it is possible to see, in the data, sentences which involve more than one type of negative non-manuals. There are also sentences in which no manual negation occurs, the negative meaning being attached only by the use of non-manual activity.

Below are some relevant examples from the data:

(Informant I, phase II, picture 1, sentence 3)

--neg²
- (56). INDEX-3 p. pr. sg. ARABA YIKA-/TEMİZLE- DEĞİL
O araba yıkamıyor.

(Informant I, phase II, picture 1, sentence 7)

- neg¹ -neg².....
- (57). HAYIR BİN-(ref. onto something/horse)- DEĞİL
Hayır, ata binmiyor.

(Informant III, phase II, picture 2, sentence 10)

- $\frac{\text{neg}^2 \quad \text{neg}^3 \quad \text{sing.-nod} \quad \text{neg}^2}{\text{neg}^2}$
- (58). YOK HAYIR ERKEK/ADAM ÇOCUK MÜZİK/ŞARKI YOK
Hayır, adam (ve) çocuk(lar) şarkı (söylemiyor).

(Informant III, phase II, picture 7, sentence 47)

- $\frac{\text{neg}^3 \quad \text{neg}^1 \quad \text{neg}^2 \quad \text{neg}^2}{\text{neg}^2}$
- (59). KOŞ- YOK YOK HAYIR...ÇOCUK KOŞ DEĞİL
Koşmuyor, hayır... Çocuk(lar) koşmuyor.

(Informant III, phase III, picture 6, sentence 19)

- $\frac{\text{neg}^2}{\text{neg}^2}$
- (60). KIZ CEVAP S-end.
Kız cevap vermiyor.

3.2.3.4. Imperative Sentences

As Payne (1997: 303-305) states, “imperatives are verb forms or construction types that are used to directly command the addressee to perform some action, e.g., Eat this!”. Imperatives generally address second person subjects, therefore subjects are often deleted through transformational rule(s) unless they are needed to be mentioned specifically. In some languages imperatives are marked by special verb forms or case markings, or by other similar grammatical phenomena.

In TİD the subject is also usually omitted. Except three sentences out of twenty eight, subject nominals or pronouns do not exist in the data. Whether TİD has certain non-manual components for imperatives, or not, is not quite explicit when the data is considered, since the data has been elicited through certain techniques, but not through natural recording of the signers' communication. Imperatives bear affective features and are spontaneous inherently. The data, however, seems not to be fully adequate to reveal all such features, if there are any. Still, During TİD imperatives, signers seem to lean forward and raise eyebrows. Imperatives also seem to require direct eye contact.

Examples from the data go as follows:

(Informant III, phase IV, sentence 5)

	<u>voc. lex.('ma')</u>		<u>voc. lex.('ma')</u>	
	<u>neg²</u>		<u>neg²</u>	
(61).	SES DEĞİL		SUS SES DEĞİL	
	Ses yapma/bağırma, sus!			

(Informant III, phase IV, sentence 7)

	<u>voc. lex.(yapma)</u>		<u>voc. lex.(yapma)</u>		<u>voc. lex.(yapma)</u>
	<u>neg²</u>		<u>neg²</u>		<u>neg¹</u>
(62).	EL- DEĞİL		ÇEK- DEĞİL		HAYIR
	Elleme! Çekme! Hayır, yapma!				

(Informant I, phase IV, sentence 5)

voc. lex.(konuşmayın)

-neg²

(63). İŞ VAR KONUŞ- DEĞİL

İş var, konuşmayın!

(Informant II, phase IV, sentence 4)

sing.-nod

(64). INDEX-1 dem. pr. sg.(place) TUVALET KLOZET KOLA YEMEK VS. ÇÖP

neg³ neg¹

AT- HAYIR

Burada klozete kola, yemek, çöp vs. atma!

As can be seen in the above examples, during imperatives other relevant non-manual signals such as negation or focus nod can also be employed.

