ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH DATIVE ALTERNATION BY TURKISH ADULT LEARNERS

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MASTER OF ARTS

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ÖZET

İNGİLİZCE'DE Kİ DOLAYLI NESNENİN İNGİLİZCE'Yİ İKİNCİ DİL OLARAK EDİNEN TÜRK YETİŞKİNLER TARAFINDAN EDİNİMİ

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İkinci Dil Edinimi (İDE) araştırmaları kapsamında, aradil gelişimi ve ikinci dil öğrenenlerin sahip oldukları dilbilimsel sistemlerinin doğası, önemi unsurlar haline gelmiştir. Bu hususta, aradil gelişimine bağlı diğer etmenler olan aradil üzerinde anadil transferi faktörü ve diller arası dilbilimsel farklılıklar araştırmanın ilgi alanını genişletmiştir.

Bu çalışma İngilizceyi ikinci dil olarak öğrenen Türk yetişkinlerinin aradil gelişimlerini ve sergiledikleri aradil özelliklerini araştırmaktadır. İngilizcedeki dolaylı nesne yapılarının ikinci dil süreci aradil ile ilgili varsayımlar açısından incelenmektedir. Araştırmanın soruları şunlardır:

1. İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk yetişkinler ([ad öbeği _edat öbeği] yapısını mı, yoksa [ad öbeği _ ad öbeği] yapısını mı daha önce ediniyorlar?
2. Durumsal anadil özellikleri, İngilizceyi ikinci dil olarak edinen Türk yetişkinlerin İngilizce bazı fiillerden sonra "-for" edatını kullanmaları gerektiği "–to" edatı kullanmalarına yol açacak şekilde olumsuz olarak mı etkiliyor?
3. İngilizceyi ikinci dil olarak edinen Türk yetişkinlerin bu yapıları edinmelerindeki başarıları İngilizce seviyeleri ile doğru orantılımıdır?

Bu çalışma Çukurova Üniversitesi İngilizce Bölümünde okuyan, İngilizce yeterlik seviyeleri ileri ve orta olarak Michigan Placement Test ile belirlenen 100 öğrenci ile

yapılmıştır. Yazılı veri dilbilgisel yargı ve cümle oluşturma testleri aracılığı ile toplanmıştır. Ayrıca veri toplama araçları olarak TICLE ve LOCNESS isimli iki standart ve uluslarası bütünce kullanılmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: İkinci Dil Edinimi, Aradil, İngilizcede ki dolaylı nesne.

ABSTRACT

THE ACQUISITION OF ENGLSH DATIVE ALTERNATION BY TURKISH ADULT LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

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Within the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research, Interlanguage (IL) development and the nature of linguistic systems that L2 learners have become important components. In this respect, other related issues of IL development as native language factor for transfer situation, and effects of cross linguistic differences between languages have expanded the interest of the inquiry.

This study investigates the IL development of Turkish adult learners of English in terms of the IL features they employed and L1 effect on their IL. The L2 process of Dative Structure in English is examined in respect of questioning the IL assumptions. The questions of the research are:

1. Do Turkish learners of English acquire [_ NP PP] constructions or [_ NP NP] constructions before?
2. Do positional L1 features negatively affect learners' use of the verbs requiring preposition *for* instead of *to*?
3. Does the learners' success with these forms increase gradually along with their proficiency levels?

The study was conducted with 100 students studying ELT at Çukurova University, who were classified into two levels of English proficiency as intermediate and advanced on the results of the Michigan Placement Test. Written data were collected through grammaticality judgement and sentence construction tasks. In addition, two standard and international corpora, namely TICLE and LOCNESS, were utilized as data collection tools.

Keywords: Second Language Acquisition, Interlanguage, Dative Alternation in English

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACC	Accusative
CA	Contrastive Analysis
CAH	Critical Period Hypothesis
CC	Creative Construction
CASE MAR	Case Marker
DA	Dative
FT/PA	Full Transfer/Partial Access
FT/FA	Full Transfer/Full Access
GJT	Grammaticality Judgment Task
IL	Interlanguage
LOCNESS	Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language Acquisition
NS	Native Speaker
NNS	Non Native Speaker
NOM	Nominal
NP	Noun Phrase
NT/FA	No Transfer/Full Access
SCT	Sentence Construction Task
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
PP	Prepositional Phrase
PT/FA	Partial Transfer/Full Access
PT/PA	Partial Transfer/Partial Access
PAST	Past
POS	Poverty of Stimulus
TICLE	Turkish International Corpus of Learner English
UG	Universal Grammar
VP	Verb Phrase

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the scope of second language acquisition (SLA) has been expanded in the way that it encompasses various kinds of cognitive oriented views. The focus is firmly on identifying the nature and the source of underlying second language (L2) knowledge system, and on explaining developmental success and failure. In addition, the role of first language (L1) knowledge and the accessibility of universal constraints on linguistic structure and cognitive principles of language learning have been the contributors of the SLA studies (Andersen, 1983; Gass and Selinker, 1983; Kellerman, 1984; Adjemian and Liceras, 1984; Kellerman and Sharwood-Smith, 1986; Tarone, 1988; Felix, 1991; Hilles, 1991; Gass, 1996; White, 1989, 2001). Mainly, the concern of the related cognition-oriented hypotheses is to develop a conception of language learning as occurring through innate mechanisms which exist specially for this purpose. Hence, it is claimed that, these innate mechanisms are specific to language learning rather than of a general cognitive nature, since the input does not contain enough evidence for general cognitive mechanisms to work on.

Among the reciprocal views, many variables have been taken into account in terms of SLA. Behaviourist Contrastive Analysis view in Lado (1957) have made L1 transfer a current issue. Many researchers (Dulay and Burt, 1974; Andersen, 1983; Gass and Selinker, 1983a; Schumann, 1979; Sharwood Smith, 1979) have investigated the L1 transfer on L2 and linguistic universals. As generative grammar developed, especially the introduction of Chomsky's (1981) Principles and Parameters approach to Universal Grammar (UG), current concern has been put forward to investigate the accessibility of universal constraints on linguistic structure and cognitive principles of language learning. Some of early generativist L2 studies (Kellerman, 1984; Liceras, 1986; White, 1989b) were concerned with the relation between L1 transfer and UG, and tried to predict when transfer would or would not occur. As stated by Larsen-Freeman (2000), in those early days, SLA was a matter of overcoming the habits of L1 and there were obvious individual differences and native language effects, with later studies, it is accepted that an innate language acquisition device (LAD) was impressed with the learners' creative construction and sought explanations for the shared features of learners' interlanguage (IL) by pointing to the learning and communicative strategies

they employed. IL system has a cognitive emphasis and focus on strategies that learners employ when learning a second language (Selinker, 1972). The role of L1 in the acquisition of L2 was re-examined under the scope of IL notion (Zobl, 1980a, 1980b) and the importance of L1 transfer was re-emphasized.

The nature of UG-based SLA research is to centre upon the role of UG in L2 development and pay attention to the L2 initial state since L1 transfer alone cannot provide a complete explanation for the developmental sequences L2 learners take after the L2 initial state. Therefore, to explain what happens during the L2 initial state and beyond, generative L2 researchers use the notion of transfer in conjunction with theorising about the extent to which UG constrains L2 development. Mazurkewich (1984) and White (1985, 1986) were the first generativist SLA researchers who assume that L2 learners start out with their L1 grammar. Another important issue in UG debate, as White (1996) stated is the nature of IL competence, particularly the question of whether language learners have the same mental representation of the L2 as native speakers. According to White (1996) the nature of linguistic system that L2 learners have and the aspects of their IL grammar are new focuses of current UG theory.

Norris and Ortega (2003) point out that generative SLA research confines itself to formal descriptions of interim learner grammars (i.e. syntax) as reflected in a learners tacit ability to judge ungrammaticality in the L2, because it assumes that the goal of SLA as a theory is to explain how learners can acquire full mental representation of many of the complexities of the L2, and why they cannot acquire all aspects of an L2 syntax (and precisely which aspects learners may fail to acquire). Thus, generative linguistic studies of SLA are likely to rely on the outcomes of grammaticality judgment tasks that include language specific syntactic structures and regularities. Hawkins (1994) mentions that UG based studies of SLA most frequently use written grammaticality judgement tests because they find this inevitable, mainly because the structures they wish to investigate would never occur with sufficient frequency if they had to be found in spontaneous speech.

In the light of these assumptions that has mentioned below, main concern in this particular study is to examine interlanguage grammar of Turkish adult learners, similarities and differences between learners acquiring English language and the effect of Turkish language as a matter of L1 influence. For this purpose, English dative alternation has been taken to account and tested in terms of L2 acquisition.

1.1 Background of the study

Dative alternation in English pertain to the set of verbs subcategorizing for distinct complement types like prepositional phrases [_NP PP] and double object [_NP NP]. Many dative verbs such as *give*, *sell*, *pay*, *pass*, *tell*, *build* may appear with both complement types, for example *give* and *build*:

1- a) John gave [[the book$_{NP}$] [*to* Mary$_{PP}$]]
   b) John gave [[Mary$_{NP}$] [the book$_{NP}$]]
2- a) John built [[a house$_{NP}$] [*for* Mary$_{PP}$]]
   b) John built [Mary$_{NP}$] [a house$_{NP}$]]

(Hawkins, 1987 p.21)

The sentence pairs as in (1) and (2) are usually termed as the *dative alternation*. Although considered almost synonymous, these sentences are differentiated not only syntactically but also pragmatically. In sentence (1a) dative object is marked by a free morpheme whereas the dative object in sentence (1b) is marked by word order.

On the other hand, there are other verbs such as *address*, *deliver*, *demonstrate*, *describe*, *dictate*, *donate* which are used only with [_NP PP] complement:

3- a) Ted donated the money *to* UNICEF
   * b) Ted donated UNICEF the money
4- a) The President addressed his speech *to* the senators
   * b) The President addressed the senators his speech

(Hawkins, 1987 p.21)

Besides, verbs such as *ask*, *cost*, *deny*, *envy*, etc. are used with only [_NP NP] complement:

5- a) The teacher asked his students a question
   * b) The teacher asked a question *to* his students

(Elyıldırım, 1996)

These verbs which occur with only one type of compliment as opposed to the former group of verbs are referred as non-alternating verbs. Sentences like (1-a) and (2-a) also illustrate that some dative verbs require the preposition *to*, while others require

the preposition *for*. However, many of the verbs that take *to-PP* complements also allow *for-PP* complements:

6) a) Alex sent some flowers *to* Kelly
   b) Alex sent some flowers *for* Kelly

In Turkish, the dative alternation is marked with a case marker suffix attached to the head of a noun phrase in order to indicate the relationship of that noun phrase to other constitutions of the sentence (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005). This inflectional suffix determines the direction of the action or the benefactor of the action. Both object positions are possible in Turkish, however, the case marker '-e', which sometimes becomes '-a' in accordance with the vowel harmony according to which the suffix should be in vocalic harmony with the preceding morphemes and the stem of the word. This situation can be exemplified as follows;

7) a) Ali kitab-ını Mehmet-*e* verdi
   Ali NOM his book ACC Mehmet DAT-*to* CASE MAR give PAST
   Ali gave his book to Mehmet

   b) Ali Mehmet-*e* kitab-ını verdi
   Ali NOM Mehmet DAT-*to* CASE MAR his book ACC give PAST
   Ali gave Mehmet his book

8) a) Mine kitab-ı İlkay-a aldı.
   Mine NOM the book ACC İlkay DAT-*for* CASE MAR buy PAST
   Meryem bought the book for İlkay

   b) Mine İlkay-a kitab-ı aldı.
   Mine NOM İlkay DAT-for CASE MAR the book ACC buy PAST
   Mine bought the book for İlkay

1.2 The Aim of the Study

This research attempts to investigate the acquisition of dative structures in English by Turkish adult learners. The aim of the study is to examine the possibility of whether adult learners' interlanguages are affected by their L1 or they have access to linguistic universals (UG) while acquiring this syntactic structure and to investigate the language learning strategies and common tendencies they employed. The dative construction in question has been taken into account according to its cross linguistic and transformational features between English and Turkish languages in terms of syntactic and semantic criteria.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this particular study is to try to explain whether related assumptions would be a reasonable justification for the L2 acquisition of English dative alternation for Turkish adult learners. For this purpose, 50 intermediate and 50 advanced university level students were administered a grammaticality judgement task and a sentence construction task prepared by Hawkins (1987). In addition, Turkish International Corpus of Learner English (TICLE), which is a standard corpus and consists of the collection of Turkish adult learners' computerized performance in essay writing in English, analyzed in order to examine how Turkish learners acquire English dative alternation. In other words, it aims to find out:

- whether syntactic differences between L1 and L2 in terms of dative alternation poses a problem for the learner or not,
- whether there is an order of acquisitional between [_ NP PP] constructions or [_ NP NP],
- whether there is a difference between groups of different proficiency levels in terms of acquisition of English dative alternation or not.

1.4 Research Questions

This study aims to seek answers to the following research questions:

1. Do Turkish learners of English acquire [_ NP PP] constructions or [_ NP NP] constructions before?

2. Do L1 features negatively affect learners' use of the verbs requiring preposition *for* instead of *to*?
3. Does the learners' success with these forms increase gradually along with their proficiency levels?

1.5 Limitations

This study is only limited to the students attending English Language Teaching department. Hence, the results of the study are limited to Grammaticality Judgement Task, Sentence Construction Task, Turkish International Corps of Learner English (TICLE) and Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS) used in the data collection.

1.6 Operational Definitions

1. Dative Alternation: variations between double object constructions and the prepositional object constructions.
2. Grammaticality Judgement Task: a task where the learner has to choose between grammatical or ungrammatical
3. Interlanguage: the language system of a second language learner at any stage in th process of second language acquisition.
4. Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS) : a corpus which consists of native English essays.
5. L1 : the native language of the learner.
6. L2 : the language that is being acquired.
7. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) : the acquisition of a language after the native language has already became established in the individual (Ritchie& Bathia, 1996).
8. Sentence Construction Task: a task where the learner has to make grammatical sentence with the given words.
9. Turkish International Corpus of Learner English(TICLE): a corpus that is developed from Turkish adult learners' essays.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Theories of Second Language Acquisition/Learning

2.1.1 Contrastive Analysis

In order to understand the nature of the linguistic representations of the L2 that learners develop, it is essential to consider previous and current linguistic theories. One of these was behaviorism that arouse in the late 50's and Skinner's behaviorist approach has been a backround for analysing how languages are learned. Behaviorist theory accounts for language in terms of imitation, practice, reinforcement and habit formation (stimulus-respond connection). The theory was often related to Contrastive Analysis hypothesis (CA), which described by Lado in 1957 and Fries in 1945 (in Gass and Selinker, 2001). CA is a way of comparing languages in order to determine potential errors for the ultimate purpose of isolating what needs to be learnt and what does not need to be learned in second language learning situation (Selinker, 2001).

According to Lado (in Gass and Selinker, 2001), similarities between L1 and L2 will facilitate L2 learning and differences will cause problems because of difficulties of L2 structures. 'Transfer' is the fundemental assumption as Lado pointed ' Individuals tend to transfer forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanins of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture.' (cited in Cook, 1993). According to Flynn and O'Neil (1988), CA suggests that SLA is a process of overcoming the habits of the native language in order to acquire the new habits of the target language.

The term 'interference' that referred to distinction which was made for transfer as being negative and positive. 'Positive transfer' occured where there was concordance between the L1 and the L2 that account for acquisition with little or no difficulty. On the other hand, 'Negative transfer' dealt with some sort of dissonance between the L1 and the L2 and there was difficulty in the acquisition of the L2 structures.

The CA model of language learning has been supported by studies that concentrated on the differences between L1 and L2 resulting in negative transfer. For example, Baik and Shim (1993) and Shim (1994) examined Korean learners of English and their mistakes has been taken to account as negative transfer in terms of CA. Other studies as

Dommerques and Lane, Duskova and Selinker (in Gass and Selinker, 2001) that supported the CA model by their findings.

Dulay *at al*. (in Selinker, 1992) gives example to illustrate negative transfer in SLA. In Spanish the adjective usually placed after the noun and, therefore, Spanish speaking learners of English tend to say *the girl smart* instead of *the smart girl* in order to communicate in English. Dulay *at al.* (in Selinker, 1992) claims that, this process has been accepted as 'negative evidence' in respect of CA. On the other hand, Duskova (1984) tested Czech speaking learners of English and Russion. She found that those learning English did not transfer bound morphemes, whereas Czech learners of Russion did. This issue of transference of L1 forms being occur in one instance but not in another could not be explained. Another example given by Zobl (1980) relying on data obtained from French speakers learning English and English speakers learning French. In French, object pronouns precede the verb, whereas object pronouns follow the verb:

1) Je les vois.
   I them see
   'I see them'
   (cited in Selinker, 2001, p. 74)

The results revealed contradictory such that French learners of English did not violate object pronoun as being expected but English speakers followed the native language word order. Nevertheless, a critisism has been arouse against CA. Becouse, the 'habit' were dynamics of one's native language but they are oprative in one language but not on the other. In addition, Odlin (1989) examined Spanish speaking learners of English. The case was that Spanish language has a copula verb similar to English verb 'be' as in the sentence *That's very simple*. However, Spanish speakers tended to ommit the copula in early stages of acquisition as in the sentence *That very simple* (p.19). according to these results, Odlin claimed that not all similarities between an L1 and L2 lead to an immediate positive transfer. Thus, Lococo (in Selinker, 1992) studied errors of L1/L2 contrast in the corpus analysis and found that errors were not no more than 25% of the total number of non-native forms produced by the learners. Whitman and Jackson (in Selinker, 1992) has also revealed contratictive conclusions against the CA model of acquisition reffering to their study in which 2500 Japanese secondary school students were tested. They concluded that CA model was inappropriate to provide the interference problems of a learner.

2.1.2 The Input Hypothesis

An innatist appraoch of second language acquisition is the input hypothesis, also called 'monitor model' formulated by Krashen (in Cook, 1993). According to the model, language acquisition relies on trying to comprehend what other people say. Therefore, L2 acquisition tends to occur when the learners are left without a meaningful language through the classroom activities that focused on the forms rather than on meaning, or by a mental block that prevents otherwise useful language from gaining access to the learners' minds (Cook, 1993). Listening is crucial activity that L2 learners acquire a new language by hearing it in contexts in which the meaning of sentences made clear to them. Speaking is either unnecessary or is positive harmful; 'Speaking is a result of acquisition and not its cause (in Cook, 1993). In the process of language 'learning', knowledge is gained through conscious understanding of the rules of language. 'Learnt' knowledge occurs through the 'Monitoring' of speech that provides a conscious check on what speaker says. This process figurized below:

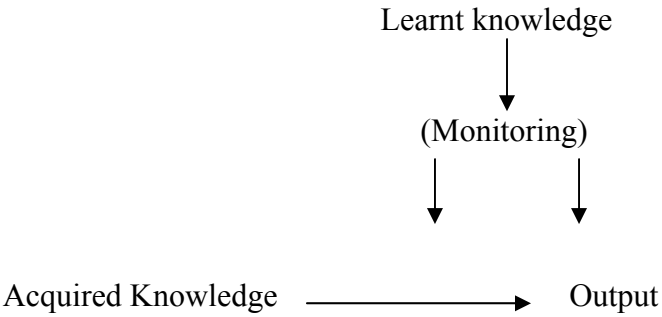


Figure 1. The Monitor model of L2 production (Krashen, 1981, cited in Cook, 1993, p.52)

The theory proposes five linked hypothesis:

1)Tthe Input Hyphothesis: Krashen (1981) claims that humans acquire a language in only way- by exposure to *comprehensible input* that is, they acquire language by trying to understand meaningful messages. Besides, Krashen defines a learner's current of knowledge as *i* and next stage as *i*+1. The input that learner exposed to must be at *i*+1 in terms of acquisition.

