ACQUISITION OF NON-NULL SUBJECT PARAMETER PROPERTIES IN ENGLISH BY SPEAKERS OF A NULL SUBJECT LANGUAGE, TURKISH

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ABSTRACT

ACQUISITION OF NON-NULL SUBJECT PARAMETER PROPERTIES IN ENGLISH BY SPEAKERS OF A NULL SUBJECT LANGUAGE, TURKISH

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The aim of this study is to answer the questions how the null subject parameter properties in Turkish are reorganized by Turkish learners of English and whether there is a relationship between the null subject parameter properties in acquiring them.

Firstly, a pilot study was conducted to detect possible inadequacy in data collecting methods. Following the pilot study, a main study was conducted in order to answer the research questions. Thirty-four intermediate and thirty-four upper-intermediate students from METU English Preparation Department participated in the study. Along with these two proficiency groups, a control group of native speakers also contributed to the study whose answers were taken as criteria in evaluating students' answers. Two types of tests were used: a 30-item grammaticality judgment test and a 17-item dialogue task. The test results were analyzed using a statistical program.

In the end, it was found that students acquire the properties independently and as their proficiency levels increase, the acquisition of those properties also increases. However, it was also seen that students were not able to acquire these properties which was thought to be a result of parametric difference between Turkish and English. In order to overcome these acquisition problems, some teaching techniques were suggested in the conclusion part.

Keywords: null subject parameter properties, pro-drop, second language acquisition

ÖZ

İNGİLİZCE'DEKİ BOŞ ÖZNE PARAMETRESİNE AİT OLMAYAN ÖZELLİKLERİN BOŞ ÖZNE DİLİ OLAN TÜRKÇE'Yİ KONUŞAN ÖĞRENCİLER TARAFINDAN EDİNİMİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, Türkçe'deki adıl-düşürme parametresi özelliklerinin İngilizce'yi ikinci dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrenciler tarafından nasıl düzenlendiği ve adıl-düşürme parametresi özelliklerinin edinimi arasında ne tür bir ilişkinin var olduğu sorularına cevap bulmaktır.

İlk olarak, veri toplama yöntemlerindeki olası yetersizlikleri önceden tespit etmek için bir ön çalışma yapılmıştır. Ön çalışmanın ardından, araştırma sorularının yanıtlarını bulmak için asıl çalışmaya geçilmiştir. Asıl çalışmaya 34 orta-düzey ve 34 üst-orta düzey yeterlilik seviye sınıflarında bulanan ODTÜ Hazırlık sınıfı öğrencileri katılmıştır. Bu iki yeterlilik grubunun yanında anadili İngilizce olan katılımcıların olduğu bir kontrol grubu da çalışmada yer almıştır. Kontrol grubunun testlere verdiği yanıtlar yeterlilik gruplarının yanıtlarını değerlendirmede bir ölçüt görevi görmüştür. Çalışmada iki çeşit veri toplama yöntemi kullanılmıştır: bir adet 30 maddelik dilbilgisi değerlendirme testi ile 17 maddelik diyalog tamamlama testi.

Test sonuçları istatiksel yöntemlere göre değerlendirilmiştir. Sonuçta, öğrencilerin adıl-düşürme parametresi özelliklerini birbirinden bağımsız bir biçimde edindikleri görülmüş ve öğrencilerin yeterlilik seviyeleri yükseldikçe, bu özelliklerin ediniminin de arttığı anlaşılmıştır. Ancak, Türkçe ve İngilizce dilleri arasındaki parametrik farktan dolayı öğrencilerin bu özellikleri tamamen edinemedikleri de görülmüştür. Bu edinim sorunlarının aşmak için sonuç kısmında bazı öğretim teknikleri önerilmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: boş özne parametresi özellikleri, adıl-düşürme, ikinci dil edinimi

To my family

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AGR: Agreement

CP: Complement Phrase

DT: Dialogue task

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

GJT: Grammaticality Judgment Test

INFL: Inflection

L1: First language, mother tongue

L2: Second Language

METU: Middle East Technical University

NP: Noun Phrase

NSP: Null Subject Parameter

S: Subject

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

UG: Universal Grammar

V: Verb

VP: Verb Phrase

***:** Ungrammatical

Ø: Null subject

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Presentation

In this chapter, a general background to the study will be given at first. Then, the research questions and the hypotheses of the study will be stated. Upon clarifying the aim, scope and the significance of the study, the limitations of the study will be explained. Following these, definition of terms used in the study will be provided. The chapter ends with explaining the structure of the study.

1.1 General Background to the Study

According to the Principles and Parameters framework proposed by Chomsky (1981, 1982), children acquire their first language via help of an innate Language Acquisition Device (LAD) which consists of Universal Grammar (UG). Chomsky proposes that the UG in LAD consists of two components: principles, linguistic properties which are universal for all languages and parameters, values of a principle which lead to cross-linguistic differences across languages.

Null subject parameter or Pro-drop parameter is one of those parameters which was proposed by Chomsky (1981) in which the term *pro* refers to the empty category of null subjects. According to Pro-drop parameter, in some languages

(in null subject languages) subject pronoun can be omitted in tensed clauses while it is required in the others (in non- null subject languages).

According to the Principles and Parameters framework, null subject use is related with some other syntactic properties of subject- verb inversion in declarative clauses, not having dummy subjects, and showing no *that*-trace effects. Haegeman and Gueron (1999, p.598) claim that these four syntactic properties are shared by all null subject languages. They also claim that these four properties arouse as a result of setting the null subject parameter as they are forming a cluster in opposition the view of those properties are acquired independently.

Second language acquisition studies, on that aspect, generally focus on whether these properties are the consequence of acquisition of null subject parameter or they are acquired independent from one another. They also focus on whether L1 has a role in the acquisition of L2, which is coded for the opposite of the null subject parameter value in L1 (White 1985, Liceras 1989, Lantolf 1990, Isabelli 1999, Bulut & Can 2000, Ellidokuzoğlu 2002, Lafond 2003, Banka 2006, Kırkıcı 2006).

This study is concerned with how non-null subject parameter properties in English are acquired by the speakers of a null subject language, Turkish. It seeks for an answer to the question of whether null subject parameter properties are acquired an independently or as a cluster. The study also tries to identify the role of L1 in acquiring L2.

1.2 Research Questions of the Study

The research questions are

(1) Are Turkish learners of English affected by the pro-drop parameter feature of Turkish when they are learning a non-pro-drop language, English?

(2) What is the relationship between learners' proficiency level and the resetting of NSP Properties?

The research hypotheses are:

H_0=

a) Turkish students are not affected by the pro-drop feature in their mother tongue in acquiring a non-pro-drop language, English.

b) Learners' proficiency levels do not interfere with the acquisition of null subject parameter properties.

c) There is no relationship among pro-drop parameter properties in terms of re-organizing them. e.g. re-organizing one property does not facilitate resetting the other one.

1.3 The Aim and Scope of the Study

The aims of the study are to explore the possible answers to the question of how the null subject parameter properties are re-organized by Turkish learners of English and to identify the nature of resetting of pro-drop parameter properties.

The study includes two experimental groups whose proficiency levels are intermediate and upper-intermediate and a control group of native speakers of

English. The data gathered from Turkish learners of English and native speakers of English is compared to one another to find out to what extent learners can adjust to the non-pro-drop parameter properties in English. It is also in the scope of this study to find out whether learners are affected by the pro-drop parameter properties in their mother tongue, Turkish, while they are learning English.

1.4 The Significance of the study

The main impetus in deciding to conduct this study comes from Turkish primary school students' written compositions. It is observed by the researcher that low proficiency Turkish students, who are learning English as a foreign language in a state school, often fail to insert an overt subject pronoun in their sentences. They also avoid using dummy subjects like *it* and *there*. Although Turkish is a null subject language like Spanish and Italian and although English is taught as a foreign language in Turkey, there are not many studies dealing with the acquisition of obligatory subject use in English by Turkish learners. In addition to these, the pedagogical aspect of acquiring a language which has a different set of properties from mother tongue is one of the main concerns of this study.

The interpretation of the results of this study may provide some basic insights for language teachers which can be used in EFL classrooms to facilitate the acquisition of English. It is expected that the results will be beneficial for the EFL classrooms in Turkey.

1.5 Limitations of the Study

The study was limited with the intermediate and upper-intermediate level students. An advance-level group of Turkish learners of English may also be included in this study in order to observe and follow the acquisition of NSP in the advance levels of English. It would be also possible to identify whether *that*-trace property is acquired at the end or not as Towell and Hawkins (1994:116) argued if such a group were to be included.

The other limitation of the study is related with the tests used. In the study, a grammaticality judgment test and a dialogue task were used to gather data. Different tests or tasks apart from these tests could also be used to collect data. For instance, students' written compositions which reflect a compile of students' production could also be collected and analyzed in this study

1.6 Definition of terms

AGR (Agreement)	The person and number feature complex in finite INFL**.**
Clustering	Is a group of superficially unrelated structures around the specific value of a given parameter.(Ellidokuzoğlu 2002, 21)
Empty Category	In Syntax, it refers to any node without phonological content. It is usually indicated as *e* or *ec*.

Expletive/Dummy	grammatical element having no semantic content.
EPP (Extended Projection Principle)	principle which states that clauses must have subjects.
INFL	functional head containing (in English) auxiliaries and/or tense and/or agreement features.
(NSP)Null subject Parameter	The parameter in which subject pronoun is not required in finite clauses. Languages like Italian, Spanish and Turkish show the properties of this parameter.
NSP properties	The properties associated with the null subject parameter. It is assumed that null subject parameter languages share common syntactic properties which can be stated as the use of null subject in tensed clauses, subject-verb inversion, not using dummy subjects and showing no *that*-trace effect.
PRO (big pro)	It is a pronoun without phonetic properties which is the subject of (e.g.) infinitivals. `E.x.:` in (i) PRO is the subject of to win. (i) John tried [PRO to win].
Pro (small pro)	Pronoun without phonetic properties. It is used as a subject in finite clauses in pro-drop languages.
Pro-drop	In 'pro-drop' or 'null-subject' languages, such as Italian, a pronominal subject may be phonetically

	null in tensed sentences. It is generally assumed that in such cases, the subject is the element pro, and that this pro is licensed by the verbal inflection. (Rizzi 1982, Jaeggli & Safir 1989).
Trace	According to the trace theory, when an element X has been moved in the course of a derivation, it has left a trace in its original position. Traces should be governed.In the example (i), *John* is moved while leaving a trace t.(i) $John_i$ seems [t_i to have left]
That-trace effect	The phenomenon that the complementizer (*that*) cannot be followed by a trace (except in relative clauses) in some languages (e.g. English). Thus, in languages showing the *that*-t(race) effect, a subject cannot be extracted when it follows *that*.

(Definitions are adapted from the website: http://w3.ugrenoble3.fr/lebarbe/Linguistic_Lexicon, on September 20, 2008.)

1.7 The structure of the thesis

The structure of the thesis is as follows: the origin of pro-drop parameter is described in the second chapter. The nature of *pro* and *PRO* is explained. Then the pro-drop parameter properties are explained and illustrated in general. In chapter three, English and Turkish are analyzed with respect to the pro-drop parameter properties with examples. Chapter three begins with the nature of

Pro-drop Parameter Properties in English and ends with the Pro-drop Parameter Properties in Turkish. In chapter four, the acquisition of pro-drop parameter is explained by referring to the studies in the SLA literature. Firstly, studies on acquiring a non-Pro-drop language are explained, and then studies on acquiring a Pro-drop language are explained. Chapter five is about the methodology of the thesis. In this chapter, the results of the tests is displayed and analyzed for each Pro-drop Parameter Property. In chapter six, the results of the tests is evaluated and discussed. Chapter seven, the conclusion part presents a pedagogical perspective for the acquisition of null subject parameter properties and includes suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER II.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Presentation

In this chapter, the history of pro-drop parameter is explained briefly by referring to PRO and small *pro.* Then, properties related to this parameter are touched upon by giving examples from pro-drop languages like Spanish and Italian.

2.1 Pro-drop Parameter

It has been one of the main concerns of linguistics why some languages permit subjects of tensed clauses to be null and other languages do not. For instance while English does not permit a null subject in a tensed clause in 2.2a and b, Turkish does (2.1a and b).

2.1

a)*pro*	Ev-e	Gel-eceğ-im.
(I/)	home-dat	come-future-1stsing
Ben	Ev-e	Gel-eceğ-im.
I	home-dat	come-future-1stsing
“I	will come	home”

b) *pro* Bizim Ev-e Gid-elim Mi?

(We)our house-dat go-shall-3rdpl? Interrogative particle.
"Shall we go our house?"

2.2

a)* __ Will come home
b) *Shall__ go our house?

Chomsky (1981) claims that sentences like 2.1a and b contain a structurally present but phonetically empty pronominal element called *pro*. The languages which permit the use of *pro* in tensed clauses are called *pro-drop* or *null subject* languages such as Spanish, Italian and Turkish, and the ones which do not permit are labeled *non-pro-drop* or *non-null-subject* languages such as English, French. Chomsky put forward the pro-drop/null subject parameter to account for the cross-linguistic variation among languages with respect to subject pronoun *pro* omission in tensed clauses. This cross-linguistic variation is also called the AGR/PRO parameter (Hyams, 1986, 87), the Null Argument Parameter (Hyams, 1994b), the AGR Strength parameter (Speas, 1994) or the Overt Expletive Parameter (Kim, 1993).

Chomsky (1981) stated that pro-drop languages are separated from non-pro-drop languages by the characteristics they share. According to him and researchers like Jespersen 1924, Perlmutter 1971, and Taraldsen 1978, many pro-drop languages have a rich inflectional system. Chomsky (1981) thought that this rich inflectional system which depends on subject-verb AGR and INFL, allows the recovery of the subject and therefore null subjects in tensed clauses. He also offered some certain characteristic of pro-drop languages which will be discussed in the next section.

As has been stated, the term *pro* refers to the empty category of phonologically null subjects. However, there is no consensus on the characteristics of the

'pro-drop' parameter and how the missing subject in tensed-clauses is recovered in pro-drop languages. In the next section, early proposals regarding this parameter will be explained.

2.1.1 Attempts at Identifying the Pro-drop Parameter

2.1.1.1 First Proposals for PRO and pro

In syntactic theorizing, empty categories which are supposed to be syntactically present but phonetically null, have been a main focus. An empty element is present whenever a θ-role is assigned even if the corresponding position contains no lexical material (Gürel, 2002). Linguists have tried to identify the syntactic properties of empty categories, especially 'small pro'. Taraldsen (1978) claimed that null subjects are empty Noun Phrases (NPs) bound in S' by subject-verb agreement in which a missing subject is allowed due to the rich inflectional system. See 2.3 as an example for the use of small *pro* in Spanish

2.3

a) [NP e]	comeni	a las	diez.	
	Eat-3rdplu	at ten	o'clock.	
'They	eat	at ten	o'clock'	-Spanish

Lafond (2001), 14.

Jaeggli (1980), Chomsky (1981), and Suner(1982) also emphasized the role of rich inflectional systems in pro-drop languages. However, they proposed that the null element was not an empty NP but rather an empty element (PRO) posited by Government and Binding theory (GB, Chomsky, 1981) for control constructions in which a non-finite verb had a null subject.

The Pro-drop parameter was firstly accounted for in a rule-based manner. Jaeggli (1980) and Chomsky (1981) thought that both pro-drop and non-pro-drop languages exhibit a rule of affix movement in which INFL is attached to the first verbal element at the level of phonetic form (PF) as shown in 2.4.

2.4

INFL V→ V + INFL

Lafond (2001),14

The rule above does not leave any trace and it applies in the phonological component of the grammar in non-pro-drop languages, producing the structure in 2.5, where NP is governed by INFL:

2.5

NP' INFL' VP

Lafond (2001),15

In this structure, PRO is not visible because the subject position is governed by INFL, and therefore PRO is not governed. However, rule 2.4 can apply not only in the phonological component, but also, optionally in the syntax in pro-drop languages. When the subject pronoun is used in a sentence in a pro-drop language, the sentence surfaces with the structure 2.5, Nominative Case assignment applying to the NP governed by INFL.

When the subject pronoun is omitted, and 2.4 applies in the syntax, then 2.6 becomes the structure in which subject NP is not governed by INFL and therefore it must be filled by PRO.

2.6

NP' $[_{VP}$ V + INFL'…]

The structure in pro-drop languages

Lafond (2001),15

According to Chomsky (1981) the minimal dummy allowed in pro-drop languages is PRO, as in rule in 2.7.

2.7

[PRO'	[VP	[VP telefon +	INFL']	Gianni']]	
Telefonera	Gianni				
"Gianni	will	call"			Italian

Lafond (2001), 16

The structure above satisfies both the requirement that PRO should be ungoverned and it also allows the post-verbal subject to receive Nominative case for the fact that it is governed by INFL.

Chomsky (1982) proposed a separate empty category of *pro* for several reasons, including: (1) obligatory fronting of the verb in Spanish questions would place PRO in a governed position (which is not possible); (2) unlike PRO, the missing subject in tensed clauses cannot normally be arbitrary in reference; and (3) positing a *pro* category like that would eliminate rule 2.4 which can apply in the syntax in pro-drop languages.

For these reasons, empty categories[1] are distinguished from one another in GB theory. The categories are distinguished from each other with respect to

[1] Empty category: (Chomsky, 1981, p. 330)
1. An empty category (α) is a variable iff it is locally A'-bound and is in A-position.
2. If α is not a variable, then it is an anaphor.

movement (resulting in a trace) and referential features. NP traces[2] and variables[3] are empty categories which are resulting from movement of a constituent in syntactic structures.

However, PRO and small *pro* do not occur in a sentence due to a movement of a constituent. PRO (a pronominal anaphor) is considered to be an empty element which is the subject of a non-finite clause. According to GB's principles of Binding Theory, PRO must be both bound and free in its governing category [+pronominal, +anaphoric]. Since it is not possible to be both bound and free, PRO must be ungoverned.

2.8

$Harold_i$ wanted PRO_i to see the doctor.

2.9

$Sarah_i$ hoped PRO_i to find a new job.

Lafond (2001), 17

In contrast to PRO, the empty category of small *pro*, which is also proposed by Chomsky (1982), is the subject of finite clauses and it has full the referential features that a personal pronoun would have; it is a pronominal non-anaphor [+pronominal, -anaphoric]. It is free in its local domain, not bound.

---

3. α is pronominal iff it is free or locally A-bound by an antecedent (β) with an independent θ-role.

[2] A Trace is an empty category resulting from syntactic movement. According to trace theory, if an element X has been moved in the course of a derivation, it has left a trace in its original position.

[3] A variable is an empty element, such as a wh-trace, or a trace of °QR, which must be A'-bound by an operator. Please look at Table 1 on page 7 for further properties.

All the notes are taken from the web site: http://w3.u-grenoble3.fr/lebarbe/Linguistic_Lexicon/ on January 19, 2008.

2.10

pro	baila	bien
	Dance-3rdsg	well
'She	dances	well'

(Spanish, from Jaeggli 1982, cited in Lafond (2001), 17)

In sentence 2.10, GB assumes that there is an empty subject as the GB theory states that sentences have subjects (Extended Projection Principle, Chomsky 1981) regardless of whether or not they are visible. In sentence 2.10, EPP is satisfied covertly, by the existence of an empty category.

According to GB, the typology of Empty categories is as follows:

Table 1 Typology of Empty Categories (from Gürel, 2002)

Features	*Overt elements*	*Empty elements*
[+anaphor,-pronominal]	anaphor	(N)oun (P)hrase-trace
[-anaphor,+pronominal]	pronoun	pro
[+anaphor,+pronominal]	_____	PRO
[-anaphor,-pronominal]	R-expressions	Wh-trace

Anaphors, pronouns and R-expressions are subject to Binding Theory principles[4], A, B, and C, respectively. An anaphor and R-expressions, which are non pronominal, are traces created by A and Ā movement respectively.

[4] Binding Theory: subtheory of Government and Binding Theory (GB) that deals with thereferential properties of NPs.(Chomsky, 1981,1982,1986)
Principle A: An anaphor is bound in its governing category.
Principle B: A Pronominal is free in its governng category.
Principle C: An R-expression is free.

Pronominals like *pro* and *PRO* are non-traces. *pro* is pure pronominal and it occurs in tensed sentences and it only exists in pro-drop languages. Therefore, it is not universal across languages. *PRO*, on the other hand, is a pronominal and it is universal across languages. It occurs in non-finite sentences (Gürel, 2002).

2.1.1.2 Other proposals for pro-drop

As understood from the early proposals for pro-drop, agreement features governing the empty category were satisfactory to allow covert subjects in tensed clauses.

In other words, rich inflection and verbal agreement were considered to be enough for the licensing of null subjects in pro-drop languages. It was thought that *pro* can be identified via verbal agreement and rich inflection.

On the other hand, Rizzi (1986) claimed that *pro* must be both licensed and identified. He emphasized that there are contexts where *pro* appears though it is not identified by rich agreement. Licensing via verbal agreement may not be so explanatory in some situations. For these reasons, he differentiated licensing from identification. While licensing means the sanctioning of a given constituent (allowing a subject position to be phonologically null), identification refers to the way the interpretation of empty categories is determined when only implicit null subjects are used (Lafond, 2001). To illustrate, a language may choose INFL to license *pro* in subject position. On the other hand, licensing would be prohibited in another language altogether. Thus, the heads to license *pro* in subject position would vary cross-linguistically in which a language may allow all heads to license *pro* or disallow licensing completely.

For identification, Rizzi argued that if INFL is specified for the agreement feature for person, then referential *pro* is allowed; however, the identification procedure is optional. For instance, languages like German do not allow referential null subjects though their INFL is specified for person. Namely, they are not pro-drop though verbs in German are inflected for person. In other languages like Spanish, null subject will have a grammatical specification of features on its INFL. Thus, *pro* is both licensed and identified.

To sum up, according to Rizzi (1982):

(i) Null subjects are licensed under head government. A null subject position is governed by the head INFL.
(ii) The content of *pro* is recovered by the rich agreement property.

Rizzi's proposal may be true for languages like Spanish and Italian whose null subjects in finite clause are identified by person inflectional affixes on verbs and are governed under head INFL. However, it cannot account for languages like Chinese, Japanese, and Korean which have no inflection on verb though they allow null subjects (Huang, 1989). According to Huang, the null arguments (2.11a and b) are optional in Chinese.

2.11a

Zhangsan	kanjian	Lisi	le ma?
Zhangsan	see	Lisi	Asp Q
'Did	Zhangsan	see	Lisi?'

2.11b

(ta)	kanjian	(ta)	le.
He	see	him	Perf.
'(He)	saw	him'	

Huang 1989:194 (cited in Lafond, 2001; 25)

The accounts of pro-drop that rely on local licensing and identification cannot solve the problem of null subjects in Chinese. For this situation, Huang proposes a generalized control theory with the notion of control domain defined in Manzini (1983) and Nishigauchi (1984):

> Generalized Control Rule
> An empty pronominal is controlled in its local domain (if it has one).
> α is the control domain for β iff it is the minimal category that satisfies both (a) and (b).
>
> a. α is the lowest S or NP that contains (i) β, or (ii) the minimal maximal category containing β.
>
> b. α contains a SUBJECT accessible to β.

In his analysis, Huang treats PRO and pro the same and states that they must have a 'local, unique, non-arbitrary antecedent'. This rule is valid when the empty category has a control domain. In such a situation, reference may involve long-distance antecedents, arbitrary reference or even pragmatic considerations.