3.3. Aspects of TİD Morphology

This section aims at a very brief descriptive sketch of some morphological phenomena as far as the data provides. The term ‘morphology’ is used here to cover certain grammatical constructions pertaining to the structure and formation of signs. Nevertheless, our concerns are restricted to a small range of grammatical issues since the study has not been designed specifically for the description of TİD morphology. The findings represented here are peripheral to the concerns of the study and require further, a rather more elaborate consideration.

Compound signs

Compounds can briefly be defined as combinations of two or more signs often with a meaning different from that of each sign. Some examples of compound signs can be seen in the data:

E.g.	ÇİÇEK (flower) + ZEMİN (ground)	>	BAHÇE (garden)
	KIZ (girl) + ARKA/GEÇMİŞ (past)	>	KADIN (woman)
	ALT (under) + DÜZLEM/YÜZEY (surface)	>	SAKLAN- (to hide)

Derivation-Inflection

Grammatical processes producing morphologically complex words are typically divided into two categories, namely, inflection and derivation. As Payne (2003: 50) put forward,

Inflection tends to signal grammatical relationships and does so without changing the grammatical category of the inflected word... whenever a morphological process creates a word of a different category, the grammatical process responsible for creating the new word is said to be derivational.

Although quite limited in number, our data revealed some examples;

There is a sign in TİD which can be glossed as ‘SES’ (voice).

TAB:	The face of the signer, between mouth and chin
DEZ:	Thumb and index finger extended from each other in a ‘V’ like shape
SIG:	Thumb touching the tab

When the ‘V’ shape for this sign is widened, the sign becomes ‘BAĞIR-’ (to shout). This is a typical derivation in which a new sign with a different meaning and grammatical category is derived out of an already existing sign.

Some other examples can also be given, which may be considered to involve zero derivation where the category of the sign changes while the form remains the same.

E.g. 'OTUR-' (to sit down) > 'SANDALYE' (chair –noun-)
 'BOYA-' (to paint) > 'BOYA' (paint –noun-)
 'YE-' (to eat) > 'YEMEK' (food -noun-)

Examples of inflection can also be observed:

The sign for 'el' (hand) in TİD is realized by the placement of the dominant hand on top of the non-dominant one. To make the sign plural 'eller' (hands), the following changes happen in the structure of the singular sign:

'EL' (hand)

TAB: non-dominant flat, palm-down hand

DEZ(double): dominant flat hand, palm down

SIG: contact with tab

EL-pl. (hands)

TAB: neutral space in front of signer

DEZ(double): flat hands, palms down

SIG: dezes contact one another respectively (the palm of one hand contacts the back of the other repeatedly)

Similarly, as observed from the data, for making the singular noun 'KİTAP-' (book) plural, 'reduplication process' takes place in the movement complement (sig) of the sign:

(Informant I, phase II, picture 5, sentence 38)

-neg³ _____ -neg²

38. HAYIR KİTAP OKU- DEĞİL
 Hayır, kitap okumuyor.

(Informant I, phase III, picture 5, sentence 23)

- _____ -sing. nod
23. KİTAP(pl.) DUR-
Kitap(lar) duruyor.

Besides, there are some verbs in TİD which may be considered to be verb+accusative constructions in which these two functions -lexical verb and case information- appear concurrently within a single sign. The verb 'BAK- /GÖR-' (to look at/to see) is a typical example since the form and/or movement (sig) component of the sign change depending on the direction referred to in the sentence. The following TİD signs are all different in form:

BAK-(ref. downwards)
BAK-(ref. upwards)
BAK-(ref. up, over something)
BAK-(ref. down, over something)
BAK-(to each other)

UZUN (ref. hair)
UZUN (ref. time)
UZUN (ref. height)

Deletion

We have noticed variation in the realization of some TİD signs. There seems to be a process of hand deletion in which some two-handed signs have been realized by only one hand. However, it is important to note that this deletion of one hand indicates a deletion of one of the dezes and seems to be allowable if and only if the 'symmetry condition' applies, so that the deletion does not cause ambiguity or vagueness in meaning. Associating examples are as follows:

‘ARA-’ (to look for)

TAB: neutral space in front of the signer

DEZ (double): index finger extended from closed fists

SIG: fingers turn around each other one indexing upwards, the other downwards

‘ARA-’ (to look for (–with deletion-))

TAB: neutral space in front of the signer

DEZ: index finger extended from closed fist

SIG: finger turns around indexing downwards

A somewhat different type of deletion is also observed in which one of the tabs and consequently the sigs are missing.