2) The Acquisition/Learning Hyphothesis: This model distinguishes 'acquisition' and 'learning'. Acquisition is understanding and picking up the language that exposed to. Learning is a concious process of study and attention to form and rule, in other words, knowing about language. According to Krashen (1981), language acquisition is a subconscious process and acquirers are not aware of the fact that they are acquiring a language. However, learning refers to conscious knowlege of second language, knowing rules, aware of them and being able to talk about them.

3) Monitor Model: According to Krashen, 'learnt' or conscious knowledge comes into play through the editor or a 'monitor', making minor changes and polishing what the acquired system has produced. As shown in figure 1. above, the learnt system has a special function as to serve as a Monitor and to alter the output of the acquired system.

4) Natural Order Hyphothesis: This model asserts that, learners seem to acquire a second language in a predictible sequence. Most of Krashen's evidence for this model came from the 'morpheme studies' (Krashen *at al.*, 1976) in which they examined two groups of learners' speech for the accuracy of certain grammatical morphemes.

5) The Affective Filter Hyphothesis: In this model, filter refers to a mental block caused by affective factor such as motives, needs, attitudes and emotional states that prevents input from reaching acquisition device. In other words, filter may block the input when the learners is stressed or unmotivated.According to Krashen, the affective filter hyphothesis accounts for the failure of second language acquisition in one of two ways, insufficient input and high Affective Filter. In other words, two conditions are necesary for acquisition: comprehensible input and a low or weak affective filter.

One of the functions of the Filter stated by Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) is that it will determine waht parts of the language will be attended to and in what order. Gregg (1984) gave an example of a Chinese native speaker with near-native like knowledge of English and it has been seen that this person had not yet acquired some certain strustures such as third person singular –s. In Krashen's view, this must be due to the Affective Filter but there was no explanation that how the Filter could let most of the input pass through and filter out third person singular (in Gass and Selinker, 2001).

2.1.3 Connectionism

As a cognitice approach, Connectionism, developed by McClelland *at al*.(1986), has a rather different persective than both behaviourism and innatism. It simply deals with associations and patterns rather than abstract rules and the theory asserts that mind is a network and learning a language involves practising to establish connections in that network through practice. Thus, connectionism argue that language acquisition does not require a saparate 'module of the mind' (opposite to innatism) but can be explained in terms of learing in general. Therefore, what children need to know is essentially available in the language they are exposed to.

According to the connectionist model of learning, language processing takes place being processed simultaneously. Learners are able to make associations that come through exposure to repeated patterns. The more often association is made, the stronger that association becomes. New associaions are formed and new links are made betweenlarger and larger units until complexes of networks are built up. Simply, learning is to weighting the strenght of these connections. Sharkey (1996) explains how a connectionist net operates: if net considered as a 'black box' in which something put in and get out, for example, if a German sentence put into the black box as input, the output might be the some sentences in English or Arabic etc. This translation refers to mapping from German input to English output.

Recent litearure of Connectionst approach do not distinguish L1 from L2 acquisition (Gasser, 1990; Sokolik and Smith, 1992). There are not many SLA studies that have been conducted within the connectionism framework. Selinker (2001) points out that:

> It is to be noted that in the case of second language acquisition, the stength of association may already (right or wrong) be present; that is, a pattern of connectivity may alreay have been established. In other words, the L1 is already in place and, therefore, there is a set of associations with their stengths fixed. These associations can possibly interfere with the establishment of an L2 network. (p. 217).

Ellis and Schmidt (1997) conducted a study and tested the second language morphology based on a connectionist model. Thruogh a controlled experimant, they found frequency affects for the acquisition of L2 morphology. Sokolik and Smith (in Selinker, 1992) investigated the acquisition of French noun gender based on a computer experiment. Regular and iregular nouns were used in the program which was designed to identify noun gender and gender of words that have never encountered before. They

found that, when a set of indifferent preexisting weights was adopted to the model, the acquisition process showed slowness. On the other hand, Blackwell and Broeder (in Selinker, 1992) formed a computer learn either Arabic or Turkish pronouns on the basis of their frequency in language input to learners; then they added the second language of two languages. They found that, the computer indeed copied the order of acquisition that have been found in a study of four learners. According to Cook (2001) '' Connectionism looks at an important area for the future L2 research.''(p. 188). Sharkey (1996) points out that '' the Connectionist research is *en route* to providing an explanation of both language prediposition and the necessity of learning stages.'' (p. 178), and adds that Connescionist natural language processing is still at a relatively early stages of development.

2.1.4 Creative Construction

In the light of the assumptions that have been reached by the studies against the CA model, some ideas such as the issue of the native language and the approach to the errors that learners do within the theory has been questioned. One of the challenging reaction to the CA model is the view (Dulay and Burt, 1973,1975) that seeing language learning as a creative and a rule governed process and proceeding in natural sequences as a result of internal mechanism which is triggered by the input. Hence, this creative formation which is called 'creative construction' (CC), provides children reconstruct second languages regardless of their L1. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) defined CC as :

> We use the term *creative construction* to refer to the subconscious process by which learner gradually organize the language they hear, according to rules they construct to generate sentences. To form the rules is determined by mental mechanisms responsible for human language acquisition and use. These mechanisms appear to be innate. As the learners' language system develops, the learners' rules are gradually refined to incorporate more and more of the mature language system. (pp.11-12).

The grammatical morpheme order studies can be considered as evidence for the CC model. Brown (in Cook, 1993) tested children L1 acquisition based on morpheme order. Afterwards, Dulay and Burt (in Cook, 1993) applied Brown's study to chilren L2 acquisition. They both hypothesized that simiar patterns of development would captured

between child L1 and L2 acquisition. The data elicited from a standatized test of English known as Bilingual Syntax Measurement (BSM) that achieved by 60 Spanish and 55 Chinese children learning English. The results indicated similarities in processes between L1 and L2 learning and they concluded that if there were such similarities found, the developmental factors are more important than L1 factor in terms of universal mechanisms. Krashen *at al*. (1974) also supported this view according their study of morpheme order which revealed consistent result with Dulay and Burt's study. Thus, the evidence from studies (Bailey *at al.*, 1974; Dulay *at al.*, 1982; Cook, 1973; Cooper *at al*., 1979) those showed the lack of importance of L1 gave support to CC model.

However, Flynn (1987) critisized the CC hypothesis as providing inconsistent experimental data and, although there may be supporting cases, the theory is insufficient to predict where and which aspects of natural language will show target L1 patterns of acquisition or L1 patterns of errors. In addition, in Flynn's view, the theory does not predict any evidence of L1 in L2 acquisition. In other words, errors in L2 should not reflect any significant influence of the learner's L1.

2.1.5 Universal Grammar

Linguitic inquiry provided another challenging theory that involves more cognitive approach in contrast to behaviourism nearly in the same era. Innatism was the major concern and innate knowledge of language was the central idea to explain language acquisition from a generative perspective. It was argued, language was not simply a matter of habit formation, but rather had its own natural system and developmental process. The idea is that human beings have a genetic endowment that enables them to learn a language. A hyphothesis adopted by generativists of the Chomskyan tradition is precisely that Universal Grammar (UG) is innate to human species and it is a genetic endowment: human beings are born equipped with a set of universal linguistic principles (Haegeman, 1991). Chomsky states as ''Universal grammar may be thougt of as some system of principles, common to the species and available to each individual prior to experience''(1981, p.7).

Chomsky (in Cook, 1988) proposed a theory of innate knowledge of Universal Grammar (UG) that enables all children acquire the language which is governed by a set

of highly abstract principles that provide parameters given particular settings in different languages. Thus, Chomsky pointed, children realize this complex process that of acquisition through Language Acquisition Device with the help of insufficient data. It is postulated that this device was unique to processing and producing language, and was saparate from other cognitive processes. According to Cook (1988), LAD can be seen equal to language faculty and consists of principles and parameters of UG that regulate thousands of lexical entries specifying how each word can behave in each sentence.

This process is expressed in figure1.

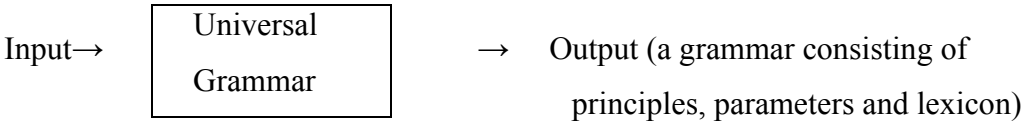


Figure 2. The Universal Grammar model of L1 acquisition (Cook, 1988)

According to UG hypothesis, L1 acquisition is assumed to be constrained by UG, since the input is 'deficient' in various respects, underdetermining the final grammar that is so called 'poverty of stimulus' (POS) argument or the logical problem of acquisition (White, 2000). This argument questions that, primary input underdetermine unconscious knowledge of language and with the help of this insufficient input, it would be impossible for the L1 acquirer's achievement without a built-in system of universal linguistic principles and grammatical properties. Therefore, it is claimed that, UG is suggested as an explanation of POS argument as how acquirers come to know such a complete grammar unconsciously. Meanwhile, a curicial element of the acquisition is the evidence that provides the exposition through input. Cook (1988) states that children acquire a langage from evidence they encountered and suggests that ''..without any evidence at all, they will acquire nothing; with evidence, they will acquire Chinese or Arabic or any human language.''(p. 89). In the case oL1 acquisition in terms of UG, it is essential that children need to hear sentences of a particular language to choose the proper value for the parameter setting in that language. The distinction on evidence has been drawn into two ways: *positive evidence* that consists of the utterances that the child hears, i.e. sentences of that language and *negative evidence* that consists of explanations,

corrections of wrong sentences, or ungrammatical sentences. Negative evidence has implications in itself such as; direct evidence which refers to the correction of childrens mistakes by adults, on the other hand, indirect evidence that expresses the non-occurances of ungrammatical forms leading children what may not be so that they do not such mistakes. In respect of the logical problem of language acquisition (POS) that mentioned above, It has been suggested that, a learnability problem tends to occur on the account of the insufficient input, how come children hereafter know ungrammaticality or the sentences that are not possible in the language they acquire (White, 1989). The problem can be explained in limguistic competence including unconscious knowledge of ungrammaticality as well a grammaticality. For example, adults English speakers know the sentences such as (1a) are grammatical whereas (1b) are ungrammatical:

2) a) What did Mary believe that John bought_?

b)*What did Mary believe the story that John bought_?

(White, 1989, p. 13)

the explanation is then provides a kind of evidence that enables children learn subsequently the ungrammaticality of sentences like (1b).

L1 acquisition proceeds on the basis of input that interacts with the principles and parameters of UG and this process yields a grammar or a series of grammars. In the end, child arrives at a steady state grammar. White (2000) schematized L1 process as in figure 3:

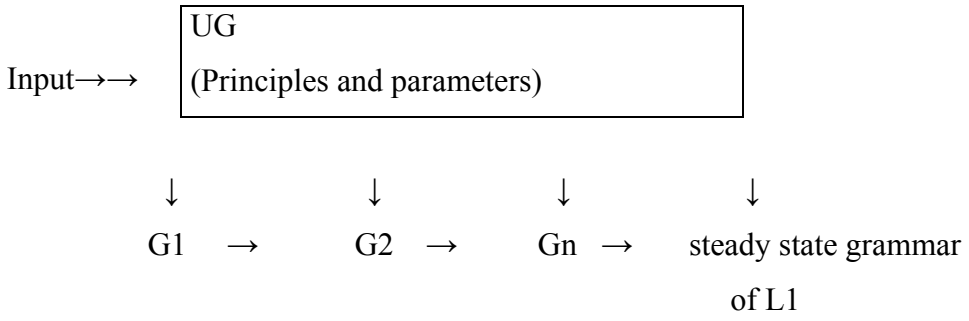


Figure 3. L1 acquisition (White, 2000)

Beside the role of UG on L1, recent years, L2 research have tend heavily on this generative grammar in order to understand the nature of IL grammar attained by L2 learners. Principles and Parameters framework provided a basis for L2 research, in

terms of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). White (2000) mentions that the emphasis on parameters give L2 researchers opportunity to investigate the variation between languages, the role of transfer and whether or not parameters of UG can be (re)set in L2. Universal principles are focused to investigate whether UG is available in L2 and interlanguages are natural languages, constrained by principles of UG. In addition, according to White (2003), L2 learners also faced with a logical problem of language acquisition e.g. POS. Parallel to the L1 acquisition, abstract, complex and subtle properties of grammar that are underdetermined by the L2 input this time. These abstract properties cannot be induced from the L2 input alone; thus, there should be underdetermination not only with respect to L2 input but also with respect to the L1 grammar. Then, the principles of UG constrain interlanguage grammar. This case gives the opportunity to investigate whether UG is still available in L2 besides L1.

Current generative theory of UG is made up of to components: principles and parameters. The speaker's knowledge of language consists of principles that are common to all languages and of parameters whose values vary from one language to another. Cook (1988) states ''all human minds are believed to honor the common principles that are force them by the nature of the human minds that all their speakers share. They differ over settings for the parameters for particular language.'' (1988, p.34). In addition, Hawkins (2001) mentions that principles define the structural architecture of human language and variation between particular languages or varieties of language is accounted for by a small number of parameters of variation allowed within the overall design defined by the principles.

2.1.5.1 UG Principles

In the UG theory, it is postulated that languages consists of invariable principles that is the same for all languages. Within the framework, the principles can be classified as:

- X-bar Theory: It is a theory of phrase structure asserts that every phrasal category contains at least one element;
- Theta Theory: It depends on the syntactic elements of _ roles;
- The Projection Principle: It defines the limits for movement and hence determines how far an element can move in the sentence;

- Case theory: It is related to the traditional syntactic ideas of case that is assigned to all NPs by case assigners, either structurally or inherently;
- C-command and Government: It deals with the relationships between the elements and specifiers where various subsystems apply;
- Binding Theory: It is concerned with the possible antecedents for anaphors;
- The Empty Category Principle: It deals with traces and asserts that traces must properly be governed.

One of the universals is the specific principle of structure dependency which asserts that knowledge of language relies on the structural relationships in the sentence rather than on the sequence of words (Cook, 1988). Chomsky (in Cook, 1988) claims that ‘‘the rules of language do not consider simple linear order but are structure dependent’’ (p.45) and gives example as evidence for his claim:

3) a) Is the man who is here tall?
   b)* Is the man who here is tall?

Question formation in English involves moving the auxiliary from the main clause to the front and this makes (1a) grammatical and (1b) ungrammatical. A native speaker of English takes this structure into account when producing a question. Otsu and Naoi (1986) tested knowledge of structure dependency among Japanese learners of English and the results of their study support the notion that learners' grammars are constrained by principles of UG. Other principle, known as Subjacency, limits the amount of movement that can take place within the sentences. Thus, no movement can move an element over more than one bounding node at a time.

Cook (2001) mentions that ‘‘if human mind always uses its built-in language principles, interlanguages must also conform to them.’’(p.35). Hence, no one has yet found sentences said by L2 learners that break the known language principles as structure dependency. In her study, Cook (1990b) tested 140 university level students and 132 of them knew the structure dependency to the extent that they got at least five out of six sentences right. She concluded that L2 learners clearly have few problems with structure dependency when compared to other structures.

Schachter (1989, 1990) tested subjacency principle among native speakers of Indonesian, Chinese, Korean and Dutch learning English. The results suggested that Dutch speakers are constrained by the principle of subjacency, the results for other

groups are not clear. The considerable fact is that there is no evidence for subjacency in Korean, some evidence in Indonesian and Chinese; in Dutch, there are same subjacency restrictions as in English.

2.1.5.2 UG Parameters

UG includes parameters with a limited number of settings or values which allows for cross linguistic variation. On the basis of input, particular parameter gets fixed on the specific value. The role of input that child exposed to is to trigger the appropriate setting for each parameter and it determine which setting of a parameter that child will select. In addition, parameters involve the clustering properties and once a parameter is set in a particular way, all related properties are affected (Selinker, 2001). Hence, White states that some L1 research has provided evidence in favor of clustering (2003). Parameters diverging languages have different values: *open* parameter, *default* parameter and *subset* parameter.

Default Parameter: This variation concerns whether the grammatical subject of a sentence has to be actually present in the sentence. The possibility of 'null subject' is called 'null subject parameter' or 'pro-drop parameter'. For example, in German (as in English), it is possible to say 'Er spricht' (he speaks) but impossible to say 'Spricht' (speaks); declarative sentences must have subjects (Cook, 2001, p.36). In some languages such as Italian and Turkish, it is possible to omit subject:

4) a) Bugün geldiler.
(Today came)
'They came today'

5) a) Venuto oggi
(Came today)
'They came today'

As in Italian and Turkish, it is possible to omit subject. But in English, subjectless sentences are ungrammatical because all English sentences require lexical subjects in sentences. This variation in terms of sentences being subjectless between languages provides that some languages as Turkish and Italian have pro-drop value and some as English has non pro-drop value. Hence, the parameters theory postulates that a pro-drop

parameter has two settings: ±pro-drop value. In + pro-drop languages, the empty category *pro* fills the adequate part of deep and surface structure bur does not appear in the surface of the sentence as in the example:

6) *Pro_* bugün geldiler.
   *Pro_* today came
   'They came today'

In addition pro-drop parameter also allows the subject to occur after the verb in declarative sentences. For example:

7) Bugün geldiler onlar.
   Today came they
   'They came today'

On the other hand, -pro drop value does not permit this subject-verb inversion. It is considered that, in L1 acquisition, children start out with the unmarked default pro-drop value (Hyams, 1986). If children acquire a non pro-drop language, they have to reset the unmarked pro-drop value into marked non pro-drop value. On the other hand, Children acquiring Turkish can automatically drop the subject.

Open Parameter: The main issue of this parameter is that it is open to choice of children in the way they decide the right value when they get the positive input. There fore they set the appropriate parameter value. This variation has two types of value: word order parameter and head parameter.

Word order parameter is one in which languages differ in terms the order of Subject (S), Verb (V) and Object (O). This cross linguistic variation on major word order refers to 'word order parameter'. Some languages are essentially SVO (subject-verb-object) English and others are essentially SOV such as Turkish.