To him, when it is allowed, its reference is either free(when there is no controller) or determined (when it has a control domain and is controlled in that domain). (Lafond 2001, 26)

Up to now, licensing and identification of pro have been attributed to the inflectional (morphological) properties of language. The idea is if a verb is inflected for tense and person, then the subject need not be overtly present. However, Far-East languages do not confirm the validity of this idea. To

account for this phenomenon, Jaeggli and Saffir (1989) have contributed to the issue with a new explanation. According to Morphological Uniformity Principle, "null subjects are permitted in all and only in languages with morphologically uniform inflectional paradigms" p.29.

They state that for a language to allow null subjects in finite clauses, either all verbs are morphologically inflected or none of them are. This principle is put forward to provide an account for null subjects in Far-East languages like Chinese, Japanese, and Korean which at the same time lack rich agreement system. According to this principle, English does not allow null subjects because while some of its verbs are inflected (3rd person singular in Present Tense), others are not.

To sum up, researchers have not reached on a consensus regarding to the reason of pro-drop parameter. However, it is implied that there is a relationship between verbal inflection and pro-drop parameter. In this study, Chomskian view of pro-drop which says 'languages that have rich verbal inflection allow null subjects' is preferred. Because, the pro-drop language in this study, Turkish, fits to this view. It allows null subject use as it has rich verbal inflection.

2.2 Pro-drop Parameter Properties

Chomsky (1981) argued that along with the properties of allowing null subjects and a rich inflectional system(Jespersen 1924, Perlmutter 1971, Taraldsen 1978), the pro-drop parameter also has some other syntactic properties. These properties of pro-drop languages also distinguish them from non-pro-drop languages. The characteristics of the pro-drop parameter are the use of null subjects both in finite matrix and embedded sentences, free subject-verb

inversion, absence of that-trace effects, and lack of lexical pleonastic subjects (Chomsky 1981, Jaeggli 1982, Rizzi 1982). While [+null subject] languages like Spanish and Italian are assumed to permit null subjects and verb-subject inversion, show no that-trace effects, and disallow expletive *it*, [-null subject] languages like English and French do not allow null pronouns but allow lexical pleonastic (dummy) pronouns, they show that-trace effect but they do not allow subject-verb inversion in declarative sentences. Each property is described below on the basis of Italian or Spanish, or English sample sentences.

2.2.1 Property 1: allowing *pro* in tensed clauses (omission of subject in tensed clause)

As mentioned before, in Italian, the empty category of *pro* is allowed in subject positions in tensed clauses (2.12a) but in English *pro* is not allowed (2.12b).

2.12

a.	ø	ho	travato	il	libro.
		Have-1st sing	find-part-pst	the	book
'I		have	found	the	book.'

b. *ø have found the book.

Lafond, 2001,12

2.2.2 Property 2: S-V Inversion in Declarative Clauses (Free subject-verb inversion)

In a pro-drop language like Italian, an overt definite subject can occupy a post-verbal position (2.13) which is not possible in a non-pro-drop language like English (2.14).

2.13

ha	telefonato	sua	moglie
Have-3rdsing	telephone-part-pst	your	wife
'Your	wife	has	telephoned'

2.14

*There/ it has telephoned your wife

Haegeman & Gueron, 1999;598

Haegeman& Gueron (1999) claim that property 2 is related with property 1(null subject use in pro-drop) and 4(lack of expletive *it* in pro-drop) for the reason that sentences with a post-verbal subject have a non-overt expletive in the subject position which has a non-referential value. In sentence 2.15, null expletive occupies the subject position in an inverted sentence.

2.15

(null expletive) ø	ha	telefonato	sua	moglie
	Have-3rdsing	telephone-part-pst	your	wife
	'Your	wife	has	telephoned'

Haegeman & Gueron, 1999;59

2.2.3 Property 3: violations of that-trace in pro-drop languages (that-trace effect)

In Italian, the subject of an embedded clause can move from [Spec, AGRP] across the overt complementizer *che* corresponding to English *that* in 2.16a. In English, a clause cannot contain both a complementizer *that* and a trace as seen in 2.16b.

2.16

a. **Chi** credi **che** abbia telefonato?
who you believe that have (subjunctive) telephoned?
'Who do you think has telephoned?'

b. ***Who**$_i$ do you think **that** t_i has telephoned?

c. Who do you think has telephoned?

Haegeman & Gueron, 1999;601

Haegeman & Gueron (1999) put forward an explanation for the existence of *that* and trace in the same clause in Italian by depending on the syntactic features of that language. They think that property 2 (S-V inversion) and 3 are interrelated with each other. As stated before, S-V inversion is possible in Italian in which expletive 'pro' is assumed to occupy the subject position. Sentence 2.17a has two possible alternations:

2.17

a. Chi credi che abbia telefonato?
b. Chi credi che _____ abbia telefonato?
c. Chi credi che abbia telefonato _____?
'Who do you think has telephoned?'

Haegeman & Gueron, 1999;601

In 3.7b, ‘chi’ (who) comes from the preverbal position (before ‘abbia’) and in 3.7c, ‘chi’ (who) comes from the postverbal position (after ‘abbia’) which is possible in Italian due to the property of S-V inversion. Thus, it can also be hypothesized that the extraction is formed from the postverbal subject position, 2.17c. So, Haegeman & Gueron (1999) state that Italian is not violating the constraint that avoids extracting material from a position immediately right of a complementizer. The difference is that Italian has non-overt pronominal filler for the subject position which fills the empty category occurring on the right of the complementizer ‘che’ (property 2, S-V inversion). The trace is in the postverbal position as it can be seen in sentence 2.18.

2.18

a.Chi credi che pro_i abbia telefonato t_i?

Haegeman & Gueron, 1999;601

As property 2 and 3 are lacking in English and also subject movement must only occur in the canonical position, the subject of an embedded clause cannot be extracted in English without proper government.

b. ***Who**$_i$* do you think **that** t_i has telephoned?

2.2.4 Property 4: the lack of expletive (pleonastic) pronouns in pro-drop languages

Expletive subjects are not used in pro-drop languages like Italian but they are used in non-pro-drop languages like English.

2.19

a. ø ha piovuto

ø Has-3rdsing-pst rain-prt-pst

(It) has rained

2.20

It has rained

Haegeman & Gueron, 1999;599

According to Haegeman & Gueron (1999), the reason for not using the expletive *it* Italian is the Principle of Economy which disallows the use of unnecessary or redundant elements in a sentence. In Italian, the weather word *it* cannot be contrastively stressed or focused and therefore it becomes redundant and it is not used. They argue that this property also cooperates with property 1, which allows null subjects in tensed clauses. Namely, the empty category of expletive pro is used in weather sentences in Italian.

English, on the other hand, allows the use of expletive *it* firstly due to the Extended Projection Principle, which states that all sentences must have a subject and secondly, it cannot assign a null category like *pro* in tensed clauses and consequently, it should use an overt subject whether it is semantically null or not.

Several researchers do not agree on the properties that constitute the parameter. Table.2 below summarizes the perspectives about pro-drop parameter clusters (White, 1989: 86)

Table 2 Properties of the Prodrop Parameter

	[+prodrop](Spanish, Italian)	**[-prodrop] (English)**
Version 1	Null subjects	*Lexical subjects*
Assumed by	No pleonastic pronouns	*Pleonastic pronouns*
Chomsky 1981	Rich verbal agreement	*No Rich agreement*
Phinney 1987	Subject-Verb inversion in	*No Subject-Verb inversion*
Rizzi 1982	declarative sentences	*in declarative sentences*
White 1985	That-trace sequences	*No That-trace sequences*
Liceras 1988		
Version 2[5]	Null subjects	*Lexical subjects*
Assumed by	No pleonastic pronouns	*Pleonastic pronouns*
Hyams 1986	Auxiliaries and main verbs	*Auxiliaries are distinct*
Hilles 1986	form one category	*from main verbs*

[5] Another property distinguishing pro-drop languages from non-pro-drop ones was suggested by Hyams and Hilles (1986). Hyams calls the pro-drop AGR/PRO parameter in which AGR is a pronominal that licenses as empty category in the subject position of finite clauses (Hyams, 1986:54). On that aspect, she suggests that modals and auxiliaries have a role in distinguishing pro-drop languages from non-pro-drop ones. She gives examples from pro-drop languages, Spanish and Italian, in which modals behave syntactically and morphologically the same as main verbs. In English, on the other hand, modals do not have verbal morphology and they do not behave the same as main verbs. Hyams (1987) states that:

[…] in English, the modals are generated in AUX, while *have* and *be* may raise into AUX from their base-generated position in the VP (Edmonds, 1976). In Italian and Spanish, on the other hand, the modals *potere* (can) and *dovere* (must) are main verbs-specifically raising verbs (cf. Rizzi, 1976; Burzio, 1981), while the auxiliaries *avere* (have) and *essere* (be) form a verbal complex within the main verb inside the VP. […] In Italian, however, the modals and auxiliaries may raise into INFL (and hence undergo inversion) just in case AG is absent. Thus, certain, striking differences in the auxiliary systems of pro-drop and non-pro-drop languages follow as an effect of the AG/PRO parameter."p.8.

Cited in Ayoun, 2003: 81.

In short, while an auxiliary and a main verb constitute a single category in Spanish and Italian, they are separate in English.

It has become a problem for researchers to decide which properties should be included in the pro-drop parameter. As it can be seen in Table.2, researchers supporting two different versions only agreed on the existence of null subjects (the empty category of *pro*) and the lack of the use of pleonastic (dummy) pronouns in pro-drop languages.

In present study, the main focus will be on pro-drop parameter properties of null subject use, subject-verb inversion in declarative sentences, no expletive (pleonastic pronoun) use and *that*-trace sequences. Version 2 is provided in order to display other related opinions about pro-drop parameter properties.

2.3 The Pro-drop Parameter Properties in English and Turkish

In this section, English and Turkish are compared with respect to the pro-drop parameter properties, null subject usage, subject-verb inversion in declarative clauses, the use of expletives, and the *that*-trace effect. Recall that English is a non-pro-drop language while Turkish is a pro-drop one.

2.3.1 The Pro-Drop Parameter Properties in English

2. 3.1.1 The use of null subjects in English

As English is a non-pro-drop language, it allow the subject of a finite clause to remain overt. However, in Turkish, the subject of a finite clause can be null or covert, which is assumed to be due to the rich inflectional system on verbs in Turkish.

Examples for matrix clauses are given below.

2.21

a.S/he bought a car.

b.* Ø bought a car.

Examples for embedded clauses are given in sentence 2.22.

2.22

a. Ali bought a nice car after he had sold his house.

b.*Ali bought a nice car after Ø had sold his house.

Nevertheless, there are some situations in which the subject is allowed to be null in English.

1. In Imperatives: Although the subject is not overtly used in English imperatives, there is a hidden *you* in them.

2.23

a. You come here!

b. Come here!

2. In truncations (in colloquial English, diary style speech *I, you, he, we, they* are omitted if it is in the first position.)

2.24

a. I can't find my shoes.

b. can't find my shoes.

c. *Why do always lose things?

In 2.24c, subject truncation is not possible for the fact that the sentences is not in its canonical order.

3. In English, PRO can occur as the subject of non-finite sentences as in 2.25a.

2.25

a. I am sorry [PRO to have kept you waiting]

b. I am sorry [*I* have kept you waiting]

Radford (2004), 92.

4. The subject can be omitted in the expression as in example 2.26.

2.26

(I) thank You.

Curme (1947), 101

2.3.1.1.1 Null subject use in embedded clauses in English

In this section, null subject use or subject pronoun omission in embedded clauses will be dealt with in order to contrast it with Turkish.

In English, subject pronoun omission does not occur in simple clauses except for the situations mentioned above. A simple sentence requires its subject pronoun even if the subject pronoun of that simple sentence has been mentioned in the discourse before.

2.27

a. Mary	does not like	dogs.	She	is	allergic to	them.
b.*Mary	does not like	dogs.	Ø	is	allergic to	them.

An embedded clause is a result of the syntactic process of subordination in which clauses are put together one inside the other to make complex sentences (Newby, 1971:70). A subordinate clause is a part of its matrix clause (superordinate clause if there are more than two sentences that are combined);

therefore, it is a complement of its matrix clause. Subordinate or embedded clauses cannot stand alone.

2.28

Matrix clause	did	remember	his	subordinate/embedded	I	saw	him.]]
[I	not		name	clause[until			

Subordinate clauses have some features as follows (Huddleston, 1988:152-3):

a) They have a subordinator which occurs at the beginning of a subordinate clause. Some of them are:

although, because, since, as, even though, despite the fact that, that*, whether……or*, until*, before*, after, so….that, such…..that*, once, unless, when(ever), where(ever)…'

Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985: 998-9

b) They can be non-finite as well as finite; as such they can have a non-tensed verb and they may also differ in the form of the subject. Compare these sentences:

2.29

a. John decided that he would go to Ankara.
b. John decided going to Ankara.

2.30

a. Whether he is right or wrong, he always comes off worst in anger
b. Whether right or wrong, he always comes off worst in anger

Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik 1985: 996

* These subordinators are used in the grammaticality judgment test (See Appendix C).

In sentence 2.29b, the subject of the subordinate clause and the tense are omitted and the verb of the subordinate clause is made non-finite by *–ing* and it became a participial phrase in 2.29b (Lester, 1971).

In sentence 2.30b, the subject and the verb are deleted together to make the clause non-finite.

However, it would be ungrammatical to delete only the subject pronouns in the embedded clauses, 2.29a and 2.30a, and leaving it finite.

2.29

c. *John decided that ø would go to Ankara.

2.30

c. *Whether ø is right or wrong, he always comes off worst in anger

Subject pronoun deletion or omission is accompanied either by the nominalization of the verb of the subordinate clause (2.29b) or it also leads to verb-deletion in the subordinate clause (2.30b).

In cases where the subject is omitted by making the verb nominal by *–ing* or the infinitive *to*, PRO occupies the missing subject position.

2.31

a. John decided that he would go to Ankara.

b. John decided [PRO going to Ankara.]

c. John decided [PRO to go to Ankara.]

Lester (1971) calls that process 'subject NP deletion rule' and formalizes it in this way:

Main Verb ∩ NP ∩ [*to/-ing*] → Main Verb ∩ [*to/-ing*]

Lester (1971:196)

In these examples, the subject of the main clause and the embedded clause are the same. Namely, the subject of the main clause is the referent of the subject in the embedded clause.

The situation is different in Turkish which will be discussed in the next section.

2.3.1.2 Subject- Verb Inversion in Declarative Sentences.

In English, an overt definite subject cannot occupy a post-verbal position.

2.32

a. Ann	telephoned	your	sister.
b.* telephoned	your	sister	Ann.

Inversion is associated with fronting of an element. There are two kinds of inversion: reversal of subject and verb, and reversal of subject and operator in English.

3. 3.1.2.1 Subject-verb inversion

In English, the subject of a sentence can occur at the end after the verb in order to achieve end focus on the subject.

2.33

a. Especially	remarkable	was	her	oval	face.
b. Faint	grew	the sound	of	the	bell.
c In a distant	grave	lies	his	beloved	body.

Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik 1985:1380

This inversion above is done for stylistic purposes. In ordinary speech, inversion is more common.

2.34

a. Here	is	the milkman.	sister.	
b. There	is	the book	I	want.
c. Up	went	the flag.		

Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik 1985:1380

In the inverted sentences containing *here/there+ be,* there occurs a sharp difference if SVO order is preferred over the inverted one. Compare these sentences below.

2.35

Sentence				**Meaning**
a. Here	is	the milkman.		*He has come at last.*
b. The	milkman	is here	-at the door.	*Shall I get some milk?*
c. There	is	the book	I want	*I have been looking for it all the week.*
d. The book	is	there.		*-On the table.*

Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik 1985:1380

As it can be deduced from those examples with *here/there+ be,* the meaning changes to a *locative* one rather than an emphatic one if canonical sentence structure is used.

In reporting clauses where the object represents direct speech and where the subject is not a personal pronoun, Subject-verb inversion occurs with fronted object.

2.36

‘ Please go away’ said the child.

Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik 1985:1380

2. 3.1.2.2 Subject-operator[6] inversion

There are four instances in which the operator precedes the subject.

a) In elliptical clauses with initial *so* or the negatives *neither* or *nor.*

2.37

a. She was angry *so was I*

b. She was not angry *neither was I*

---

[6] Operator :SEMANTICS: a logical constant (O) which is (usually) prefixed to a Formula phi in order to produce a new formula Ophi. The interpretation of this formula is a compositional function of the interpretation of phi. Negation is a truth-functional operator, which operates on the truth value of the proposition it is combined with. Modal operators (like necessarily) and tense operators (like it has been the case that) are not truth functional, because their interpretation does not solely depend on the truth value of the formula with which they combine, but also on the possible world or moment of time with respect to which the whole sentence is evaluated. Chomsky, N. (1981), Gamut, L.T.F. (1991)

retrieved from the web address: http://www2.let.uu.nl/Uil-OTS/Lexicon/, on July 3rd, 2008.

If the focus is required to be on the operator rather than the subject, then initial *so* in elliptical clauses may be followed by a normal order.

2.38

You asked me to leave and SO I DID

b) S-op inversion occurs when a phrase of a negative form or meaning is fronted.

2.39

a. Least of all	is	it	in our interest	to open	negotiations	now.
b. Only in this way	is	it	possible	to explain	their	actions.

Quirk, et al. 1985:1382

Inversion is also possible with the object phrase of a negative form or meaning as well as with adverbials.

2.40

a. <u>Not a single book</u>	had	he	read	that	month.
b. <u>Only one more night</u>	will	I	stay.		

Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik 1985:1380

c) It occurs in comparative clauses when the subject is not a personal pronoun.

2.41

Oil costs less than would atomic energy.

Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik 1985:1380

With *as,* if there is no correlative as, inversion is possible with a pronoun subject.

2.42

They go to concerts frequently <u>as do I.</u>

d) Finally, it occurs in subordinate clauses of condition and concession, especially in rather formal usage.

2.43

a.	she	alive	today,	she	would grieve	at
Were						changes.
b.	had	the	been	we	wouldn't have	
Even	will	building	open,		entered.	

Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik 1985:1382

As it can be seen above, inversion in English is generally a matter of stylistic choice and change of focus in utterances. Unlike Turkish, instead of the main verb, copula be or auxiliary verb is reversed with the subject in English (2.39 and 2.40a,b, respectively). The main verb cannot solely come at the beginning of the sentence; generally it is preceded by an AP (2.33a and b) or PP (2.33c).

2.3.1.3 Expletives *it* and *there*:

The expletives in English are *it* and *there*. They allow the manipulation of sentences in a variety of ways (Kolln, 1982:120).

2. 3.1.3.1 Expletive *it*

Expletive it has two major uses.

1. *It* as a personal pronoun: *It* replaces a third person singular noun with a non-human reference.

2.44.

a. The car skidded on ice.

b. It skidded on ice.

Nelson, 2001:65

2. It is also used in expressions related to the weather and to time.

2.45

a. It is windy.

b. It is six o'clock.

c. It is getting late.

Nelson, 2001:65

In this thesis, the use of *it* in second example will be in focus. This use of *it* is called empty *it* or dummy *it* as it does not refer to anything in particular as it does in its former usage in 1.

Dummy *it* is used in cleft sentences which divide a simple clause in two clauses in order to emphasize the particular constituent of that sentence as in example 2.46b.

2.46

a. Simon studied English last night.

b. It was Simon who studied English last night.

Here, the subject of the original sentence, Simon, is emphasized in the cleft sentence and it becomes the *focus* of that sentence. Cleft sentences are introduced by *it.*

In cleft sentences, the superordinate sentence, which has the dummy subject *it*, contains the highlighted element as complement to *be*, the predicate. The subordinate clause of a cleft sentence is generally in the form of relative clause.

2.47

a. Becker	beat	Lendll	in the Wimbledon final.
b. It	was	Becker	Who beat Lendll in the Wimbledon final.

Huddleston,1988:185

Dummy *it* is also used in subject position in the structures which postpones the subject of a clause to the end and uses *it* as a subject instead. This structure is called extraposition for the fact that the postponed clause is *extra-posed* (literally 'placed outside'). It can be described as postposition as it is placed after (Bloor &Bloor, 1995:166).

2.48

a.	James	failed	his	is not		
That			exams	surprising.		
b. It	is not		that	James	failed	his exams.
		surprising				(Extraposed)

The dummy *it* above postpones the actual subject 'That James failed his exams' to the end of the sentence. Generally the extraposed clause is a subordinate clause and it can be finite or infinite.

That	James	failed	his exams	is not surprising. (finite)			
It	is not	surprising	that	James		failed	his exams.

2.49

a. To change	your mind	now	would be	a mistake.(non-finite)	
b. It	would be	a mistake	to change	your mind	now

Huddleston,1988:181

As the heavy and complex subject is postponed in extraposed sentences and for English require an explicit full subject in declarative clauses, empty pronoun *it*

holds the subject position. The extraposed clause is more typical of informal spoken language. (Bloor &Bloor, 1995:167)

2.3.1.3.2 Expletive *there*

The dummy subject *there* allows the postponement of the subject in certain kinds of sentences in order to put it in the position of main stress, which generally falls in the predicate half of the sentence (Kolln, 1982:120).

2.50

a. The airplane	is landing	on the freeway.		
b. There	is	an airplane	landing	on the freeway.

Nelson, 2001:126

The sentences which have the dummy *there* as subject, are mainly used to introduce the new information relating to the existence or non-existence of some state affairs as in 2.50b. For this reason, they are called existential sentences. (Nelson, 2001:126)

2.3.1.4 *That*-trace effect

English prohibits clauses containing both the complementizer *that* and a *trace*, a phonetically null element left behind when a syntactic element moves in a clause (Lafond, 2001).

2.51

a. *Who_i	do you think	t'_i	that	t_i	has telephoned?
b. Who_i	do you think			t_i	has telephoned?

The necessity of deletion of *that* in sentences like 2.51a is thought to be a result of innately specified linguistic principles called Empty Category Principle (ECP) and Minimality Condition. It is suggested that *who* is moved from its original location of subject of the embedded clause to the [Spec, CP] of that embedded clause leaving traces at every point it leaves.

2.51

a. *Who_i do you think t'_i $_{CP}$ [that [t_i $_{VP}$ [has telephoned?]]]

According to ECP, every empty category should be properly governed either through theta-government or antecedent government. In the ungrammatical sentence 2.51a, the original trace of *who*, t_i, cannot be properly governed due to the complementizer *that*. It is governed by INFL, which cannot theta-mark it. It can be theta-marked but it cannot be governed by the verb *telephone* since VP is a barrier to government. Antecedent government also does not apply due to Minimality Condition, which states that when there are two potential governors the nearer one wins out. The only possible governor *that* can govern is only t_i but not t'_i. Nevertheless, *that* cannot either theta-govern or antecedent-govern t_i. Since t_i is not properly governed, the sentence becomes ungrammatical. To make the sentence grammatical, *that* should be deleted so the intermediate trace t'_i will be able to antecedent-govern t_i (Haegeman 1994, 443-4; Ellidokuzoğlu, 2002, 45-6).

2.3.2 The Pro-Drop Parameter Properties in Turkish

2.3.2.1The use of null subject in Turkish

In this part, the use of null subjects and pronouns in Turkish will be briefly explained with examTurkish pronouns are below:

Ben ‘I’ Biz ‘We’

Sen ‘you(sg)’ Siz ‘you (pl)’

O ‘he/she/it’ Onlar ‘they’

In Turkish, the subject of a finite clause can be null or overt which is assumed to be due to the rich inflectional system on verbs in Turkish by some researchers like Chomsky(1981), Jespersen (1924), Perlmutter (1971), and Taraldsen (1978). The verbs agree with person, number and tense and subjects are indicated by personal and number agreement. This feature of verbal agreement allows dropping of subject pronouns in tensed sentences.