‘ANNE’ (mother)

TAB1: one breast

TAB2: the other breast

DEZ: horizontal rounded hand, palm facing the signer’s torso

SIG: contact with tab1 and then tab2

‘ANNE’ (mother –with deletion-)

TAB: breast

DEZ: horizontal rounded hand, palm facing the signer’s torso

SIG: contact with tab

These deletion processes is quite similar to the word formation process known as clipping, in which some parts of the words are omitted and the rest stand for the whole (i.e. dormitory > dorm; mathematics > maths; professor > prof.).

Homophonous Signs

According to the data, some signs such as the following couples of words seem to be homophonous, that is they are performed by a single sign (single morph) with different meanings.

‘BİLGİSYAR’ (computer)	- ‘PİYANO’ (piano)
ÖĞRENCİ (student)	- ‘EVLAT’ (child/kid)
ANNEANNE (grandmother from mother)	- ‘BABAANNE’(grandmother from mother)

Modification

When the data is examined, it has been noticed that TİD makes use of post-modification as well as pre-modification. The following are some of the examples found in the data:

-
- (65). INDEX-3 det. pl / p. pr. pl. ÇOCUK ÜÇ ÖĞRENCİ/EVLAT Q-mark.
O üç çocuk öğrenci mi?/ Onlar, (o) üç çocuk öğrenci mi?

-
- (66). INDEX-1 det.sg. ÜÇ ÇOCUK ÖĞRENCİ/EVLAT OKUL KORO/MÜZİK
_____y/n-q
ÖĞREN- Q-mark.
Bu üç öğrenci okulda müzik mi öğreniyor?

sing.-nod

- (67). INDEX-3 dem. pr.sg.(place) KIZ İKİ VAR
Orada iki kız var

neg²

- (68). ÇOCUK KÜÇÜK SAÇ SARI YOK
Küçük çocukların sarı saçlı /saçları sarı değil.

-
- (69). MASA KIZ İKİ AYAKTA_(DUR-) BİR OTUR SEBEP/NEDEN

sing.-nod

GİTAR(MÜZİK ALETİ) BÜYÜK YÜZÜNDEN OTUR-

Masa var. İki kız ayakta duruyor, biri oturuyor çünkü müzik aleti büyük.

-
- (70). PROGRAM RESİM/ÇERÇEVE RENK KOYU AÇIK KOYU AÇIK

-sing. nod

DUVAR

Duvarda koyu ve açık renklerde resim(ler) ve (ders) programı (var).

-
- (71). İKİ KIZ ARKADAŞ BERABER GEZ- SIKIL-

İki kız arkadaş sıkılmışlar, beraber geziyorlar.

(72). SAÇ SİYAH HEPSİ

Hepsinin saçları siyah

(73). ÇOCUK GÖMLEK SARI KARE(Lİ) SARI GİY-

Çocuk sarı kareli gömlek giymiş.

Sign Space and Body Orientation

A former study on TİD (Açan 2001: 105-107) have suggested that TİD uses spatial indexing to indicate personal pronouns; the distance between the location of the indexical sign and the signer increases gradually for 1st, 2nd and 3rd persons. Examining the data of this study, we have also noticed that ‘sign space’, the area which has been defined vertically as covering the distance from below the waist, up to the top of the head of the signer (in section 3.2.1. of this study) does not simply indicate the medium of the language in question, but also acts as a grammatical component of TİD. Spatial variations as well as the variations in the orientation of the signer’s body during the realization of TİD signs seem to reveal information on some grammatical phenomena such as time reference, subject and/or object nouns and pronouns.

