

INTERFACES IN SECOND LANGUAGE ENGLISH

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ABSTRACT

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The aim of this thesis was to compare the L2 acquisition of two interfaces: syntax-semantics interface (internal interface) and syntax-pragmatics interface (external interface). Disjunctive questions (DQs) were studied for investigating syntax-semantics interface, especially negated DQs (because only high negation DQs cannot have an alternative meaning). The findings related to the syntax-semantics interface revealed that L2ers have the syntactic knowledge of high negation DQs in a native-like manner. However, there was imperfect acquisition of the semantics by L2ers. This suggests that there might be some problems in the acquisition of these phenomena even though they involve an internal interface. *It*-cleft sentences were examined for investigating syntax-pragmatics interface. The results pertaining the syntax-pragmatics interface showed that the low proficiency L2ers experienced some problems with the syntax of the *it*-clefts, while the high proficiency L2ers performed in a native-like manner. Surprisingly, both proficiency groups had the pragmatic knowledge that was required for the use of *it*-clefts in appropriate situations. Even though the low proficiency group lacked the syntactic knowledge of *it*-clefts, they knew the pragmatic constraints imposed on *it*-clefts. This indicates that firstly,

acquisition of syntax might be problematic at least for low proficiency L2ers. Secondly, the pragmatics of a syntax-discourse interface phenomenon can be acquired fully in a native-like manner without posing any difficulties. Overall, the acquisition of internal interface properties may not be as flawless as it was proposed and also external interface phenomena might be acquired fully without posing special difficulties.

Key Words: Interface, Syntax-Semantics Interface, Syntax-Pragmatics Interface, Disjunctive Questions, *it*-clefts

ÖZ

İKİNCİ DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE'DE ARAKESİTLER

Eren Gezen, Emine

Yüksek Lisans, İngiliz Dili Öğretimi

Tez Yöneticisi:Doç. Dr. Martina GRAČANIN YÜKSEK

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Bu tezin amacı iki arakesitin edimini karşılaştırmaktır: içsel arakesit olarak sözdizim-anlambilim arakesiti ve dışsal arakesit olarak sözdizim-edimbilim arakesiti araştırılmıştır. Sözdizim-anlambilim arakesitini incelemek için İngilizce'deki *ayrıştırıcı sorular*; özellikle de olumsuzlanan ayrıştırıcı sorular (yalnızca yüksek olumsuzluklu ayrıştırıcı sorular seçenekli anlam içermez) çalışılmıştır. Sözdizim-anlambilim arakesit bulguları, yüksek İngilizce seviye grubu ve düşük İngilizce seviye grubunun ikisinin de ayrıştırıcı soruların sözdizim bilgisine anadilleri gibi sahip olduklarını ortaya çıkarmıştır. Buna karşın, yüksek İngilizce seviye grubu ve düşük İngilizce seviye grubundaki katılımcıların hiçbirinde anlambilim testinde tam bir edinim görülmemiştir (seçenekli anlam yüklenen yüksek olumsuzluklu ayrıştırıcı soruları kabul etmişlerdir). Bu durum, (içsel arakesit bile içerse) bu yapıların ediniminde bazı sorunların ortaya çıkabileceğini göstermektedir. Sözdizim-edimbilim arakesitini incelemek için *It-cleft tümceleri* çalışılmıştır. Sözdizim-edimbilim arakesitinin bulguları, düşük İngilizce yeterlik grubunun anadil-dışı performans sergileyerek '*it-cleft*' tümcelerinin sözdizimsel yapısında bazı sorunlar yaşadığını gösterirken, yüksek İngilizce yeterliği grubunun '*it-cleft*' tümcelerinin sözdizimsel yapısını anadili gibi bildiğini göstermiştir. Şaşırtıcı bir şekilde, iki grupta