An example for matrix clause is given below:

2.52

a. ø (O)	bir	araba	al-dı.
Ø (she/he)	a	car	buy-past-3rdsing
b. ‘S/he	bought	a car.’	

Along with verbal agreement, Turkish also has nominal agreement which can be observed in genitive-possessive constructions. The first NP is marked with the genitive suffix and the second NP is marked with possessive suffix, indicating the possessor and the possessed, respectively. The genitive NP (possessor) can also be dropped due to person agreement between the possessive NP and the possessor NP (2.53a and b).

2.53

a. Ben-im araba-m
Car-1stsing poss
‘My car’

b. ø araba-m

Car-1st sing poss

'My car'

Pro-drop in Turkish is also possible in embedded constructions. In Turkish, most complement clauses are in nominalized forms. According to George and Kornfilt (1981), nominalized constructions resemble lexical NP's in terms of their internal morphology, case marking, possibility of being objects of postpositions, focus movement, and backgrounding. The subject of an embedded clause can also be dropped as it can be done in a matrix clause and in genitive constructions.

An example for pro-drop in an embedded clause is below (2.54):

2.54

a.Ben	[senin araba al-dığ-ın]-ı	bil-mi-yor-du-m.
I	[you –gen Car-buy-Nom-3rd sgposs] -Acc	know-Neg-Prog-Past-1st sing

'I didn't know that you bought a car' (I didn't know your having bought a car.)

b. Ben	[ø araba al-dığ-ın]-ı	bil-mi-yor-du-m.
I	[ø Car-buy-Nom-3rd sgposs] -Acc	know-Neg-Prog-Past-1st sing.

'I didn't know that you bought a car' (I didn't know your having bought a car.)

The subject NP of a matrix clause and the subject of its embedded clause can be dropped at the same time as in the example 2.54c:

2.54

c. ø	[ø araba al-dığ-ın]-ı	bil-mi-yor-du-m.
ø	[ø Car-buy-Nom-3rd sgposs] -Acc	know-Neg-Prog-Past-1st sing.

'I didn't know that you bought a car' (I didn't know your having bought a car.)

2.3.2.1.1 The use of Overt subject pronouns in Turkish

In Turkish, the use of a pronominal subject or a null subject depends on discourse. Enç (1986) states that in case of topic switch, pronominal subject use is preferred. Göksel and Kerslake (2005) listed the conditions when a subject pronoun should be overt in Turkish utterances.

1. A subject pronoun should be overt in Turkish utterances where a subject contrasts with that of the preceding sentence.

2.55

a.Zeki	bugün	Sokağ-a	Çık-ma-y-acak-mış.	*Sen*	bir yer-e	Gitme-y-i	Düşün-ü-yor	Muy-du-n?
Zeki	today	Street-dat	Go-Neg-Fut-past part	*you*	Somewhere	Nom-go-acc	Think-progr-	Ques.. Part.-past-2nd sing

'It seems Zeki won't be going out today. Were *you* thinking of going anywhere?'

2. A subject pronoun should be overt in Turkish utterances where the subject is focused.

2.56

Bu	sabah	Çocuklar-ı	***ben***	Giy-dir-di-m.
This	morning	Children-acc	***I***	Wear-caus-past-1st sing

'It was ***I*** who got the children dressed this morning.'

3. A subject pronoun should be overt in Turkish utterances where a 1st or 2nd person subject person is one of a set of people actually or potentially involved in some action or situation.

2.57

O	gün	***sen***, Ayten ve Yavuz	Sınav-a	Gir-miş-ti-niz.	
that	day	***you***, Ayten, and Yavuz	Exam**-**dat	Enter-past part-past-2nd plu	

'That day, ***you***, Ayten, and Yavuz had had an exam.'

4. A subject pronoun should be <u>overt</u> in Turkish utterances where a 3rd person subject is an entity that was introduced in a non-subject role in the previous sentence.

2.58

Kitab-ı	Zerrin'e	Ver-di-m.	***O***	ne zamandır	onu	Oku-mak	Ist-iyor-du.
Book-acc	Zerrin-dat	Give-past-1st sing	she	What time	it	Nom-Read	Want-prog-past-3rd sing

'I gave the book to Zerrin. She had been wanting to read it for ages.'

5. A subject pronoun should be <u>overt</u> in Turkish utterances where there is a topic shift from a statement about a specific event to a generalization about the person involved.

2.59

a.	Zeki	anahtar-lar-ın-ı	kaybet-miş.	***O***	zaten	oldum olası	dağınık-tır.
	Zeki	Key-plu-3rdsingposs-acc	Lose-past-3rdsing	**He**	always		Disorganized-aorist-3rd sing

'Zeki has lost his keys. He has always been such a disorganized person. '

b. Bilet	al-ma-yı	unut-tu-m.	***Ben***	böyle	Şey-ler-i	unut-ur-um hep…	
Ticket	buy -Nom-acc	Forget-past-1st ing	***I***	scuh	Thing-plu-Acc	Forget-pres-1st ing always	

'I've forgotten to buy a ticket. ***I*** always seem to forget such things.'

6. In the opening sentence of a conversation, or a sentence in which the speaker introduces a new topic of discussion.

2.60

Ayşe, ***ben*** şimdi çık-ı-yor-um**.**

Ayşe ***I*** now Go-prog-1st sing out

'Ayşe, ***I***'m going out now.'

Göksel & Kerslake, 2005:275-76

2.3.2.2 Subject- Verb Inversion in Declarative Sentences

In Turkish, an overt definite subject can occupy a post-verbal position in certain situations.

2.61

a. Kızkardeş-in-e telefon etti Ali.

Sister-your-dat telephoned Ali.

'It is Ali who telephoned your sister.'

Sentence 2.61a above is as grammatical as sentences 2.61b and 2.61c.

b. telefon etti kızkardeş-in-e Ali.

telephoned Sister-your-dat Ali.

'What Ali did was phoning your sister.'

c. Ali kızkardeşine telefon etti.

Ali Sister-your-dat telephoned

'Ali telephoned your sister.'

The difference in the sentences 2.61a and 2.61b lies in the context where these sentences are used. In those sentences, the speaker backgrounds the constituents 'Ali'

2.61a and 'kızkardeşine, Ali' 2.61b for the fact that these constituents may have relatively less informative value than others, generally as a result of having being mentioned earlier, or simply because they are uttered as an afterthought (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005). Inversion- backgrounding - is restricted to spoken and informal written Turkish.

2.3.2.3 Expletives *it* and *there* in Turkish

2.3.2.3.1 Expletive *it*

In Turkish, a referential NP-is used instead of a dummy subject *it* we see in English.

2.62

a. Sınıf-ta bir öğrenci var-dı.
Classroom-loc A student Exist-past-3rd sing
'There was a student in the classroom'

b. Hava Nasıl?
Weather How?
'What's the weather like?'

c. (Hava) yağmurlu
(Weather) rainy
'It is rainy.'

2.63

Ders-e geç kal-acağ-ım çok Açık.
Course-dat late be-fut -1st sing very Obvious.
'It is obvious that I will be late for the class.'
[[Derse geç kalacağım] $_{NP}$ çok açık.]$_{VP}$

In sentence 2.63, the embedded clause is nominalized and becomes the subject of the finite clause. There is no dummy subject used here. Instead of using a dummy subject, a referential NP is used for subject positions (2.62a and 2.63).

2.3.2.3.2 Expletive *there*

The equivalent word for existential *there* is 'var' in Turkish and 'there isn't' corresponds to the negative meaning of 'yok' in Turkish. Literally, *var* and *yok* mean 'it exists' and 'it doesn't exist', respectively. In Turkish, *var* and *yok* function as non-verbal predicate of the sentence.

2.64

a. Oda-da hayvan var.
Room-loc animal Exists.
'There is an animal in the room.'
b. Odada hayvan yok.
Room-loc animal Not exist.
'An animal doesn't exist in the room.'

Underhill, 1976:10

Var and *yok* are always used with the 3rd person subject but they may be conjugated for the 1st or 2nd person (singular and plural).

2.65

a. Ev-de kim Var?
house-loc who Exists?
'Who is there in the house?
b. Biz Var-ız.
We Exist-1st plu

‘We are.’

2.66

a. Sen resim-de yok-sun.

You Photo-loc Not Exist-2nd sing

‘You are not in the picture.’

b. Biz ev-de yok-uz.

We Home-loc Not exist-1st plu

‘We are not at home.’

Generally, the indefinite subject is used with *var* and *yok* and the subject comes next to the predicate particle.

2.67

Orhan’ın Ev-in-de bir adam Var.

Orhan’poss House-3rd ingposs-loc A man Exists.

‘There is a man at Orhan’s house.’

In English, *there* is used as a dummy or empty subject which has no grammatical content. However, the literal counterpart of *there*, ‘var’ (negative,‘yok’) is not a subject itself; it functions as a predicate and it may have a subject as an NP (2.68a), as a subject pronoun (2.68b) or as a *pro* (2.68c). The subject precedes the predicate *var/yok*.

2.68

a. Şişe-de su Var.

Bottle-loc water Exists.

‘There is (some) water in the bottle.’

b. Şişe-de Su mu Var?

Bottle-loc water Quest. Partic. Exists?

‘There is some water in the bottle, isn’t there?’

c. Şişe-de su var mı?

Bottle-loc water Exists Quest. Partic.
'Is there any water in the bottle?'
-Evet, *pro* Var.
-Yes, Exists.
'– Yes, there is.'

Underhill, 1976:103

2.3.2.4 *That*-trace effect

English prohibits clauses containing both the complementizer *that* and a *trace*, a phonetically null element left behind when a syntactic element moves in a clause (Lafond, 2001).

2.69

a.*Who_i. do you think that t_i has telephoned?
b. Who_i do you think t_i has telephoned?

The Turkish equivalent of sentence 2.69b is as follows:

2.70

a. *pro* [Kim-in telefon etti-ğ-in-i] Düşünü-yor-sun?
(You) [Who-poss Telephone-past-Nom-poss-acc Think-prog-2nd sing]
'Who do you think has telephoned?'

Unlike English, Turkish does not exhibit a *that*-trace effect.

2.71

a. *pro* [Ne-y-in Bit-ti-ğ-in-i] Bil-i-yor-sun?
(You) [What-poss finish-past-Nom-poss-acc know-prog-2nd sing]
'*What do you think *that* has finished?'

'What do you think has finished?'

With respect to that-trace in Turkish, Kornfilt (1984) and Sezer (1991) claim that there is an empty operator in Comp in embedded sentences. According to Kural (1993-94), the *–k* particle of the suffixes –Acak, -mAK, -DIK, which leads to nominalization of embedded sentences, should be separated as he claims that the *–k* particle is the complementizer.

There are some other explanations on the lack of that-*trace* effect in Turkish, though indirectly. According to Kornfilt (1984) and Birtürk(1998a:5), Turkish is a *wh*-in-situ language in which *wh*- expressions do not move on the surface level in forming interrogatives unlike English. On this aspect, Ackerman & Neeleman (2004) emphasize in their paper that the *wh*-in-situ languages do not exhibit that-*trace* effect. They give an example from Hindi in 2.72, (Harley, 2001), a language which has the *wh*-in-situ property and complementizer in a clause.

2.72

Raam-ne	kyaa	socaa	[ki kOn aayaa hE]
Raam-ERG	SCOPE	thought	that who come has

'Who did you think has come?'

In addition to that, according to Kayne (1994) complementizer-final languages indeed seem to show a lack of that-*trace* effect. In that aspect, if "*-k*" is to be taken as a complementizer in embedded sentences as Kural (1994) suggests, which occurs at the end of the embedded clause, will not also allow *that*-trace effect in Turkish.

2.73

pro	[Kim-in	gel-di-ğ-in]-i	gör-dü-n?
(You)	[Who-poss	Come-past-*comp*-3rdsing]-acc	See-past-2nd sing

'Who did you see came?'

In conclusion, Turkish and English differ from each other with respect to the pro-drop parameter properties. These languages can be said to be at the different ends of the pro-drop continuum. To illustrate, while Turkish has a certain property, English lacks that property which may pose acquisition problems in SLA. In the next chapter, SLA studies related with the acquisition of pro-drop parameter properties will be explained.

2.4 SLA and Turkish and English

2.4.1 The Subset Principle and Acquisition of English by Turkish learners

The Subset Principle was initially proposed for L1 acquisition. According to this principle, children start with most conservative grammar in acquiring L1. As they receive positive evidence, namely what the target language includes, they progressively expand to the target grammar. The Subset Principle implies the Subset Condition (Wexler and Manzini, 1987: 45) which says "two values of parameter in fact yield languages which are in a subset relation to each other (i.e., one is the subset of the other.). This principle puts forward the view that parameters must appear across languages resulting in subset/superset relations.

The subset Principle is also adopted by L2 acquisition researchers. According to White, (1989, 142-143, cited in Gürel, 2002, 81) there are three forms of subset relations between L1 and L2 as shown in the figures below.

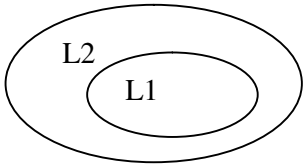


Figure 1

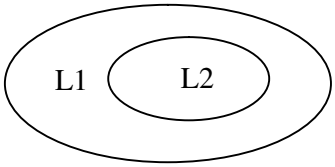
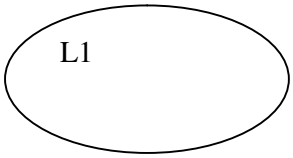


Figure 2



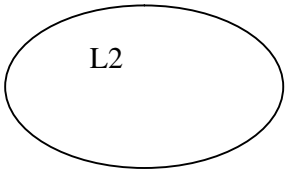


Figure 3

Gürel 2002 ,81

In figure 1, L1 is the subset of L2 with respect to a particular property in which learners acquire a superset language. In such a situation, learners need positive evidence to acquire L2.

In figure 2, there is a reverse acquisition situation. In this situation, L1 grammar constitutes the superset value in which learners need negative evidence to acquire the subset value in L2.

In figure 3, L1 and L2 are shown to be completely different from each other with respect to a particular property. A value in L1 does not operate in L2 or vice versa.

It is necessary to analyze Turkish and English with respect to Subset Principle in order to make predictions about the nature of acquisition of English by Turkish learners.

As stated before, Turkish is a [+pro-drop] language which allows both null subject use and overt subject pronoun use. In addition to that, Turkish displays the characteristics of null subject parameter. On the other hand, English is a [-pro-drop] language which allows obligatory use of subject pronouns and does not allow null

subjects and unlike Turkish, English does not have the syntactic properties that Turkish has as a null subject language.

When Turkish and English are analyzed with respect to the Subset Principle, Turkish represents the superset while English represents the subset. This is because Turkish has the +null and –null properties of null subject parameter; however, English only has –null property of that parameter.

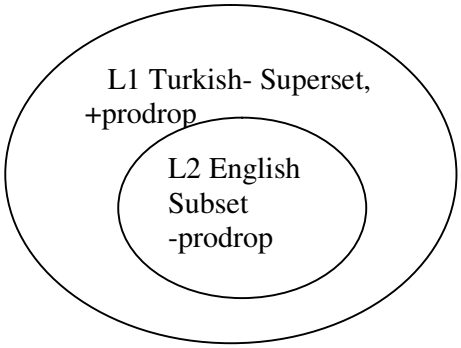


Figure 4 Subset Relation between English and Turkish with respect to pro-drop

According to the Subset Principle, the speakers of a superset language (like Turkish) will have more difficulty in acquiring a subset language (like English) than vice versa. This is because the learners in the superset need negative evidence which is not directly available in the natural communication environment. In the reverse situation in which the subset learners are learning the superset language, language acquisition will be easier as the subset learners have access to positive evidence.

In this thesis, Turkish learners of English are observed with respect to acquisition of the settings in English which are completely different from the ones in Turkish. It is expected that Turkish learners of English may transfer the null subject properties in their L1 to their L2.

2.5 Pro-drop Parameter Properties in SLA

Studies on the acquisition of NSP generally test the hypothesis whether the NSP is reset during L2 acquisition or not. It is also a main concern in these studies whether UG is active or not. Apart from that, studies on the acquisition of NSP cluster properties also focus on whether NSP properties are acquired as a cluster or independently, and whether there is a hierarchy of acquisition of null subject parameter properties or not.

Below studies are classified under the titles of 'SLA Studies on Acquiring a non-prop-drop language' and 'SLA Studies on Acquiring a prop-drop language' in order to observe the differences better.

2.5.1 SLA Studies on acquiring a non-Prop-drop language

2.5.1.1 White (1985)

White's study (1985) not only looks at the issue from resetting parameters but it also investigates whether L1 plays a role in the acquisition of the null subject parameter. In addition to these, she tries to identify the order of acquisition and tries to find out whether NSP properties are acquired independently or not.

In her study, she tested three characteristics associated with pro-drop: null subject, subject-verb inversion, and *that*-trace effects. It was a transfer study which assumes L1 will affect L2 acquisition. The study involved 73 adult learners of English at McGill University in Montreal Canada. Of these 73 learners, 54 were native speakers of Spanish and 19 were native speakers of French. She used a grammaticality judgment test to collect data, which included some ungrammatical and grammatical

sentences of English. White hypothesized that Spanish speakers of English would reject sentences which were grammatical in English but ungrammatical in Spanish.

She included French learners of English to compare the learners of pro-drop (Spanish) and non-pro-drop (French) L1s with one another. She assumed that French learners of English would be less likely to make errors regarding NSP properties.

Her study showed that Spanish learners indeed had more difficulty in judging the grammaticality of null subjects than French learners of English, though both groups had difficulty in judging the sentences with expletive subjects. Both groups performed well with regards to S-V inversion and poorly in *that*-trace. Her study revealed that NSP properties are not simultaneously acquired. In another study done in 1986, she suggested the hierarchy of null subject properties as follows:

SV inversion> Null subject> that-trace effects

Formula 1: Implicational hierarchy for resetting the NSP suggested by White (1986b) for English.

Lantolf, 1990:5

White claimed that S-V inversion may not be a property of NSP parameter but derives from the other properties of grammar. (Chao, 1981; Safir, 1982; Hyams, 1983).

2.5.1.2 Banka (2006)

In a recent study carried out by Banka (2006), the acquisition of English by speakers of a pro-drop language, Hungarian is analyzed. Her paper addresses the issue in the context of parameter resetting and examines the role of transfer in L2 acquisition. Her study particularly focuses on the acquisition of syntactic properties associated with the null subject parameter by Hungarian learners of English. A grammaticality

judgment test and a translation task are used to collect data. Banka (2006) expects that Hungarian learners may have difficulty in acquiring English due to the parametric difference between these languages. In addition to these, she expects transfer effects from Hungarian to English. She also searches an answer to the following questions (1) Do the properties associated with NSP cluster in L2 acquisition? (2) What is the relationship between learners' proficiency and their performance on various syntactic properties?

33 Hungarian learners of English (14 intermediate and 19 advanced) participated in her study. In the end she found out that as the learners' proficiency level increases, the mean score on Grammaticality Judgment Test and translation task also increases. It is seen that NSP properties are acquired independently rather than as a cluster and *wh*-trace (*that*-trace) is the last property to be acquired by the Hungarian learners of English.

2.5.2 SLA Studies on acquiring a Pro-drop language

2.5.2.1 Liceras (1989)

In 1989, Liceras studied the acquisition of Spanish by French and English learners. The participants were 30 English and 32 French learners of L2 Spanish at four proficiency levels. She used a 17-item grammaticality judgment test which was prepared to reveal information about null subjects, overt expletives, inversion, and *that*-trace.

She found out that (1) Learners do not interpret *that*-trace sequences correctly, regardless of whether the complementizer is present or not, and that learners had more difficulties with inversion than with null subjects (2) No lexical expletives in

Spanish were accepted by learners. She also suggested a hierarchy with regards to the acquisition of pro-drop clusters which says that null subjects and inversion emerge earlier than the *that*-trace in learner language.

> Null subjects > inversion> *that*-trace.
>
> Liceras, 1989

This hierarchy decomposes the pro-drop parameter into different grammatical elements, the acquisitional order of which could then be empirically tested. If the cluster properties are acquired at different times, it would be reasonable to assume that there is no single parameter to be acquired but a set of grammatical structures.

2.5.2.2 Lantolf (1990)

Lantolf (1990) tried to assess the validity and the empirical hierarchy for the NSP suggested by Liceras (1989). His study involved 24 English students learning Spanish as a foreign language. To collect data, he applied a 43-item grammaticality judgment test to assess the status of the three properties of the NSP in the learners inter-language and a collaborative judgment task to support his data.

At the end of his study, Lantolf (1990) noticed no evidence to support either White's or Liceras's suggestions but the acquisitional properties of NSP. He concludes that the obvious thing in his study is all these properties are acquired independently from each other.

2.5.2.3 Isabelli (1999)

Isabelli (1999) focused on the effect of positive evidence in a naturalistic environment on the acquisition of NSP properties. In her study, 64 participants were

English learners of Spanish and they were at the intermediate level of Spanish. Isabelli found that positive evidence coming from naturalistic environment increased the acquisition of null subject parameter properties. Especially, L2 Spanish learners improved significantly on S-V inversion items. She also reported that NSP properties were acquired in the order of null subject, S-V inversion, and *that*-trace. She indicated that *that*-trace property was the last one to be acquired by English speakers of Spanish though participants were in a natural speaking environment and they had access to positive evidence.

2.5.2.4 Lafond (2003)

Lafond (2003) investigates the L2 acquisition of pro-drop parameter clusters from a non-traditional perspective in the framework of the Optimality Theory (OT). This theory proposes that

> ..optimal grammatical output gathered from an evaluation of possible structural descriptions of input, with the grammatical selection going to the candidate with the least serious constraint violations

It is also assumed that learners depend on their L1 in learning a second language and UG guides the second language acquisition.

The analysis in his article relies upon the Constraint Demotion Algorithm (CDA), which claims that UG detects the differences between the current grammatical system and input and it ranks and demotes the structures in L1 in order to conform with L2 (Tesar & Smolensky 2000).

In his study, he applied two empirical tests (a translation task and a grammaticality judgment task) to investigate English learners' competencies regarding null subjects, inversion, and that-trace in acquiring Spanish as L2. The translation task involved 124 participants from four proficiency levels (beginner, intermediate, advance, and

native). The grammaticality judgment task involved 207 participants from five proficiency levels (beginner, intermediate, advance, near-native and native).

He found that English learners first demote obligatory subjects in L1 to null subject which allows emergence of inversion. Then, they become aware of embedded CP in Spanish which leads to the demotion of *that*-trace feature in English and overcoming the grammatical constraint of *that*-trace prohibiting in English. So, learner grammar reflects the target grammar via these ranking of the structures and demotions of the non-target-like ones.

2.5.3 SLA Studies of pro-drop related with Turkish

2.5.3.1 Acquisition of English as L2 by Turkish learners

2.5.3.1.2 Ellidokuzoğlu (2002)

In his dissertation, Ellidokuzoğlu (2002) examined whether UG is still active in acquiring the Pro-drop Parameter along with the principles of Subjacency and Empty Category. From the pro-drop parameter properties, he only included *that*-trace and null subject properties. In his study, the subjects were 85 Turkish learners of English and 31 native speakers of English. He used a grammaticality judgment test and an error correction task to test the presence of UG in L2 acquisition of English by teenage Turkish learners. At the end of his study, he found that non-native subjects were not as successful as native subjects. Besides, there was no parameter resetting or cluster effects in SLA of pro-drop parameter.

2.5.3.2 Acquisition of Turkish as L2

2.5.3.2.1 Bulut and Can (2000)

In their study, Bulut and Can (2000) focused on whether UG is active or not in the acquisition of a [+pro-drop] language, Turkish by speakers of a non-pro-drop language, English. They also investigated whether L2 learners will adopt to unmarked setting of Turkish or transfer their L1 setting to L2. In their study, Bulut and Can hypothesize that English speaking adults learning a pro-drop language, Turkish, will allow null subjects in Turkish because they claim that English speakers will start with the unmarked value of [+pro-drop] and will not affected by their L1.