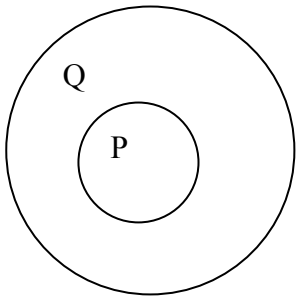
8) a) Özgür plays the guitar.
      (S) (V) (O)
   b) Özgür gitar çalar.
      (S) (O) (V)

Other type of open parameter is the head parameter that depends on the position of heads within the phrases such as nouns in NPs or verbs in VPs. The assumption is then; a particular language has the heads on the same side of the complements in all its

phrases, whether head-initial or head-final. Therefore, the divergence between languages relies on the side of this head and its complement. For example, English is a head-initial language in which the position of head is before the complement, but in languages as Turkish, the position of head is after the complement (head-final).

In terms of L1 acquisition, as stated above, when the child hears the sentences of the language they exposed, they set the right parameter value. However, in account of L2 acquisition, the case is not simple as in L1 since L2 learners already have a parameter setting. Hence, Flynn (1987) argued that if parameter settings are differing in L1 and L2, there will be effects on the L2 learners. She tested adult speakers of Spanish and Japanese using adverbial clauses. Meanwhile, both Spanish and English as L2 are head-initial languages whereas Japanese is head-final. The results of the study revealed as Japanese learners of English have more difficulty than Spanish learners in terms of deciding the correct value of head-position.

Subset Parameter: This type of parameters properties are formulated from the Subset Principle that proposes how a learner pick the correct value of a parameter through the negative evidence (Berwick, 1989; Wexler and Manzini, 1987). The assumption suggests that the sets of sentences permitted by any two values of a parameter must enter a subset relation with each other. White (1989) states that grammars generate sentences that are in a superset/subset relationship as in the figure 2 :



Q generates the sentences P
P is a subset of Q

Figure 4. The Subset Condition

Here, the grammar that generates the sentences Q also generates P and P is a proper set of Q. P sentences are compatible with two grammars, the grammar that generates Q and the grammar generates P. The subset principle assumes that within the given input

that could be accommodated by either of two grammars meeting the Subset Condition, the learner's first choice will be the most conservative grammar with this input. In the figure 4, the grammar that learner will choose is that yields only P sentences. One example of this type of parameter is Proper Antecedent Parameter (PAP) of Wexler and Manzini (1987) that proposes the following divergence:

A proper antecedent for α

a) a subject

b) any element β whatsoever

This value is concerned with the kinds of NPs that can serve as antecedents for anaphors and nominals. Languages as Japanese allow subjects as the antecedents of reflexives, whereas languages like English allows subjects and nonsubjects. For example:

9) Tom showed John a picture of himself.

Hence, Japanese is a subset of English with respect to this property. A child acquiring English hears sentences like (1) in which antecedent of the reflexive is not the subject and set the parameter to value (b), whereas a Japanese child set (a) because of hearing sentences containing reflexives.

The Subset Principle is a learnability hypothesis for first language acquisition concerning the 'size' of acquired grammars. Hence, the hypothesis concerns the relationship between the 'marked' and the 'unmarked' settings of the parameters defined by UG. Namely, the Subset Condition provides a kind of definition of markedness that assumes the parameter setting yielding the subset language is the unmarked and the value yielding the superset is marked, only when the appropriate the positive input occurs (White, 1989). In other words, unmarked and marked values are deal with the subset/superset relationship.

It has been questioned that whether the Subset Principle is still available to L2 acquisition. A number of researchers (Finer and Broselow, 1986; Thomas, 1989; White, 1989) suggest that the Subset principle does not operate in L2 acquisition. When the L2 contains only P, L2 learners may not predict that Q is possible. White (1989) mentions that, L2 learners may not pick the right parameter that yields the smallest language consistent with the input; they can still face with input data which are consistent with more than one grammar that generates sentences as superset of those generated by the

other. Cook (1990b) investigated the setting of the different value in relation o L1 and to the Subset Principle. She tested 14 native speakers of English and 16 Japanese, 14 Romance and 17 Norwegian L2 learners by timed comprehension of governing category parameter. The results showed that a single case related to all groups which did not concerned with the Subset Principle or with L1 transfer.

2.1.5.3 Markedness

It is suggested that there are different definitions of markedness in terms of both within the generative grammar and other linguistic inquiries. One is the account of generative grammar that proposes a distinction between 'core' and 'peripheral' grammar. Chomsky (1982a) states that knowledge of a language means knowing how it fits the general properties of UG with which the mind is equipped and a particular (core) language is determined by fixing parameters in these subtheories. The 'core' is part of grammatical competence covered by UG; all the principles are kept, all the parameters are set with the right bounds and 'periphery' includes aspects that not predictible from UG (Cook, 1988). The distinction between core and periphery is not absolut but a continuum of 'markedness'. According to theory of markedness, as defined by White (1988), marked structures are those ''departing from core grammar and requiring specific evidence during the course of L1 acquisition'' whereas unmarked case is defined as a child's initial hypothesis and determined by UG (p. 262). In other words, the more something departs from UG the more it is marked; the central core is unmarked. Mazurkewich (1984) pointed out that marked rules are the peripheral rules of core grammar and they are predicted to be relatively more difficult to learn. Moreover, they must be learn on the basis of positive evidence of their existance in a particular laguage since they could not be assumed to exist in that language. L2 acquisition approach to this claim can be considered with the study of Mazurkewich's (1984) states that an unmarked property of L2 will be acquired before its marked counterpart (see 2.4.2 and 2.4.3 for the details of the study).

The next assumption that defines the markedness in respect of what is or is not present in UG. According to this explanation, any principles and parameters proposed in linguistic theory would be 'unmarked', whereas other structures would be 'unmarked' (White,1989). In addition, the idea postulates that the acquisition takes place in core grammar which is easier to acquire since it is result of the triggering data related to

principles and parameter, whereas peripheral grammar have to be learned. The Subset Principle (mentioned above) also provides a definition of markedness (Wexler and Manzini (1987). As stated earlier, the idea is that, the value of a parameter that yields a subset can be defined as 'unmarked' and the value yielding the superset is 'marked'. White (1988a) examined the parameterized Subjecency (S) including bounding ndes which restrict wh-movement. Since, there is a parametric variation between languages in terms of the bounding ststus of S, White (1989) claims that unmarked value is that all nodes are bounding, by the help of the positive evidence learners have to reset the parameter; they encounter sentences where a wh-phrase has moved over certain nodes but not bounding ones. Thus, this positive evidence motivate a marked parameter setting.

2.1.5.4 Access to UG Hypotheses

One of the major concerns of UG approach to SLA is to explain whether or not interlanguages are constrained by UG. In this way, the matter of L2 learners' initial state (starting point to second language acquisition process) and the nature of their linguistic knowledge from a functional perspective are taken to account. The issue is to look for evidence that L2 learners can (or cannot) apply any principles of UG, and set or reset parameters, as well as examining the extent to which L1 was involved, for example through the adaptation of L1 parameter settings in IL grammars (White, 1989). In addition, the nature, availability and the role of functional categories are considered in terms of linguistic theory and L1 acquisition theory.

The research centered around two variables: *transfer* and access to UG. In this situation, two broad views are discussed. One side, Fundamental Difference Hypothesis (Bley-Vroman, 1989; Schachter, 1988), sometimes referred to 'no access' position, which hypothesized that L1 and L2 acquisition differ in major respects. Bley-Vroman proposes that while the child uses UG and language specific processes to learn L1, the adult learner uses the L1 and general problem solving processes (1990). According to Schachter, L2 learners rarely attain the same level of knowledge in their L2 as in the L1 and this is claimed to indicate no access to UG (1988). On the other side, Access to UG hypothesis argues that UG is still alive in L2 and constrains the IL in the same way as in L1 grammar. It is supposed that, IL grammar show evidence of being constrained by

UG principles, and also parameter settings other than those of L1. White (2000) summarized five possible positions in terms of availability to UG:

1. Full Transfer / Partial Access (FT/PA)

This approach assumes that L2 initial state consists of L1 final state. If properties of UG are not found in L1 grammar, it will not available for L2. For this reason, this position sometimes called 'no access' position and it is essential for the Fundamental Difference Hypothesis that mentioned above. This view has some implications for the course of development, for example, IL grammar will not show new parameter settings or new feature specifications. This position illustrated in figure 5. below:

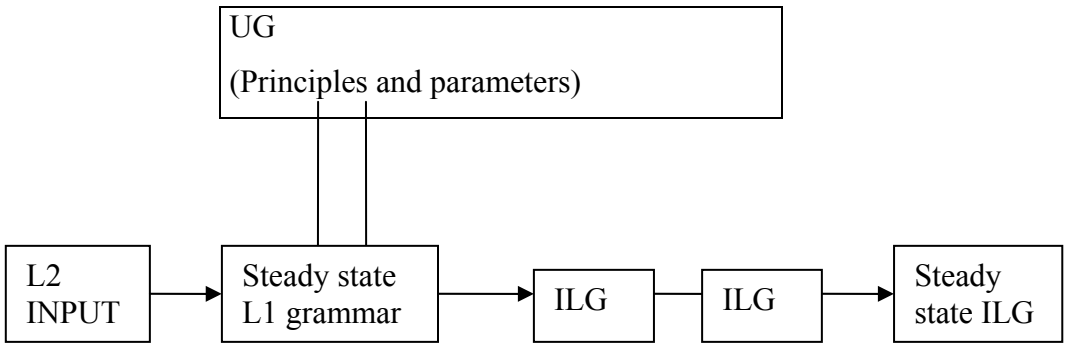


Figure 5. Full Transfer/ Partial Access (White, 2000)

2. No Transfer / Full Access (NT/FA)

In this position, it is proposed that L2 grammar is acquired on the basis of UG principles and parameters interacting directly with L2 input and L1 final state does not constitute the L2 learner's grammar at any stage. In other words, there is a disconnection between L1 and developing L2 grammar. This position is advanced by Epstein, Flynn and Martohardjono (1996, 1998), Flynn and Martohardjono (1994) and Flynn (1996). Flynn and Martohardjono argue that L2 acquisition involves the assignment of 'additional' parametric values where L1 and L2 do not match in parametric settings. It also assumes that, there will be differences in developing IL grammar attribute to the L1 of the learner. Furthermore, ultimate attainment should be similar to that of native speakers. Figure 6. expresses this situation:

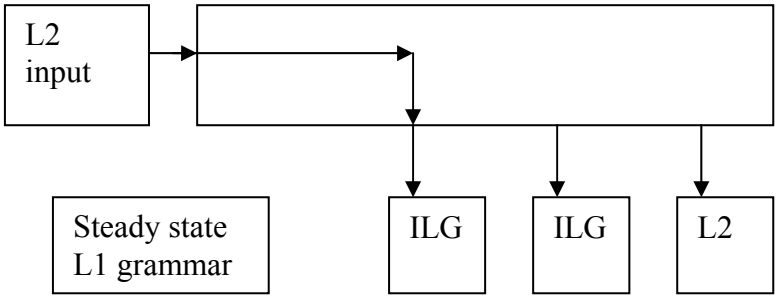


Figure 6. No Transfer / Full Access (White, 2000)

3. Full Transfer / Full access (FT/FA)

This position maintains that, as in full transfer / partial access position, starting point for L2 is the final state of L1, contrarily; it assumes that UG is still available to constrain IL grammar. L1 and L2 acquisition differ with respect to their initial states but are similar with respect to involvement of UG. Schwartz (1998) and Schwartz and Sprouse (1996) state that L2 initial state is quite distinct from that of L1 acquisition, it contents that all principles and parameter values as instantiated in the L1 grammar immediately carry over as the initial state of a new grammatical system on first exposure to input from the target language. Full transfer / full access position predict that grammars of L1 and L2 learners will differ, prior to any parameter resetting for different L1s. However, it does not expect that learners ultimately attain native-like competence. This position is diagramed in figure 7.

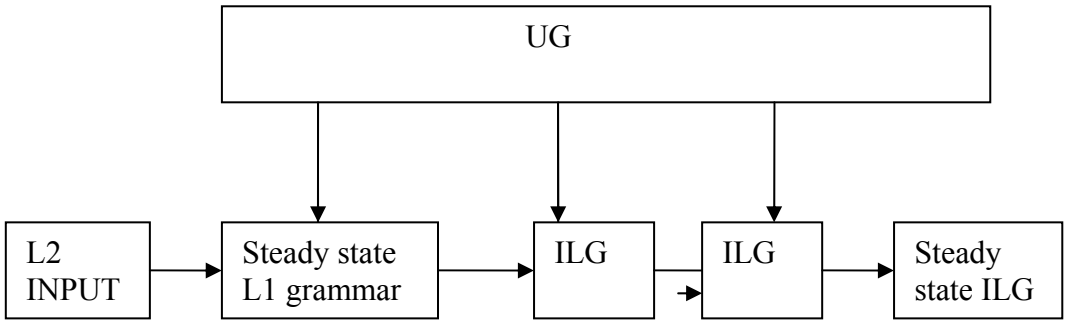


Figure 7. Full Transfer / Full Access (White, 2000)

4. Partial Transfer / Full Access

According to this view, both L1 and UG are available but different properties are available through UG and through L1. Vainikka and Young-Scholten (1994, 1996a, 1996b) proposed that only L1 lexical categories are found in the L2 initial state and functional categories are not transferred. Eubank (1994a, 1994b), takes a different view and maintains that both L1 lexical and L1 functional categories are found in the L2 initial state, but features do not take L1 values and they are initially unspecified. Functional categories will eventually become specified for L2 feature values. In short, learners may or may not reach L2 final state depending on what is available through L1 and what is available through UG. This situation is schematized in Figure 8.

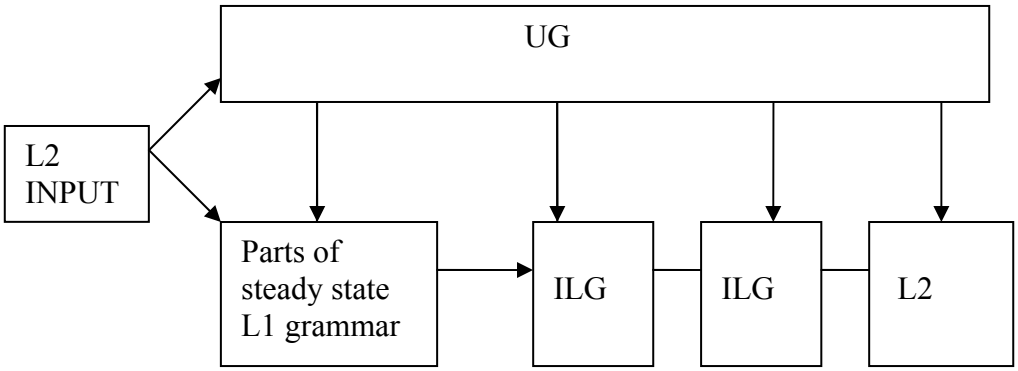


Figure 8. Partial Transfer / Full Access (White, 2000)

5. Partial Transfer / Partial Access

This position predicts that, in contrast to Eubank's view as mentioned above, certain functional features never become specified for strong/weak values in the course of L2 grammar development. In other words, L2 grammars are permanently impaired in the acquisition system. As a result of this, the ultimate attainment of L2 is not possible.
This situation is diagrammed in figure 9.

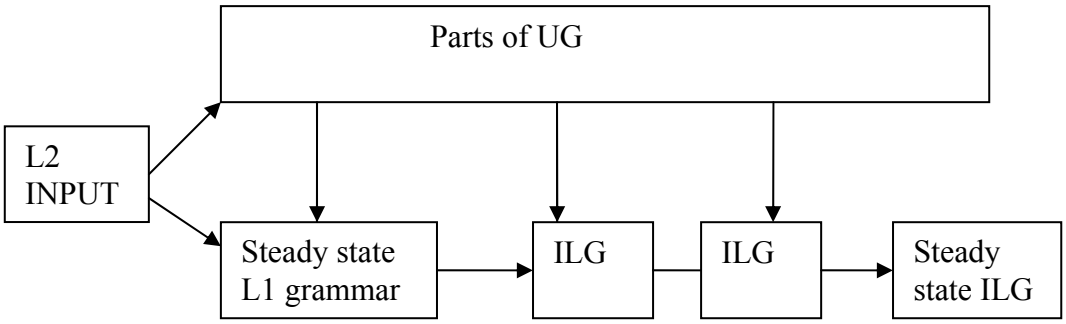


Figure 9. Partial Transfer / Full Access (White, 2000)

2.2 Interlanguage

2.2.1 What is Interlanguage?

In the field of SLA research, one of the basic assumptions is that L2 learners construct their own saparate, creative and transformational linguistic system when they start to acquire a second language. This complex language system known as an Interlanguage (IL hereafter) which is theoretically introduced by Selinker (1972), in the recognition of learners developing a second language knowledge. On the basis of L2 input, IL, the system of abstract linguistic rules, are developed by L2 learner and underlies comprehension and production of the L2. Selinker (1972) emphasized not only the existense of IL, but also he looked for its origin and where it came from. He observed the underlying process of acquiring a second language and reached a challenging point is that L2 is seldom completely successful. In his point of view, only the lucky five percent of L2 learners have the absolute success.

The nature of IL is systematic, dynamic and influenced by the learners previous acquired language(s). Learners can continually intervene their IL by adding rules, deleting or reconstructing rules, creating new strategies and they reach results as interlanguage continuum. IL generate itself as learner receive more input and revise their hypothesis about the second language (Lightbown and Spada, 1999). Besides, each IL is an idiosyncratic variety of the target language created by a particular learner and each IL is unique, the incomplete product of the L2 learning process, not an existing variety available to be learned.

Premises of IL Grammar

The concept of interlanguage involves following assumptions about L2 acquisition:

a) The learner constructs a system of abstract linguistic rules which underlies comprehension and production of the L2 and this system of rules is viewed as 'mental grammar' and is reffered as an 'interlanguage'.

b) The learners' grammar is open to influence from outside (through the L2 input) and also from the inside.

c) The learners' grammar is transitional. Learners change their grammar during the processing by adding, deleting or generating rules and restructuring the whole system. This period results in an 'interlanguage continuum'.

d) The learners' grammar premises variabilities. However, this property may propose a controversial sides since some researchers have claimed that these variabilities are originated by the rules whereas the others argue that the variability is an aspect of learners' performance rather than competence .

e) Learners involve various 'learning strategies' to develop and generate their interlanguage grammar. Overgeneralzation and transfer errors can be seen as evidence of learning strategies.

f) The learners' grammar is likely to fossilize. Non-target forms become fixed in the interlanguage and fossilization of interlanguage grammar is the permenant cessation of IL learning and it does not occur in L1 acquisition and thus is unique to L2 grammars.

2.2.2 The Nature of IL Grammar

Selinker's description of the interlanguage system has a cognitive emphasis and a focus on the strategies that learners employ when learning a second language. A different approach to the theory of interlanguage was adopted by Adjemian (Selinker, 2001) in his attempt to describe the nature of the interlanguage systems. Adjemian argues that interlanguages are natural languages but they are unique in that their grammar is permeable (Selinker, 2001). He also differentiates between the learning strategies that learners employ and the linguistic rules that are "crucially concerned in the actual form of the language system" (p.2). Adjemian concludes that the description of these linguistic rules that will reveal the properties of the learner's grammar should be the primary goal of linguistic research.