Following examples from the data can be given for the clarification of the grammatical use of sign space and body orientation:

(Informant I, phase III, picture 5, sentence 22)

(74). KENDİ ARKADAŞ TELEFON KONUŞ- İSTE- ZOR YAP- SAKLAN-

TELEFON KONUŞ-

(Kendi) arkadaşıyla telefonda konuşmak istiyor; zor yapıyor, saklanıp telefonda konuşuyor.

That the sign for the verb ‘KONUŞ-’ (talk) is realized not in the neutral signing space but away from the signer’s body where the 3rd person pronoun (INDEX-3 p. pr. sg./pl.) usually takes place and that the sign is performed with the body oriented to that direction and tilted forward in a bended position indicate that the person in the picture is talking to a third person hiding herself from someone probably underneath something.

Similarly, in the following example from the data, that the sign for ‘future’ glossed in Turkish as ‘GELECEK’ is realized in a further location from the signer –almost outside the sign space- displays the use of sign space for time reference:

(Informant IV, phase III, picture 2, sentence 6)

(75). KIZ KEMAN_(ÇAL-) KENDİ DÜŞÜN- BİR NUMARA DÜŞÜN- ... ŞARKI

GELECEK ÜNLÜ OL- HAYAL

Keman çalan kız kendisinin gelecekte ünlü ve bir numara olacağını hayal ediyor.

Furthermore, in the following example, the two signs ‘ÖNCE’ (before/earlier) and ‘ŞİMDİ’ also indicate the use of sign space for time reference. The signer uses the space at the back of her shoulder for the sign ‘ÖNCE’ and neutral sign space for the realization of the sign ‘ŞİMDİ’.

(Informant IV, phase III, picture 3, sentence 8)

sing.-nod sing.-nod..... -nod

(76). INDEX-1 det. sg. DEDE TORUN DAHA ÖNCE SÖZ VER-.....ŞİMDİ

HEDİYE(ref. hediye kutusu) VER-

Dede torununa daha önce söz vermiş, şimdi hediye veriyor.

CHAPTER IV: CONCLUSION

Sign language of the deaf people is truly a means of communication consisting of rules similar to natural human languages, deserving its place within the scope of linguistics. However, the study of sign languages, especially from a linguistic point of view, is a recent phenomenon due to some factors.

First, deaf community constitutes a minority within the entire society, a minority which is identified with the lack of something requisite. Secondly, and subsequently, sign language of the deaf people has often been treated as an improper and a primitive way of communication which can hardly be regarded as a language, not worthy of any scientific consideration. Thirdly, the data required for studies on sign languages were not easy and practical to elicit technologically in earlier times. On these grounds, no scientific attention has been paid to deaf culture and the language of the deaf speech community until late 60s. With the changing of attitudes towards “language” in modern linguistics, it has been accepted that “all languages meet the social and psychological needs of their speakers, are equally deserving of scientific study and can provide us with valuable information about human nature and society” (Crystal 1987: 7). Eventually, linguistic studies on sign languages began to be carried out and with the support of developing technology in data collection, gained progress after 70s.

Preliminary studies on sign languages were mainly intended to overcome matters of education and language planning. Following ones, dominated mostly by linguistic concerns were restricted to the structure of individual signs, and further to the linguistic analysis and description of the micro features of sign languages. However, those descriptions were also limited in that they could hardly account for the non-manual activity accompanying the signing of the hands and its grammatical function.

Today, the developing literature in the field of sign linguistics has revealed that comprehensive studies on sign languages are being carried out in almost all levels of linguistics, with an increasing interdisciplinary attention.

As for the situation in Turkey, the interest in the study of Turkish Sign Language (TİD) is a rather recent achievement and there is still a big gap in the linguistic literature concerning TİD. Consequently, TİD lacks a description of even some major aspects of its grammar.

On these grounds, our research has aimed at a description of some aspects of TİD syntax, namely, the basic sentence types, and a consideration of relevant grammatical phenomena such as sign structure, word order, grammatical use of non-manual activity, and some morpho-syntactic processes, as far as our data make it possible.