To confirm their hypothesis, 24 (10 female, 14 male) Americans working on the İncirlik Airbase in Adana participated in the study. The participants had been living in Turkey for 3 years on average and they had access to the target language input as they accommodate in the city centre. There was no control group in the study.

A 12-item grammaticality judgment test was used to gather data. In this grammaticality judgment test, null subjects both in matrix and embedded clauses were included as well as S-V inversion.

Bulut and Can (2000) found that English speakers learning Turkish did not transfer the non-pro-drop aspect of English to Turkish which meant that L2 learners did not start from their L1 in acquiring a foreign language. They claim that English speakers of Turkish easily acquire the null subject use and S-V inversion in Turkish due to the "unmarked" feature of Turkish. Upon these findings, they conclude that they could not find evidence to support the no-access and indirect access to UG hypothesis but they found that there may be direct access to UG to adult L2 learners.

2.5.3.2.2 Kırkıcı (2006)

Another study on the acquisition of Turkish comes from Kırkıcı (2006). In her study, she observed how Turkish was acquired as an L2 by speakers of two types of [+ pro-drop] languages: Turkic-type languages like Afghani, Persian, Mongolian, Rumanian, Russian, Ukrainian, Arabic, and Spanish and Chinese-type languages like Chinese, Japanese, and Korean. These two groups were analyzed across three proficiency levels of beginner, intermediate, and upper-intermediate. A control group of 10 Turkish native speakers also took part in the study.

Kırkıcı (2006) was interested in two questions in her study (1) Is there any significant difference between the resetting of Turkish NSP by Turkish-type and Chinese-type languages speakers? (2) Is there a meaningful relationship between the resetting of the pro-drop parameter and pro-drop parameter properties like AGR, subject-Verb inversion in declarative sentences, and *that*-trace?

In order to find answers to these questions, she collected data from the participants throgh a 35-item grammaticality judgment test which includes items related with NSP such as null subject, subject-Verb inversion in declarative sentences, and *that*-trace.

In the end, she found that Chinese-type languages speakers were more successful than Turkic-type languages speakers in acquiring Turkish as L2. She concludes that the type of L1 does not play an effective role in acquiring L2. So, one of the access to UG hypothesis, the indirect access to UG hypothesis, which claims UG is accessible via L1 and parameter resetting occurs at the end of acquisition of L2, is not supported in her study. Shortly, the participants did not refer to their L1 while they were acquiring Turkish as L2.

As an answer to her second research question, she finds that there is not a relationship between the acquisition of S-V inversion and resetting the pro-drop

parameter or the acquisition of *that*-trace and resetting the pro-drop parameter. So, she concludes that acquisition of these syntactic properties is independent from resetting the pro-drop parameter. This finding supports No access to UG hypothesis which argues that UG does not play a role in L2 acquisition.

No- access to UG hypothesis is also supported by another finding. According to this finding, Turkic-type languages speakers, whose languages exhibit strong AGR as Turkish does, were less successful in acquiring Turkish than Chinese-type languages speakers whose languages exhibit weak or no AGR.

Kırkıcı's study (2006) shows that firstly there is no relationship between the NSP and L1 does not play a role in acquiring L2.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Presentation

In this chapter, data collection procedures to test thesis hypothesis are explained. The chapter begins with a section related to the pilot study. The aim and procedure of the pilot study is explained in this part of the chapter. In the second section, the main study, whose data was analyzed to test the hypotheses, is described and explained in detail. In the main study section, the participants, tasks and procedures are identified. In the last section, findings of the grammaticality judgment test and the dialogue task are displayed and described.

3.1 Pilot study

First of all, a pilot study was conducted in order to diagnose possible shortcomings of the data gathering tools, the grammaticality judgment test and the dialogue completion task. Participants of the pilot study were 9 students of Çankaya University English Preparation Class. Six of the participants were from upper-intermediate class and three of them were from intermediate class. All participants volunteered to do the tests. They were between the ages of 18-20. Their native language was Turkish. They all started learning English at the age of ten.

The participants in the pilot study did a 36-item grammaticality judgment test and a 15-item dialogue task in forty minutes in a room separated for this study by the administration.

At the end of the data collection procedure, the researcher asked the participants' opinions about the tests.

Apart from the pilot study at Çankaya University, the same tests were also done by 3 English teachers whose native language is Turkish in order to get their ideas and suggestions about the re-design of tests for students. The teachers did the tests and, in the end, the researcher asked their opinions about each item in the test and asked their opinions about how to improve the test to make it understandable for the students who would do them.

The tests were re-designed according to the reactions of the students and teachers who took part in the pilot study; the item number in grammaticality judgment test was reduced to 30 items from 36 items. 4 of the *that*-trace items were eliminated in order to prevent iteration. 2 of the distracters were also eliminated to make the number of distracters equal.

The Dialogue task was also re-designed. 2 distracters were added to Part 1.

3.2 Main Study

3.2.1 The Participants

81 university students attending English preparation classes in METU took part in the data collection process. Their ages are between18-23. Their first language is Turkish.

35 of them were in intermediate level class and the other 46 were in upper-intermediate level class. 1 participant in intermediate class and 3 participants from upper-intermediate class were eliminated due to the fact that they were bilingual students. 2 students from the upper-intermediate class were also eliminated as they did not do the tests individually. Upon this elimination, 34 intermediate and 41 upper-intermediate students were left. In order to analyze the data statistically better,

group sizes were made equal by reducing the upper-intermediate group size to 34. So, each proficiency group's size became 34.

Apart from students, 17 native speakers of English participated in the study as a control group. They were between the ages of 24-53. 12 native speakers were living in Turkey. They were working as English teachers or instructors in educational organizations like language courses or university English preparation departments. 5 participants of the control group were living in the UK. They participated in the study via e-mail. 9 of the participants speak British English and 8 of them speak American English.

3.2.2 Tasks and Procedure

In the present study, the Grammaticality Judgment Test and the dialogue completion task were used in order to gather the data for the thesis. The data gathered from the GJT and the dialogue completion task were entered into SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences).

Apart from these tests, participant information forms for the experimental group and the control group were separately filled in by the participants (see Appendices A and B, respectively). Participant information forms allowed the researcher to analyze the characteristics of the participants and bilingual participants were eliminated by referring to these forms in order to ensure the validity of the study.

3.2.2.1 Grammaticality Judgment Test

First, a 36-item GJT was prepared by the researcher. The word number in each sentence was between 13 and 15 in order to establish equal sentence length. The items were put in random order in order to eliminate the effect of guessing 'good' or

'bad' items. The grammaticality of this 36-item test was checked by a native speaker of English working as a professor at METU to reduce the effect of possible grammar mistakes during data collecting procedure. Then, the pilot study stated above was conducted and the GJT was re-designed according to the student reactions in pilot study. After the pilot study, the GJT item number decreased to 30 from 36 items. This 30-item GJT (see Appendix C) was used to gather the relevant data for the study.

GJT are thought to be suitable to gather the data for the acquisition of null subject parameter properties because not only do they help the researcher to focus on and test the relevant structure but also to ensure the objective collection of data. It is easy and practical to administer and it does not take either the participants' or the administrator's time. Most importantly, it helps the researcher to tap into the linguistic knowledge of the participants.

In the GJT test, there were 2 correct and 2 incorrect items prepared to test each NSP property to establish balance. Apart from that, 1 correct and 1 incorrect distracter were designed for each of the NSP properties to sustain this balance. The number of test items was 20 and the number of distracters was 10 leading to a total item number of 30. The number of correct-incorrect items was equal in the test (15 correct and 15 incorrect items).

Table 3 below shows the distribution of items.

Table 3 The distribution of Items in the test

Item type	*Correct(C)*	*Incorrect(I)*	*Distracter(D)*	
			Correct	*Incorrect*
Null subjects in embedded sentences	*2*	*2*	*1*	*1*
That-trace/Who-What	*2*	*2*	*1*	*1*
Expletive IT	*2*	*2*	*1*	*1*
Expletive THERE	*2*	*2*	*1*	*1*
S-V inversion in declaratives	*2*	*2*	*1*	*1*
Total item number for each column	***10*** ***20***	***10***	***5*** ***10***	***5***
Total item number	**30**			

The participants completed the GJT in 30 minutes individually. They judged each sentence as grammatically 'Good' or 'Bad' and they were asked to indicate or show the ungrammaticality in the blank provided under the sentence if they thought that the sentence was 'bad'.

The data gathered from GJT was analyzed in SPSS in two steps. In the first step, each correct answer is given the value of 1 and each incorrect answer is given the value of 2. If a participant thinks that a sentence is 'bad' but he cannot explain why it is 'bad', then that sentence is given the value of 0. The items having the value of '0' are called 'missing items'. So, it became possible to observe the frequency of students' reactions on each item at percentage level. In the second step, each correct answer is given 1 point and each incorrect or missing answer is given 0 point in order to calculate the descriptive statistics and run an ANOVA. ANOVA was chosen in order to find out whether a significant difference existed in the mean scores of the participants on each NSP property and in the total GJT score.

3.2.2.2 Dialogue Completion Task

Apart from the GJT test, a 17-item dialogue completion task was presented to the participants in order to look at the acquisition of parameter properties from a different perspective (See Appendix D).

The task had two parts. Part 1 was related with the use of null subjects in embedded sentences and expletives *it* and *there*. In this task, the participants are required to fill in the blanks either with personal pronouns, *it* and *there* or leave the blank empty where appropriate. In part 1, there were totally 10 items: 3 items testing null subjects in embedded clauses, 3 items testing *there,* 2 items testing *it* and 2 distracter items. Part 2 is related with *that*-trace and there are totally 7 items in the task. 3 of the items were related with the obligatory omission of *that*, 2 of the items were related with the optional *that*, and 2 of the items were distracters. The NSP of Subject-Verb Inversion was not included in these tasks due to the fact that its structure cannot be measured in this fill-in-the-blank type task. The distribution of items in the Dialogue Task is displayed in Table 4

Table 4 The distribution of items in Dialogue Task

	Item type	**Item number**	**Total Item number**
PART 1	Null subject in embedded sentences	3	
	Expletive *there*	3	
	Expletive *it*	2	
	Distracters	2	
			10
PART 2	Obligatory Omission of *that* in embedded questions	3	
	Optional *that* in embedded questions	2	
	Distracters	2	
			7

The participants took the DT immediately after the GJT and they were required to fill in the blanks in no more than 20 minutes.

In DT, the ANOVA was used in order to compare mean differences with one another. For this reason, each correctly filled blank was given 1 point and each incorrectly filled blank was given 0 point. The top score in null subject use, dummy *there* use and *that*-trace awareness would be 3 for each, and expletive *it* would be 2. The top score of DT was 11 and the bottom score was 0.

The proficiency level groups' mean scores are calculated with respect to the NSP properties included in the task and with respect to the total scores in order to make comparisons across proficiency levels. For instance, if the mean score of expletive *there* use in the upper-intermediate group is higher than the intermediate one's, then it can be concluded that the acquisition of dummy there as a subject occurs in advance levels.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Presentation

In this chapter, results of the test will be provided and they will be discussed in detail in the second section.

4.1 Results of GJT

4.1.1 The Percentages of correct-incorrect answers across proficiency levels

In the first step of the analysis of the GJT, the frequencies of correct and incorrect answers across proficiency levels with respect to each GJT item were calculated on SPSS 13.0 and they are displayed in the related tables in order to observe the acquisition of NSP properly.

4.1.1.1 Null subject use in embedded clauses

Null subject use in embedded sentences-items in GJT

1. Doctors should know the side effects of medicines before they prescribe them for patients.(Correct)
2. Scientists wish that they had not invented the atomic bomb thrown in Japan in 1945.(Correct).
3. As a university student, Jill did not care whether passed her exams or not. (Incorrect)
4. We must consider all the facts carefully and seriously until make the final

decision. (Incorrect)

In the tables, each item related with "null subject use in embedded clauses" is reported with respect to the percentages of correct-incorrect answers across levels. Table 5 and 6 show the participants' reactions to correct-'good' GJT items; tables 7 and 8 show the participants' reactions to incorrect-'bad' GJT items at percentage level.

Table 5 The percentages for null subject use in embedded sentences-Good item 1

Null_subject_use_Good_item1 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
Null_subject_use_Good_item1	missing	Count	1	0	0	1
		% within Level	2,9%	,0%	,0%	1,2%
	Correct	Count	33	34	17	84
		% within Level	97,1%	100,0%	100,0%	98,8%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 6 The percentages for null subject use in embedded sentences-Good item 2

Null_subject_use_Good_item2 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
Null_subject_use_Good_item2	Correct	Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

As it can be seen from the tables above, intermediate and upper-intermediate students correctly accepted the null subject use in embedded clauses as the native speakers did. Except for the missing case in intermediate level in the first item in which the percentage is 97, 1%, the percentage of acceptance of grammatical sentence is 100% for all levels.

However, the reactions of intermediate and upper-intermediate level students to the ungrammatical sentences dramatically change. Especially intermediate level students did poor in rejecting the ungrammatical sentences (23,5%; 5,9%, respectively. See Tables 7 and 8). Upper-intermediate students, on the other hand, did better than intermediate ones (64,7%;52,9%, respectively, see Tables 7 and 8) nearly as two times as their percentage in the first ungrammatical item and ten times of their percentage in the second ungrammatical item. However, neither level can reach the native like performance (100%. See Tables 7 and 8).

Table 7 The percentages for null subject use in embedded sentences-Bad item 1

Null_subject_use_Bad_item1 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
Null_subject_use_Bad_item1	missing	Count	0	1	0	1
		% within Level	,0%	2,9%	,0%	1,2%
	Correct	Count	8	22	17	47
		% within Level	23,5%	64,7%	100,0%	55,3%
	Incorrect	Count	26	11	0	37
		% within Level	76,5%	32,4%	,0%	43,5%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 8 The percentages for null subject use in embedded sentences-Bad item 2

Null_subject_use_Bad_item2 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
Null_subject_use_Bad_item2	Correct	Count	2	18	15	35
		% within Level	5,9%	52,9%	88,2%	41,2%
	Incorrect	Count	32	16	2	50
		% within Level	94,1%	47,1%	11,8%	58,8%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

4.1.1.2 Subject-Verb Inversion in declarative clauses

Subject-Verb Inversion in declarative sentences-items in GJT

1. According to UNESCO, all around the world, many people are struggling with starvation. (Correct)
2. In the near future, drought will become a main problem of the human race. (Correct)
3. According to doctors, may sometimes lead to severe illnesses tiny health problems. (Incorrect)
4. In the framework of the EU, supports Gruntvig and Erasmus the Ministry of Education. (Incorrect)

The two proficiency level groups showed a native-like performance in accepting the grammatical sentences as expected (100%, see Tables 9 and 10). However, when rejecting the ungrammatical sentence, the two proficiency groups are not as successful as the control group. In the first ungrammatical S-V item in the sentence 3, the percentage of correct answers of intermediate group is 55, 9% and 23, 5 % and of the upper-intermediate one is 76, 5% and 44,1%.

Table 9 The percentages for Subject-Verb Inversion Good item 1

SV_inversion_Good_item1 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
SV_inversion_Good_item1	Correct	Count	34	34	16	84
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	94,1%	98,8%
	Incorrect	Count	0	0	1	1
		% within Level	,0%	,0%	5,9%	1,2%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 10 The percentages for Subject-Verb Inversion Good item 2

SV_inversion_Good_item2 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
SV_inversion_Good_item2	Correct	Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

The missing answers of the intermediate group is 5, 9% and 11,8% and of the upper-intermediate one, it is 11,8% for the second ungrammatical item (sentence 4). The percentage of correct answers of the control group is 88,2 % in both items. The control group participants who did the ungrammatical items incorrectly (11,8%) could not find the reversed subject in the item and instead, they put a subject of their own which is not an expected answer. See Tables 11 and 12 below.

Table 11 The percentages for Subject-Verb Inversion Bad item 1

SV_inversion_Bad_item1 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
SV_inversion_Bad_iten	missing	Count	2	0	0	2
		% within Leve	5,9%	,0%	,0%	2,4%
	Correct	Count	19	26	15	60
		% within Leve	55,9%	76,5%	88,2%	70,6%
	Incorrect	Count	13	8	2	23
		% within Leve	38,2%	23,5%	11,8%	27,1%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Leve	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 12 The percentages for Subject-Verb Inversion Bad item 2

SV_inversion_Bad_item2 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
SV_inversion_Bad_item	missing	Count	4	4	0	8
		% within Level	11,8%	11,8%	,0%	9,4%
	Correct	Count	8	15	15	38
		% within Leve	23,5%	44,1%	88,2%	44,7%
	Incorrect	Count	22	15	2	39
		% within Level	64,7%	44,1%	11,8%	45,9%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

4.1.1.3 The use of Expletive *It*

The Use of Expletive IT- items in GJT

1. In the near future, it will be the water that will be fought for. (Correct)
2. In the future, it will be raining enough for ensuring the ecological balance(Correct)
3. Due to global warming, is predicted that some plant species will become extinct. (Incorrect)
4. In the following years, will be the starvation that will be dealt with. (Incorrect)

In accepting the grammatical items, the upper-intermediate group showed a near native-like performance (97, 1% and 100%). However, the intermediate group is not as successful as the upper-intermediate group in accepting the first grammatical item (55, 9%), though they show a native like competence in accepting the second grammatical sentence (91, 2%). See tables 13 and 14 below.

Table 13 The percentages for the use of Expletive *it* Good item 1

IT_Good_item1 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
IT_Good_item1	missing	Count	3	0	0	3
		% within Level	8,8%	,0%	,0%	3,5%
	Correct	Count	19	33	17	69
		% within Level	55,9%	97,1%	100,0%	81,2%
	Incorrect	Count	12	1	0	13
		% within Level	35,3%	2,9%	,0%	15,3%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 14 The percetages for the use of Expletive *it* Good item 2

IT_Good_item2 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
IT_Good_item2	missing	Count	1	0	0	1
		% within Level	2,9%	,0%	,0%	1,2%
	Correct	Count	31	34	17	82
		% within Level	91,2%	100,0%	100,0%	96,5%
	Incorrect	Count	2	0	0	2
		% within Level	5,9%	,0%	,0%	2,4%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

The situation changes for the proficiency groups when rejecting the ungrammatical sentence. The intermediate group shows a success of 41, 2% and 8, 8% and the upper-intermediate group's percentages in rejecting the ungrammatical items are 73, 5% and 14, 7%. As it can be seen from the percentages, both groups relatively did well in the first ungrammatical item and they did poorly in the second ungrammatical item. The control group's performance on rejecting these two ungrammatical items is 88, 2 %. See tables 15 and 16 below.

Table 15 The percentages for the use of Expletive *it* Bad item 1

IT_Bad_item1 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
IT_Bad_item1	missing	Count	2	0	0	2
		% within Level	5,9%	,0%	,0%	2,4%
	Correct	Count	14	25	15	54
		% within Level	41,2%	73,5%	88,2%	63,5%
	Incorrect	Count	18	9	2	29
		% within Level	52,9%	26,5%	11,8%	34,1%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 16 The percentages for the use of Expletive *it* Bad item 2

IT_Bad_item2 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
IT_Bad_item2	missing	Count	2	0	0	2
		% within Level	5,9%	,0%	,0%	2,4%
	Correct	Count	3	5	15	23
		% within Level	8,8%	14,7%	88,2%	27,1%
	Incorrect	Count	29	29	2	60
		% within Level	85,3%	85,3%	11,8%	70,6%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

4.1.1.4 The use of Expletive *There*

The Use of Expletive *There*-items in GJT

1. According to environmentalists, in the near future, there will be less water in the world. (Correct)
2. According to the Ministry of Education, there is a huge need for English teachers. (Correct)
3. According to educators, contrary to expectations, will still be many students preparing for ÖSS. (Incorrect)
4. According to economists, apart from high inflation, is the problem of unemployment in Turkey. (Incorrect)

In accepting the good sentences of expletive *there*, both proficiency groups show a native-like competence (100%) with no missing answers. See tables 17 and 18.

Table 17 The percentages for the use of Expletive *there* Good item **1**

THERE_Good_item1 * Level Crosstabulation

		Level			
		Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
THERE_Good_item1 Correct	Count	34	34	17	85
	% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Total	Count	34	34	17	85
	% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 18 The percentages for the use of Expletive *there* Good item 2

THERE_Good_item2 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
THERE_Good_item2	Correct	Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

As for rejecting ungrammatical expletive *there* items, the intermediate group is successful at 38, 2% and 14, 7% respectively for bad item 1 and 2. The upper-intermediate group is not as consistent as the intermediate group and show a fluctuating success, 67, 6 % and 11, 8% for each bad item, respectively. The control group, on the other hand, has the success of 100% in the first bad item and 82, 4% in the second one. In the second bad item, 17, 6% of control group preferred using a subject NP instead of a dummy *there*. This is nearly the same for two proficiency groups as they did not use *there* but they preferred to use a subject NP. See tables 19 and 20 below.

Table 19 The percentages for the use of Expletive *there* Bad item 1

THERE_Bad_item1 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
THERE_Bad_item1	missing	Count	2	0	0	2
		% within Level	5,9%	,0%	,0%	2,4%
	Correct	Count	13	23	17	53
		% within Level	38,2%	67,6%	100,0%	62,4%
	Incorrect	Count	19	11	0	30
		% within Level	55,9%	32,4%	,0%	35,3%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 20 The percentages for the use of Expletive *there* Bad item 2

THERE_Bad_item2 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
THERE_Bad_item2	missing	Count	2	5	0	7
		% within Level	5,9%	14,7%	,0%	8,2%
	Correct	Count	5	4	14	23
		% within Level	14,7%	11,8%	82,4%	27,1%
	Incorrect	Count	27	25	3	55
		% within Level	79,4%	73,5%	17,6%	64,7%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

4.1.1.5 *That*-trace

That-trace-items in GJT

1. What do you think can be the most effective way of learning English? (Correct)
2. Who does the jury say is the most beautiful girl in this contest? (Correct)
3. Who do they believe that is the best and the fastest footballer of Fenerbahçe? (Incorrect)
4. What do students say that was the most difficult lesson at school last year?(Incorrect)

Unlike the grammatical items of other four NSP, in which the proficiency groups showed a near-native-like performance in accepting the grammatical sentences, neither group showed a native-like performance in accepting the grammatical *that*-trace questions. In the first grammatical item of the *that*-trace property, the intermediate group correctly accepted the grammatical sentence at 26, 5% and the upper-intermediate group did 32, 4% on the same item, missing 2, 9 %. See table 21 below.

Table 21 The percentages for *that*-trace Good item 1

THAT_trace_Good_item1 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
THAT_trace_Good_item1	missing	Count	0	1	0	1
		% within Level	,0%	2,9%	,0%	1,2%
	Correct	Count	9	11	17	37
		% within Level	26,5%	32,4%	100,0%	43,5%
	Incorrect	Count	25	22	0	47
		% within Level	73,5%	64,7%	,0%	55,3%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 22 The percentages for *that*-trace Good item 2

THAT_trace_Good_item2 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
THAT_trace_Good_item2	missing	Count	3	0	0	3
		% within Level	8,8%	,0%	,0%	3,5%
	Correct	Count	11	17	17	45
		% within Level	32,4%	50,0%	100,0%	52,9%
	Incorrect	Count	20	17	0	37
		% within Level	58,8%	50,0%	,0%	43,5%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

In the second grammatical item (see Table 22 above), the intermediate group poorly did again and got 32, 4% of success, 8,8% missing. The upper-intermediate group was more successful than the intermediate group and got 50% success.