The third approach to the description of interlanguage was initiated by Tarone (1979, 1982). She describes interlanguage as a continuum of speech styles. Learners shift between styles according to the amount of attention they pay to language form- from the superordinate style in which attention is mainly focused on language form to the vernacular style in which the least attention is paid to language form. The new target language forms first appear in the more careful style and progressively move towards the vernacular style. The systematic variability of interlanguage systems is reflected to the variable effect which the different tasks and different linguistic contexts have on the learners' use of syntactic, phonological and morphological structures (Tarone, 1982). Even though Tarone does not deny that other theories can provide explanations of second language acquisition, she argues that "any adequate model of SLA must take IL variation into account" (Tarone, 1990, p.398).

According to Selinker (1972) interlanguage is a temporary grammar which is systematic and composed of rules. These rules are the product of five main cognitive processes:

1) Overgeneralisation. Some of the rules of the interlanguage system may be the result of the overgeneralisation of specific rules and features of the target language. For example, putting a regular *–ed* ending on an irregular verb, as in 'buyed' instead of 'bought'.

2) Transfer of Training. Some of the components of the interlanguage system may result from transfer of specific elements via which the learner is taught the second language. For example, when a teacher's over-use of 'this' discourages the student from using 'that'.

3*) Strategies of Second Language Learning.* Some of the rules in the learner's interlanguage may result from the application of language learning strategies "as a tendency on the part of the learners to reduce the TL [target language] to a simpler system" (Selinker,1972, p.219). Such as simplification, for example, when the learner 'simplifies' English so that all verbs may occur in the present continous, yielding sentences as 'I'm hearing him'.

4) Strategies of Second Language Communication. Interlanguage system rules may also be the result of strategies employed by the learners in their attempt to communicate with native speakers of the target language. In order to communicate, learners sometimes avoid problematic items (for example, verb 'make' which is exceptional in

taking a base form of the verb as its complement), or construct an entirely new word combinations (for example, 'picture place' for 'art gallery').

5) Language Transfer. Some of the rules in the interlanguage system may be the result of transfer from the learner's first language. For example, French learners of English are much less likely to make errors of this kind:

10) The man whom I spoke to him is a millionaire.

(Ellis,1997, p.51)

than are Arabic learners because does not permit resumptive pronouns (like 'him') in relative clauses whereas Arabic does.

The concept of IL offers a general account of how L2 acquisition takes place and it also incorporates elements from mentalist theories of linguistics (for example, the notion of a language acquisition device) and elements from cognitive psychology (for example, 'learning strategies'). Ellis (1997) claims that the IL constitutes one of the first attempts to explain L2 acquisition by answering questions such as 'What is the nature of the linguistic representations of the L2 that learners form?' and 'How do these representations change over time?' and the concept of IL needs to be elaborated to adress such questions (p. 34).

Fossilization in IL

The central to the concept of IL is the fossilization which generally refers to the cessation of learning. The term 'fossilization' was introduced to the field of SLA by Selinker (1972) on the basis of his observation that the vast majority of second language learners fail to achieve native-speaker competence. L2 learners will keep certain forms in their IL that differ from the target language regardless of further study and exposure to the target language.

Conceptualization of fossilization is the generated form of the property of 'backsliding' (Selinker's first recognition), or with a more recent statements, relative failure or cessation of learning. Selinker's definition (1978) was :

> A permanent cessetation of IL learning before the learner has attained target language norms at all levels of linguistic structure and in all discourse domains in spite of the learner's positive ability, opportunity, and motivation to earn and acculturate into target society.(cited in Han, 2004, p.15).

The notion of fossilization is recognized and widespread accepted so that it became the SLA term appearantly accomplished in a non-field specific dictionary as to become permanently established in the interlanguage of a second language learner in a form that is deviant from the target language norm and continues to appear in performance regardless of further exposure to the target language. Fossilization is characterized, by Selinker, as a 'mechanism' by which 'speakers of a particular native language will keep certain linguistic items, rules, subsystems in their interlanguage, no matter the age of the learners or the amount of instruction they receive. It is the IL performance the speakers tend to keep in that mechanism. According to Han (2004), as a performance based structural notion, fossilization has some properties. First, fossilizable strctures are persistent; second, they are resistent to external influences; and third, fossilization affects both child and adult L2 learners alike. Besides, it is important to note, the implication of L2 learners' being lack of the ability to attain native-like competence.

According to Long (2003), stabilization is the first sign of fossilization and the only difference between stabilization and the fossilization is the permanence. The age factor is not predicator for fossilization, as Selinker repeatedly asserts that the fossilization, resulting in non-target like attainment, operates in learners regardless of age, as he stated, no matter what the age of the learner.

2.2.3 Approaches to the Analysis of IL Grammar

The approaches to the study of interlanguage, as described above, agree on two basic characteristics of interlanguage systems: interlanguages are systematic (systematicity either in the form of learning strategies the learners employ or linguistic rules that govern the learners' grammars), and dynamic (interlanguages keep changing until the target language system is fully acquired). The scope of these approaches is also common: interlanguage is seen as a kind of interim grammar gradually progressing towards the target language grammar.

Different approaches were employed for explaining the acquisition of interlanguage and how learners discover and organize form-function relationships in a second language. White (1989) mentions that IL grammar is a transitional, rule-governed and internalized system. Although IL grammar differs in a number of respects from the grammar of a native speaker, it nevertheless represents knowledge of language, in that it accounts for the learner's interim competence by means of an abstract rule system. Ellis

(1985) argues that learners begin with forms which are used in free variation during the early stages of second language acquisition (non-systematic variability) until more organizing and restructuring has taken place (systematic variability). In contrast to Ellis's claims, the functional approach to the analysis of interlanguage argues that discourse functions develop before grammatical functions and evidence is provided of the acquisition of function occurring without the acquisition of form (Pfaff, 1987).

The role of the mother tongue (L1) in the acquisition of the target language (L2) was re-examined under the scope of the interlanguage theory and predictions were made about when the influence of L1 is greatest. Zobl (1980a, 1980b) investigated the L1 influence on L2 acquisition and argued that it is "the formal features of L2 that control the formal aspects of its acquisition, including the activation of L1 transfer" (Zobl, 1980a, p. 54).

Morpheme studies were employed to describe the systematicity of interlanguage systems and also the various stages of interlanguage development until the target form is acquired. The interlanguage theories were inductively derived from studies following *Error Analysis*, the view that by analyzing learners' errors we can predict the linguistic stage that a learner is at. However, Error Analysis as a mode of inquiry was limited in its scope and concentrated on what learners did wrong rather than on what made them successful (Larsen-Freeman & Long,1992). In that respect, interlanguage theories are limited in their explanatory power.

When language learning began to be seen as a 'process' which involved the construction of an IL, a 'transitional competence' reflecting the dynamic nature of the learners' developing system, the idea of IL being personal construct and process has emphasized. Kohn (1986) clearly mentions that in order to analyze interlanguage processes, learners' own autonomous and functional knowledge and their own certainty and uncertainty which determine their interlanguage should be considered.

Error Analysis

Although Selinker coined the term *interlanguage*, Corder (1981) can be considered responsible for rising issues which became central to the studies of IL. He argued (1981) that appearance of error in learner's production was the evidence that the learner was orginizing the knowladge available to them at a particular time. Error is the most important source of information that learners have a continously restructuring and

dynamic system of their own. Besides, Corder pointed that, the original interlanguage hyphothesis considered the interlanguage continuum as non-developmental and he proposed that language learning , certainly in the case of first language, is a creative process and yields in the individual a purely developmental continuum.

Second language learning in any particular individual is probably a mixture in varying proportions of restructuring and recreating. The evidence for restructuring is the occurence in many cases and in certain situations of language acquisition of 'transfer errors', whereas the evidence for recreation is the absence of such errors and a preponderance of what may be called 'developmental errors' (e.g. overgeneralization) similar to those found in first language learners' language (Corder, 1981). Corder states that a general sequence of interlanguage syntax is also recognized which implies that there is a property of the human mind that determines the way the learner process the data of the language to which they are exposed. He makes three important generalizations considering this natural order:

- That younger learners will have more similar interlanguage structures (in part due to the restricted need for communication).
- That the more communicatively oriented the learning setting, the more similar the structural properties of the learner's interlanguage will be.
- That, if universal properties exist and a universal grammar exists, then approximative systems of learners from any native language progressing towards any target language will show similarities.

Empirical Data in IL Analysis

The major goal of SLA is to examine the principles that govern the process of learning a foreign/second language. Since this process is mental and indirectly observable, it has to be accessed through the product, i.e. learner performance data (Granger, 1998). Ellis (1994) distinguishes three main types of data: (1) language use data, which reflect learners' attempts to use the L2 i either comprehension or pruduction; (2) metalingual judgements, which determine the learners' intuitions about the L2, for example asking them to judge the grammaticality of sentences; and (3) self-report data, which explore learners' strategies through questionnaries or think aloud-tasks (p. 670). Among these types of data, language use data saparated into two ways: natural language use data in which learners' performance consumed in uncontrolled conditions and

elicited language use data which exerted from controlled experiments. According to Granger (1998), current SLA research generally based on metalingual judgement (type 1), self-report data (type 2) and elicited type of language use data. On the other hand, natural type of language use data has not been preffered enough because of several reasons. First, certain properties of some languages may not occur unless they specifically elicited. Secondly, some variables affecting language use data can only be investigated in controlled way in order to determine the effects systematically. Finally, natural language use data fails to reveal the entire linguistic backround of learners because, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) mentions that ‘‘ they (learners) will use nly those aspects in which they have the most confidence. They will avoid the troublesome aspects through circumlocution of some other device.’ (p.26).

Granger (1998) mentions that metalingual data, self-report data and elicited type of language use data have also their limitations, especially elicited data has been questioned in terms of the validity. Artificial nature of experimental language situation may lead learners to produce language which differs widely from the type of language they would use naturally. Hence, SLA researchers generally depend on a very narrow empirical base since there is constraints of experimenal elicitation. Granger (1998) points that ‘‘There is clearly a need for more, better quality, data and this is particularly acute in the case of natural language data.’’(p.5) and provides an approach as learner corpora in terms of natural language use data which can be considered a valuable addition to current SLA data sources. Ellis (1994) claims that ‘‘Good research is research that makes use of multiple sources of data.’’(p.676).

In the Error Analysis (EA) approach, there were some limitations and lacks in terms of a fully quantitative exploration of IL. For example, Ellis (1994) mentions that in collecting samples of learner language, Error Analysis researchers have not paid enough attention to the variety of factors that can affect learners output and thus, Ellis continues that, EA studies were difficult to interpret and nearly impossible to replicate. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) emphasizes that, Error Analysis researchers generally focused on decontextualized errors and disregarded the rest of learners performance, therefore, they denied to access to whole picture. Hence, facts such as ‘avoidance’ which does not lead to errors but to underrepresentation of words or structures in L2 use.

In this point, Computer Learner Corpora (CLC) methodology suggessts a quantitative approach to learner language in which large amounts of data can be submitted to a whole range of linguistic software tools. Comparing the frequency of

words/structures in learner and native corpora makes it possible to analyse the facts suc as ‘avoidance’. Granger (1998) mentions that CLC gives the opportunity to access not only to errors but also learners’ total IL. Hence, sofware tools that are used to analyze large amounts of data from a corpora provides an ampirical validitation. The CLC approach, which provides a computer-aided linguistic analysis, mainly based on comparisons between native languages (NLs) and ILs and between different ILs. The aim of NL and IL comparison is to uncover the features of non-nativeness of learner language and requires corpora that consist of spoken or written samples to realize the differentiation. Atkins and Clear (1992) defines corpus as ‘‘ A corpus is a body of text assembled according to explicit design criteria for a specific purpose.’’(p. 5). The criteria in a corpus is that it needs to be carfefully compiled so that the quality of the investigation is directly related to the quality of the data. Because, since there are many types of learners and languge situations, it is important to have a clear design criteria in the case of learner language. Software tools helps CLC to analyse the texts in the corpora by searching, counting and displaying, and also providing a sophisticated syntactic and semantic analysis. Text retreivel programs which refers to concordance can count words, word partials and sequences of words and sort them in a variety ways. Hence, concordance programs can carry out comparisons of entities in two corpora and bring out statistically significant differences.

2.3 Factors Influencing IL Grammar

2.3.1 Individual Differences

One of the most widely accepted case about second language learning is that some individuals are more succesful in learning a second language than other individuals. There are some individual factors that can be assumed to be create some differences as: *Age, aptitude, motivation* and *language learning strategies*.

Aptitude

It is generally believed that individuals differ in terms of having a natural ability for learning a language, known as *language aptitude*. Another common view is that, as a cognitive ability, this ability is, more or less, related to general intelligence. The relationship between aptitude and second language learning and its affect on learners’

IL has long been investigated and proposed to posses a crucial role and an important differentiating factor. Carrol (cited in Gass and Selinker, 1992), who is associated most with Second Language learning aptitude, identified four components (or standarts) of language aptitude (cited in Gass and Selinker, 2001). These are;

I. Phonemic coding ability, i.e. the ability to identify the sounds of a foreign language so that they can remember later.
II. Grammatical sensitivity, i.e. the ability to recognize the grammatical functions of words in sentences.
III. Inductive language learning ability, i.e. the ability to identify patterns of correspondance and relations between form and meaning.
IV. Rote learning ability, i.e. the ability to form and remember associatrions between stimuli.

It is claimed that, there is strong evidence that language aptitrude is an advantage and an indicator in language learning. Ellis (1997) claims that, learners who score highly on language aptitude tests typically learn rapidly achieve higher levels of L2 proficiency than learners who obtain low scores (p.74). However, the beliefs about language aptitude being due to the general intelligence provides several doubts. According to Carrol (1992), psychologists believe that there are multiple types of intelligence, moreover, statictical investigations have demonstrated that language aptitude cannot be explain simply on the basis of the most common measurement of intelligence, IQ scores.

Motivation

Motivation is the social psychological (whereas aptitude is cognitive) factor involves attitudes and affective states in terms of differential success in language learning and learners' interlanguage system. In general, it is claimed that, individuals who are motivated will learn another language faster and numerous studies provided statistical evidence that indicates motivation is a predicator of language learning success. Skehan suggests that the motivation appears to be the second strongest predictor of success, trailing only aptitude (cited in Gass and Selinker, 2001). Various kinds of motivation have been identified as;

I. Instrumental motivation; learners' efforts to learn an L2 for some specific reasons_ to pass an examination, to get a better job.
II. Integrative motivation; learners' interest of the people or the culture of the target language is the indicator reason
III. Resultative motivation; learners' who experience success in learning may become more, or in some contexts, less motivated to learn.
IV. Intrinsic motivation; there may not be general reasons for learning a language determining learners' motivation and they may find the kinds of leaning tasks they are asked to do intrinsically motivating.

Ellis (1997) claims that, motivation is clearly a highly complex phenomenon and these four types of motivation should be seen as complementary rather than as distinct and oppositional. Learners can be both integratively and instrumentally motivated. Dornyei (1990) tested the motivation of learners of English in he European situation of Hungary and he found that an instrumental motivation concerned with future careers was indeed very powerful. Hence an integrative motivation was also relevant in Canada, related to actual contact with native groups but to general attitudes and stereotypes; it became more important as the learners advanced in the language (cited in Cook, 2001, p.116). Coleman (1996) also found that students did better with integrative motivation than instrumental.

Age

It is generally believed that children are better language learners than adults. This belief is reflected in the Critical Period Hyphothesis (CAH) which provides that there is an age related point beyond which it becomes difficult to learn a second language to some degree as native speakers. However, much reserch seems to provide enough strong evidence in favour of superiority of young leaners. Krashen *at al*.(1982) analyse a large number of studies in terms of explaining the Input Hyphothesis, and results held view that aduls are better at short-term L2 learning, children at long term L2 learning. The reason is that 'older acquirers progress more quickly in early stages because they obtain more comprehsible input, while younger acquirers do better in the long run because of their own affective filters. This is claimed to be because older learners have gerater experience of the world, they can use L1 to overcome communication problems

in the L2 more easily, and are better at conversational management as well. Cook (2001) states that ‘adults start more quickly and then slow down. Though children start more slowly, they finish up at a higher level (p.134). Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle (1978) compared English speaking adults and children who had gone to live in Holland by using a variety of tests. They found that, at the end of three months, the older learners were better at all aspects of Dutch except for pronunciation. However, after a year, adult learners were better only at vocabulary. Martohardjono and Flynn (1995) mentions that, adult learners may at times fail to reach native proficiency in terms of syntax and phonemic systems. However, they argue that, in respect of age differences, although CAH says the basic ablities to establish a phonemic system are lost or fundementally altered, some studies show that phonemic, phonetic and acoustic modes are accessible to adults in identifying native sounds.

Singleton (1992b, 1993) tested lexical knowledge within the groups of English speaking learners of French who had begun learning French before anf after the age of 12 and data elicited from French C-tests. Singleton claims ‘‘that there is no evidence with regard to second language learning any more than with regard to first language learning that the capacity to acquire new vocabulary dissappears at any particular maturational point, or that it necessarily becomes radically impaired even in old age.’’ (1995, p.20). Additionally, Singleton states that different aspects of second language syntax and phonology are differentially affected by age, then it must be expected differential effects tooin respect of different aspects of second language lexicon.

Johnson and Newport (1989) designed a study to assess differences in the acquisition of syntax by learners whose proficiency based on different ages of arrival in the country of second language. The ages of subjects ranged in age of arrival from 3-39. the results of the tests to measure second language syntactic knowledge showed that performances was linearly related to age of arrival only up to puberty. Therefore, postpubescent learners generally performed poorly, but there was no correlation with the age of arrival. Hence, no such relationship occured for those arriving after the age of 16 . In the next study, Johnson and Newport (1991) investigated a property of language associated with UG and found that there was a steady decrease in performance according to age of arrival, extending post puberty and with the steepest decline at ages 14-16. In a further study, Slavoff and Johnson (1995) examined Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Vietnamese children learning English who arrived in the USA between the ages of 7 and 12 . They were tested on specific grammatical structures after various

lengths of stay ranging from six months to three years. Length of stay as opposed to age of arrival was an important variable in predicting knowledge of English syntax. However, all of these children were below he age of that CAH assumes to take effect.

Language Learning Strategies

It as a common observation that some learners are more succesful than others and these learners sometimes do different things. What learners do is refer to *language learning strategies* in the second language acquisition literature. They are particular approaches and techniques that learners employ to try to learn an L2. Selinker (2001) gives an example, as an interlanguage transfer, a native speaker of English has learned Spanish to a proficient degree and then started to learn Italian. While doing so, he or she supports Spanish words for his or her attemped Itaian (*como* for the intended *come* 'how,what'). Selinker (1972) claims that if the fossilized aspects of interlanguage are the result of an identifiable approach by the learner to communication with native speakers of target language, then we are dealing with 'strategies of second language communication'.

Different kinds of learning strategies have been identified as cognitive, metacognitive and social mediation strategies by O'Malley and Chamot (1990).