da *it*-cleft tmcelerinin uygun durumlarda doęru bir Őekilde kullanımı iŐin gerekli olan edimsel bilginin var olduęu grlmŐtr. DŐk İngilizce seviye grubu dahi ‘*it*-cleft’ yapısının szdizim bilgisinden yoksun olmasına raęmen, edimbilimsel sınırlamalarını bilmekteydi. Bu bize, ilk olarak, bir olgunun szdiziminin ediminin, en azından daha dŐk dil seviyesine sahip olan ęrenenler iŐin, her zaman tam olamayabileceęini, eksikler olabileceęini gstermiŐtir. İkinci olarak, szdizim-edibilim arakesiti olgusunun edimbilimsel yapısının hiŐbir zorluk arzetmeden, anadil seviyesinde, tam bir Őekilde edinilebildięini iŐaret etmektedir. Genel olarak, iŐsel arakesit zelliklerinin edinimi savunulduęu gibi sorunsuz olmayabilir ve aynı zamanda, dıŐsal arakesit olguları da zorluk gstermeden tam bir Őekilde edinilebilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Arakesit, Szdizim-Anlambilim Arakesiti, Szdizim-Edibilim Arakesiti, AyrıŐtırıcı Sorular, *it*-cleft (ayrık) tmceler

To my beloved family who always supported and believed in me,

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZ	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS	x
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xv
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Interfaces	2
1.2. The Present Study	4
1.2.1. The Syntax-Semantics Interface	4
1.2.2. The Syntax-Pragmatics Interface	6
1.3. Results and Conclusion	7
2. METHODOLOGY	8
2.1. Participants	8
2.2. Design	9
2.2.1. Instruments	9
2.2.2. Procedure	11
2.3. Data Analysis	12
3. SYNTAX-SEMANTICS INTERFACE	13

3.1.	Literature Review	13
3.1.1.	Syntax-Semantics interface Studies	13
3.1.2.	Background To The Grammatical Phenomenon: Disjunctive Questions in English	28
3.2.	Participants	33
3.3.	Data Collection Tools & Procedure	33
3.3.1.	Grammaticality Judgement Task (GJT).....	33
3.3.2.	Semantic Interpretation Task.....	36
3.4.	Results & Discussion.....	37
3.4.1.	Results of the GJT.....	38
3.4.2.	Results of the Semantic Interpretation Task	41
3.4.3.	Low Negation DQ.....	48
3.4.3.1.	Results of the GJT (LNDQs).....	48
3.4.3.2.	Semantic Interpretation Task (LNDQs).....	50
3.5.	Discussion.....	55
4.	SYNTAX-PRAGMATICS INTERFACE.....	59
4.1.	Literature Review	59
4.1.1.	Syntax-Pragmatics interface Studies	59
4.1.2.	Background To The Grammatical Phenomenon: It-cleft Sentences ..	71
4.2.	Participants	76
4.3.	Data Collection Tools & Procedure	76
4.3.1.	Grammaticality Judgement Task	76
4.3.2.	Pragmatic Felicitousness Task.....	77
4.4.	Results & Discussion.....	78
4.4.1.	Results of the GJT.....	78
4.4.2.	Results of the Pragmatic Felicitousness Task	80

4.5. Discussion	83
5. GENERAL DISCUSSION	85
6. CONCLUSION.....	89
6.1. Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research	91
REFERENCES	93
APPENDICES	
APPENDIX A: TURKISH SUMMARY	100
APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT FORM	116
APPENDIX C: SYNTAX-SEMANTICS GJT	117
APPENDIX D: SYNTAX-SEMANTICS INTERPRETATION TASK (Group A).....	123
APPENDIX E: SYNTAX-SEMANTICS INTERPRETATION TASK (Group B)	127
APPENDIX F: SYNTAX-PRAGMATICS GJT	131
APPENDIX G: SYNTAX-PRAGMATICS FELICITOUSNESS TASK	134
APPENDIX H: TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU	139

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of AFFDQs and HNDQs GJT	40
Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of the AFFDQs and HNDQs Semantic Interpretation Task	44
Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of LNDQs GJT	49
Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of the LNDQs Semantic Interpretation Task.....	51
Table 5. Bulgarian Pronominal Clitics.....	66
Table 6. Descriptive Statistics of <i>it</i> -cleft Sentences GJT	79
Table 7. Descriptive Statistics of the <i>it</i> -cleft Sentences: Pragmatic Felicitousness Task	82