In rejecting the two ungrammatical *that*-trace questions, the proficiency groups do not show a native-like performance. The intermediate group showed a success of 0% in ungrammatical items, 5, 9 % missing in the first ungrammatical item and 8, 8% missing in the second one. The upper-intermediate group is slightly more successful than the intermediate group and got 8, 8 % and 5, 9% success; 11, 4% and 5,9% missing, in the ungrammatical item1 and 2, respectively. See the tables 23 and 24.

Table 23 The percentages for *that*-trace Bad item 1

THAT_trace_Bad_item1 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
THAT_trace_Bad_item	missing	Count	2	4	0	6
		% within Leve	5,9%	11,8%	,0%	7,1%
	Correct	Count	0	3	17	20
		% within Leve	,0%	8,8%	100,0%	23,5%
	Incorrect	Count	32	27	0	59
		% within Leve	94,1%	79,4%	,0%	69,4%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Leve	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 24 The percentages for *that*-trace Bad item 2

THAT_item_Bad_item2 * Level Crosstabulation

			Level			
			Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Control Group	Total
THAT_item_Bad_item2	missing	Count	3	1	0	4
		% within Level	8,8%	2,9%	,0%	4,7%
	Correct	Count	0	2	17	19
		% within Level	,0%	5,9%	100,0%	22,4%
	Incorrect	Count	31	31	0	62
		% within Level	91,2%	91,2%	,0%	72,9%
Total		Count	34	34	17	85
		% within Level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

4.1.1.6 Evaluation

The results show that although the intermediate group shows similar success to upper-intermediate group in accepting the grammatical sentences, it is still behind the upper-intermediate group in rejecting the ungrammatical sentences, especially in NSP of *that*-trace. The upper-intermediate group sometimes shows a native-like performance especially in accepting grammatical sentences. On the other hand, the group shows a fluctuating success in rejecting ungrammatical sentences. It sometimes shows a near-native-like performance and it sometimes shows an intermediate group profile, especially in *that*-trace sentences.

When the proficiency groups are compared to the control group, it is seen that they can perform as successful as the control group in accepting grammatical sentences of the properties 'the null subject use in embedded sentences', 'Subject-Verb inversion in declarative sentences', 'expletive *it* and *there'*, they show a lack of performance in rejecting the ungrammatical sentences of these related NSP properties. In addition to these, both groups are unsuccessful in accepting the grammatical sentences and rejecting the ungrammatical ones of *that*-trace items. This lack of performance in

rejecting the ungrammatical sentences and total failure in acquiring *that*-trace may be an indication of a theory of Subset Principle in which superset language learners are said to need negative evidence to learn a subset language. It may also be a consequence of the syntactic transfer of L1 to L2 situation in which Turkish students were affected by their mother tongue in judging the grammaticality of 'bad' items.

4.1.2 Comparing means of three groups: one-way ANOVA

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to compare the means of the intermediate, upper-intermediate and control groups with one another. The dependent variables are group mean performances on each NSP. The within-subjects one-way analysis of variance values are analyzed under each NSP with a mean plot.

4.1.2.1 Null subject use in embedded clauses

The ANOVA was significant for null subject use in embedded clauses, F(2, 82)=33,873,
p= ,000. The top and the bottom score in null subject use part is 4 and 1, respectively. The intermediate group(M=2,26; SD=,618) scored relatively poorer than the upper-intermediate group(M=3,18; SD=,869). Control (native) group has the highest mean score(M=3,88; SD=,332) . See tables 25 and 26 below.

Table 25 ANOVA table for Null subject use in embedded clauses

ANOVA

null_tot

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	32,488	2	16,244	33,873	,000
Within Groups	39,324	82	,480		
Total	71,812	84			

Table 26 Descriptive statistics for Null subject use in embedded clauses

Descriptives

null_tot

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Intermediate	34	2,26	,618	,106	2,05	2,48	1	4
Upper-intermediat	34	3,18	,869	,149	2,87	3,48	2	4
Control	17	3,88	,332	,081	3,71	4,05	3	4
Total	85	2,95	,925	,100	2,75	3,15	1	4

A follow-up test was conducted to see whether the differences between the means are significant. Because the variances among the three groups ranged from 0,110 to 0,755, it is thought that the variances were homogeneous and the Dunnet's C test which does not assume equal variances among groups is conducted as a post hoc comparison. It is seen that the mean differences between groups are significant at the .05 level which means that the group means significantly differ from one another. See Table 27.

Table 27 The comparisions of the means of each proficiency group on null subject use in embedded clauses

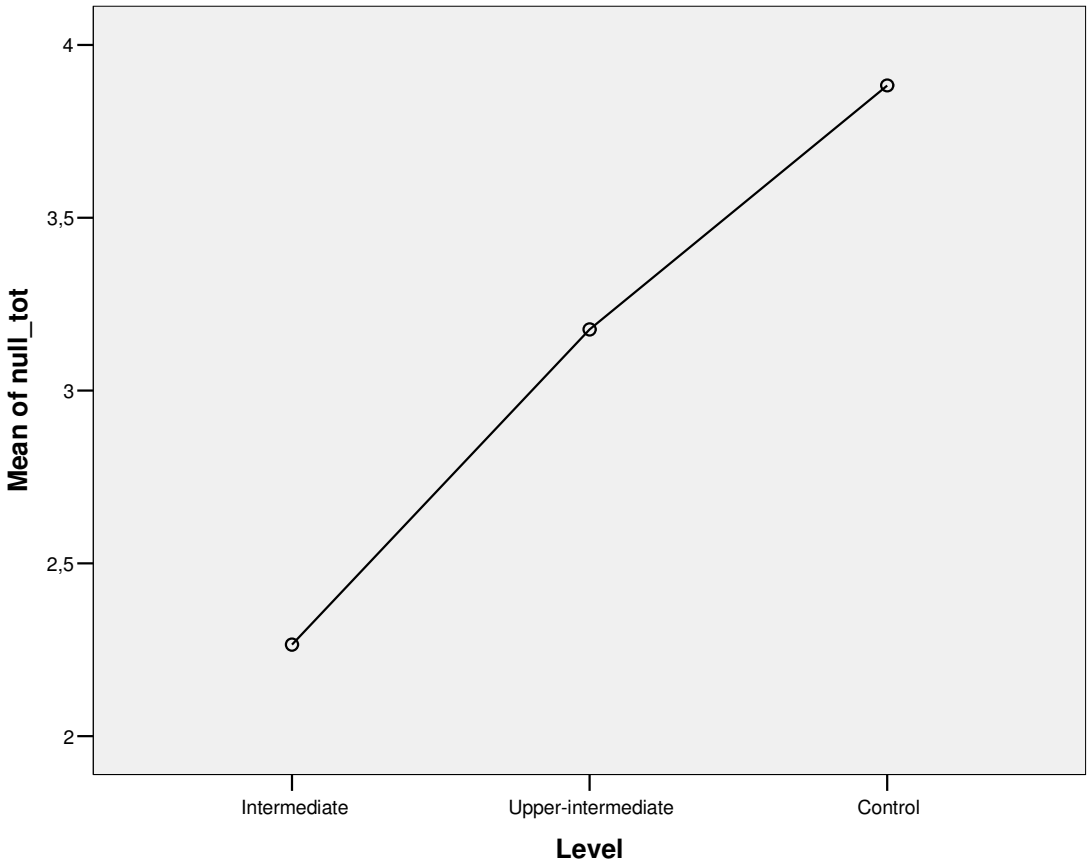
Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: null_tot

Dunnett C

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	-,912*	,183	-1,36	-,46
	Control	-1,618*	,133	-1,95	-1,28
Upper-intermediate	Intermediate	,912*	,183	,46	1,36
	Control	-,706*	,169	-1,13	-,29
Control	Intermediate	1,618*	,133	1,28	1,95
	Upper-intermediate	,706*	,169	,29	1,13

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.



Graph 1 The means of each proficiency group on null subject use in embedded clauses

As it is seen in the mean plot in Graph 1, the line representing the mean of null subject use among groups is at the bottom level in the intermediate group and at the top in control (native speakers'). As the proficiency level increases, the mean of the null subject use also increases.

4.1.2.2 Subject-verb inversion in declarative sentences

The ANOVA was significant for Subject-verb inversion in declarative sentences, F(2, 82)=8,49, p= ,000. The top and the bottom score in Subject-verb inversion in declarative sentences part is 4 and 1, respectively. The intermediate group(M=2,79; SD=,808) relatively did poorer than the upper-intermediate group(M=3,21; SD=,77). Control (native) group has the highest mean score (M=3,71; SD=,588). See in tables 28 and 29.

Table 28 ANOVA table for Subject-Verb inversion in Declarative sentences

ANOVA

SV_tot

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	9,659	2	4,829	8,490	,000
Within Groups	46,647	82	,569		
Total	56,306	84			

Table 29 Descriptive statistics for Subject-Verb inversion in Declarative sentences

Descriptives

SV_tot

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Intermediate	34	2,79	,808	,139	2,51	3,08	2	4
Upper-intermedia	34	3,21	,770	,132	2,94	3,47	2	4
Control	17	3,71	,588	,143	3,40	4,01	2	4
Total	85	3,14	,819	,089	2,96	3,32	2	4

A follow-up test was conducted to see whether the differences between the means are significant. Because the variances among the three groups ranged from 0, 34 to 0,65, it is thought that the variances were homogeneous and the Dunnet's C test which does not assume equal variances among groups is conducted as a post hoc comparisons. It is seen that the mean differences between intermediate-native and upper-intermediate-native groups are significant at the .05 level. However, the mean difference between the intermediate-upper-intermediate groups is not significant at the .05 level. In other words, the mean difference between the intermediate and native group is worth considering besides the mean difference between the upper-intermediate and native group. See table 30 below.

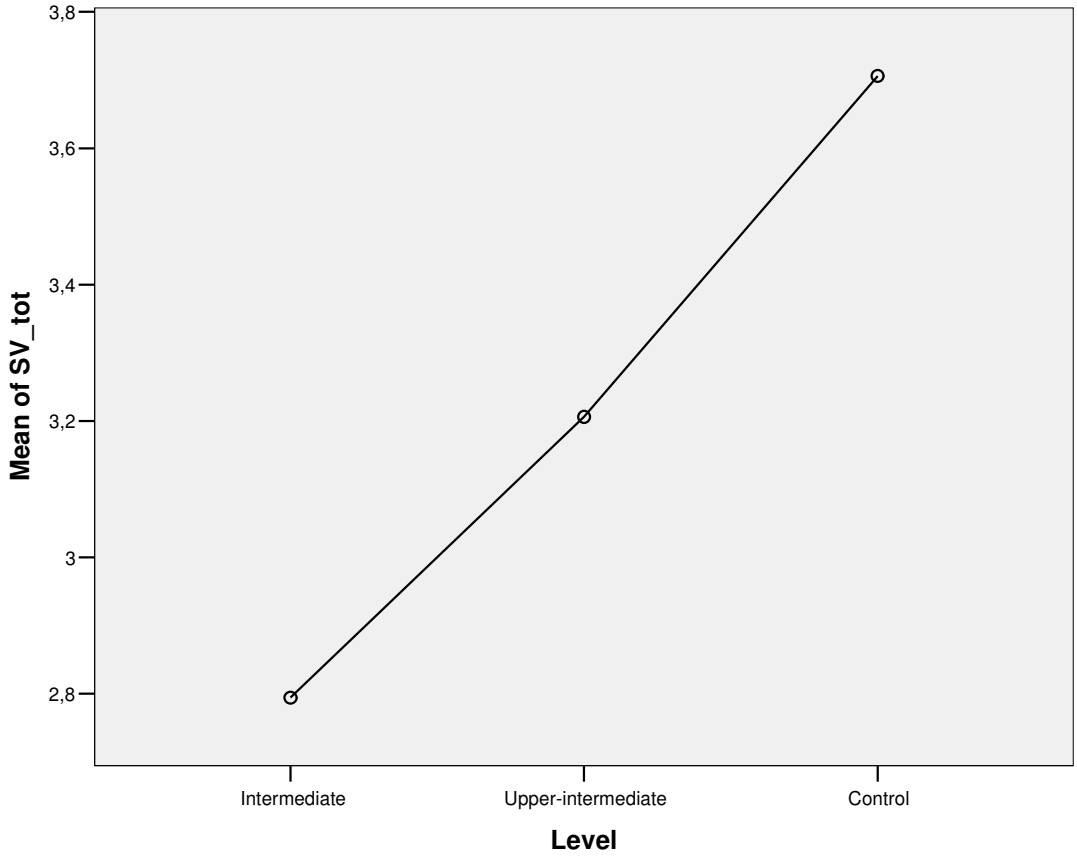
Table 30 The comparisions of the means of each proficiency group on null subject use in embedded clauses

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: SV_tot
Dunnett C

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	-,412	,191	-,88	,06
	Control	-,912*	,199	-1,41	-,41
Upper-intermediate	Intermediate	,412	,191	-,06	,88
	Control	-,500*	,194	-,99	-,01
Control	Intermediate	,912*	,199	,41	1,41
	Upper-intermediate	,500*	,194	,01	,99

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.



Graph 2 The means of each proficiency group on Subject-Verb inversion in Declarative sentences

As it is seen in the mean plot in Graph 2, the line representing the mean of Subject-verb inversion in declarative sentences among groups is at the bottom level in the intermediate group and at the top in control (native speakers'). As the proficiency level increases, the mean of the null subject use also increases.

4.1.2.3 The use of Expletive *It*

The ANOVA was significant for the use expletive *it*, F(2, 82)=40,82, p= ,000. The top and the bottom score in the use expletive 'it' part is 4 and 1, respectively. The intermediate group (M=1, 97; SD=,797) relatively did poorer than the upper-intermediate group(M=2,85; SD=,610). Control (native) group has the highest mean score (M=3,76; SD=,562) . See tables 31 and 32.

Table 31 ANOVA table for Expletive *It*

ANOVA

IT_tot

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	38,129	2	19,065	40,824	,000
Within Groups	38,294	82	,467		
Total	76,424	84			

Table 32 Descriptive statics for Expletive *It*

Descriptives

IT_tot

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Intermediate	34	1,97	,797	,137	1,69	2,25	1	4
Upper-intermediat	34	2,85	,610	,105	2,64	3,07	2	4
Control	17	3,76	,562	,136	3,48	4,05	2	4
Total	85	2,68	,954	,103	2,48	2,89	1	4

A follow-up test was conducted to see whether the differences between the means are significant. Because the variances among the three groups ranged from 0, 31 to 0,63, it is thought that the variances were homogeneous and the Dunnet's C test which does not assume equal variances among groups is conducted as a post hoc comparison. It is seen that the mean differences among the groups are significant at the .05 level. The intermediate group mean and the control group mean are significantly different from each other. There is also significance between the intermediate and upper-intermediate group means. The upper-intermediate group mean also significantly differs from control group (native) mean. See table 33 below.

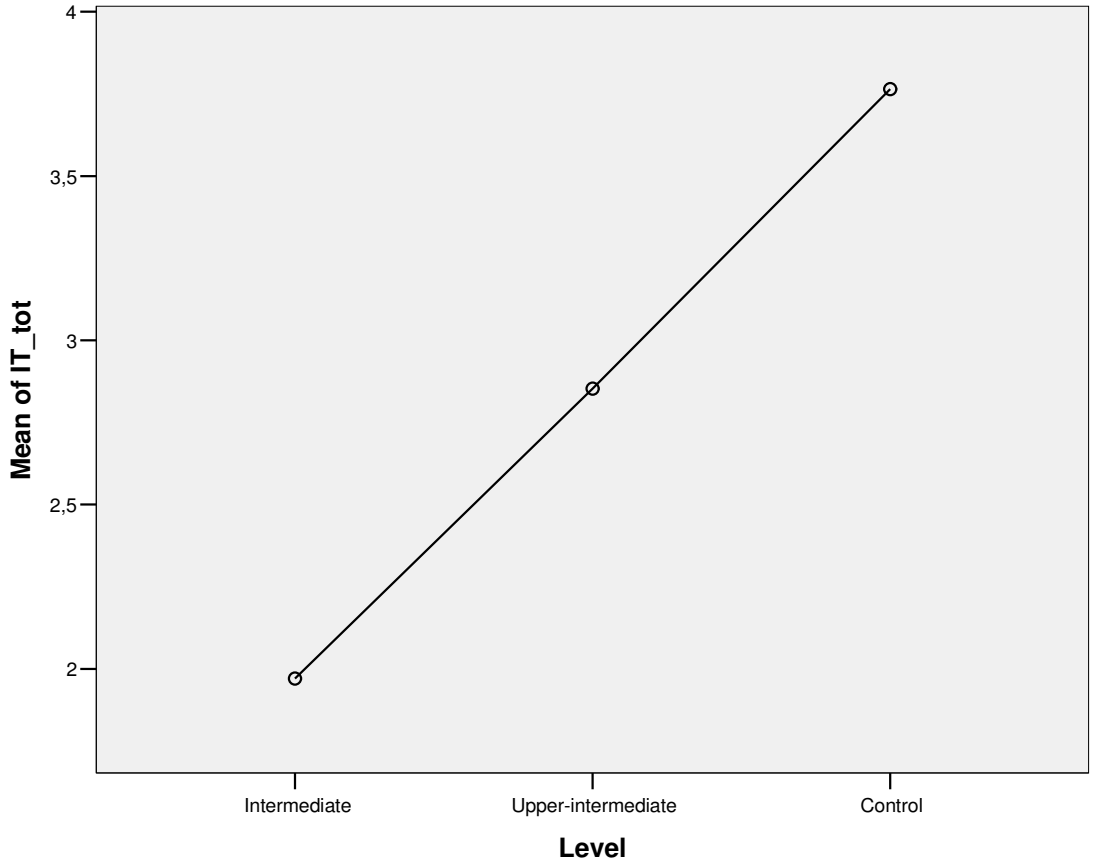
Table 33 The comparisions of the means of each proficiency group on the use of Expletive *it*

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: IT_tot
Dunnett C

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	-,882*	,172	-1,30	-,46
	Control	-1,794*	,193	-2,28	-1,31
Upper-intermediate	Intermediate	,882*	,172	,46	1,30
	Control	-,912*	,172	-1,35	-,48
Control	Intermediate	1,794*	,193	1,31	2,28
	Upper-intermediate	,912*	,172	,48	1,35

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.



Graph 3 The mean of each group on the use of Expletive *it*

As it is seen in the mean plot in Graph 3, the line representing the mean of Expletive *it* use among groups is at the bottom level in the intermediate group and at the top in control (native speakers'). As the proficiency level increases, the mean of the null subject use also increases.

4.1.2.4 The use of Expletive *there*

The ANOVA was significant for the use expletive 'there', F(2, 82)=28,12, p= ,000. The top and the bottom score in the use expletive 'there' part is 4 and 1, respectively. The intermediate group(M=2,53; SD=,615) relatively did poorer than the upper-intermediate group(M=2,79; SD=,641). Control (native) group has the highest mean score(M=3,82; SD=,393) .See table 34 and 35 below.

Table 34 ANOVA Table for the use of Expletive *there*

ANOVA

THERE_tot

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	19,547	2	9,774	28,120	,000
Within Groups	28,500	82	,348		
Total	48,047	84			

Table 35 Descriptive statistics for the use of Expletive *there*

Descriptives

THERE_tot

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Intermediate	34	2,53	,615	,105	2,31	2,74	2	4
Upper-intermedi	34	2,79	,641	,110	2,57	3,02	2	4
Control	17	3,82	,393	,095	3,62	4,03	3	4
Total	85	2,89	,756	,082	2,73	3,06	2	4

A follow-up test was conducted to see whether the differences between the means are significant. Because the variances among the three groups ranged from 0, 15 to 0,37,

it is thought that the variances were homogeneous and the Dunnet's C test which does not assume equal variances among groups is conducted as a post hoc comparison. It is seen that the mean differences among the intermediate-native and upper-intermediate-native groups are significant at the .05 level. However, the mean difference between the two proficiency groups is not significant at the .05 level. See table 36 below.

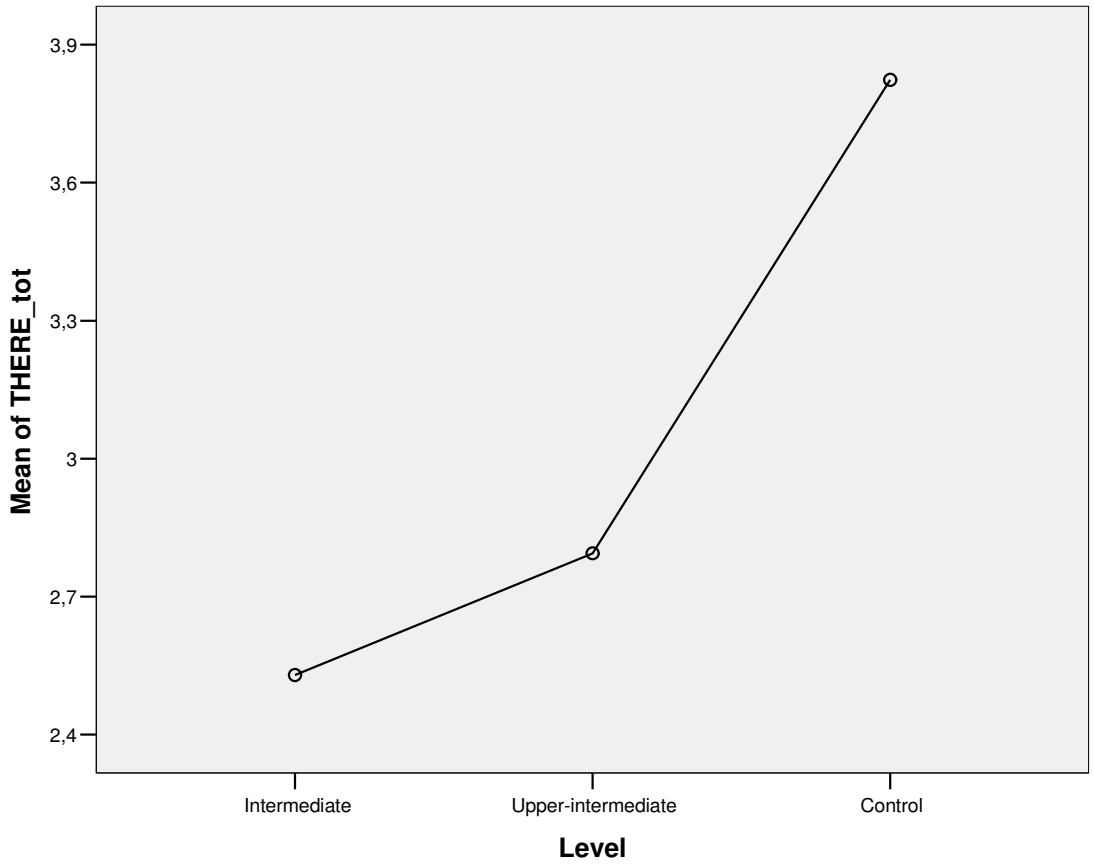
Table 36 The comparisions of the means of each proficiency group on the use of Expletive *there*

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: THERE_tot
Dunnett C

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	-,265	,152	-,64	,11
	Control	-1,294*	,142	-1,65	-,94
Upper-intermediate	Intermediate	,265	,152	-,11	,64
	Control	-1,029*	,145	-1,39	-,66
Control	Intermediate	1,294*	,142	,94	1,65
	Upper-intermediate	1,029*	,145	,66	1,39

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.