1. *Cognitive strategies*

   Cognitive strategies are involved in the analysis, synthesis, or information of learning meterials.

   - Repetititon: imitating other peoples's speech, silently or aloud.
   - Resourcing: making use of language meterials such as dictionaries.
   - Directed physical responce: directing new information to physical actions.
   - Translation: the use of first language in order to understand L2.
   - Grouping: organizing learning on the basis of common attributes.

2. *Metacognitive strategies*

   Metacognitive strategies are those involved in planning, monitoring, and evaluating learning.

   - Advance organizers: planning the activity in advance at a general level.
   - Directed attention: deciding to pay attention to specific parts of the input.
   - Self-management: trying to arrange the appropriate conditions for learning.
   - Advance preparations: planning for and rehearsing linguistic components.

- Self-monitoring: checking one's performance as one speaks.
- Delayed production: deliberately postponing speaking in order to learn by listening.
- Self-evaluation: checking how well one is doing against one's own standarts.
- Self-reinforcement: giving oneself rewards for success.

3. Social Mediation strategies

Social mediation strategies concern the ways in which learners choose to communicate with other speakers.

- Cooperation: working with fellow students on a task.
- Summarising: making a summary of new information.
- Rehearsal: going over the language needed for a task.
- Self-talk: boosting one's confidence to do a task more successfully.
- Problem identification: identifying important points of learning task.

O'Malley and Chamot (1985) conducted a study to discover learning strategies that listed below used by L2 learners inside and outside the classroom. They tested 70 Spanish speaking high school ESL students as and 20 ESL teachers. Data gathered from interviews with subjects and from classroom observations. Interviews scored by four raters for strategies. The results showed an increase in number as strategies in three broad categories of metacognitive , cognitive and social. Metacognitive strategies accounted for 30 per cent, the most important being self-management and advance preparation. Later study, O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner- Manzanares, Russo, and Kupper (1985b) devided 75 ESL intermediate students into three groups who were given special lessons for 50 minutes a day for eight days; a 'metacognitive' group was explicitly tought the use of all three overall types of strategy; a 'cognitive' group was given cognitive and social/affective strategies; the third 'control' group was given no strategy training. As for speaking tasks, metacognitive group scored higher than cognitive group, which in turn scored higher than control group. However, the listening and vocabulary tasks were not significant. Cook (2001) mentions that ''the use of strategies also varied according to level: intermadiate students used slightly fewer strategies in total but proportionately more metacognitive strategies.''(p.129).

Beside of all these strategies, Tarone (1980) proposes comunication strategies as a shared enterprise in which both the speaker and the hearer are involved rather than being only the responsible of the speaker: when thtwo participant realize that they are not understanding each other, they fall back on three main groups of strategy: *paraphrase (approximation, word coinage, circumlocution), transfer (literal translation, language switch)* and *avoidance(topic avoidance, massage abondonment)*. In terms of these strategies, Bialystok (1990) collected 324 utterences from 18 aged nine English speaking girls learning French. Frequency of communication strategies in this study were suprisingly successful, mostly in favour of word coinage with a significant ratio (96.88 per cent). Bialystok (1990) reported the positive effects of these strategies due to this study conducted to measure the success of communication strategies from listeners.

Kellerman *et al.* (1990) argues that communication strategies should reach beyond description to prediction and explanation and they criticise earlier schemes for concentrating on the linguistic form that results from a strategy rather than on the process that leads up it. Poulisse (1990) proposes 'compensatory strategies' consist of two main archistrategies. One is the 'conceptual' archistrategy that reflects a decision by the learner to compansate for a missing word by exploiting knowledge. The other is 'linguistic' archistrategy is that an attempt to compansate through linguistic knowledge. Poulisse (1990) investigated the use of these compensatory strategies in terms of efficiency testing 45 Dutch learners of English at advanced, intermediate and low proficiency levels by eliciting data from trnascriptions of four tasks. According to the results, Poulisse claims that, strategies vary according to proficiency, to tasks and to superordinate versus subordinate level.

2.3.2 Parametric Differences

As explained earlier, UG contains parameters which vary from one language to another and which are fixed on the basis of positive evidence from the language being learned. Parametric variation across languages has a crucial importance for second language acquisition in respect to developing IL grammar and whether there is an affect of difference between L1 and L2 parameter values on IL. Hence, the role of UG in L2 acquisition can be charactarized in terms of UG parameters resetting. White (2003) mentions that 'If the L1 and L2 differ in parameter settings and if the learner's

linguistic behaviour is consistent with parameter values appropriate for L2, this strongly supports that UG constrains interlanguage grammar.' (p.100).

In SLA research influence of parametric differences on IL grammar have been examined by many researchers in terms of L2 acquisition. In this situation, UG is taken to account as major perspective for both L1 and L2 acquisition as for reaching an explanation for the nature of IL and its representation. Besides, there is still a confliction remaining whether UG is available for L2 acquisition. In their study, Clashen and Muysken (1986) investigated the availability of UG to adult learners by looking at the acquisition of German word order parameter. The subjects were chosen from ZISA project (Clashen, Meisel and Pienemann, 1983), mainly fourty five foreign workers of Italian, Spanish and Turkish native speakers. The analysis of their data gathered from transcripts of Corpora revealed different results. According to these results, L1 children start with SOV and gradually learn second and SVO whereas L2 learners start with SVO and learn SOV. Main conclusion came out from the study is that there were essential differences between L1 and L2 learning as far as the acquisition of German word order (as a word order parameter of UG) concerned. Clashen and Muysken argue that ' L2 learners are not only creating a rule system which is far more complicated than the native systems, but also one which is not definable in linguistic theory.' (p. 116) that is, the rules are not natural rules. In other words, L2 learners no longer access to UG and they only rely only on learning strategies.

On the contrary, a specific refutation of Clashen and Muysken (1986) made by DuPlessis *et al.* (1987). They reanalysed German word order in terms of three parameters (head, proper government and adjunction) and they claimed that the syntactic analysis used by Clashen and Muysken (1986) was inadequate. The study enhanced with additional data and subjects.

The issue of parameter resetting in L2 is important that whether it makes a difference if L1 has a different parametric value. Rizzi (1982, 1990) studied null subject with two other syntactic properties in three null subject allowing (pro-drop) languages; Greek, Italian and Spanish. White (1986) compared French learners of English and Spanish learners of English considering the fact that French is a non pro-drop (not allowing null subject) and Spanish is a pro-drop (allowing null subject) languages. Another study on pro-drop parameter is conducted by Bulut (1996) who aimed to examine the availabilito of UG to Turkish adult learners of English. Results involved that, as mentioned by Bulut (1996), learners were not able to reset the parameter when it

mismatches with the parameter in their L1, thus, findings suggested that L2 learners have indirect access to UG because they use their L1 properties of UG to become a competent user in L2.

Can (2000) investigated the head-complement parameter resetting of 45 Turkish adult learners of English who were classified into three different proficiency levels as beginner, intermediate and advanced. In the study, accesibility to UG and the factor of parametric difference between L1 and L2 has been questioned since Turkish is a head-final language, whereas English is head-initial. The results revealed surface structural errors reflecting the adoptation of the L1 head-complement parameter setting. Hence, Can (2000) suggested that Turkish adult learners first transferred their L1 value to English but, as their learning proceeded (in respect of proficiency level), they subsequently reset their parameter value of English.

2.3.3 Lexical Differences

As stated by Selinker in Gass and Selinker (2001), one of the major tasks of second language lexical research is to discover what second language learners know about the lexicon of the second language, how they learn it. The importance of lexicon in terms of SLA is taken to account in two persfectives: production and comprehension. It is lexicon that mediates language production. On the other hand, lexical information is used helping to determine syntactic relationsips and comprehension of the input depends on a large extend on lexical skills. Selinker (2001) mentions that ‘‘If words cannot be isolated from the speech steam and if lexical information cannot be used to interpret utterences, then the input will not be comprehended.’’ (p.374).

It is claimed that, learners appear to have differing degrees of knowledge of their second language lexicon. In considering, different kinds of distinctions made about L2 lexicon. One distinction drawn beteen ‘potential’ and ‘real’ vocabulary. Potential vocabulary consists of words that learners will recognize even though they have not yet seen them in the secod language such as common scientific and technical terms. Real vocabulary consists of the learners familiar with after (because of) exposure. Laufer and Paribakht (1998) investigated three types of knowledge of vocabulary as passive, controlled and free-active in terms of second language acquisition. Passive knowledge involves understanding the most frequent meaning of the word, controlled-active knowledge involves cued recall and free-active knowledge involves spontaneous use of

the word. Laufer and Paribakht found that these three knowledge developed at different rates. Passive vocabulary knowledge was the fastest whereas active was the slowest. Moreover, passive vocabulary was always larger than active vocabulary altough there was a difference between learners in a foreign language setting and those in a second language setting.

Lexical information that native speakers have provides which verbs require objects, which verbs require indirect and direct objects, which verbs require animate subjects and so forth. An English speaker knows how to interpret the relationship between (11-a) and (11-b) :

11) a) X rents Y to Z

b) Z rents Y from X

It is not enough to know the meanings of individual words. In (11-a) and (11-b) a speaker must know that when 'rent' is accompanied by 'to' the subject is the owner. On the other hand, subject is the person who takes possesion of the property for a short time. This type of information can differ from one language to another. Adjemian (1983) investigated the lexical acquistion of French by native English speakers and of English by the native French speakers learning English. Adjeman found that second language learners tended to transfer lexical patterns from their L1 to their L2.

Rott (1999) examined the exposure through reading and its effect on acquisition and retention of vocabulary by native speakers of English learning German. The results showed that only two exposures were sufficient to affect vocabulary growth and that six exposures resulted in the greatest amount of knowledge growth. In 1996, Johnson (cited in Selinker, 2001) investigated the exical strategies use by Chinese university students learning English. Strategies such as guessing from context, dictionary use and relying on word formation were noted. Oral repetition correlated with geeral proficiency, but visual repetition as writing words over and over negatively vocabulary size and general proficiency. In their study, Peribakth and Wesche (1997) divided learners of English into two instructional conditions. One group read passages and comprehension questions and the other group read passages and then did vocabulary activities. Although both groups made gains on vocabuly knowledge, the first group's knowledge was limited to recognition, whereas the seond group acquired productive knowledge as well. In a follow up study, Paribakht and Wesche (1999) focused on the strategies that learners employed in the process of learning a new word and they used think- aloud and retrospective methodology. Inferencing was one of the most common strategy and

as an aid in the inferencing, learners used morphological and grammatical information rather than dictionary use.

2.4 Dative Alternation

2.4.1 English Dative Construction

English dative alternation have semantic and morphologic constrains and governed by a Lexical Reduncy Rule (Oehrle, 1976; Mazurkewich and White, 1984) and consists of verbs so called 'datives' that generate two distinct complement types as prepositional [_NP PP] and double object [_NP NP]. Prepositional phrases are divided into two groups due to the preposition they take like *–to* and *–for.* Some dative verbs allow both complement types and these are referred to 'alternating' verbs. In the same way, alternating verbs also subcategorise the PP complements being *–to* or *–for*. For example, verb 'give' allows both complement types but alternates only – *to* PP as in:

1) a) Denise gave [[the pencil $_{NP}$] [*to* Rob $_{PP}$]]
   b) Denise gave [[Rob $_{NP}$] [the pencil $_{NP}$]]

As it can be seen in (1a) and (1b), give allows both complement types but when the proposition in the [_NP PP] is – *to*. Verbs like *sell*, *pay*, *pass*, *tell*, *built, send, bring* are alternating verbs when PP includes – *to*. In addition, there are many alternating verbs where the preposition is *–for* as in the example below:

2) a) Senih built [[a house $_{NP}$] [*for* Gloria $_{PP}$]]
   b) Senih built [[Gloria $_{NP}$] [a house $_{NP}$]]
3) a) Bill constructed a house *for* Jane
   b)* Bill constructed Jane a house

Buy, choose, cook, play, find are other alternating *–for* PP verbs. There is also large class of nonalternating verbs that only be assigned the feature [_NP PP]. The verb 'construct' is a nonalternating verb so that (3a) is grammatical but (3b) is ungrammatical. Verbs such as *address*, *deliver*, *demonstrate*, *describe*, *dictate*, *donate* which are used only with [_NP PP] complement type as in the example following:

4) a) Ted donated the money *to* UNICEF
   * b) Ted donated UNICEF the money

Hence, English allows two types of quesioned prepositional phrases of dative structures as:

5) a) To whom did John give a book?
   b) Who(m) did John give a book to?

The structure in (5a), the PP is fronted that refers to *piedpiping*. In (5b) the proposition gets left behind position that refers to *prepositionl stranding*.

2.4.2 Classifying Criterions and Factors Governing Dative Alternation

In the linguistic literature, dative alternation in English has been dedicated to the Dative Movement transformational rule in the past (Fillmore, 1965; Jackendoff and Culicover, 1971; Edmonds, 1972, 1976, in Gropen *at all*, 1989). However, Oehrle (1976) has argued that dative alternation is best accounted for by a lexical rather than a transformatitonal rule. According to this framework, dative verbs that optionally allow alternation, such as 'give' in (1), would be assigned the subcategorial features [_NP PP] and [_NP NP] in the lexicon. Oehrle suggested that these features could be related by a lexical redundancy rule (Jackendoff, 1975) which includes a morphological and a semantic constraint. Nonalternating, such as 'construct' in (3), would only assigned the feature [_NP PP]. Hence, Mazurkewich (1984) points out that ''it may be that constraints applying to lexical rules would be more effective than those holding for transformational rules.'' (p. 92).

First distinction has drawn in terms of *morphological* and *phonological* constraints. There are many pairs of verbs with similar meanings where one of the pair alternates and the other is do not: for example; give versus donate as in (1) and (4), build versus construct as in (2) and (3). This kind of contrasts has led the proposal that most verbs which do not alternate are morphologically 'native', whereas most of verbs which do not alternate are 'Latinate' (Green, 1974; Oehrle, 1976; Stowell, 1981). Latinate stems could be those formed by combinations of a finite list of designated meaningless morphemes such as *per-*, *con-*, *-mit*, *-sume*, and so on. The distinction between Latinate and Native vocabulary can be considered in respect of morphological or phonological terms (Gropen *at .al*, 1989). According to this classification, morphological distinction

suggests that double-object verbs must belong to the native-stem class rather than to the Latinate class. This case expressed in the examples following:

6) a) John told/report the news to Bill
   b) John told/* reported Bill the news
7) a) Debbie built/constructed a craddle for Ezra
   b) debbie built/*constructed a craddle for Ezra

(Gropen *et al*., 1989 p.206)

This means that the verbs take the double-object complement if they are native stems such as *forward*, *hand*, *promise, offer, allow, etc*. Other verbs of Latin origin such as *address*, *administer*, *distribute*, *donate* do not occur in the double-object construction. Consider the Latinate verb address in the example below:

7) a) The President addressed his speech *to* the senators
   * b) The President addressed the senators his speech

On the other hand, native class can be defined in phonological terms, with its being monosyllabic or polysyllabic stems. For example, monosyllabic verbs with native prosody such as *sell, give, loan* allow dative alternation but the monoyllabic verbs without native prosody such as *articulate, declare, whisper* do not. The distinction serves a constraint that double-object verbs require [_NP NP] complement must belong to the native stems rather than to the Latinate class. In addition, Mazurkwich (1984) states that a verb like *promise,* which has stress on the first syllable, could be treated as a native verb, thereby permitting it to alternate. In the same manner, polysyllabic verbs as *offer, allow*, etc. alternates whereas polysyllabic verbs without native prosody such as *report, explain*, etc do not alternate.

Second classification has been made due to the semantic factors that governing the alternation. Goldsmith (1980), in enterprising to find a unified theory to account for the dative alternation in English, suggests that there is coherent role played by the indirect object in double object constructions, namely, that the indirect object is an animate and is ‘prospective possessor’ of the direct object. This generalization, which subsumes -*to* and -*for* datives, states that ‘‘only verbs which present the dative NP as the prospective

possessor of the direct object construction'' and it accounts for the contrast expressed in the following:

8) a) I owe five bucks to Joe Smith
   b) I owe Joe Smith five bucks
   c) I owe this example to Joe Smith
   d) *I owe Joe Smith this example
9) a) Diana made a coffee for Sam
   b) Diana made Sam a coffee
   c) Diana made a decision for Sam
   d) *Diana made Sam a decision

(cited in Mazurkewich and White, 1984 p.264)

In (8-b) and (9-b), the direct objects are the prospective possessors of the direct objects, whereas in (8-d) and (9-d), they are not accounting fot the ungrammaticality of the letter. Goldsmith's (1980) generalization will also account for the native stems *-for* dative verbs:

10) a) Bred washed the cups for Angelina
    b) *Bred washed Angelina the cups

Even though Angelina may have beneficted in some way from the activities in the above examples, she cannot be considered the prospective possessor of the direct object, hence explaining the nonexistance of double-NP complements in this paradigm. Consequently, the first object of the double object verbs must be the a possessor and goal in the case of *-to* datives, or a possessor and beneficiary in the case of *-for* datives. Therefore, (10-a) accaptable, but (10-b) is not presumably because Angelina is asserted to be only the beneficiary, but not the possessor of the cups, as the result of the action. In the same way, it can be ruled out double object forms of *cut*, *stir*, *brush*, *solve*, *prove*, and so on (Gropen *at al*., 1989).

In respect of semantic constraint on dative alternation, Pinker (1989) suggests an in depth assumption that the dative alternation is an operation on underlying semantic structures and dative rule works at two levels: '*broad-range rule*' and '*narrow-range rule*'.

a) Broad Range Rule: According to Pinker (1989), the dative alternation is an alternation between the two 'thematic cores':

- X causes Y to go to Z (yielding prepositional dative in syntax)

12) a) John threw the ball to Bill

b) X (John) causes Y (the ball) to go to Z (Bill)

- X causes Z to have Y (yielding double-object dative in syntax)

13) a) John threw Bill the Ball

b) X (John) causes Z (Bill) to have Y (the ball)

Semantic structures are projected to argument structures by 'linking rules,' which map the agent ('X' in the thematic cores of the PP and double-NP) onto the subject, the theme ('Y' in the thematic core of the PP) and the recipient or possessor ('Z' in the thematic core of the double-NP) onto the direct object, the goal ('Z' in the thematic core of the PP) onto the oblique argument, etc. This changable operation on lexicosemantic structure proposes the rule that in the double object construction must be the prospective possessor of the theme argument. Forexample:

11) a) I bought Mary the car

b)* I drove Mary the car

(11-a) is acceptable because buying is a form of possess while driving is not in (10-b) and ruled out.

b) Narrow-Range Rule: There are subclasses of verbs ('narrow-range verb classes'), some of them dativizable (able to alternate) and others nondativizable (unable to alternate); a sufficient condition for a verb to alternate is membership in one of the dativizable subclasses of verbs. According to this assumption, motion verbs with ballistic nature such as *throw*, *kick*, *shoot* can alternate because they belong to dativizable narrow-range verb class. On the other, nondativizable narrow-range verb class 'verbs of continuous of accompanied motion in some manner' like *pull* or *push* cannot alternate. The example below expresses the situation:

11) a) Bill threw the ball to Philip

b) Bill threw Philip the ball

c) Max pushed the ball to John

d)* Max pushed John the ball

2.4.3 The Dative Alternation and L1 Acquisition

In terms of L1 acquisition, it is accepted that, some structures may cause acquisitional problems and there may arise learnability problems. Dative alternation in English is problematical in this way since it poses a learnability paradox. When children hear *give money to him* and *give him money*, they can formulate a rule driving the double-object from the prepositional form, but the rule would allow overgeneralization from *donate money to him* to **donate him money* (Gropen *at al*., 1989). In the course of development, children acquiring English sometimes produce double-object forms considered illicit in the adult grammar. These are called 'overgeneralization'.