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

Figure 1. Syntactic Tree of the sentence “The boy ate the cupcake”	25
Figure 2. Syntactic Tree of the sentence “The water filled the bucket”	26
Figure 3: Results of the HNDQs with ALT Reading Across Proficiency Groups.....	46
Figure 4. Results of comparison between the HNDQs with ALT Reading and HNDQs with YN Reading Across Proficiency Groups.....	47
Figure 5. Results of Grammatical LNDQs Across Proficiency Groups.....	50
Figure 6. Results of the comparison between the HNDQs with ALT Reading and HNDQs with YN Reading Across Proficiency Groups.....	54
Figure 7. Results of the Ungrammatical <i>It</i> -cleft Sentences Across Proficiency Groups.....	80
Figure 8. Results of the comparison between the Felicitous and Infelicitous <i>It</i> -cleft Sentences Across Proficiency Groups	83

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AFFDQ	Affirmative Negation Disjunctive Question
ALT	Alternative
DQ	Disjunctive Question
HNDQ	High Negation Disjunctive Question
IH	Interface Hypothesis
LNDQ	Low Negation Disjunctive Question
L2	Second Language
L2ers	Second Language Learners
METU	Middle East Technical University
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
YN	Yes/No

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this thesis is to investigate the second language (L2) acquisition of certain English grammatical phenomena at the syntax-semantics and syntax-pragmatics interfaces. The phenomena in question are such that for the correct usage, they require the integration of knowledge from more than one language module. In particular, I will be investigating the acquisition of disjunctive questions (see section 3.1.2) and *it*-cleft sentences (see section 4.1.2) by Turkish speakers whose English language proficiency varies across groups: low English proficiency level (lower and upper intermediate level), high English proficiency level (advanced and very advanced level).

Language is composed of a number of modules of grammar which affect and interact with each other in different ways. These modules are, for example, phonology, lexicon, morphology, semantics, syntax, and pragmatics. L2 learners may show variability in the level of proficiency across these different subsystems of language competence. A learner may perform better at syntax than at phonology or pragmatics, for instance (VanPatten, 2007). For example, Gracanin-Yuksek and Kırkıcı (to appear) investigated syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic competence of L2 learners of Turkish in the area of yes/no questions. They found that upper-intermediate/advanced level L2 learners of Turkish showed higher level of proficiency in syntax than in pragmatics. Similarly, Ionin & Wexler (2002) whose study showed that L2ers showed variability in the acquisition of different modules, examined Russian children acquiring finiteness in L2 English. They found that the children omit verbal inflection, but their data suggests the presence of functional

categories in their grammar. They concluded that the L2 learners have the abstract syntactic features in their interlanguage grammar while they lack in the inflectional morphology. The aim of this thesis is to investigate a grammatical phenomenon in the L2 grammar paying special attention to the integration of knowledge from different modules of grammar.

1.1. Interfaces

Acquiring a grammatical phenomenon which requires integration of more than one linguistic subsystems or different modules of grammar seems to be problematic (Sorace, 2011). Thus, recent research in L2 acquisition emphasized the notion of the *interface*, i.e., the fact that certain phenomena require integrating knowledge of different modules.

Interfaces were first described by Chomsky (1995) as Logical Form and Phonetic Form, seen as levels of representation, whose function was to interpret the meaning and the sound of an utterance. Explanations of the term “interface” in L2 research summarize it as interaction and mapping between different grammatical modules or representations (White, 2011). Ramchand & Reiss (2007) suggest that “interface” might refer to the units connecting sub-modules of language and/or the connection between language and other cognitive systems, which are nonlinguistic (as cited in Sorace, 2011). Whenever different levels of representation are mapped onto one another, an interface between those levels is involved. For example, the syntax of a sentence must interact with its semantics so there exists a syntax-semantics interface; the syntax of a sentence must also interact with morphology, so there exists a syntax-morphology interface. Finally, the syntax of a sentence must interact with its pragmatics, so there exists a syntax-pragmatics interface (White, 2011).