Graph 4 The mean of each group on the use of Expletive *there*

As it is seen in the mean plot in Graph 4, the line representing the mean of Expletive 'there' use among groups is at the bottom level in the intermediate group and at the top in control (native speakers'). As the proficiency level increases, the mean of the null subject use also increases. However, upper-intermediate group mean is near to the intermediate group mean rather than the native group mean.

4.1.2.5 *That*-trace

The ANOVA was significant for the *that*-trace, F(2, 82)=106,61, p= ,000. The top and the bottom score in *that*-trace part is 4 and 0, respectively. The intermediate group (M=,59; SD=,701) relatively did poorer than the upper-intermediate group(M=,97; SD=1,087). Control (native) group has the highest mean score (M=4; SD=0). See tables 37 and 38.

Table 37 ANOVA table for *that*-trace

ANOVA

THAT_T_tot

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	143,547	2	71,774	106,609	,000
Within Groups	55,206	82	,673		
Total	198,753	84			

Table 38 Descriptive statistics table of *that*-trace

Descriptives

THAT_T_tot

	N	Mean	td. Deviatio	Std. Erro	% Confidence Interval Mean ower Boun	pper Boun	Minimum	Maximum
Intermediate	34	,59	,701	,120	,34	,83	0	2
Upper-interme	34	,97	1,087	,186	,59	1,35	0	4
Control	17	4,00	,000	,000	4,00	4,00	4	4
Total	85	1,42	1,538	,167	1,09	1,76	0	4

A follow-up test was conducted to see whether the differences between the means are significant. Because the variances among the three groups ranged from 0 to 0,49, it is

thought that the variances were homogeneous and the Dunnet's C test which does not assume equal variances among groups is conducted as a post hoc comparison. It is seen that the mean differences among the intermediate-native and upper-intermediate-native groups are significant at the .05 level. However, the mean difference between the two proficiency groups is not significant at the .05 level. See table 39.

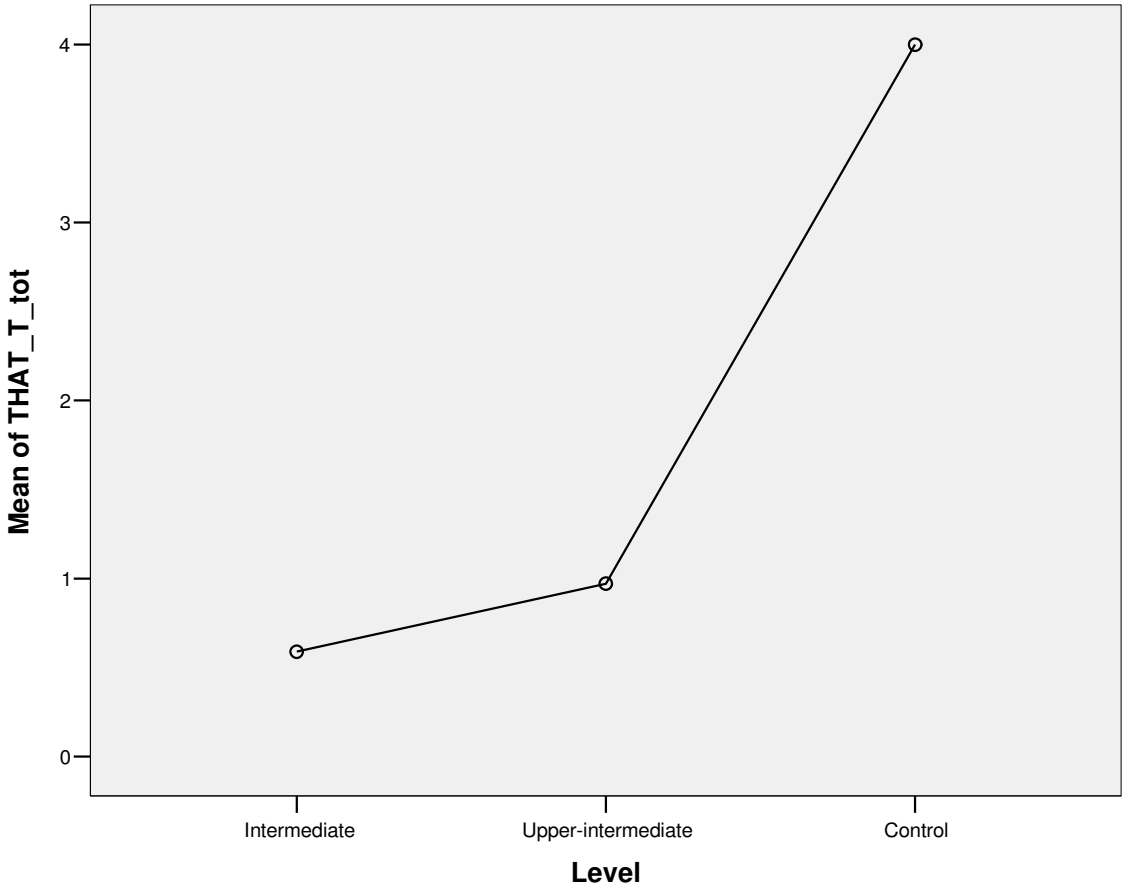
Table 39 The comparisions of the means of each proficiency group on the use of *that*-trace

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: THAT_T_tot
Dunnett C

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	-,382	,222	-,93	,16
	Control	-3,412*	,120	-3,71	-3,12
Upper-intermediate	Intermediate	,382	,222	-,16	,93
	Control	-3,029*	,186	-3,49	-2,57
Control	Intermediate	3,412*	,120	3,12	3,71
	Upper-intermediate	3,029*	,186	2,57	3,49

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.



Graph 5 The mean of each group on *that*-trace

As it is seen in the mean plot in Graph 5, the line representing the mean of that-*trace* part among groups is at the bottom level in the intermediate group and at the top in control (native speakers'). As the proficiency level increases, the mean of the null subject use also increases. However, upper-intermediate group mean is near to the intermediate group mean rather than the native group mean. As it is indicated the difference between the means of two proficiency groups is not significant at the .05 level.

4.1.2.6 GJT-Total Evaluation

In order to have a general view, mean scores for GJT is calculated and the means of these three groups are compared to one another in order to find out significance among means.

The ANOVA was significant for the GJT mean scores, F(2, 82)=116,726, p= ,000. The top and the bottom score in *that*-trace part is 20 and 0, respectively. The intermediate group (M=10,15; SD=1,84) relatively did less than the upper-intermediate group(M=13; SD=2,34). Control (native) group has the highest mean score (M=19,18; SD=1,38). See tables 40 and 41.

Table 40 ANOVA table for GJT

ANOVA

GJT_tot

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	924,512	2	462,256	116,726	,000
Within Groups	324,735	82	3,960		
Total	1249,247	84			

Table 41 Descriptive Statistics for GJT

Descriptives

GJT_tot

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Intermediate	34	10,15	1,844	,316	9,50	10,79	6	13
Upper-intermed	34	13,00	2,348	,403	12,18	13,82	9	17
Control	17	19,18	1,380	,335	18,47	19,89	16	20
Total	85	13,09	3,856	,418	12,26	13,93	6	20

A follow-up test was conducted to see whether the differences between the means are significant. Because the variances among the three groups ranged from 1, 90 to 5, 47, it is thought that the variances were homogeneous and the Dunnet's C test which does not assume equal variances among groups is conducted as a post hoc comparison. It is seen that the mean differences among the intermediate-native and upper-intermediate-native groups and intermediate-upper-intermediate groups are significant at the .05 level. See table 42 below.

Table 42 The comparisions of group means for GJT

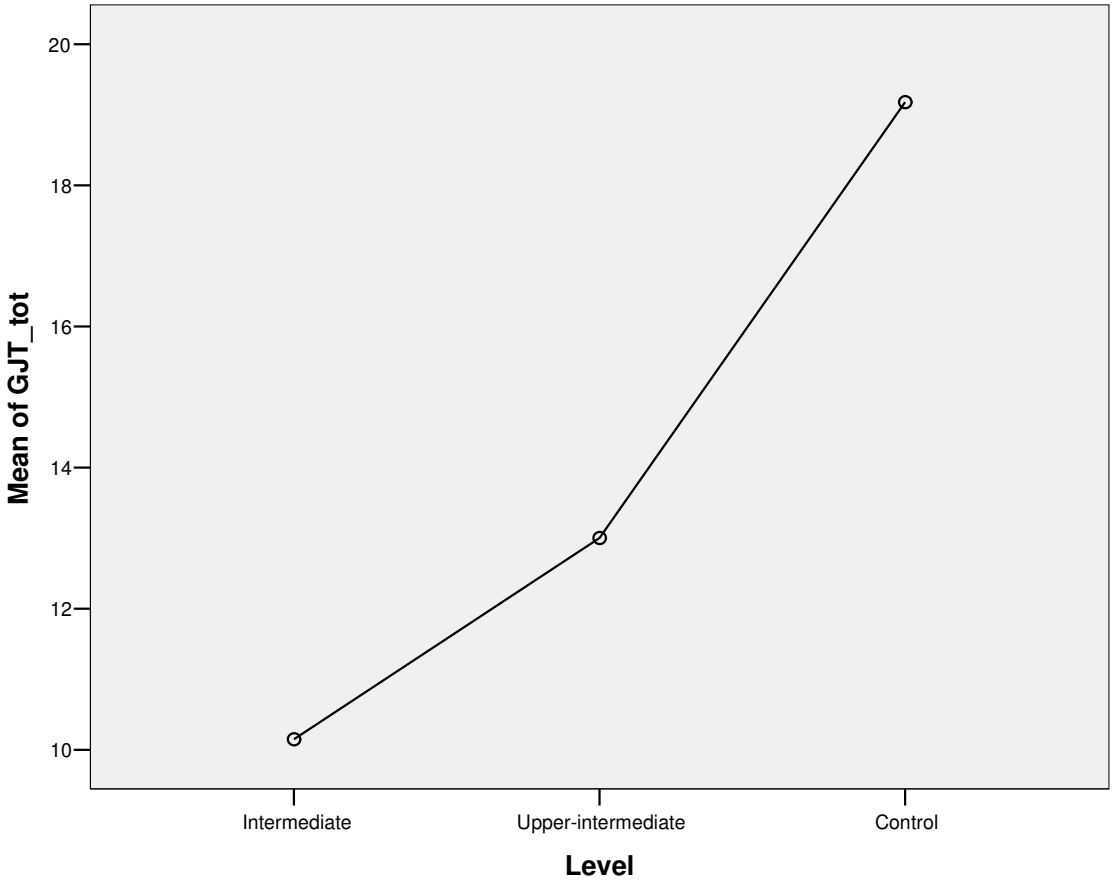
Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: GJT_tot

Dunnett C

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	-2,853*	,512	-4,11	-1,60
	Control	-9,029*	,461	-10,19	-7,87
Upper-intermediate	Intermediate	2,853*	,512	1,60	4,11
	Control	-6,176*	,524	-7,49	-4,86
Control	Intermediate	9,029*	,461	7,87	10,19
	Upper-intermediate	6,176*	,524	4,86	7,49

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.



Graph 6 The mean of GJT for each group

As it is seen in the mean plot in Graph 6, the line representing the mean of GJT among groups is at the bottom level in the intermediate group and at the top in control (native speakers'). As the proficiency level increases, the means of the GJT scores also increase. However, upper-intermediate group mean is not as near to the native group mean as it is to the intermediate group mean, though there is a significant difference between these two proficiency groups.

4.2 Results of the Dialogue Task (DT)

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to compare the means of the intermediate, upper-intermediate and control groups with one another. The dependent variables are group mean performances on each NSP. The one-way analysis of variance values are analyzed under each NSP with a mean plot as done for GJT.

4.2.1 Null subject use in embedded clauses

Null Subject use in embedded sentences in DT

1. **A:** What do you think about the new government?

   B: I am not hopeful about them. They increased the taxes as soon as _____were elected.

2. **A:** I can't believe it! How did she manage to finish her science project in three days?

   B: It wasn't easy for her but she was so determined that she didn't even take a rest until_____had finished her work.

3. **A:** I do not understand why he left his job. He was earning 2000 € a month.

   B: That's true but he had to quit the job because _____had to work until midnight.

The ANOVA was not significant for the null subject use in embedded clauses, F(2, 82)=1,299, p= ,278. The top and the bottom score in this part is 3 and 0, respectively. The intermediate group(M=2,88; SD=,40) did nearly the same as the upper-intermediate group(M=2,97; SD=,17). Control (native) group has the highest mean score (M=3; SD=0). See table 43 and 44 below.

Table 43 ANOVA table for null subject use in embedded sentences in Dialogue task

ANOVA

DTnull_tot

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,206	2	,103	1,299	,278
Within Groups	6,500	82	,079		
Total	6,706	84			

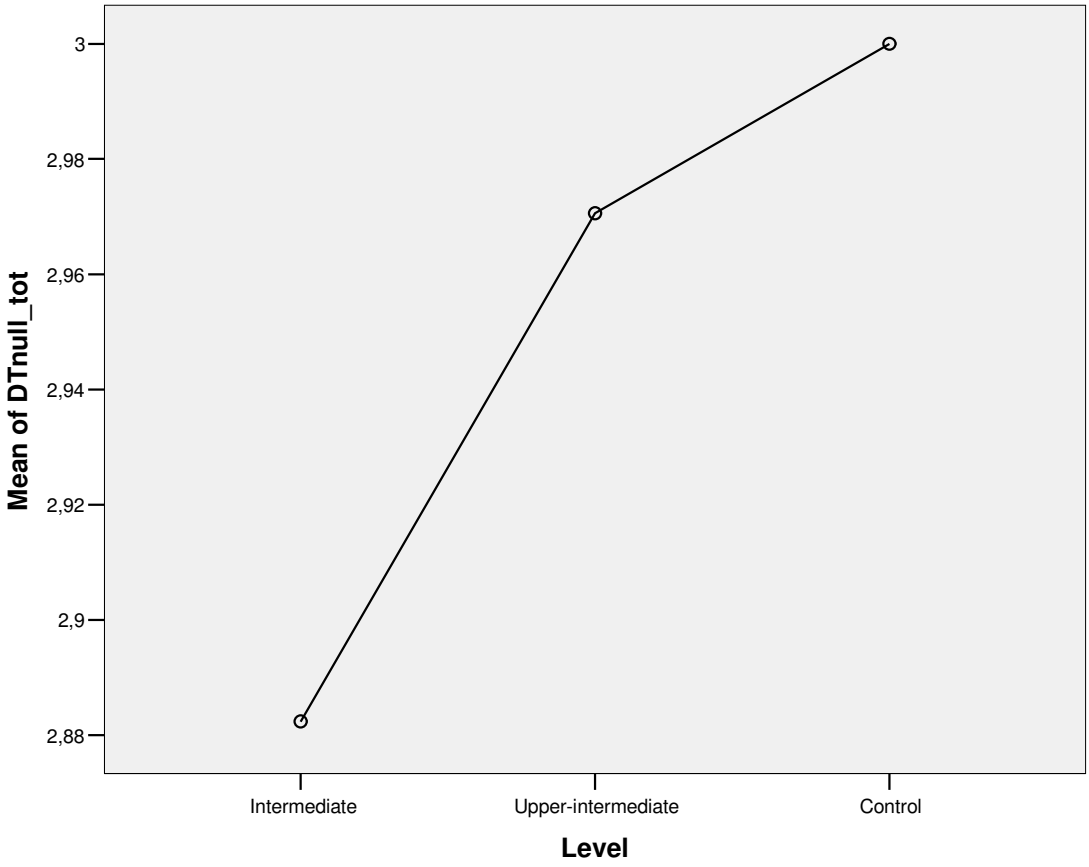
Table 44 Descriptives table for null subject use in embedded sentences in Dialogue task

Descriptives

DTnull_tot

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Intermediate	34	2,88	,409	,070	2,74	3,03	1	3
Upper-intermediat	34	2,97	,171	,029	2,91	3,03	2	3
Control	17	3,00	,000	,000	3,00	3,00	3	3
Total	85	2,94	,283	,031	2,88	3,00	1	3

A follow-up test was not conducted due to the fact that F is not significant at the .05 level which means the groups showed a relatively equal performance on the null subject use in embedded clauses part.



Graph 7 The line shows the tendency of mean score of null subject use for each group

In the mean plot graph above, though the bottom score (2, 88) is not far from the top score 3, the hierarchy between the proficiency levels does not change. The mean differences, on the other hand, are not significant.

4.2.2 Expletive *It*

The Use of Expletive IT items in DT

1. **A:** You should be happier as you have just come from a long holiday, but I see that you are not.

   B: You may think so but_____was in Antalya, not in Ankara that I wanted to spend my holiday.

2. **A:** What about the last night's FB-GS match?

   B:_____is said that FB and GS got equal scores.

The ANOVA was significant for the use of expletive *it* in sentences, F(2, 82)=55,389, p= ,000. The top and the bottom score in this part is 2 and 0, respectively. The intermediate group(M=1,18; SD=,387) did slightly better than the upper-intermediate group(M=1,09; SD=,288). Control (native) group has the highest mean score (M=2; SD=0). See tables 45 and 46 below.

Table 45 ANOVA table for Expletive *it* use in Dialogue task

ANOVA

DTit_tot

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	10,371	2	5,185	55,389	,000
Within Groups	7,676	82	,094		
Total	18,047	84			

Table 46 Descriptives table for Expletive *it* use in Dialogue task

Descriptives

DTit_tot

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Intermediate	34	1,18	,387	,066	1,04	1,31	1	2
Upper-intermed	34	1,09	,288	,049	,99	1,19	1	2
Control	17	2,00	,000	,000	2,00	2,00	2	2
Total	85	1,31	,464	,050	1,21	1,41	1	2

A follow-up test was conducted to see whether the differences between the means are significant. Because the variances among the three groups ranged from 0 to ,14, it is thought that the variances were homogeneous and the Dunnet's C test which does not assume equal variances among groups is conducted as a post hoc comparison. It is seen that the mean differences among the intermediate-native and upper-intermediate-native groups are significant at the .05 level. However, there is no significance between the means of two proficiency groups. See table 47 below.

Table 47 The comparision of means for Expletive *it* use in Dialogue task

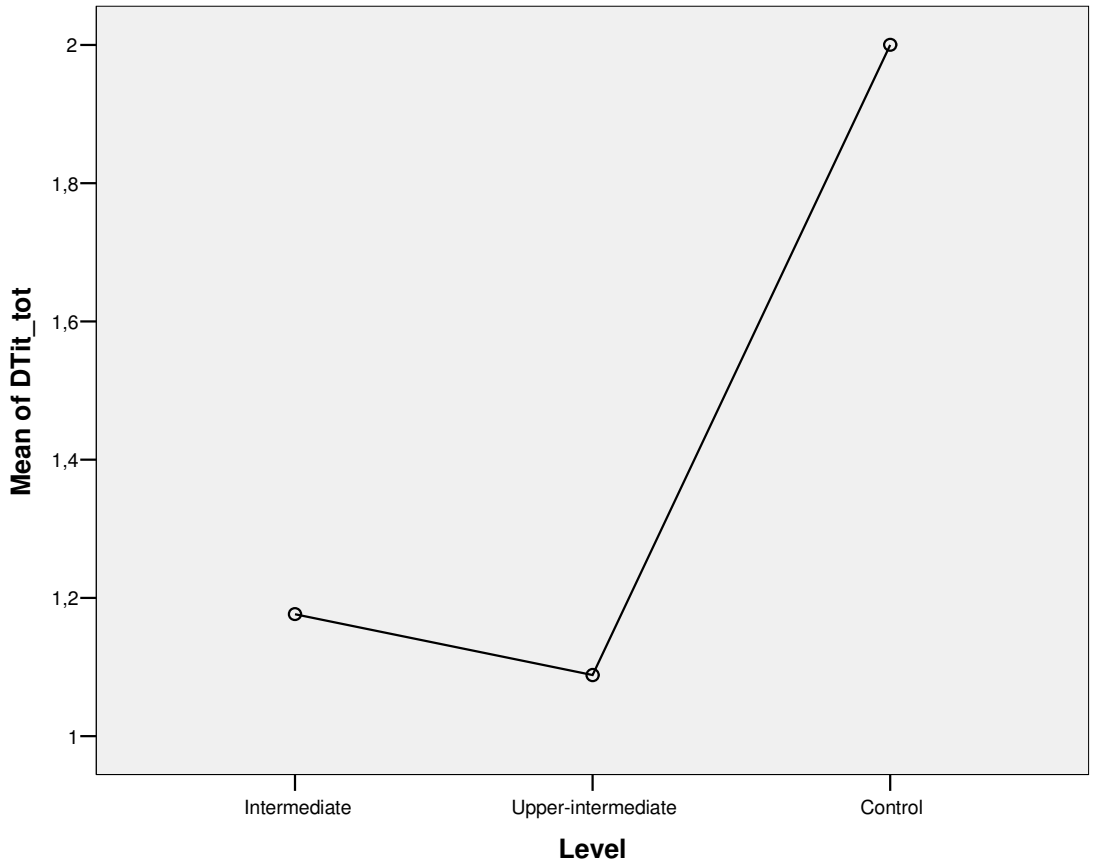
Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: DTit_tot

Dunnett C

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	,088	,083	-,11	,29
	Control	-,824*	,066	-,99	-,66
Upper-intermediate	Intermediate	-,088	,083	-,29	,11
	Control	-,912*	,049	-1,03	-,79
Control	Intermediate	,824*	,066	,66	,99
	Upper-intermediate	,912*	,049	,79	1,03

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.



Graph 8 The line shows the tendency of mean score of Expletive *it* use for each group in DT

As it is seen in the Graph 8, this time intermediate group outperformed the upper-intermediate group, though the mean difference is not significant at the .05 level. Proficiency groups, on the other hand, performed less than the native group. The mean difference between the upper-intermediate group and the control group is significant at the .05 level.

4.2.3 Expletive *There*

Expletive *there* items in DT

1. **A:** What do you think about the pre-school education in Turkey?

   B: In my opinion, _____should be more kindergartens for kids in order to educate them better.

2. **A:** Is it true that scientists have found a new cure for AIDS?

   B: Maybe, but _____have been many people talking about this matter so far. However, nobody could find a remedy for this fatal illness.

3. **A:** Will you be at John's party on Friday night?

   B: I don't know. I have not decided yet.

   A: As far as I know, _____will be many people at the party because he will invite Madonna, his friend, to sing at the party.

The ANOVA was significant for the use of expletive *there* in sentences, F(2, 82)=7,072, p= ,001. The top and the bottom score in this part is 3 and 0, respectively. The intermediate group(M=2,32; SD=,727) did slightly less than the upper-intermediate group(M=2,65; SD=,646). Control (native) group has the highest mean score (M=3; SD=0). See tabs 48 and 49 below.

Table 48 ANOVA table for Expletive *there* use in Dialogue task

ANOVA

DTthere_tot

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5,382	2	2,691	7,072	,001
Within Groups	31,206	82	,381		
Total	36,588	84			

Table 49 Descriptives table for Expletive *there* use in Dialogue task

Descriptives

DTthere_tot

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Intermediate	34	2,32	,727	,125	2,07	2,58	1	3
Upper-intermedi	34	2,65	,646	,111	2,42	2,87	1	3
Control	17	3,00	,000	,000	3,00	3,00	3	3
Total	85	2,59	,660	,072	2,45	2,73	1	3

A follow-up test was conducted to see whether the differences between the means are significant. Because the variances among the three groups ranged from 0 to ,51, it is thought that the variances were homogeneous and the Dunnet's C test which does not assume equal variances among groups is conducted as a post hoc comparison. It is seen that the mean differences among the intermediate-native and upper-intermediate-native groups are significant at the .05 level. However, there is no significance between the means of two proficiency groups. See table 50 below.