Baker (1979, cited in Gropen *at al*., 1989) pointed out a number of learnability paradoxes that stem from the fact that childern have no systematic access to information about which strings of words are not sentences in the language to be learned. The absence of such 'negative evidence' namely the fact that children are neither corrected nor miscomprehended more often when they speak ungrammatically. Brown and Hanlon (1970, Gropen *at al*., 1989) show that children are rare corrected as far as morphology and syntax are concerned, though they may be corrected as to truth of their utterances. Because of the lack of negative evidence, the world can never tell the child that he or she is wrong. Baker (1979) stated that children learn the argument structure alternations on a conservative, verb by verb basis. Hence, they do not overgeneralize. However, Gropen *at al*. (1989) stated that the paradox arises from the combination of three assumptions; productivity, no negative evidence, and arbitrariness. Thus, they argued that ''if children were not productive but conservative, sticking on the forms they heard in the input, they would never overgeneralize because they would never generalize to begin with.'' (p. 204) and questioned that how children avoid or unlearn mistakes in the absence of negative evidence indicating ungrammatical forms.

In the same way, Mazurkewich and White (1984) contrarily to Baker, supported overgeneralization idea due to their results and claimed that Baker's analysis was too conservative. They tested 22 L1 English speaking children for knowledge of both the Latinate constraints and the possession constraints. They aimed to try to show how having established a general rule to relate the two dative complements, the child subsequently adds certain restrictions tı this rule on the basis of positive evidence of a rathe substle nature. Three groups of children aged at 9, 12 and 15 completed a grammaticality judgement task consisting of alternating and nonalternating *-to* and *-for*

datives in both PP and double-NP forms. The results showed that these children overgeneralized the double-NP to Latinate *–to* dative verbs, allowing the violate double-NP form at rates of 46.7%, 33.3% and 11.1%. Violated double-NP forms with Latine -*for* dative verbs were allowed by the children ages at 12 and 15 at even higher rates of 61% and 28%. However, they did not overgeneralize to the same degrees on sentences violating the possession constraints. Mazurkewich and White (1984) concluded as overgeneralization of the dative alternation does occur in child language and they suggested that this overgeneralization will be lost when children aware of two factor that an alternating dative verb must be native and that a certain type of semantic relationship, namely possessor, is present.

In an analysis by Gropen *at al*. (1989) also found overgeneralizations from five children (Adam, Sarah, Eve, Mark, Ross) in the CHILDES database (MacWhinney and Snow, 1985). Gropen *at al*. (1989) examined the emergence of the dative constructions and found that both double-object and prepositional datives were plentiful in the children's speech. According to the Mean Length of Utterance (MLU) norms, the dative forms emerged at an MLU of 2.00 for Adam, 2.00 for Eve, and 2.35 for Sarah. On the other hand, all children but Sarah uttered double-object dative sentences including verbs that could not have heard in double object sentences in adult speech. Children also uttered productive sentences in which they occasionally used differents senses of verbs. For example:

Adam (4;11) : You finished me lots of rings.
Adam (5;2) : Mommy, fix me my tiger.
Eve (2;3) : I go write you something.
I go write you train.
You (please) write me a lady.

The verbs 'write' and 'fix' would be grammatical if they had been used in different senses as draw instead of write and make instead of fix. Gropen *at al*. (1989) concluded that ''children occasionally overgeneralize the dative alternation in their spontaneous speech. However, the overgeneralizations were rare and not made at all by one of the five children.''(p. 224). In the next study, Gropen *at al*. (1989) tested 64 native speakers of English aged 17 to 41 years using a questionnaire in which novel verbs used to decide whether they were monosyllabic or polysyllabic, whether they specified a

change of possession and whether they used the preposition *-to* or *-for*. The results showed that subjects judged double-object sentences which involved a change of possession as being more acceptable than those which did not. They also judged monosyllabic verbs that involved a change of possession and took the preposition *–to*, more acceptable than others. According to these results, Gropen at al.(1989) clearly stated that both semantic and morphophonological constraints on dativizability were psychologically real for adult native speakers, and thus Gropen at al. (1989) concluded as:

> This establishes the necessary precondition for thehypothesis that adults, when faced with option of using a verb in the double-object construction for the first time, uese these criteria in making their decision, thereby avoiding overgeneration tp the extent that the criteria accurately describe the distribution of dativization in the language.(p. 224)

2.4.4 The Dative Alternation and L2 Acquisition

The acquisition of the English dative alternation by L2 learners has been taken to account from different perspectives. Mazurkewich (1984) applied the issue of merkedness in terms of core/periphery distincton, outlined in section 2.1.5.3, which states that unmarked properties of language are related to core grammar and marked proprties are to periphery. In her study, Mazurkewich hypothesized that, unmarked structures of core grammar will be acquired before the marked structres of periphery. In addition, dative structures provide a marked/unmarked variation in L2 acquisition. The distinction has been made as:

12) a) John gave a book to Mary (NP PP = unmarked)
b) John gave Mary a book (NP NP = marked)

In Mazurkewich's opinion, the NP PP prepositional complement in (12a) is considered to be part of core grammmar and unmarked whereas the NP NP double-object complement in (12b) is marked. For the study, 38 native speakers of Inuktitut, 45 native speakers of French and two groups of English native speakers as control groups has been tested. Grammaticality judgement task was used which contained marked and unmarked structures as in (5a) and (5b) as well as distractor sentences. The results

showed that French speakers preffered unmarked structures, both in the case of to and for. However, considering the fact that the dative structure in French is similar to the prepositional phrase in English, there might be a transer of unmarked structures. Inuktitut speakers' were less persuasive in terms of accepting unmarked strustures so that the same participants retested in a question formation in the next experiment (Mazurkweich, 1984b). This time, French speakers performed as predicted by Mazurkewich and produced more unmarked guestions than Inuktitut speakers who produced more marked questions. Mazurkwich concluded that L2 learners will learn unmarked before marked. However, White (1989) questioned the Mazurkewich's study for insufficiency of statistical analyses of the data. In addition, White (1989) stated that the behaviors of French speakers might showed an effect of transferring the unmarked structures of their L1 and Inuktituts preffered the form questions with preposition stranding which is a peripheral structure.

On the other hand, Hawkins reexamined the acquisition of dative alternation considered by Mazurkewish's order of sequence as: [NP PP] → [NP NP]. The paticipants were consisting of 10 native speakers of French who were university students of English. Hawkins replicated Mazurkewich's grammaticality judgement task by adding wider range of verbs. In addition, Hawkins used a sentence construction task. Results were confirmed the order of [NP PP] → [NP NP]. However, Hawkins stated that this developmental sequence conceals more complex set of stages in the acquisition of the dative alternation. Hence, these facts question the UG definition of markedness in expalining the L2 acquisition of dative alternation, according to him, the psycholinguistic notion of learning complexity seems propose a better account of the acquisition process.

Tanaka (1987) investigated the use of the dative alternation with the verb 'give' in translation and acceptability judgement tasks by Japanese college students within the framwork of markedness and transfer.The results showed that when it was far from the prototypical meaning learners preferred [_NP PP] complement rather than [_NP NP] complement. Thus, three constraints were discussed in Tanaka's study: semantic, discourse and perceptual. The participants in the study were more sensitive to the perceptual than to discourse constraint.

Bley-Vroman and Yoshinaga (1992), who are the supporter of Fundamental Difference Hypothesis which differentiates adult L2 acquisition from L1 acquisition, found the differences between native speakers and foreign language learners in the

acquisition of broad and narrow semantic constraints on the English dative alternation by collecting data from Japanese learners of English. In Japanese, the dative alternation depends only on case marking: the theme is case marked with accusative –*o*, whereas the goal is marked with –*ni*:

13) a) Hanako ga Taro *ni* hagaki oku-tta.
Hanako (NOM) Taro (DAT) postcard sent (PAST)
Hanako sent a postcard to taro/ Hanako sent Taro a postcard

In their first experiment, 66 advanced Japanese speakers of English and 64 native speakers of English tested by written paragraphs including possessive constraints on nonce (made up) verbs. Both groups accepted violated non possessive double-object forms. 85 Japanese speakers of English participated to the next experiment in which real verbs added this time. The last analysis of the tests showed significant difference between native speakers and L2 learners in respect of alternating and non alternating real verbs that L2 learners failed to accept. Bley-vroman and Yoshinaga stated Japanese speakers of English had not acquired English narrow range dative rules which determine whether a nonce verb alternates. Bley-vroman and Yoshinaga (1992) concluded that the result of l2 learners' accepting possession constraint but failing to produce the language specific narrow rules supported FDH. Inagaki (1997), for the same case of narrow range rules governing alternation, tested 32 advanced Japanese, 32 Chinese speakers of English and 32 native speakers of English. Specifically four types of narrow class verbs (throw, push, tell and whisper) were used. Inagaki (1997) reported that Japanese and Chinese learners' acquisition of the English dative alternation is governed by the properties of an equivalent structure in their L1.

Whong-Barr and Schwartz (2002) compared the acquisition of the English dative alternation by L1 English, L1 Japanese and L1 Korean children. They questioned whether children learning L2 overextend the double-object construction and whether they translate properties of their L1. Whong-Barr and Schwartz (2002) pointed the differences and similarities in dative structures between languages. Therefore, they applied Full Transfer / Full Access to UG hypothesis to the study and they considered the initial state effects and transfer factors. Holding the idea that IL development would differ depending upon differences betwen L1 grammars, Whong-Barr and Schwartz (2002) found L1 effects on childern IL data and evidence of overgeneralization. As a conclusion of their study, Whong-Barr and Schwartz (2002) stated that ''...child L2

acquirers do share properties with both L2 adult acquirers and L1 child acquirers.''(p. 608).

2.4.5 Turkish Dative Construction

In Turkish, dative constructions are formed by case marker suffix which is a nominal inflectional suffix attached to the *head* of a *noun phrase* to indicate the relationship of that noun phrase to other constituents of the sentence (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005). Suffixes *–e and –a* are used to marker of the dative case. For eample:

14) a) Okul – *a* git.
School – (dat. case suffix) go
'Go *to the* school.' (PP structure)

b) Eve – *e* gel.
home – (dat. case suffix) come
'Come home.' (NP structure)

c) Bura – *ya* gel
'Come here.' (NP structure)

In Turkish, if a suffix beginning with a vowel is attached to a stem ending in a vowel, either the initial vowel of the suffix is deleted, or the consonant 'y' is added. Therefore, dative suffixes – *a* and – *e* occasionally are followed by consonant 'y' as in (14c) in respect of vocalic harmony with the preceding stem.

These dative case suffixes are productive ways to express syntactic functions of noun phrases (Kornfilt, 1997). The dative case suffixes are used for indirect objects, for benefactives, and for directional arguments with the semantic functions of the goal.

a) Indirect objects is expressed by attaching the suffix -e/a for dative case. For example:

15) Senih kitab–ı Özgür–e verdi.
Senih the book-ACC Özgür-DAT give-PAST3SG
'Senih gave the book to Özgür.' [NP PP with to]

In the manner of indirect object, benefactives can also be expressed by the attachement of the dative case suffix:

16) Bu kitab–ı Nurten – e aldım
This book-ACC Nurten–DAT buy1SNGPAST
'I bought this book for Nurten.' [NP PP with for]

b) One of the functions that may be performed by a noun phrase marked with the dative case marker suffix is to indicate the recipient or beneficiary of an action, or, it may indicate a destination or target of an action. For example:

17) İrem –e anahtarları verdim.
İrem– DAT the keysACC give1SNG PERF
'I've given Aysel the keys.' [NP NP]

.

18) Beni Londra –ya gönderdiler.
MePRO London–DAT send3PLPAST
'They sent me to London.' [NP PP with to]

It is obvious that Turkish suffixation determines the place of the dative case markers. When dative structures in Turkish compared to dative constructions in English, it can be seen that, –e/a dative case markers suffixes are used in place of both 'to' and 'for' datives. In other words, Turkish case marker suffix -e/-a might correspond to both prepositions. Hence, it can be considered that these two setences in (19a-b) below are synonymous and reffer to the same expression.

For example:

19) a) Mine kitab–ı İlkay–a aldı.
Mine NOM the book ACC İlkay DAT-*for* CASE MAR buy PAST
Mine bought the book for İlkay

b) Mine İlkay–a kitab–ı aldı.
Mine NOM İlkay DAT-for CASE MAR the book ACC buy PAST
Mine bought the book for İlkay

In fact there is no difference in the literal translation of both constructions from L2 to L1 except for the place of the NPs. Nevertheless, a pragmatic factor, namely new

information should follow the given information as in the English dative alternation, explains the shift of the place of the indirect and direct objects in the [_NP NP] structure in Turkish translation of the sentences. The difference can be clearly seen in the example (20):

20) a) Who did John give the book to?→ John gave the book to Mary.

John kitab-ı *Mary*' e verdi.

John NOM the book ACC *Mary* DAT-to CASE MAR give PAST.

b) What did John give to Mary? → John gave Mary *the book*.

John Mary' e *kitab-ı* verdi.

John NOM Mary DAT to CASE MAR the book ACC gave PAST.

In (20a) the object of the sentence is the current topic of attention as opposed to the second example where the indirect object is the focus of attention. The pragmatic function of the use of these structures is made clear through intonation and stress in the speech.

In the light of the use of this structure in Turkish it was assumed that acquisition of the English dative alternation should not be problematic for Turkish learners whose language shows a similar structure as long as learners are aware of the case marker used in the native language. That is to say, LI might have a positive influence on the acquisition of the English dative alternation. However, a second assumption is that the native language, by the same token, that is the occurrence of a case marker which is identical with the corresponding prepositions to and for in the target language, might have a negative influence on the acquisition of this structure as the occurrence of case marker in the mother tongue might mislead learners to equate this structure with the preposition used in the English dative alternation. The case marker is always used in the native language, so the use of the direct object with preposition complement (i.e. [_NP PP]) might be overgeneralised or the use of double object construction (i.e. [_NP NP]) might be undergeneralised by Turkish learners when producing the English dative alternation. As to discourse constraint, the native language might have a positive or a facilitative impact on the acquisition of the English dative alternation.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, an overall design of the study will be presented, giving detailed information about the subjects involved in the study and the instruments comprised of two different tasks and corpus analysis.

3.2 Procedure

3.2.1 The Pilot Study

Before carrying out this main study, a pilot study has been conducted with a group consists of 20 ELT students at Çukurova University. The purpose of this pilot study is to determine the validity and the reliability of the items in the tasks. In the beginning, three tasks which originally taken from Hawkins (1987) has been employed. The results and the feedback from the subjects participated in the pilot study provided an important insight in giving the final form to the tasks. For instance, the third grammaticality judgement task which involves only verbs used with PP/–for structure revealed undetermining results and they were not explanatory in terms of comparison between two groups. Because of this reason, we believe that this original grammaticality judgement task will not be valid and reliable for the main study, so we decided to cancel. In addition, according to the overall results, some sentences in the sentence construction task checked or eliminated because of being difficult to comprehend.

3.2.2 Subjects

In the present study, 100 Turkish subjects with different levels of English, namely intermediate and advanced. These subjects have been chosen from the students at the English Language Teaching department of Faculty of Education at Çukurova University.

In order to determine the English levels of the subjects, the University of Michigan Placement Test has been used. According to the results obtained from this test, the subjects has been divided into two groups as intermediate and advanced.

Apart from the placement test, all of the subjects participated in the study have also been given a questionnaire, enabling to have homogenous groups in terms of age, knowledge of other languages, and the age at first exposure to the L2, and the time spent in a L2 speaking country. The participant characteristics can be summarized as follows:

Table 1. Participant characteristics

	Intermediate	**Advanced**
N	50	50
L1	Turkish	
Department	ELT	
Age Range	18 - 23	

Since the major concern of this study is the L2 acquisition of the adult learners, the ages of the subjects are important point. Therefore, in order to determine a considering and reliable subject group, all of the subjects participated in the study have been chosen from the learners above the critical age period as presented in table 2. :

Table 2. The distribution of the Subjects

Levels of English	Frequency	Age	% in total
Intermediate	50	18.60	50.00
Advanced	50	23.00	50.00
TOTAL	90	20.80	100.00

3.2.3 Instruments

In the present study, two tasks to be involved including Grammaticality Judgement Task (GJT) and Sentence Construction Task (SCT). Mazurkewich (1984) states that ‘‘grammaticality judgements do reflect competence’’ (1984, p.99). In her opinion, one aspect of linguistic competence includes the ability of native speakers of a language to make introspective judgements about the grammaticality of sentences in that language. Mazurkewich (1984) points out that second language learners would acquire similar intuitions that would be reflected in their developing competence as learners approach native ability to speak that language.

The decision to use more than one task in investigating the English dative alternation was prompted by the view that ‘‘it is sometimes not easy to determine whether particular distributions of data obtained in such tests really reflect the linguistic knowledge of L2 speakers, or whether they are a function either of the instrument employed or of the particular modality investigated.’’ (Hawkins, 1987, p. 30). By comparing the results of these two tasks, it would be possible to determine any particular bias that might occur.

In addition to GJT and SCT, a corpus based data utilized in terms of instrument of measurement. To increase the reliability and the strength of the data base for the investigation of dative alternation, Turkish International Corpus of Learner English (TICLE) is involved which is consists of written data collected from argumentative essays of Turkish adult learners of English. The results of TICLE analysis has been compared with the native form of the same kind of corpus which includes American speakers’ argumentative essays. The descriptions of three instruments is presented blow.

3.2.3.1 Grammaticality Judgement Task

The first task the subjects involved in this study is the Grammaticality Judgement Task (GJT). In the task, randomly ordered 70 sentences including alternating and non-alternating verbs were presented to the subjects and wanted to judge them grammatical or ungrammatical.