In the first part of the thesis, a presentation of the study has been given, where the outlines of the general framework; the scope, aim, limitations, and the research questions and design is available. In the second chapter, a brief survey of the literature on sign languages has been presented together with the introduction and clarification of the major theoretical issues in the field, with reference to fundamental concepts and terminology. The third chapter, linguistic analysis, has illustrated the transcription of the data through the glossing technique and has pointed out the findings of the study with some relevant linguistic discussion. Finally this chapter offers a brief summary of the findings, on the basis of research questions, together with an overall evaluation of the study.

The findings of the study reveal information on some basic issues such as sign structure, word order, sentence types, the use of non-manual activity, and some morphological processes.

As for the structure of signs, it has been found out that, signs in TİD can be equated to ‘words’ in spoken languages -smallest meaningful units which can occur in isolation- being structured out of smaller meaning distinguishing components (tab, dez and sig), in a rule-governed way. However, the study has made it clear that opposing to words in spoken languages, signs in TİD are not sequential but simultaneous entities the formation of which require simultaneous combinations of the smaller units in question. Apparently, what is sequential in TİD has been observed to be the ordering within the

components tab, dez and sig, when they represent a rather complex pattern. Besides, there appears to be some constraints on the realization of TİD signs. Firstly, the sign space where the signing activity of the hands takes place is a restricted area; it is limited to the distance from below the waist, up to the top of the head. Secondly, in two-handed signs the shifting of the dominant and non-dominant hands is avoided. Similarly, during the production of all single-hand signs the same hand operates during the whole speech activity. Finally, ‘symmetry condition’ applies in the formation of two-handed signs in which both hands act as dominant.

When the order of signs in TİD is considered, it has been observed that TİD tends to display, generally, an S O V structure being similar to that of Turkish. However, this similarity between TİD and Turkish does not claim that their grammars are identical. TİD seems to have some constraints in terms of its word order, despite the flexible word order of Turkish. Since TİD lacks in its morphology the wide range of inflections that Turkish makes use of, its word order seems not to allow extreme deviations from the regular S O V pattern. Nevertheless, TİD represents deletion of some syntactic categories such as subjects, objects, and verbs and seems to involve the process of ‘topicalization’ time to time, under certain circumstances. Besides, some special type of verbs in TİD, which can be referred to as displaying a sort of ‘directionality’, have been observed to allow to a rather more flexible ordering of the syntactic categories.

Our data has clearly shown that the faces –and sometimes also the bodies- of the signers are quite animated during the signing activity. In early studies, this situation had lead to such erroneous conclusions as ‘deaf people are far more expressive than hearing non-signers’ and consequently that ‘deaf signers use their faces merely for expressions of affect’ (see, Liddell 2003: 53). Today, on the other hand, more accurate and complete studies on sign languages including the analysis of non-manual behavior have demonstrated that it is possible to talk about the obligatory, grammatical use of non-manual activity of the face and the body, as well as its rather optional use for stylistic purposes -to convey affection.

As a result of this study, it has been approved that TİD also makes use of both stylistic and grammatical contribution of the non-manual activity of the face and the body. In this study, however, our focus has been limited to the grammatical (obligatory) use of non-manuals and further to their role in distinguishing between sentence types, at the level of syntax, rather than their morphological status, at the level of individual signs.

A thorough examination of the data has demonstrated that TİD involves different sentence types such as declaratives, imperatives, negatives and interrogatives and that such types of sentences are grammatically, and regularly, marked by certain non-manual activities, together with the rather optional use of some lexical and/or functional words and particles. Moreover, it has been noticed that TİD also distinguishes between content (yes-no) and polar (wh-) questions by assigning a similar range of non-manual and manual operators.

Finally, our study has brought in some general findings concerning with some morphological aspects of TİD grammar. These findings seem to support that TİD has a rather more complex grammar -on the contrary to what has often been thought- in that it exhibits some morphological processes similar to those of spoken languages. However, morphological aspects of TİD grammar have been peripheral to the major concerns of the study. Further analyses specifically designed for the description of such phenomena would no doubt be of great significance for a complementary comprehension and conception of TİD grammar.