According to the L2 acquisition research, purely syntactic features are acquired without any major problems in L2 acquisition (Sorace, 2005, 2011; White, 2011). However, there might be residual optionality/variation in the application of the constraints which require the interaction of the syntactic knowledge and other (cognitive) domains (Sorace, 2005, 2011; White, 2011). Sorace & Filiaci, (2006) suggested that it is difficult to acquire grammatical phenomena pertaining to the

interface between syntax and other domains, so this causes optionality in the use of structures that require such integration. This optionality may persist even in very advanced (near-native) stages of L2 acquisition and may never be fully overcome. This is known as the *Interface Hypothesis (IH)*. The developed version of this proposal suggests that *external* interfaces, in which syntax interacts with cognitive domains that are not strictly linguistic in nature, such as syntax-pragmatics interface, are hard (almost impossible) to be acquired by L2 learners and residual L2 optionality is observed even in the near-native proficiency levels (Sorace, 2005; Sorace & Filiaci, 2006). *Internal* interfaces, such as syntax-semantic or syntax-phonology interface, on the other hand, where only formal properties of grammar interact, may be acquired completely by L2 learners and the end state grammar of the L2ers coincides with native grammars (Sorace & Filiaci, 2006; Sorace, 2005).

The syntax-semantics interface is an example of *internal* interfaces. The syntax-semantics interface was discussed by Dekydtspotter and colleagues in many articles. A large number of studies conducted by these scholars showed that the L2 learners of French had the knowledge that they were not taught or exposed to via L2 input (Dekydtspotter, 2001; Dekydtspotter & Hathorn, 2005; Dekydtspotter & Indiana, 2001; Dekydtspotter & Renaud, 2009; Dekydtspotter, Sprouse & Anderson, 1997 among others). They show that when learners reach a higher level of proficiency, they start accepting the phenomena that do not exist in their L1, unconsciously assigning interpretations related to various word order variations, which exist in the L2 (White, 2011). This is similar to what the developed version of IH says; i.e. that no problem is expected in the acquisition of the features integrating syntax and other *internal* grammatical properties while acquiring a second language (Sorace & Serratrice, 2009; Tsimpli & Sorace, 2006).

The interface between syntax and discourse is classified under *external* interfaces. The syntax-pragmatics interface is one of the most studied and focused on the most in L2 research. Interpretations of topic and focus in null subject languages and interaction of information structure with realization of the subject have been investigated under syntax-pragmatics interface research (White, 2011). For example,

Belletti, Bennati, & Sorace (2007), Sorace & Filiaci (2006), Tsimpli & Sorace, (2006) showed that even near-native L2 speakers had problems with the discourse constraints which depend on the awareness of topic and focus and govern the subject drop. They suggested that the errors/inappropriate usage of null subjects were long term and permanent problems in the end state grammar of L2 learners because they are at the interface between syntax and pragmatics. Belletti & Leonini (2004), Hertel, (2003); and Lozano (2006) found similar results with different proficiency levels of Italian, Spanish, and Greek L2 learners, respectively.

The study of Roberts, Gullberg, & Indefrey (2008), on the other hand, supported the IH in an indirect way. They found that German and Turkish speakers acquiring Dutch as a second language showed different results in the use of overt subjects in the offline tasks. The Turkish participants (null subject L1) showed a tendency to use an overt pronoun to refer to sentence external referents (similar to the situation in their L1) while German L2 speakers of Dutch and native speakers of Dutch used overt pronouns all the time (in German, overt subject is required, similar to the situation in Dutch). However, the online eye-tracking study showed that both L2 speaker groups, regardless of their L1, took longer than the native speakers of Dutch to comprehend overt pronouns, which requires pragmatics for the decision, indicating that they had problems with the pronoun processing.

1.2. The Present Study

In this thesis, I compare the performance of Turkish speakers who are L2 learners of English on one internal interface, namely syntax-semantics, and one external interface, namely syntax-pragmatics.

1.2.1. The Syntax-Semantics Interface

The phenomenon that I investigate in this thesis, which requires the integration of knowledge from both syntax and semantics, is disjunctive questions, illustrated in (1.).

- (1.) Does John like coffee or tea?

In English, these questions are ambiguous between the *alternative* (ALT) and *yes/no* (Y/N) readings, as shown in (2.).

(2.) a. A: Does John drink coffee or tea? Y/N

B: Yes, he does. / No, he doesn't.

b. A: Does John drink coffee or tea? ALT

B: John drinks coffee. / John drinks tea.