In GJT sentences, there is a variety of thirty-five verbs which were considered to be involved in the English dative constructions. The distribution of these verbs according to their characteristics is presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Dative verbs used in GJ Task (Adapted from Hawkins, 1987)

V/_NP PP[+ to]
1. monosyllabic base: *send, lend, give, read, throw, serve*
2. polysyllabic base – verbs occuring in both frames [_NP PP] / [_NP NP]: *offer, promise, allow*
3. polysyllabic base – verbs occuring in the frame [_NP PP]: *report, explain, propose, donate, dictate, despatch*
4. idioms: *give the door a kick, give the nail a tap, give the mattress an airing*
5. verbs allowing optional deletion of either object: *show, pay, owe*
6. verbs do not readily occur in the frame [_NP PP]: *excuse, wish, forgive*
V/_NP PP[+ for]
1. monosyllabic base: *buy, make, save, bake, choose, fry*
2. polysyllabic base – verbs occuring in both frames [_NP PP] / [_NP NP]: prepare, reserve
3. polysyllabic base – verbs occuring in the frame [_NP PP]: *create, capture, design, open*

Sentences in the task include verbs that occur in both syntactic constructions [_NP PP] and [_NP NP], and verbs that only occur in the [_NP NP] construction. In addition, the test provides a balance between the verbs requiring the preposition *–to* and those requiring the preposition *–for*. Hence, the distinction between the verbs whose base forms are polysyllabic and monosyllabic has been taken to account because generally polysyllabic verbs do not appear in the [_NP NP] construction e.g. **Mary explained John the problem* (Hawkins, 1987, p. 31).

Afterwards, in order to measure the reliability of the sentences in the GJT, general mean is calculated. According to these results, general mean has been founded 0,967 and mean correlation between sentences as 0,016. Afterwards, general reliability coefficient has been found as $\alpha = 0{,}511$ value. Therefore, the reliability scale of the GJT may be low. When a sentence is removed from the test and the reliability coefficient is re-examined, the value of the reliability seems to be close or nearly lower than $\alpha = 0{,}511$ value. This means that there is no need remove any sentence from the GJT.

Table 4 General statistics of sentences in GJT

	N	**M**	**Min.**	**Max.**	**Range**	**Min./Max**	**Variance**
Mean general	61	,967	,040	,990	,950	24,750	,093
Mean correlation Between sentences	61	,016	-,494	,704	1,198	-1,424	,025

To test and discuss the scores of two data group as intermediate and advance level of proficiency, different measurements has been applied. The convenience of scores gathered from GJT to normal distribution measured and p value has been founded. According to the results, as for p> 0, 05 (p=0,094) for the criterion, GJT scores showed a normal distribution for intermediate and advanced groups in table 5:

Table 5 Convenience of the scores by two groups to the normal distribution in GJT

Mean average of the scores from GJT	Sd	Kolmogorov-Simirnov Z value	p value
51,060	3,76	1,236	0,094

p> 0,05

3.2.3.2 Sentence Construction Task

As for SCT sentences, participants were presented reduced sentences of the form: *He throws Philip a ball,* in which verb inflections and prepositions had not been given. They were then asked to inflect the verb for the simple past tense and to provide an appropriate preposition (*to* or *for*), only if they felt it was necessary to do so. Briefly, participants had to decide whether a verb could remain in the [_ NP NP] construction, or whether it required a prepositional object, and secondly they had to decide whether that preposition was to or for. As a distracter they were asked to inflect the verb for the past tense.

Table 6. Dative verbs used in SC task. (1) indicates the items also appear in GJT (Hawkins, 1987)

V/_NP PP[+ to]
1. monosyllabic base: *give*(1), *lend* (1), *throw*(1), *read* (1), *sell, leave, lease, grant, pledge*
2. polysyllabic base – verbs occuring in both frames [_NP PP] / [_NP NP]: *offe r*(1), *promise* (1), *refuse*
3. polysyllabic base – verbs occuring in the frame [_NP PP]: *donate* (1), *despatch* (1), present, announce, address, transfer
4. idioms: *give a wash, give a coat, give a dig, give a pull*
5. verbs allowing optional deletion of either object: *show* (1),*ask, teach, tell*
6. verbs do not readily occur in the frame [_NP PP]: *forgive* (1), envy, deny

V/_NP PP[+ for]

1. monosyllabic base: *buy* (1), *save* (1), *cook, build, carve, spare*
2. polysyllabic base – verbs occuring in both frames [_NP PP] / [_NP NP]: prepare (1), reserve (1), order
3. polysyllabic base – verbs occuring in the frame [_NP PP]: *accept, construct, review*

The total number of the verbs used in this test was 42; only a proportion of these were the same verbs used in test 1 (14/42). This gave us the opportunity both to compare performance across GJ versus SC tasks and to extend the range of data under consideration. The distribution of these verbs according to their characteristics is presented in Table 6.

The reliability of SCT in terms of general mean has been calculated and mean founded as 0,386 and mean correlation between sentences as 0,016. According to these results in table 7, the reliability scale of the SC may be low. When some sentences are removed from the test and the reliability coefficient is re-examined, the value of the reliability seems to be close or nearly lower than $\alpha = 0{,}508$ value. This means that there is no need remove any sentence from the SC and there will be no difference between two results after removing the sentences that seems to decrease the general mean.

Table 7 General statistics of sentences in SCT

	N	M	Min.	Max.	Range	Min./Max	Variance
Mean general	39	,386	,010	,900	,890	90,000	,101
Mean correlation Between sentences	39	,030	-,403	,631	1,034	-1,566	,026

To test and discuss the scores of two data group as intermediate and advance level of proficiency, as in GJT, the convenience of scores gathered from SC to normal distribution measured and p value has been founded. According to the results, as for p> 0, 05 (p=0,078) for the criterion, SCT scores showed a normal distribution for both intermediate and advanced in table 8:

Table 8 Convenience of the scores by two groups to the normal distribution in SCT

Mean average of the scores from SCT	Sd	Kolmogorov-Simirnov Z value	p value
15,06	3,238	1,273	0,078

* p> 0,05

3.2.3.3 Corpora Used In The Study

Apart from the tasks described above, the researcher also benefited from the Turkish International Corpus of Learner English (TICLE), the Turkish sub-corpus of International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE) directed by the Universite Catholique de Louvain in Belgium, and coordinated and collected by researchers at the ELT department, Çukurova University, Turkey. The TICLE aims at making an outline of the interlanguage of Turkish learners of English, namely nonnative speakers (NNS) of English. It is a collection of Turkish adult learners' argumentative essays in English. The corpus was explored, for the specific purpose of this study, to see how the dative alternation in English the Turkish adult learners of English handle in their written performances. The TICLE consists of approximately 168,265 words. Another corpus utilized is the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS) which is a collection of the essays written by American university students who are native speakers (NS) of English. It consists of approximately 169,422 words.

Table 9 The size of the corpora

Corpora	Number of words
TICLE	168,465 words
LOCNESS	169,422 words

As can be seen from Table 9, the corpora utilized in the study are of similar size and produced under similar circumstances and are the result of typical academic, argumentative writing essays. The Turkish corpus was produced by advanced Turkish university students of English. Similarly, the native English speaker corpus utilized in the study was extracted from the LOCNESS database and consists of similar writing tasks performed by native American university students. The slight difference in the size of the corpora does not pose any threat since the computation for the occurrences of noun clauses across corpora was carried out for every thousand word.

3.2.3.4 Software

In the study, Turkish interlanguage and American mother tongue corpora mentioned above were investigated using WordSmith Tools program. This software is designed for text analysis and manipulation that generates word lists from one or more texts by frequency and by alphabet. WordSmith Tools can identify key words in a particular text and create a database of keywords to enable identification of keywords and associated words.

When analyzing a verb in the text analysis, WordSmith software lists that verb with its all case; therefore, dative verbs were tagged in both corpora before text analysis. For instance, verb *give* in Turkish and American corpora was tagged for its dative forms as in the example below;

God gives(npnp) us this life and only…….
…that the women don't give(npnp) him a son….
…people commit suicide to give(ppto) a message to the people.

After tagging all words which has been used in Grammaticality Judgement Task and Sentence Construction Task, they identified text analysis tool of WordSmith. In this stage, WordSmith calculated automatically the percentage and the frequency of these identified verbs in respect of their usage in dative forms. Finally, verbs were assorted for their place in which kind of dative frame they have been used in and their total amounts were classified by their percentage and frequencies. The probability level of the frequencies is taken as $p \leq .05$, and the significantly underused and overused items are shown with an asterisk (*) in the tables.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

In the study, we aim to search the acquisition of English dative alternation by Turkish adult learners. Two tasks as grammaticality judgement task (GJT) and sentence construction task (SCT) were used to test the mental represantations of dative forms in learners' IL grammar. Analysis of the the data obtained from GJT and SCT, and from TICLE and LOCNESS corpora will be presented in this chapter. The statistical analysis of GJT and SCT have been done with the use of statistical software called Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS for Windows, Release 13.0) on an IBM compatible computer with the guidiance of a statistican. TICLE and LOCNESS analysis has been done with the use of a special software called WordSmith tool which is specially designed for corpus analyses.

4.2 Analysis of the data from Grammaticality Judgement Task

The GJT is a recognition task, that is, the subjects have been asked to indicate whether the sentences were correct or incorrect. In the GJT, as mentioned in the previous chapter, there were 70 sentences in which variety of thirty-six alternating and non-alternating verbs which were considered to be involved in the English dative constructions presented to the subjects and asked to judge them grammatical or ungrammatical.

The number of participants (intermediate N= 50; advanced N= 50) who accepted the correct verbs in the [_ NP NP] and [_ NP PP] constructions between the groups for GJT. The verbs followed by an asterisk are not normally allowed in [_ NP NP] construction in native speaker English.

The first analysis has been done regarding the criterions and classifications that regulated by Hawkins (1987). Hawkins (1987) classified dative verbs in terms of their monosyllabic and polysyllabic base that may be a determining factor while acquiring the structure of dative alternation. The results obtained from the analysis of the GJT

reveals that [_ NP PP] constructions are acquired before [_ NP NP] constructions. This can be clearly seen from table 10 and table 11 that each verb in [_ NP PP] construction was judged more often than the same verb in the [_ NP NP] structure.The distinction between native/monosyllabic and nonnative/polysyllabic verbs, which delimits alternating from nonalternating datives, expresses the situation of acquisitional process. Table 10 presents the frequency of polysyllabic verbs and table 11 presents the frequency of monosyllabic verbs judged correctly by intermediate and advanced students in GJT.

Table 10 Frequencies of monosyllabic verbs used in GJT

Monosyllabic verbs	**Intermediate (total N= 50)**		**Advanced (total N=50)**	
	[_ NP NP]	[_ NP PP]	[_ NP NP]	[_ NP PP]
	f	**f**	**f**	**f**
send	9	50	11	50
lend	16	50	17	46
give	20	49	24	50
read	44	50	45	41
throw	8	50	6	50
serve	16	50	23	50

(f= frequency shows the number of subjects who judged the verb as in the above frame)

Table 11 Frequencies of polysyllabic verbs used in GJT

Polysyllabic verbs	**Intermediate (totalN=50)**		**Advanced (total N=50)**	
	[_ NP NP]	[_ NP PP]	[_ NP NP]	[_ NP PP]
	f	**f**	**f**	**f**
offer*	17	50	20	50
promise*	14	44	16	44
allow*	26	6	26	11
report	45	50	40	49
explain	9	50	6	48
propose	26	50	29	50
donate	31	50	31	46
dictate	20	50	25	46
despatch	42	46	35	49

(f= frequency shows the number of subjects who judged the verb as in the above frame)
(*polysyllabic alternating verbs)

The results produced by our subjects are highly similar to those of Mazurkewich (1984) and Hawkins (1987). In terms of monosyllabic verbs which alternate, *send* and *throw* showed low frequency in np/np frame. On the other hand, the verb *read* has been accepted by both groups as a verb allowing two frames as np/np and np/pp. In the case of polysyllabic verbs, most of the verbs have been judged as alternating verb by both groups. For example, 45 subjects in intermediate and 40 subjects in advanced group have accepted the verb *report* as an alternating verb.

Independent T-test has been applied to measure the scores of GJT by two groups. According to the results, p value has been found as 0,316. Therefore, there is no significant diference between two goups and they showed a similar success in GJT.

Table 12 Independent T-test scores of GJT between Intermediate and Advanced groups

Groups	N	M	sd	t value	p value
1- ADVANCED	50	51,44	3,52	1,009	0,316
2- INTERMEDİATE	50	50,68	3,99		

* p> 0,05

In terms of GJT, both groups suggested a close performance and normal distribution. At this stage, it can be claimed that the development of both intermediate and advanced level of proficiency showed no difference in respect of judging the correctness and incorrectness of several dative structures. The general results of GJT did not yield a significant difference between the intermediate and advanced groups.

4.3 Analysis of the data from Sentence Construction Task

In SC task, participants were presented reduced sentences of the form: *He threw Philip a ball,* in which verb inflections and prepositions had not been given. Participants reconstruct the sentence by regulating the past tense and using the correct dative form where necessary. The first analysis has been done in terms of fixing the classified dative verbs as Hawkins (1987) mentioned and explained in methodology part. Test results scanned in terms of correct and incorrect usage of the both groups of intermediate and advanced levels. The verbs in the answers regulated according to their having monosyllabic and polysyllabic base and frequencies of these verbs measured.

Table 13 Scores of the SCT of dative verbs in the frames [_ NP PP]-to and [_ NP PP]-for

Verb	**Intermediate (total N=50)**			**Advanced (total N=50)**		
	f	**f**	**f**	**f**	**f**	**f**
	[_ NP PP]-to	[_ NP PP]-for	*Incorrect	[_ NP PP]-to	[_ NP PP]-for	*Incorrect
To verbs (monosyllabic base)						
throw	**44**	2	4	41	-	9
announce	**43**	5	2	42	1	7
transfer	**37**	2	11	45	-	5
give	**40**	3	7	26	3	11
leave	**29**	8	13	37	6	7
To verbs (polysyllabic base)						
present	**29**	7	14	38	4	8
donate	**23**	18	9	19	29	2
read	**44**	3	3	39	4	7
address	**42**	2	6	43	4	3
despatch	**26**	20	4	30	17	3
For verbs (monosyllabic base)						
build	11	**39**	-	2	46	2
spare	12	**33**	17	17	30	3
save	4	**44**	2	1	48	1
For verbs (polysyllabic base)						
forgive	1	**36**	13	2	42	6
accept	1	**35**	14	2	42	6
reserve	4	45	1	1	47	2
construct	12	34	4	14	32	4

(*incorrect sentences constructed by participants using different prepositions such as *until* or *into, etc.)*

According to the results of the sentence construction task, unlike Hawkins' (1987) findings, we observed that there is no distinction between the acquisition order of to-verbs and for-verbs. Subjects demonstrated similar performances in the relevant items of the task.

In terms of indepentent T-test scores of SCT by intermediate and advanced level groups, p value has been measured as p> 0,017 in Table 14 and indicated that there is no significant difference between two groups.

Table 14 Independent T-test scores of SCT between Intermediate and Advanced groups

Groups	N	M	sd	t value	p
1- ADVANCED	50	15,84	2,76	2,434	0,017
2- INTERMEDİATE	50	14,28	3,59		

* p> 0,05

When compared to results of the T-test of GJT, it can be seen that advanced group showed more successful performance in SCT. As far as the tasks are concerned, participants asked only judged the correctness of the sentences given in GJT. On the other hand, in SCT, participants asked to fix the grammar level and reconstruct the each sentence regulating the appropriate dative structure. Therefore, this difference of the difficulty levels of two tasks might cause performance change between two levels of proficiency. Hence, IL development can be seen as a result of this change.

4.4 Analysis of the Data from Corpora

In the analysis of the TICLE corpus which obtained from argumentative essays of Turkish and LOCNESS by native speakers of American. The analysis of the corpus, the WordSmith software tool is used to identify, calculate and compare the dative forms. In the investigation of dative forms, the study availed itself of two corpora; the NS (native speakers of Turkish) and the NNS (Non Native Speakers) corpus (see section 3.2.3.3 for details).

All correct and incorrect dative structures in data from both groups is identified and tagged by the WordSmith tool. In the analysis, three dative group categorized as *-pp/to*, *-pp/for* an *–np* according to the verbs they follow. In addition, to include the errors into the analysis, the same procedure is applied to the verbs and dative categories. The identified verbs which have been used by different dative categories individually and totally grouped and calculated for their frequencies and percentage. Afterwards, measured values compared between two groups with Chi-square analysis to examine the significance and underuse/overuse.

First, all verbs used with dative structure are identified through the whole NNS corpus including Turkish data and in NS for American data. Overall frequencies of each verb used in dative alternation were calculated and categorized under pp/to, pp/for and np/np.

Table 15 The frequency and the percentage calculations of verbs used totally and categorically in NNS corpus.

Turkish Data	**Total use**		**Dative use pp/to**		**Dative use pp/for**		**Dative use np/np**	
Verbs	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**
*give	516	0,26	152	0,08			110	0,05
send	36	0,02	20	-				
*show	137	0,07	12	-			8	-
transfer	12	-	5	-				
*explain	32	0,02	2	-			1	-
*offer	12	-	4	-			3	-
*pay	79	0,04	2	-			3	-
throw	5	-	2	-				
announce	3	-	1	-				
leave	49	0,02	2	-				
present	48	0,02	2	-				
*serve	15	-	1	-			1	-
donate	-	-	-	-				
prepare	142	0,07			77	0,04		
make	480	0,24			7	-		
create	86	0,04			8	-		
open	34	0,02			-	-		
build	25	0,01			1	-		
forgive	3	-			1	-		
save	40	0,04			1	-		
**buy	71	0,04			-	-	-	-
wish	24	0,01					1	-
allow	60	0,03					1	-

* Verbs take both pp/to and np/np forms
** Verbs take both pp/for and np/np forms

Table 15 presents the total frequencies and structurally categorized verbs identified as dative verbs in Turkish data. As can be seen, among the verbs which permit dative alternation across corpora, those with the highest frequencies in total usage are the preferred dative structures by the NNS. For example, the highest rated verb *give* which is used in both PP/to and NP/np forms showed a high frequency in total as 26% among the all verbs used in whole corpus, 0, 08% of this percentage has been used as dative verb with pp/to form and 0, 05% has been as dative with np/np form by Turkish data. On the other hand, another high frequent verb *make* in total which is used only with pp/for showed low level frequency and percent in dative use. Unlike the verb *make*, the verb *prepare* expressed a high amount usage as dative verb used only with pp/for although it has a normal distribution in total, mainly, 77 of 142 the verb *prepare* has been used as dative verb by Turkish data. As a structural group, the verbs used with pp/to forms generally have more high frequency and percentage than with pp/for and

np/np forms. Besides, the verbs which are used with both pp/to and np/np structures such as *give*, *show*, *explain*, *offer*, *pay* and *serve* have been used more than the verbs used with both pp/for and np/np forms such as *buy*.

Table 16 The frequency and the percentage calculations of verbs used totally and categorically in NS corpus.