Table 50 The comparision of means for Expletive *there* use in Dialogue task

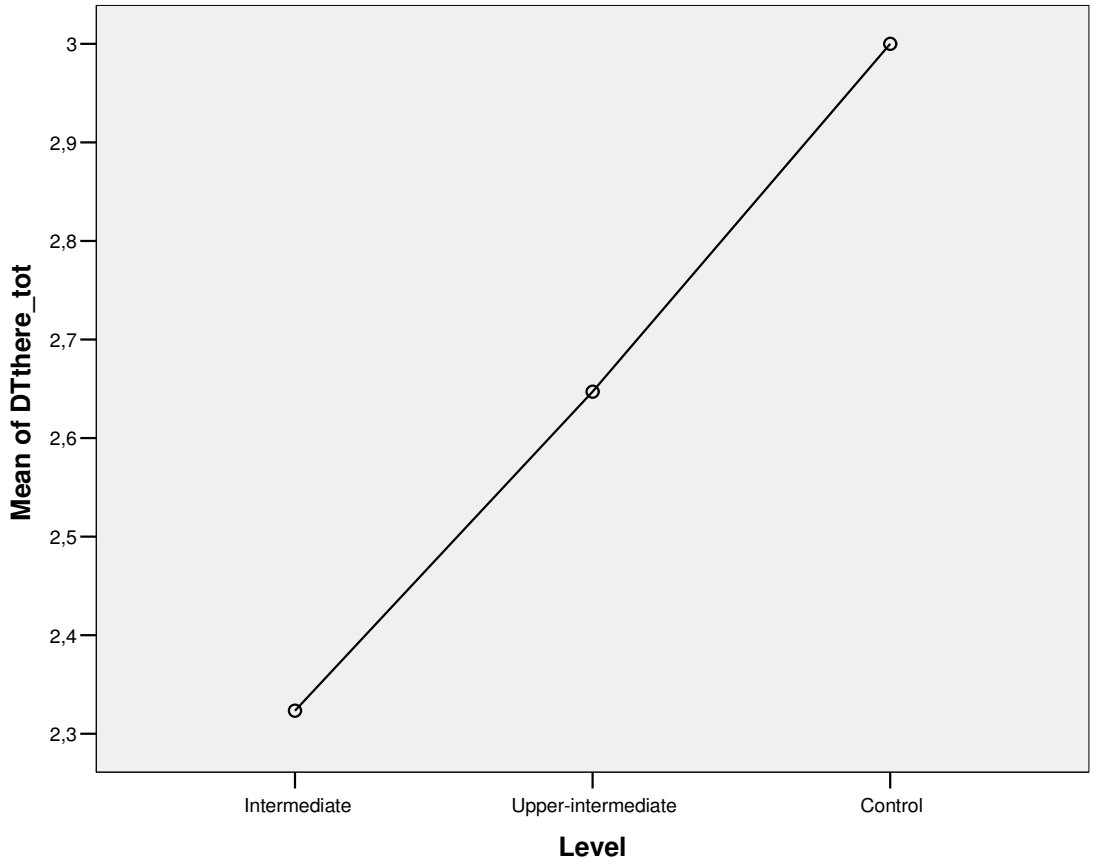
Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: DTthere_tot

Dunnett C

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	-,324	,167	-,73	,09
	Control	-,676*	,125	-,98	-,37
Upper-intermediate	Intermediate	,324	,167	-,09	,73
	Control	-,353*	,111	-,62	-,08
Control	Intermediate	,676*	,125	,37	,98
	Upper-intermediate	,353*	,111	,08	,62

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.



Graph 9 The line shows the tendency of mean score of Expletive *there* use for each group in DT

The mean plot graph again displays a hierarchy of proficiency level groups and the control group; though the difference between the two proficiency groups is not significant at the .05 level.

4.2.4 *That*-trace

That-trace items in DT

1. **A:** Mary says that somebody has stolen her purse.

   B: Who does she believe _____her purse?

   A: She believes that Jerry did it because he was the only one who knew about the money in her purse.

2. **A:** How are the students in your class?

   B: Some of them are good and some of them are bad, as usual.

   A: Which students do you think _____a good high school?

   B: I think Merve and Semra can get into a good one.

3. **A:** I want to learn a foreign language, but I cannot. What do foreign language teachers say _____most effective way of learning a language?

   B: They say that reading and listening in that language are the most effective ways of learning it.

The ANOVA was significant for the *that*-trace part in DT, F(2, 82)=33,618, p= ,000. The top and the bottom score in this part is 3 and 0, respectively. The intermediate group(M=1,21; SD=,914) did slightly less than the upper-intermediate group(M=1,82; SD=,716). Control (native) group has the highest mean score (M=3; SD=0). See tables 51 and 52.

Table 51 ANOVA table for *that*-trace in Dialogue task

ANOVA

DTthat_t_tot

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	36,488	2	18,244	33,618	,000
Within Groups	44,500	82	,543		
Total	80,988	84			

Table 52 Descriptives table for *that*-trace in Dialogue task

Descriptives

DTthat_t_tot

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Intermediate	34	1,21	,914	,157	,89	1,52	0	3
Upper-intermedia	34	1,82	,716	,123	1,57	2,07	1	3
Control	17	3,00	,000	,000	3,00	3,00	3	3
Total	85	1,81	,982	,107	1,60	2,02	0	3

A follow-up test was conducted to see whether the differences between the means are significant. Because the variances among the three groups ranged from 0 to ,82, it is thought that the variances were homogeneous and the Dunnet's C test which does not assume equal variances among groups is conducted as a post hoc comparison. It is seen that the mean differences among the intermediate-native and upper-intermediate-native groups are significant at the .05 level. Besides, there is also significance between the means of two proficiency groups. See table 53.

Table 53 The comparision of means for *that*-trace in Dialogue task

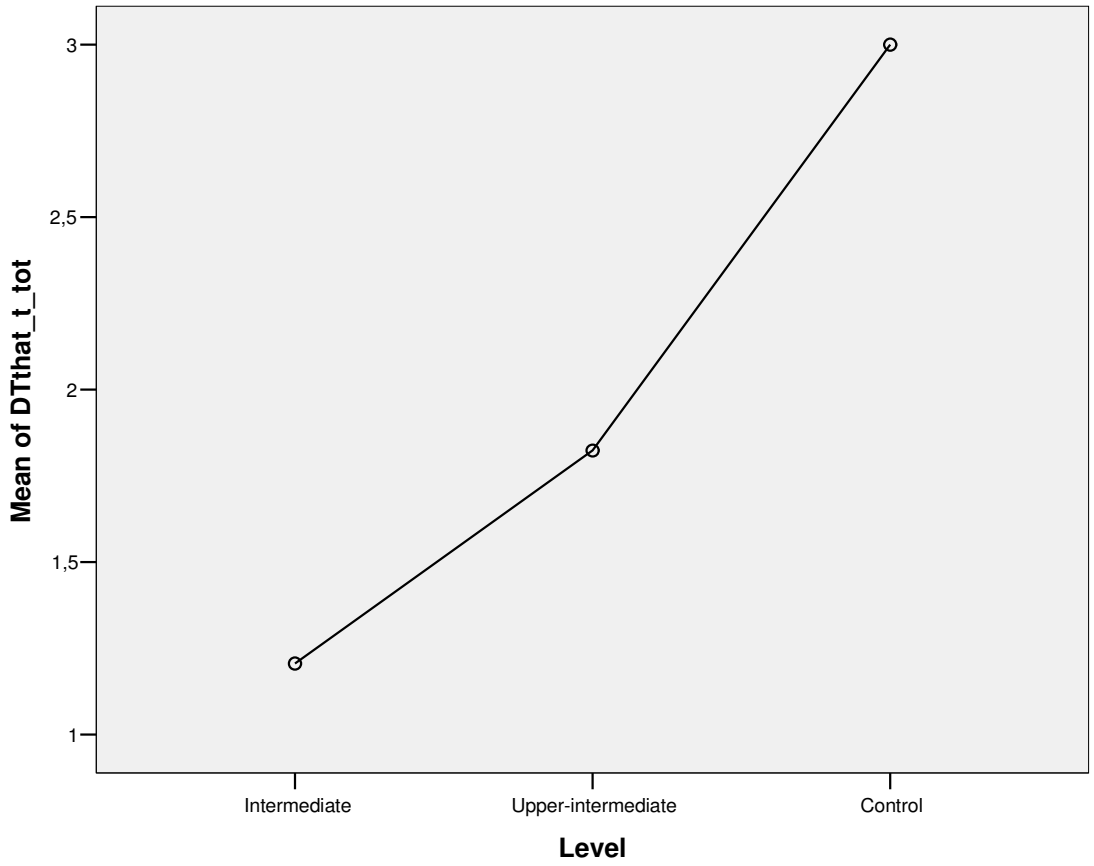
Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: DTthat_t_tot

Dunnett C

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	-,618*	,199	-1,11	-,13
	Control	-1,794*	,157	-2,18	-1,41
Upper-intermediate	Intermediate	,618*	,199	,13	1,11
	Control	-1,176*	,123	-1,48	-,87
Control	Intermediate	1,794*	,157	1,41	2,18
	Upper-intermediate	1,176*	,123	,87	1,48

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.



Graph 10 The line shows the tendency of mean score of *that*-trace for each group in DT

The mean plot line again follows a linear path. The hierarchy of the groups does not change. It is also seen that the two proficiency groups performed quite poorer than the control group.

4.2.5 DT Total

The ANOVA was significant for the total DT scores of the groups, F(2, 82)=45,076, p= ,000. The top and the bottom score in this part is 11 and 0, respectively. The

intermediate group (M=7,59; SD=1,54) did slightly less than the upper-intermediate group(M=8.53; SD=1,13). Control (native) group has the highest mean score (M=11; SD=0). See tables 54 and 55.

Table 54 ANOVA table for total score in Dialogue task

ANOVA

DT_tot

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	132,706	2	66,353	45,076	,000
Within Groups	120,706	82	1,472		
Total	253,412	84			

Table 55 Descriptive statistics table for total score in Dialogue task

Descriptives

DT_tot

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Intermediate	34	7,59	1,540	,264	7,05	8,13	4	10
Upper-intermedi	34	8,53	1,134	,195	8,13	8,93	5	11
Control	17	11,00	,000	,000	11,00	11,00	11	11
Total	85	8,65	1,737	,188	8,27	9,02	4	11

A follow-up test was conducted to see whether the differences between the means are significant. Because the variances among the three groups ranged from 0 to 1,27, it is thought that the variances were homogeneous and the Dunnet's C test which does not assume equal variances among groups is conducted as a post hoc comparison. It is seen that the mean differences among the intermediate-native and upper-intermediate-native groups are significant at the .05 level. Besides, there is also significance between the means of two proficiency groups. See table 56.

Table 56 The comparision of means of total scores of groups in Dialogue task

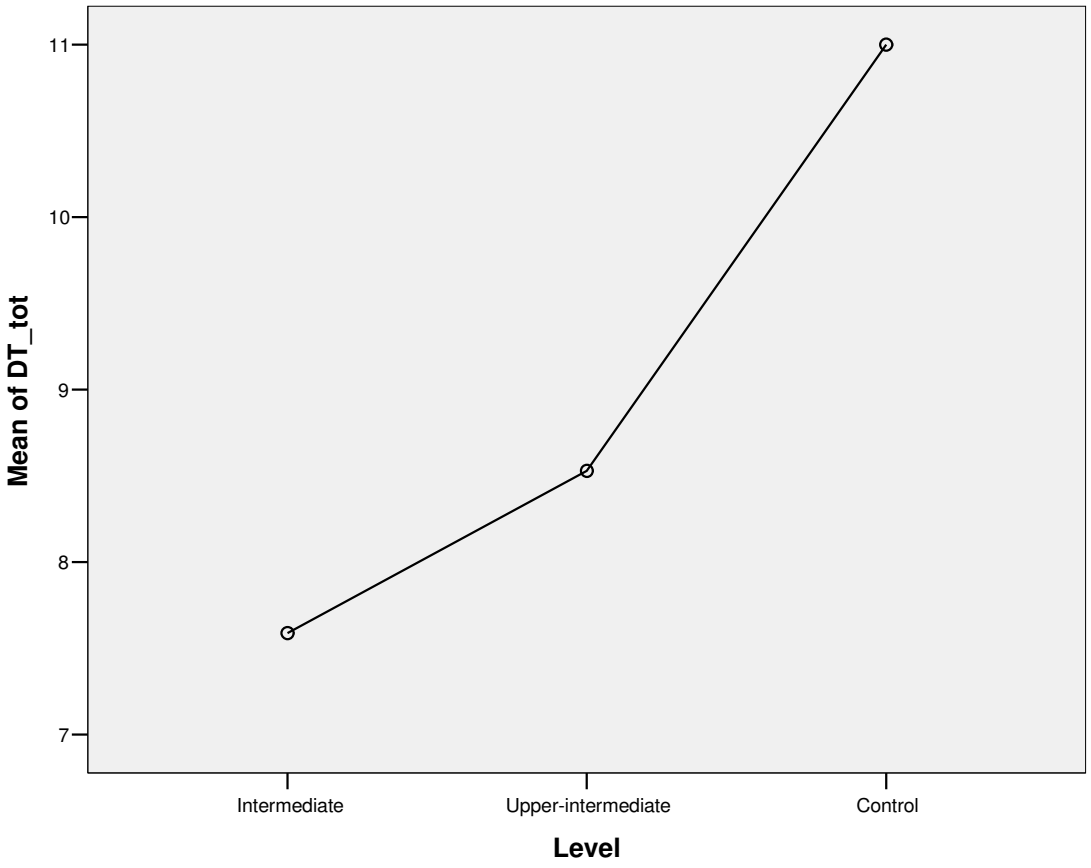
Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: DT_tot

Dunnett C

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	-,941*	,328	-1,75	-,14
	Control	-3,412*	,264	-4,06	-2,76
Upper-intermediate	Intermediate	,941*	,328	,14	1,75
	Control	-2,471*	,195	-2,95	-1,99
Control	Intermediate	3,412*	,264	2,76	4,06
	Upper-intermediate	2,471*	,195	1,99	2,95

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.



Graph 11 The line shows the tendency of DT mean scores of each group

The mean plot line again goes up as the proficiency increases. The hierarchy of the groups does not change. It is also seen that the two proficiency groups performed poorer than the control group.

4.3 Discussion

In this part, the result of each null subject parameter will be discussed under the relevant title.

4.3.1 Null subject use in embedded clauses

In the Cross-tabular analysis of GJT, it is seen that there is no problem in accepting grammatically correct items. However, the problem lies in rejecting the ungrammatical items of null subject property. Especially the intermediate group shows a relatively poorer performance on rejecting the null subject parameter than the upper-intermediate group does. The ANOVA results also indicate significance among the groups. However, the situation differs in the DT in which the participants were required to fill in the blanks with the given pronouns and expletives or leave it empty. According to DT results, the group means do not significantly differ from one another and both proficiency groups, especially the upper-intermediate group, shows a near-native-like performance at that point. Null subject use in embedded clauses property seems to be one of the properties that can be re-organized easily by the pro-drop language speakers. The results of this study with regards to null subject use in embedded clauses are also supported because in the previous studies, null subject use in embedded clauses is stated to be a previously acquired property (White 1985, Liceras 1986).

4.3.2 Subject-Verb Inversion in Declarative sentences

Subject-Verb Inversion in declarative clauses was only analyzed in GJT because its nature does not allow testing it via a dialogue completion test.

As it is the case in null subject use in embedded clauses property, there is no problem in accepting grammatical sentences of S-V inversion. The problem arises in rejecting and correcting the ungrammatical items but as expected, the upper-intermediate group is more successful in rejecting and correcting the ungrammatical items than the intermediate group is.

When an error analysis done on incorrect responses, it is seen that the participants cannot find the subject put at the end of the sentence and they either put their own subjects or just indicate the non-existence of the subject. Native speakers (control group) also reacted as the same as the two proficiency groups (11, 8%). Nevertheless, proficiency groups were relatively more successful in acquiring the ungrammaticality of subject-verb inversion in declarative clauses in English than they were in acquiring the other properties like expletive *it* and *there* use and *that*-trace.

4.3.3 The use of Expletive *It*

In GJT, there were two types of *it* sentences: weather *it* and anticipatory *it*. The participants were relatively more successful in responding to grammatical and ungrammatical weather *it* sentences. However, they are not as successful in correcting the ungrammatical anticipatory *it* sentences (8, 8% Intermediate; 14,7% upper-intermediate). When the group means are compared, it is seen that groups significantly differ from one another. However, in the DT, the proficiency group means significantly differ from the control group's mean. Although the score of the intermediate group was higher than the upper-intermediate ones in DT, the mean difference between the two proficiency groups is not a significant one.

It seems that learners do not have any problems in weather *it* sentences, whether grammatical or ungrammatical, which may be due to the fact that *it* may stand as a pronoun for the word *weather.* In weather *it*; *it* has a solid reference, weather.

However, in anticipatory *it*, *it* does not have a reference but a function of procrastinating the actual subject. Although in Turkish, subjects can be moved to any position in a sentence, there is no dummy subject as there is in English. At this point L1 may interfere with L2 acquisition.

A recent study (Çokal & Ruhi, 2006) also supports this study's findings with regards the use of *it* in written discourse. In discourse deixis, it is used when the reader and the author do refer the same referent in a certain discourse and when the "referent constitutes shared information" (Cornish 2001: 313). According to this study, Turkish students learning English as L2 use *it* inappropriately to refer to a previous part of a discourse in their essays. They also use *it* without referring to an antecedent or 'inappropriately referring to the proposition in the previous unit or to a larger segment (Çokal & Ruhi, 2006)'. However, researchers also found that as students' proficiency level increases, appropriate use of *it* also increases.

4.3.4 Expletive *There*

As it is the case with the formerly analyzed NSP properties, the two proficiency groups do not have any problems and they show a native-like performance in accepting the grammatical sentences of expletive *there* items (100% for both proficiency levels). However, the two groups' success dramatically falls in rejecting and correcting the ungrammatical *there* sentences in GJT (The success in rejecting the ungrammatical *there* items for Intermediate group is 38, 2% and 14,7% for ungrammatical item 1 and 2 and for Upper-intermediate group, it is 67,6% and 11,8%).

They put the procrastinated subject at the beginning of the sentence and established a canonical order of the sentence. Such a reaction may be a result of the access to the

L1 structure in which subject NP is used in Turkish due to the lack of a dummy subject in Turkish.

The Ungrammatical *there* items 1and 2 and sample corrections made by an upper-intermediate student is below.

The Ungrammatical item 1 for there

*According to the educators, contrary to expectations, will be many students preparing for OSS.

An upper-intermediate level student's correction

According to the educators, contrary to expectations, many students will be preparing for OSS.

Expected correction

According to the educators, *there* will be many students preparing for OSS.

The Ungrammatical item 2 for there

*According to economists, apart from high inflation, is the problem of unemployment in Turkey.

An upper-intermediate level student's correction

According to economists, apart from high inflation, unemployment is the problem of Turkey.

Expected correction

According to economists, apart from high inflation, *there* is the problem of unemployment in Turkey.

When Expletive *there* means in GJT are observed, it is seen that though the two proficiency group means do not differ significantly from one another, the control group's mean significantly differs from these two groups. DT results also supports GJT results because the two proficiency group means significantly differ from the control group's; though, the proficiency groups do not with one another.

4.3.5 *That*-trace

Of all the pro-drop parameter properties, *that*-trace is proved to be the most problematic area. Although the two proficiency groups are more successful in

accepting the grammatical sentences, they are not so in rejecting the ungrammatical ones (26,5% and 32,4% of the intermediate group; 32,4 % and 50% of the upper-intermediate group in accepting the grammatical *that*-trace items 1 and 2, respectively). The two groups, especially the intermediate one did relatively poorer than the control group in rejecting the ungrammatical sentences (Intermediate group 0% and 0% and upper-intermediate group 8, 8% and 5,9% in both types of ungrammatical items). They are quite below the control group performance which is 100% across four *that*-trace items.

When learners' corrections on *that*-trace items are evaluated, it is seen that learners have problems with (1) the existence or non-existence of *that* and (2) the matrix clause existing between the *wh*-question word and the embedded clause. While some of the learners ungrammatically inserted *that* in grammatical questions in GJT, they did not omit *that* while they were rejecting and correcting the ungrammatical questions. Instead of omitting the ungrammatical *that*, these learners deleted the matrix clause and made a simple interrogative-like sentence both in GJT and DT. Examples for grammatical and ungrammatical items are given below.

The grammatical item 1 for that-trace

What do you think can be the most effective way of learning English?

An intermediate level student's correction

*What do you think *that* can be the most effective way of learning English?

The Ungrammatical item 1 for that-trace

*Who do they believe *that* is the best and the fastest footballer of FB?

An intermediate level student's correction

*Who *that* is the best and the fastest footballer of FB?

An upper-intermediate level student's correction

*Who *they believe that what* is the best and the fastest footballer of FB?

Expected correction

Who do they believe is the best and the fastest footballer of FB?

5 students in each level, on the other hand, indicated that the item is 'bad' but they said that they could not find the ungrammaticality in that sentence.

The ANOVA results of GJT and DT also reflect the same findings. In GJT, the two proficiency groups significantly differ from the control group; although, the proficiency group means do not significantly differ from one another. In DT, the difference between the means of each proficiency group and the control group is significant. However, unlike in GJT, the mean difference between two proficiency groups is also significant, as well which means that the upper-intermediate group is more successful than the intermediate group.

Such a result in *that*-trace is expected because *that*-trace is also considered to be one of the most problematic NSP property for [–pro-drop] language learners who speak a [+pro-drop] language as it is in our case. According to White (1985), Liceras (1989), and Banka (2006), *that*-trace is proved to be the last property to be acquired (re-organized) by the [+pro-drop] language learners. In addition to them, Towell and Hawkins (1994:116) further claim that *that*-trace is the property which cannot be acquired, either. According to Towell and Hawkins (1994:116) this acquisition process may not even be completed by L2 learners.

> adolescent / adult native speakers of [+prodrop] languages such as Spanish, Italian, and Greek learning a [-prodrop] language such as English take time to acquire obligatory subjects, rapidly recognize that subject-verb inversion is not possible, but have great difficulties learning the constraint on *wh*-subject extraction[7], perhaps never acquiring it.
>
> Towell and Hawkins (1994:116)

As it was explained in the earlier sections *that*-trace effect is a result of co-occurrence of the Complement *that* and *wh*-trace in a single sentence and *that*

[7] In pro-drop languages, *wh*- question words functioning as subjects of embedded clauses can be extracted from that embedded clause, although there is an overt Comp resulting the occurance of *that*-trace violation in a non-pro-drop language.

inhibiting the recovery of he subject trace of the embedded clause which is a result of Move α. Shortly, the Complement *that* and subject trace cannot co-exist in a single sentence in English.

The syntactic structure is different in Turkish. Firstly, *wh*- movement does not occur at PF level in Turkish. Namely, Turkish is a *wh*-in-situ language (Kornfilt, 1984 and Birtürk, 1998a:5) unlike English in which *wh*- question words should be moved to the sentence initial position overtly. On this aspect, Ackerman & Neeleman (2004) emphasize in their paper that the *wh*-in-situ languages do not exhibit *that*-trace effect. Secondly, if the particle -*k* of the suffixes –Acak, -mAK, -DIK is to be taken as the Complementizer in embedded sentences as Kural (1994) suggests, which occurs at the end of the embedded clause, will not also allow *that*-trace effect in Turkish. A Turkish translation of a sample *that*-trace sentence is below.

[Ayşe [kim-in geldi-ğ-in]-i Söyle-di]?
[Ayşe [who-gen come-Nom-comp-gen]-acc say-PAST-3rd sing]?
'Who did Ayşe say has come/came?'