Since this study focuses on the grammatical structure of TİD, information about the deaf culture or the deaf speech community in Turkey has also been quite limited and has been predicated upon some basic assumptions. Studies on such topics as well as on some other macro levels of analyses may further contribute a lot, to the understanding of TİD as a ‘language’

The study presented here is obviously far from achieving anything near a complete grammatical analysis since such an attempt would certainly exceed the scope and the purpose of the study and since no previous attempt for a complete analysis is yet available. Therefore, this study must rather be considered as one of the preliminary attempts intended for the description of some parts of TĪD grammar which have been listed in the first chapter under the heading ‘research questions’. Hopefully, this study would provide a basis for more elaborate descriptions of TĪD grammar, offering a general framework in terms of its content and methodology.

Prospective research could prove some of the findings to be exiguous and imperfect in the future. However, the general approach suggested here is expected to be noteworthy and profitable for further studies in the field.

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APPENDIX

Within Appendix, two sets of pictures are presented. The first set consists of ten pictures used for the elicitation of interrogative, negative, and declarative sentences. The second set, on the other hand, involves seven pictures used for the elicitation of imperative ones.

Picture 1



Picture 2



Picture 3



Picture 4



Picture 5



Picture 6



Picture 7



Picture 8



Picture 9



Picture 10



Picture 11



Picture 12



Picture 13



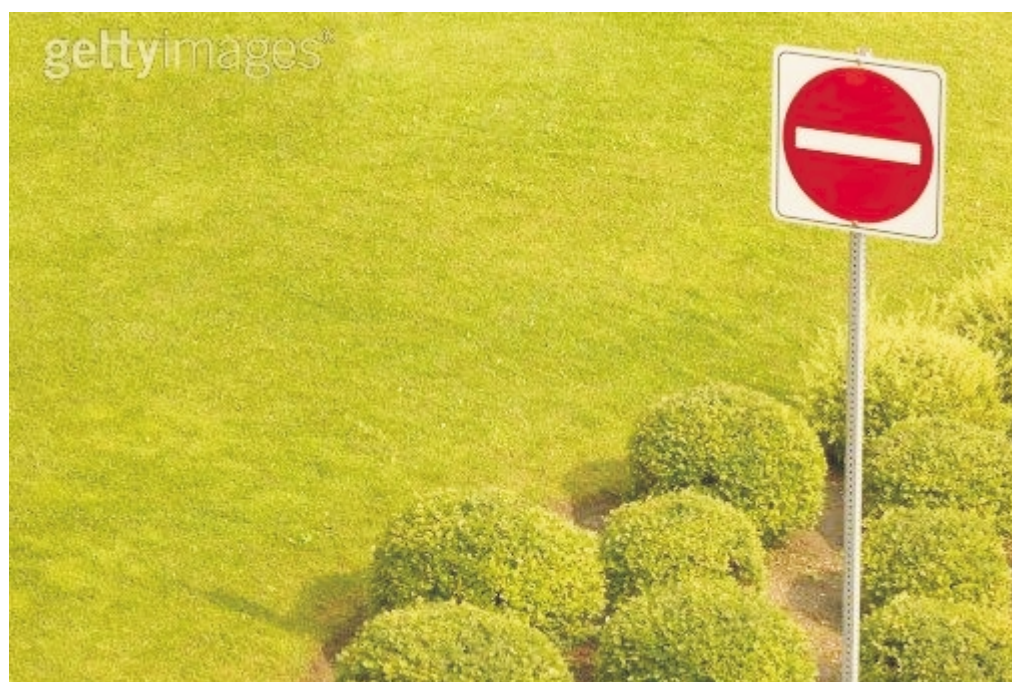
Picture 14



Picture 15



Picture 16



Picture 17



ÖZGEÇMİŞ

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İş Deneyimi	
Stajlar	:
Projeler	: Türk İşaret Dili'ndeki El-dışı Göstergelerin Temel Tümce Türleri Açısından İncelenmesi (Araştırmacı). Haccettepe Üniversitesi Bilimsel Araştırmalar Merkezi, Ağustos 2006- (sürmekte)
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