American Data	**Total use**		**Dative use pp/to**		**Dative use pp/for**		**Dative use np/np**	
Verbs	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**		**%**
*give	188	0,11	17	0,01			64	0,04
send	17	0,01	3	-				
*show	239	0,14	3				5	-
transfer	9	-	1					
*explain	35	0,02	6				-	-
*offer	46	0,03	2				2	-
*pay	118	0,07	1				3	-
throw	19	0,01	-					
announce	2	-	-					
leave	89	0,05	-					
present	110	0,07	-					
*serve	39	0,02	-				-	-
donate	2	-	1					
prepare	10	-			-	-		
make	502	0,30			8	-		
create	64	0,04			4	-		
open	48	0,03			3	-		
build	18	0,01			1	-		
forgive	4	-			-	-		
save	32	0,02			2	-		
**buy	48	0,03			2	-	1	-
wish	22	0,01					-	-
allow	162	0,10					1	-

* Verbs take both pp/to and np/np forms
** Verbs take both pp/for and np/np forms

Table 16 shows the total and structural usage amounts of dative verbs by American data in corpus. At the first glance, dative usage proportion presents an equal distribution. Hence, except for a few items, dative use proportion tends to be low than total use of a same verb. It can be realized that, in general, totally high rated dative verbs are not seem to occur in dative use. Specifically, verbs such as *give*, *show*, *make* show low rate in terms of dative structure use in the contexts. For example, verb *make* which has been used 502 times in total did not present a similar performance in dative use. Unlike in Turkish, verb *give* has normally frequent as 188 and 64 of them have been used with

dative structures. Specifically, the verb *prepare* a very different rate from Turkish data with 142 frequency and American data only with 10 frequency in total.

When compared with Turkish data, three structural groups as pp/to , pp/for and np/np forms suggests a normal distribution among each other in American data. Both two data show similarity in terms of the usage of np/np forms in terms of frequency and percentage. However, there is a high proportion in the use of dative structures by Turkish data than American data. Correct use of verbs with [_NP PP/to] in both Turkish and native American data calculated according to their percentage and frequencies and then compared each other with Chi-square analysis.

Table 17 The frequency and X^2 results of each correct use of [NP_PP/to] verbs in corpus by two groups

PP/TO verbs	**Turkish**		**American**			
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**	**X^2**	**o/u**
give	152	0,08	17	0,01	85,1*	+
send	20	-	3	-	8,6	+
show	12	-	3	-	~	~
transfer	5	-	1	-	~	~
explain	2	-	6	-	~	~
offer	4	-	2	-	~	~
pay	2	-	1	-	~	~
throw	2	-	-	-	~	~
announce	1	-	-	-	~	~
leave	2	-	-	-	~	~
present	2	-	-	-	~	~
serve	1	-	-	-	~	~
donate	-	-	1	-	~	~

* statistically significant ($p \leq 0,05$)
~ no significant difference
+ overuse
- underuse

According to the results in table 17, verbs *give* and *send* revealed statistically significance across two groups. In addition, both two verbs are observed to be overused in Turkish data. Especially *give*+to has been used by both groups in the same ways in terms of PP/to structure. This item has been used in Turkish and native data as following:

1) Turkish data

.....must *give* importance *to* its education faculties.

.....do not *give* too much importance *to* money.....

.....*give* birth *to* this child.

2) Native data

.....*give* the baby *to* parents.

.....*give* the solutions *to* those problems.

.....*give* birth *to* an unwanted baby.

In table 17, the correct use of [NP_PP/for] structure is illustrated according to the frequencies, percentages and Chi-square results for both groups. The verb *prepare* expressed a significant difference in Turkish data.

Table 18 The frequency and X^2 results of each correct use of [NP_PP/for] verbs in corpus by two groups

PP/FOR verbs	**Turkish**		**American**			
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**	**X^2**	**o/u**
prepare	77	0,04	-	-	63,0*	+
make	7	-	8	-	~	~
create	8	-	4	-	~	~
open	-	-	3	-	~	~
build	1	-	1	-	~	~
forgive	1	-	-	-	~	~
save	1	-	2	-	~	~
buy	-	-	2	-	~	~

* statistically significant ($p \leq 0,05$)
~ no significant difference
+ overuse
-underuse

As it can be seen, this item is high rated and overused in Turkish data while it is not identified in native data. Verb *prepare* been used by Turkish students as below:

3) .....prepare the students for the life.

.....prepare you for the job.

In respect of [NP_NP] forms, results revelealed statistically significance only in the verb *give*+np with 5, 2 Chi-square values as in table 19:

Table 19 The frequency and X^2 results of each correct use of [NP_NP] verbs in corpus by two groups.

NP/NP verbs	Turkish f	%	American f	%	X^2	o/u
give	110	0,05	64	0,04	5,2*	+
show	8	-	5	-	~	~
pay	3	-	3	-	~	~
offer	3	-	2	-	~	~
explain	1	-	-	-	~	~
serve	1	-	-	-	~	~
wish	1	-	-	-	~	~
allow	-	-	1	-	~	~
buy	-	-	1	-	~	~

* Statistically significant ($p \leq 0,05$)
~ No significant difference
+ Overuse

It is clear that, *give* with NP structure has been used in Turkish data nearly two times more than native data so that it is overused. In both data, this item has been used as in the following sentences:

4) Turkish data

.....give him a son.

.....give the person self esteem.

.....give you much pain.

5) Native data

.....give them wisdom

..... give students more education.

.....give us the right.

In Turish data, if students have made mistakes in the use of dative structures, for example, when they use pp/to against pp/for after a verb which should preceed pp/for structure or vice-versa, this is considered as an incorrect usage and identified as an error in the anlysis. The same categorial procedure is applied and first errors individullay

identified, then totally observed and measured. Naturally, no errors have been identified in the native data.

Table 20 The frequency of each incorrect use of verbs with three structures in corpus by two groups

errors	Turkish		American	
	f	%	f	%
pp/to				
buy	2	-	-	-
open	3	-	-	-
send	1	-	-	-
show	1	-	-	-
transfer	1	-	-	-
pp/for				
prepare	23	0,01	-	-
give	5	-	-	-
open	1	-	-	-
present	2	-	-	-
np/np				
allow	1	-	-	-
create	1	-	-	-
give	1	-	-	-
open	1	-	-	-
prepare	1	-	-	-
send	1	-	-	-
throw	1	-	-	-

Table 20 displays the calculation of frequencies and percentages of errors that have been made by Turkish students item by item. As it can be seen, there is not much significance among the errors except for the verb *prepare* with a high rate. In table 20 below, there was an overuse was observed in the correct use of prepare+pp/for. Interestingly, incorrect rate of verb *prepare* revealed a high proportion. Turkish students generally used this item in the corpus as:

6) .....*prepare* the students *to** real life.
.....*prepare* us *to** real world.
.....*prepare* their customers *to** real life.

As it can be seen, Turkish students have used *prepare* with the preposition –to against – for. For this reason, although this item has been used correctly with a high rate, Turkish students seem to overgeneralize in the use of prepare+pp/for. Another fact that students have made mistakes in the pp/for against pp/to but not in vice-versa, in other words, there is no significant errors in pp/to datives. We can claim that, if turkish students have made mistakes in using to against for, there might be an overgeneralization in their IL grammar.

All three structural categories as correctly used verbs with pp/to, pp/for and np forms are calculated and compared within the two groups by Chi-square. Table 21 presents the results of total correct used forms in two groups with percentage, frequency and comparison.

Table 21 The frequency and X^2 results of total correct use of verbs with three structures in corpus by two groups.

datives total	**Turkish**		**American**			
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**	**X^2**	**o/u**
PP/to	205	0,10	37	0,02	89,0*	+
NP/np	127	0,06	70	0,05	4,9*	+
PP/for	95	0,05	22	0,01	33,0*	+

* statistically significant ($p \leq 0,05$)
~ no significant difference
+ overuse
- underuse

When we consider the frequencies, it is clear that the most used form as a dative structure is the ones made by pp/to in Turkish data. However, native group have not used it as much as Turkish group, so there is a statistical sigificance occured as X^2 89,0 and pp/to forms have been overused. It can be claimed that Turkish students seems to use pp/to forms mostly than natives, even when compared all three structure each other. So, pp/to form is the most common dative structure for Turkish data. Other two categories showed significance too, especially np/np forms have a high proprtion of correct use although there is not such a structure in Turkish language.

In table 22, a total error analysis of both three structural group suggests that incorrect datives made only in pp/for as it is explained below. Despite the fact that there

is no errors occured in native American data, the X^2 results are considered becouse of yielding significance when two data group compared. As mentioned below, pp/for items shows significance mostly because of the incorrect use of *prepare*+pp/for structure. Errors may give an idea of Turkish students overgeneralize the pp/to forms which can be considered to be common and closest form to Turkish language.

Table 22 The frequencies of total incorrect use of verbs with three structures in corpus by two groups.

errors total	**Turkish**		**American**		
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**	**X^2**
PP/for	31	0,02	-	-	24,3*
NP/to	8	-	-	-	4,2*
PP/np	7	-	-	-	4,2*

* statistically significant ($p \leq 0,05$)

In general, as far as NNS corpus by Turkish data and NS corpus by Amerikan data concerned, two different group analyses showed differences both in item by item use and total use of dative structures. Considering the overall results, it can be claimed that IL development shows influence from native language features as overgeneralization or transfer of training.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This study attempts to examine the possibility of whether adult learners' interlanguages are affected by their L1 or they have access to linguistic universals (UG) while acquiring English dative alternation and to investigate their common tendencies in terms of IL features they employed.

5.2 Evaluation of Research Questions

1- Do Turkish learners of English acquire [_ NP PP] constructions or [_ NP NP] constructions before?

In her study, Mazurkewich (1984) suggested that second language learners of Enlish will acquire dative prepositional phrase complements before double-NP complements and this sequence of emergence might be posited to result from transference by the French subjects since the dative structures were similar to the prepositional phrase in English. However, Mazurkewich stated that the same acquisition is followed by the Inukitut subjects ruled out this possibility. Hawkins (1987) suggested that, according to his findings, Mazurkewich's discovery that [_NP PP] construction is acquired before [_NP NP] construction is not the only factor involved in the acquisition of the dative alternation by L2 learners and there is an acquisitional sequence which provides learners accept lexical NP's in the _NP NP frame , but not all verbs. In fact, Hawkins (1987) pointed that, learners assume to the same underlying surface structure of dative alternation until there is a positive evidence on the contrary, in other words, learners test out the features of the learnability constraints.

According to findings of the present study, it can be claimed that, Turkish adult learners of English seem to present a similar approach as Hawkins (1987) emphasized in terms of the acquisition of dative structures. Corpus analysis showed that there is no problem in the use of [_NP NP] forms. However, ıt should be considered that, the total

amounts of [_NP PP] forms used by Turkish learners of English presented overuse than [_NP NP] forms.

2- Do positional L1 features negatively affect learners' use of the verbs requiring preposition *for* instead of *to*?

The results we obtained in our testing and analyses, as for the L1 effect on the acquisition of English dative alternation, in the following items:

despatched: They despatch Mary the parcel
build: Hary build his son a house.
spare: Can you spare my friend € 1.00?
construct: The firm construct the school a swimming pool?

We observe some L1 interference because the results provided clear evidence of LI interference regarding the issue of identification of the case marker with the prepositional complement structure in the target language. Learners accepted the use of the preposition *to* instead of *for* when the verb is to be used with *for* and vice versa in the following item:

prepare : She prepare her friends a Chinese meal.

This effect might be arisen from the learners' linguistic knowledge of Turkish dative structure which is determined by *–e* and *– a* suffixes. In their IL grammar, learners might have associated these two suffixes with *–to* form in English more than other two forms so that they might have showed a tendency of using *–to* inappropriately. This fact may give an opinion to explain the L1 transfer indicators that have been founded in the results.

3- Does the learners' success with these forms increase gradually along with their proficiency levels?

The results showed that there is no significant difference between the groups of intermediate and advanced level of proficiency. Low level of difference occured in the Sentence Construction Task in the favour of advanced group, however, this may not be a criterion for the development of IL grammar of both groups.

In general, the results showed that the use of case marker which is same as the preposition used in the English dative alternation gave rise to confusion and learners overgeneralised and/or undergeneralised certain structures by relying on the use of the case marker in the native language. The results implied that learners should be taught the difference between case marker in the mother tongue and the use of preposition in the target language at all levels of proficiency. Furthermore, learners should be taught the use of for-datives through indicating the difference between the use of to-datives and for datives. Finally, learners' attention should be drawn to the use of structure in discourse to prevent the possible confusion caused by the use of case marker in the mother tongue, as well.

5.3 Implications for English Language Teaching

The UG model of L2 learning is the knowledge in individual minds and UG shapes and restricts the language that are learnt through principles and parameters. According to the theory, learning is setting values for parameters and acquiring properties of lexical items, but not acquiring principles. UG serves some teaching implications (Cook, 2001); there is no need to teach 'principles' in a UG model of learning, on the other hand, optimum input should be provided for triggering parameters. Additionally, it is important to emphasize the teaching vocabulary items with specifications of how they can occur in grammatical structures.

The basis of the UG model has been revised by Chomsky (1995) within a theory known as Minimalist Program. In this manner, according to Cook (2001), all language is now reduced to the learning of the properties of vocabulary. Cook (2001) emphasizes that:

> Knowing the word 'give' means knowing that it usually has three arguments – an animate subject and two objects: 'Mary [animate subject] gave a book [direct object] to John [indirect object]; that is to say, you cannot say 'The rock gave him a present' with a non-animate subject 'the rock' or 'The man gave a thousand pounds' without an indirect object saying to whom it was given. The grammar is seen as universal; the differences between languages come down to how words behave in sentences (p. 184).

It is suggested that, the main conclusion of UG is that vocabulary should be thought rather as items that play a part in the sentence by dictating what structures and words they may go with in the sentence than as tokens with isolated meanings. For this very

reason, considering the dative alternation value variations between the L1 and L2 and using consciousness raising techniques emphasizing the differences would be beneficial for learners.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Studies

This study dealt with the presentation of dative alternation with a limited set of altenating and non-alternating verbs in English. For further research, expanded and semantically and syntactically diversified set of verbs can be investigated in the account of dative alternation. It is hard to make generalizations with respect to the results of language learning strategies such as overgeneralizations that of participants employed while arranging dative alternation. Another suggestion that we make for further study is to observe different participants with different levels to see whether there is a similarity or difference in the knowledge of dative alternation in English. This would provide deeper deductions about the situation of the learners' IL grammar in order to understand its nature.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

Grammaticality Judgement Task

_____ 1- A latter was sent to John.
_____2- Bill was designed a house.
_____3- The report was reed to Carl.
_____4- Canada was captured a priz.
_____5- The job was offered to Harry.
_____6- Mary was opened a door.
_____7- John excused his lateness.
_____8-The smiths reserved a table.
_____9- The accident was reported to the police officer
_____10- Joe was prepared a meal.
_____11- Some money was donated to the church.
_____12- Sarah was created a costume.
_____13- Muriel was walked home from school.
_____14- The door was given a kick.
_____15- Betty was chosen a book.
_____16- A photo was shown to Bill.
_____17- Louise was baked a cake.
_____18- A lorry was bought for Billy.
_____19- John was saved a seat.
_____20- A seat was saved for John.
_____21- A costume was created for Sarah.
_____22- Lisa was saved from drowning.
_____23- Jerry was made a sweater.
_____24- A door was opened for Mary.
_____25- Billy was bought a lorry.
_____26- Some money was lent to Mary.
_____27- Harry was owed thirty pounds.
_____28- A ball was thrown to Philip.
_____29- The workers were paid 100 pounds each.
_____30- A present was promised to Julie.
_____31- Bill was shown a photo.
_____32- John was wished a Merry Christmas.
_____33- The mattress was given an airing.
_____34- Joanne was taken to movie.
_____35- The problem was explained to Jane.
_____36- The nail was given a tap.
_____37- A letter was dictated to Mary.
_____38- The door was given a kick.
_____39- 100 pounds each was paid to the workers.
_____40- Bill was dispatched some books.
_____41-A sweater was made for Jerry.
_____42-Mary was dictated a letter.
_____43- The church was donated some money.
_____44- A cake was made for Louise.
_____45- A meal was prepared for john.
_____46-Richard was chased upstairs.

_____47- Mary was proposed a holiday.
_____48- A prize was captured for Canada.
_____49-Jane was explained a problem.
_____50-A book was given to Kevin.
_____51- The police officer was reported the accident.
_____ 52- Dinner was served to the visitors.
_____ 53- John was forgiven his lateness.
_____54- Mary was allowed a rest.
_____55- A holiday was proposed to Mary.
_____56- Julie was promised a present.
_____57-Some books were dispatched to Bill.
_____58- Harry was offered the job.
_____59-Karen was annoyed yesterday.
_____60-Thirty pounds were owed to Harry.
_____61-The visitors were served dinner.
_____62-Philip was thrown a ball.
_____63-A book was chosen for Betty.
_____64-Carol was read the report.
_____65-A table was reserved for Smiths.
_____66-Kevin was given a book.
_____67-A house was designed for Bill.
_____68-Mary was lent some money.
_____69-A rest was allowed for Mary.
_____70-John was sent a letter.

APPENDIX II

Sentence Construction Task

1- The teacher lend the students his notes.
2- He throw Philip a ball.
3- The doctor pledge the group his students.
4- They refuse John his request.
5- She deny Harry the chance of success.
6- They announce the whole family their engagement.
7- The bank transfer my account the money.
8- He give the garden a dig.
9- She teach children the piano.
10- She say Harry the answer.
11- Harry build his son a house.
12- Do you save Mary any chips?
13- She prepare her friends a Chinese meal.
14- Sally give John the record.
15- The professor leave the library all his books.
16- They lease the family a cottage.
17- They offer the man a job.
18- Mary forgive John his error.
19- The headmaster present John the prize.
20- He donate medical research his liver.
21- He give the car a wash.
22- He give the handle a pull.
23- They show Harry the photo.
24- I buy the girls a present.
25- John carve Mary a statue.
26- Harry order everyone a meal.
27- Sally accept John the prize.
28- The garage sell Bill an old Ford.
29- He read the audience an extract from his book.
30- The bank grant Bill a loan.
31- Mary promise her children a present.
32- I envy Mary her success.
33- We address Mary our comments.
34- They dispatched Mary the parcel.
35- He give the house a coat of paint.
36- He ask Bill a question.
37- They tell Bill a lie.
38- Mary cook John a pizza.
39- Can you spare my friend 1.00 pounds.
40- I reserve John a table.
41- The firm construct the school a swimming pool.

APPENDIX III

SOME ALTERNATING AND NONALTERNATING VERBS

1. Verbs which alternate

A. Native Stem

to	**for**
bring	bake
build	build
give	buy
grant	choose
hand	cook
lend	draw
offer	find
owe	get
pass	knit
pay	leave
promise*	make
read	order*
rent	paint
sell	play
send	save
serve	sew
sing	xerox*
show	etc
teach	
telex*	
tell	
etc.	

B. Problematic cases

advance
allot
assign
award
guarantee
?satellite
telegraph
telephone

2. Verbs which do not alternate

C. possession not involved
Only [NP PP] complements

answer
drive
make
open
owe
paint
prove
solve
stir
wash
etc.

D. Latinate verbs
Only [NP PP] complements

to	**for**
address	construct
announce	create
communicate	design
demonstrate	photocopy
donate	select
explain	etc.
recite	
repeat	
report	
return	
suggest	
transfer	

E. Prior or inalienable possession
(Only [NP PP] complements)
begrudge
charge
cost
deny
envy
excuse
fine
forgive
give
refuse
spare
wish
etc.

(Adapted from Mazurkewich and White, 1984, pp. 279-280)

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