Upon that point, such differences in L1 situation may interfere with the L2 acquisition. The Comp *that* is not seen as a redundant element in *that*-trace questions in English or even it can be inserted in grammatical questions in English.

4.3.6 DT and GJT results

When the results of the two tests are compared to each other, it is seen that learners are more successful in DT than they are in GJT. According to the results, the two proficiency groups show a near-native-like performance in the properties of null subject use, Expletives *it* and *there* unlike they do in GJT.

The relative success of proficiency groups in DT may be a result of the task type, in which the two proficiency groups are required to fill in the blanks according to the instructions. To illustrate, in DT part 1, subjects knew how they were going to fill in the blanks. So, in DT part 1, it was easier for them to focus on the missing item. However, their mean score still significantly differs from the control group's.

The results of this study resemble to the results in the previous studies in the sense that while the properties of null subject use and subject-verb inversion are the first two properties acquired by learners, *that*-trace is the last one. In the other words, the implicational hierarchies related with the acquisition of NSP properties (White 1986 and Liceras 1989) are supported. Besides that, the results related with the acquisition of *that*-trace property confirmed the general view that it is the last property to be acquired by the learners.

The results also show that there is no clustering of the NSP properties because learners acquire each property independent from one another which was supported by the previous studies of White (1985), Liceras (1989), Lantolf (1990) and Banka (2006).

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.0 Presentation

In conclusion part, first, the study will be summarized in the summary section. Then, pedagogical views on teaching NSP properties in EFL classes will be touched upon. Lastly, suggestions for further research will be made.

5.1 Summary

The subject of the present thesis was the re-organization (acquisition) of Null Subject Parameter Properties by Turkish learners of English. The thesis focused on the questions below:

1. Are Turkish learners of English affected by the [+pro-drop] feature in their mother tongue while they are acquiring a [-pro-drop] language, English?
2. Do learners' proficiency levels affect the acquisition of Null Subject Parameter Properties?
3. Is there a relationship among the Null Subject Parameter Properties while re-organizing them?

In order to find out answers to these questions, two instruments were designed to gather data from participants: a Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT) and a Dialogue Task (DT). At first a pilot study was conducted on 3 intermediate and 6 upper-intermediate Çankaya University Preparation Department students in order to detect

the inadequacy of the tests. Following the pilot study, 3 Turkish teachers of English contributed to the re-designing of tests with their insights. After the pilot study and consultation to the teachers, the tests were re-designed for actual implementation in METU Basic English Department students. The tests were implemented on totally 81 METU students studying English in the upper-intermediate (46) and intermediate level (35) classes. During the data analysis procedure, this number is decreased to 68 participants to increase the validity of the results, each proficiency group being equal in size. A control group of native speakers (17 people) also took part in the study. The data gathered from the native speakers were taken as a criterion to score and evaluate students' data.

The data was analyzed in SPSS by conducting ANOVA in both types of tests and a cross tabular analysis only in GJT.

The results refuted the null hypothesis of 1 and 2 but not hypothesis 3. Final statements are listed below.

1. "Turkish learners of English are affected by the [+pro-drop] feature in their mother tongue while they are acquiring a [-pro-drop] language, English."
2. "Learners' proficiency levels affect the acquisition of Null Subject Parameter Properties."
3. "There is <u>not</u> a relationship among the Null Subject Parameter Properties while re-designing them."

The syntactic difference between Turkish and English may pose problems in the acquisition of the English version of the pro-drop parameter properties. Learners were observed to bring their L1 grammar into L2 grammar. For instance, they are not aware of the obligatory requirement of a referring subject pronoun in an embedded sentence. Besides, they prefer using subject NPs instead of dummy subjects of *it* and *there*. Moreover, they use Comp *that* and subject *wh*-extracted interrogatives.

As for the second research question, it is found out that proficiency levels play a major role in acquiring English version of NSP, as expected. In that aspect, upper-intermediate students were more successful than the intermediate ones in general. The results also showed that as the proficiency level increases, students' score on each NSP property also increases, which makes us to assume that native-like acquisition may be possible in advance levels.

On the other hand, the third null hypothesis cannot be refuted because NSP properties are not acquired as a cluster as it is proposed in literature and they are acquired independently as White (1985), Liceras (1989), Lantolf (1990) and Banka (2006) found in their studies.

Nevertheless, if an order of an acquisition was to be suggested, it would be as follows.

"S-V inversion > Null subject use in embedded sentences>*it*>*there*>*that*-trace"

The order of acquisition of NSP properties by Turkish learners seem to be S-V inversion and Null subject use in embedded clauses are the first and *that*-trace is the last which was also noticed in the studies of Liceras (1989), Lantolf (1990)and Banka (2006).

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

As it was previously indicated in this study, Turkish is a Superset language which allows the use of overt and null subject pronouns in finite sentences, whereas English is a subset language which only allows the obligatory use of subject (or a subject pronoun) in finite clauses. Turkish is a [+pro-drop] language while English is a [-pro-drop] one. In such a situation in which the speakers of a superset language learn a subset language like English, it is said that negative evidence is needed to help the

learner acquire the relevant structure or form (Cook, 1991:117). Negative evidence requires the instructor or the teacher to make the learner aware of what exists or does not exist in L2 when it is compared to learner's L1.

In her dissertation, Karacaer (2003) favors an approach called *processing instruction* (VanPatten, 1996). The aim of this approach is to improve the quality of input received by the learner and to enhance the input to become *intake*, which means "learner's way of processing input". This approach enables a learner to get the communicative function of a particular form and to enrich his intake. The characteristics of the approach are listed below.

1. Learners are given information about a linguistic structure or form.
2. Learners are informed about a particular information processing strategy that may negatively affect their picking up of the form during comprehension.
3. Learners are pushed to process the form during activities with structured input-the input which is manipulated in order to make learners focus on the form to get the meaning.

(VanPatten & Wong, in press cited in Karacaer, 2003)

In short, this approach focuses on learner strategies in processing the input and attends to manipulate it in the way enabling the learner to make correct assumptions about the form. To do this, it benefits from structured input activities. The pedagogical guidelines of structured input activities are below.

1. Teach only one thing at a time.
2. Keep meaning in focus.
3. Learners must do something with the input.
4. Use both oral and written input.
5. Move from sentences to connected discourse.
6. Keep the psycholinguistic processing mechanisms in mind.

(cited in Karacaer, 2003, VanPatten,1993:438-9)

The structured input activities include a set of processes: *input processing* which involves noticing the form and making cognitive comparison, *accommodation and*

restructuring in which the processed form is incorporated in the interlanguage, and *access* which involves retrieving and using the processed form.

In that aspect, the teacher's role is to design activities that enable learners to process the linguistic input accurately and give explicit knowledge when necessary. Students' role, on the other hand, is to reflect on the form and meaning presented by the teacher and internalize it.

In teaching of the characteristics of NSP in a [-pro-drop] language, explicit teaching of grammar with a focus on form and meaning may be used for a successful acquisition. Processing Instruction approach can be used effectively for the fact that it makes the learner aware of the form and meaning. It also makes learners aware of the wrong strategies they use to process information; for instance, learners may depend on their L1 to process L2 and assume that L2 resembles L1. Moreover, it helps learners to internalize form as it is also meaning-based. A sample activity for each pro-drop parameter property is explained below.

5.2.1 Teaching the obligatory use of null subjects in embedded clauses

As expected, Turkish learners of English may assume that subject may be omitted in embedded clauses, especially when it refers to the subject of the matrix clause. However, English does not allow omitting the co-referent subject pronoun in an embedded sentence. To make learners aware of the fact that such a rule exists in English; they are presented an ungrammatical embedded sentence as in the example (but learners will not know that it is ungrammatical).

*'We could not find the building until asked the address to someone.'

Then, learners will be asked 'who could not find the building?' and 'who asked the address to someone?' Both answers will be 'we'. Then the sentence will be split into

two from the subordinator *until* and the teacher wants the learners to assume that split sentences are totally separate. The same questions will be asked again.

The sentence on the board	a. We could not find the building.
The Teacher's question:	- Who could not find the building?
Students' expected answer:	-We
The sentence on the board	b. until asked the address to someone
The Teacher's question:	- Who asked the address to someone?
Students' expected answer:	-No answers or We

The learners will quite easily find the answer of the first question. But they will not for the second question as there is no subject there. Then the teacher will ask why the subject cannot be found or recovered in the second sentence. Learners may answer that there is no indication of subject on the verb as it is in Turkish. Then the teacher says that in English subject pronoun in an embedded clause should occur as there is no indication of it on the verb. So, learners will become aware of the fact that Turkish is different from English with respect to verbal agreement and subject use.

5.2.2 Subject-Verb Inversion

The results of this study shows that the acquisition of S-V inversion property precedes the other four null Subject properties, which imply that students become aware of the fact that SVO is a standard word order in English in the early steps of acquisition. In that aspect, when the students are made aware of the obligatory subject use in a matrix clause in English and the fact that the verb cannot occupy the subject position in a sentence, then S-V inversion errors, which are not so widespread in learner language, may become totally obsolete.

To sum up, in order to facilitate L2 acquisition, firstly teachers may provide learners with comprehensible input as well as with authentic input which reflects actual use of target language. Secondly, teachers should help learners focus on form in a familiar context. Lastly, teachers should provide learners with explicit instruction to minimize the effect of wrongly processed information by learners.

5.2.3 Expletives *It* and *There*

In teaching the use of *it* and *there,* a 'compare & contrast' activity may be effective in which the students compare and contrast the sentences with similar meaning.

It is M. Kemal Atatürk who founded the Turkish Republic.
M. Kemal Atatürk, not anybody else, founded the Turkish Republic.

In this activity the function of *it* is asked to the students first (emphasizing the subject M. Kemal Atatürk), then its structure (It+be+ emphasized subject and relative pronoun). The same can be done with *there*.

There are many ways to learn English.
Many ways exist to learn English.

In which 'there are' and 'exists' correspond to each other. Therefore, students can infer its meaning from the context and they become aware of its usage.

In addition to this, explicit instructions on rhetorical relations related with the deictic use of *it* can also be provided in L2 writing classrooms. Çokal and Ruhi (2006) suggest in their paper that reading activities that require learners to identify the intended referents of the expressions like *it* can be included in language classrooms to improve correct use of *it* in written texts.

5.2.4 *That*-trace

In order to teach the obligatory omission of *that* in *that*-trace questions, the following activity can be implemented in an EFL class. Two sentences, especially related with a reading passage, are taken and written on the board. The teacher asks the questions below (indicated with T) and elicits answers from learners.

The sentence *a* on the board	*a.* Ali stole the diamond.
	T: Who stole the diamond?
	S: Ali
The sentence *b* on the board	*b*. Ayşe thinks that Ali stole the diamond.
	T:Who does Ayşe think stole the diamond?
	S: Ali
	Then he asks another question and elicits the answer-the diamond.
	T: What does Ayşe think that Ali stole?
	S: The diamond.

So, he makes them aware of the fact that the doer of the stealing is Ali, namely, Ali is the subject in sentence *a* and the subject of the embedded clause in sentence *b*.

He asks the function of *diamond* in the sentence *b* and he gets the answer that it is the object of the sentence. In the end, he asks the non-existence of *that* in the first question and existence of *that* in the last question. He wants students to remember the syntactic function of the asked items in the questions and then he elicits answers again. After that, the teacher sums up the issue and makes an explanation about the obligatory omission of *that* in embedded questions.

5.3 Suggestions for further research

It is seen that the second language acquisition literature generally focuses on the pro-drop languages like Italian, Spanish and Hungarian. The studies related with Turkish, which is also a pro-drop language, should also be done. Prospective acquisition studies on Turkish will enrich the literature by adding other perspectives on the acquisition of pro-drop parameter properties.

In addition to that, it will be quite beneficial to understand the nature of acquisition of NSP in Turkish, if studies which are related with the acquisition of pro-drop properties by Turkish learners of English across three proficiency levels (intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced) are conducted.

Besides, transfer studies can also be conducted in the acquisition of pro-drop parameter properties in English by Turkish learners which will tap on the issue whether linguistic differences between languages are still effective in acquiring a second language.

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APPENDIX A

KATILIMCININ DİL EDİNİM GEÇMİŞİ BİLGİLERİ[8]

Bu çalışma Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü Öğretim Üyesi Prof. Dr. Deniz ZEYREK danışmanlığında Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi ve İngilizce öğretmeni olan Banu FAZILA tarafından yürütülmektedir. Çalışma genel olarak, Türk üniversite öğrencilerinin İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak edinmeleri üzerine yoğunlaşmıştır.

Aşağıdaki anket soruları sizin dil edinim sürecinizi öğrenmek amacıyla sorulmuştur. Bilgileriniz sadece yapılan bu çalışmayla ilgili olarak kullanılacaktır. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Adınız-Soyadınız:
Yaşınız:
Cinsiyetiniz:
Bulunduğunuz İngilizce düzeyi:

1. İngilizce öğrenmeye kaç yaşında başladınız?.....
2. İngilizce'den başka bildiğiniz yabancı dil(ler) var mı? Varsa hangi dil(ler) olduğunu ve o dil(ler)i öğrenme yaşınızı ve o dil(ler)deki seviyenizi yazın……..…….
   ……..……
3. İngilizce konuşulan bir ülkede bulundunuz mu? Bulunduysanız ülkeyi, bulunma yaşınızı ve o ülkede bulunma sürenizi yazın…….
4. İngilizce dersleri dışında İngilizcenizi geliştirme için ne kadar süre ayırıyorsunuz?

   Haftada…….saat.

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5. İngilizce dublaj yapılmamış filmleri ne kadar sıklıkta izliyorsunuz?(Altyazılı olanlar dahil)

Ayda…….film.

6. Şu ana kadar yaklaşık kaç tane İngilizce öğrenenler için yazılmış kitaplardan okudunuz?

Yaklaşık……kitap

7. Ne kadar sıklıkta orjinal İngilizce kitap okursunuz?

Yılda yaklaşık ……kitap.

8. Sizce aşağıdakilerden hangisi İngilizce seviyenizin gelişmesine en çok katkıda bulunmuştur? 1'den 6 'ya kadar sıralayın.

a) ( )Bugüne kadar yaptığım dilbilgisi alıştırmaları

b) ( )Sözlük çalışmasıyla edindiğin kelimeler

c) ( )İngilizce öğretmenimden aldığım düzeltmeler

d) ( )İzlediğim filmler

e) ( )Okuduğum kitaplar

f) ( )Anadili İngilizce olan kişilerle konuşmam

9. İngilizce çalışma zamanınızın yüzde kaçını aşağıdaki etkinliklere paylaştırıyorsunuz?

Dilbilgisi çalışması:%.....

Kitap/dergi/roman okuma:%.....

Türkçe dublaj yapılmamış Film/TV izlemek:%.....

APPENDIX B

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION FORM

Name-Surname:

Mother Tongue:

Do you speak a foreign language other than English? If yes, please specify the language and the level.

Age:

Occupation:

Education (Put a thick):

- □ Primary School
- □ High School
- □ University/BA
- □ MA/Phd

APPENDIX C

Ad-soyad: **Sınıf:** **İngilizce Seviyesi:**

DİLBİLGİSİ DOĞRULUK DEĞERLENDİRME TESTİ

Bu çalışma Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü Öğretim Üyesi Prof. Dr. Deniz ZEYREK danışmanlığında Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi ve İngilizce öğretmeni olan Banu FAZILA tarafından yürütülmektedir. Çalışma genel olarak, Türk üniversite öğrencilerinin İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak edinmeleri üzerine yoğunlaşmıştır.

AÇIKLAMA: Aşağıda dilbilgisi açısından değerlendirilecek 30 adet cümle bulunmaktadır. Lütfen cümlelerin dilbilgisel anlamda doğruluğunu değerlendirin. Cümleyi yanlış buluyorsanız lütfen nedenini cümlenin altındaki boşlukta belirtin ya da cümle üzerinde gösterin. Katılımınız için çok teşekkürler.

Örnek:

SENTENCES	GOOD	BAD
1. My brother hate school. **IF BAD, WHY?**……*hates*……		*
2. Mary, which I know very well, is a famous actress. **IF BAD, WHY?**……*who*……		*
3. She likes playing tennis. **IF BAD, WHY?**……	*	

GRAMMATICALITY JUDGEMENT TEST

This study is conducted by Middle East Technical University Social Sciences Institute English Language Teaching Department student Banu FAZILA under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Deniz ZEYREK. The focus of the study is on the acquisition of English as a foreign language by Turkish university students.

INSTRUCTION: Below there are 30 sentences to be judged for their grammaticality. Please indicate whether the sentence is grammatically good or bad. If you think that the sentence is bad, please explain why on the blank under the sentence or show it on the sentece. Thanks a lot for your participation.

Example:

SENTENCES	GOOD	BAD
4. My brother <u>hate</u> school. **IF BAD, WHY?**……*hates*……		*
5. Mary<u>, which</u> I know very well, is a famous actress. **IF BAD, WHY?**……*who*……		*
6. She likes playing tennis. **IF BAD, WHY?**……	*	

SENTENCES	GOOD	BAD
1. In the near future, it will be the water that will be fought for. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**……..		
2. Who do they believe that is the best and the fastest footballer of Fenerbahçe? **IF** **BAD,WHY?**……..		
3. Scientists think that global warming will be caused drought and famine by 2010 **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
4. According to UNESCO, all around the world, many people are struggling with starvation. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
5. According to environmentalists, in the near future, there will be less water in the world. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
6. What do they say that Mary and her boyfriend will do after school? **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
7. According to educators, contrary to expectations, will still be many students preparing for ÖSS. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		

8. As a university student, Jill did not care whether passed her exams or not. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**……		
9. Due to global warming, is predicted that some plant species will become extinct. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**……		
10. During shopping, you spend so much money that I cannot understand you. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**……		
11. According to doctors, may sometimes lead to severe illnesses tiny health problems. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**……		
12. In the near future, drought will become a main problem of the human race. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**……		
13. In the following years, will be the starvation that will be dealt with. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…… .		
14. In the framework of the EU, supports Gruntvig and Erasmus the Ministry of Education. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**……		

15. According to scientists, in the Northern Hemisphere, are melting due to the sera effect. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
16. What do you think can be the most effective way of learning English? **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
17. Scientists assume that people will be traveling comfortably in flying cars in 2010. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
18. In the future, it will be raining enough for ensuring the ecological balance. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
19. In the festival, not only did they planted trees but they also watered them. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
20. According to the Ministry of Education, there is a huge need for English teachers. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
21. According to environmentalists, only after polluting the resources, will humans start to protect them. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
22. We must consider all the facts carefully and seriously until make the final decision. **IF** **BAD,WHY?**…….		

23. Who does the jury say is the most beautiful girl in this contest? **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
24. According to economists, apart from high inflation, is the problem of unemployment in Turkey. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
25. In the news, it has announced that the use of sun glasses will increase. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
26. Doctors should know the side effects of medicines before they prescribe them for patients. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
27. Do you know where can I find a good Chinese restaurant in Ankara? **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
28. What do students say that was the most difficult lesson at school last year? **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
29. According to environmentalists, little did the authorities do to protect our environment. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		
30. Scientists wish that they had not invented the atomic bomb thrown in Japan in 1945. **IF BAD,** **WHY?**…….		

APPENDIX D

Name-Surname: ***Class:*** ***Level:***

DİYALOG TAMAMLAMA -1. KISIM

AÇIKLAMA: Lütfen aşağıdaki diyalogları okuyunuz ve boşlukları gerekli yerlerde uygun adıllarla (*I, you, we, they, he, she, it)* ya da *there* ya da *it* ile doldurun. Boşluğa adıllardan ya da *there* veya *it*'ten gelmemesi gerektiğini düşünüyorsanız, boşluğu doldurmayabilirsiniz.

DIALOGUE COMPLETION TASK-PART 1

INSTRUCTION: Read the dialogue below and fill in the blanks with pronouns where appropriate(*I, you, we, they, he, she, it*) or expletive *there or it*. You may leave the blank empty if you do not think any of them are required there.

1. **A:** What do you think about the new government?
   B: I am not hopeful about them. They increased the taxes as soon as _____were elected.

2. **A:** You should be happier as you have just come from a long holiday, but I see that you are not.
   B: You may think so but_____was in Antalya, not in Ankara that I wanted to spend my holiday.

3. **A:** We are going for a picnic at the weekend. Will you join us?
   B: Maybe, who will come to the picnic?
   A: John, Mary, Selin and Melis. We will go to the city park which _____ is situated at the shores of Mogan artificial Lake.

4. **A:** What do you think about the pre-school education in Turkey?
   B: In my opinion, _____should be more kindergartens for kids in order to educate them better.
5. **A:** What about the last night's FB-GS match?
   B:_____is said that FB and GS got equal scores.

6. **A:** Is it true that scientists have found a new cure for AIDS?
   B: Maybe, but _____have been many people talking about this matter so far. However, nobody could find a remedy for this fatal illness.

7. **A:** I can't believe it! How did she manage to finish her science project in three days?
   B: It wasn't easy for her but she was so determined that she didn't even take a rest until_____had finished her work.

8. **A:** Thanks God that we have already overcome the most difficult midterm of the term.
   B: Yes, that is right. Shall we eat something?
   A: Good idea! What about_____ going to Jerry's café then. He makes the best hamburger I have ever eaten.

9. **A:** I do not understand why he left his job. He was earning 2000 € a month.
   B: That's true but he had to quit the job because _____had to work until midnight.

10. A: Will you be at John's party on Friday night?

B: I don't know. I have not decided yet.

A: As far as I know, _____will be many people at the party because he will invite Madonna, his friend, to sing at the party.

DİYALOG TAMAMLAMA-2. KISIM

AÇIKLAMA: Lütfen aşağıdaki diyalogları okuyup bir ya da <u>en fazla</u> üç kelimeyle boşlukları doldurunuz. Kesme işaretiyle kısaltılmış kelime grupları- örneğin: *I'm, she'll*-kullanabilirsiniz.

DIALOGUE COMPLETION TASK-PART 2

INSTRUCTION: Please read the dialogues below and complete the sentences with one or <u>maximum</u> three words. You may use contracted forms like *I'm, she'll* etc.

Örnekler- Examples:

1. A: John! Why did you hit your brother?

B: Mom, it is not all my fault. I hit him because he _____*<u>hit me</u>*_____,too.

2. A: Michael, how much money did you pay for that old car?

B: I _____*<u>didn't pay</u>*_____ for it. My father bought it for me.

DİYALOGLAR-DIALOGUES

1. A: Oh darling! Please forgive me. I love you and I will not do it again.

B: If you really loved me, you _____it to me.

2. **A:** Mary says that somebody has stolen her purse.
   B: Who does she believe _____her purse?
   A: She believes that Jerry did it because he was the only one who knew about the money in her purse.

3. **A:** Would you like to have some tea or coffee?
   B: I prefer _____because I am fond of tea.

4. **A:** My sweetie, it is only days to our wedding. However, we have not decided on where we will spend our honeymoon.
   B: OK. Let's decide then. Where do you think
   _____ spend our honeymoon?
   A: I think, the Maldives are the best.
   B: If you think so, I can book a hotel there and buy our tickets for the plane.

5. **A:** How are the students in your class?
   B: Some of them are good and some of them are bad, as usual.
   A: Which students do you think _____a good high school?
   B: I think Merve and Semra can get into a good one.

6. **A:** I want to learn a foreign language, but I cannot. What do foreign language teachers say _____most effective way of learning a language?
   B: They say that reading and listening in that language are the most effective ways of learning it.

7. **A:** Yesterday, I looked at every shop to buy a present for my boyfriend and I came up with these two T-shirts. Which T-shirt do you think _____buy for my boyfriend for his birthday?

   B: I think the blue one is very cool. I'm sure he will also like it.