When the question is negated, it retains both readings if the negation is “low”, as in (3.).

(3.) a. A: Does John **not** drink coffee or tea? YN

B: No, he doesn't. / Actually, he does.

b. A: Does John **not** drink coffee or tea? ALT

B: He doesn't drink coffee. / He doesn't drink tea.

However, when the negation is “high”; i.e. when it appears as a suffix on the auxiliary verb, as in (4.), the ALT reading is no longer available.

(4.) a. A: Doesn't John drink coffee or tea? YN

B: Yes, he does. / Actually, he doesn't.

b. A: Doesn't John drink coffee or tea? *ALT

B: *He doesn't drink coffee. / *He doesn't drink tea.

Regarding the syntax-semantics interface, my research questions are following:

1. To what extent do L2 learners with different proficiency levels of English with Turkish as their L1 know the syntax of disjunctive questions? In particular, do they know the syntax of fronting (contracting) *versus* non-fronting (non-contracting) negative marker in disjunctive questions? In other words, do they know that a disjunctive question is grammatical in both cases?

2. Do L2 learners with different proficiency levels of English with Turkish as their L1 know that the alternative reading of a disjunctive question is not available when the negation is fronted, as in (4.)?

Following the literature on the acquisition of interfaces in SLA, I expect the participants to have fewer problems with the syntax of disjunctive questions than with their semantics. In other words, I expect that the participants are able to distinguish grammatical disjunctive questions from ungrammatical ones, but to have difficulties assigning appropriate semantic interpretation to the grammatical structures.

1.2.2. The Syntax-Pragmatics Interface

In order to investigate the acquisition of phenomena at the syntax-pragmatics interface, I focus on the *it*-cleft sentences. An *it*-cleft sentence is illustrated in (5.).

- (5.) It was John that I met at the party yesterday.

The underlined constituent in the cleft is called *the clefted element*. The position of the clefted element may be occupied by a different kind of phrase (NP, VP,...) but only if that particular phrase is focused (i.e., represents new information). In this part of the thesis, I will be interested in the following research questions.

1. To what extent do L2 learners with different proficiency levels of English with Turkish as their L1 know the syntax of the *it*-cleft structure at the comprehension level?
2. Do L2 learners with different proficiency levels of English with Turkish as their L1 know the pragmatic constraints on the felicitousness of the usage of the cleft construction in the discourse? In other words, do the learners know that the cleft construction is felicitous only when the clefted element is the focus of the utterance or do they show optionality/variability when compared to native speakers of English?

Here, again, I expect the participants to perform better on the syntax of the *it*-cleft sentences than on their pragmatics, given that the former requires no integration of grammatical knowledge at the syntax-pragmatics interface, while the latter does.

Comparing the two interfaces (syntax-semantics; syntax-pragmatics), if the IH is correct, we should also find that participants have fewer problems in the syntax-semantics interface than in the syntax-pragmatics interface. This is because the former is an internal interface, while the latter is an external interface. At the same time, my expectation is that the participants of lower English proficiency will perform worse than the participants of higher proficiency on both phenomena

1.3. Results and Conclusion

As a result, contrary to the expectations, my hypotheses were not confirmed. First of all, there were no developmental differences in the pragmatics task of the syntax-pragmatics interface (note that; the low proficiency L2ers showed non-target performances on the syntax of the *it*-clefts, which was another unexpected result). Second of all, I obtained non-target results from the L2ers in the semantics task of the syntax-semantics interface although they all performed in a native-like manner on the syntax of the disjunctive questions (DQs).

Overall, the findings of this thesis represent counter evidence to the IH. There were problems in the acquisition of DQs (the L2ers could not interpret the high negation disjunctive questions correctly) while complete acquisition of the usage of *it*-clefts within a discourse was found (even the low proficiency group performed in a target-like manner).

CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

This chapter contains the overall description of the design of the study reported in this thesis. I first describe the participants in the study and then explain the logic of the design of the experiments that I conducted while investigating the effects of the internal and external interfaces in SLA.

2.1. Participants

There were three groups of participants in this thesis; two experimental groups and a control group.

The two experimental groups contained a total of 79 native speakers of Turkish who were learning English as their L2. At the time of the study, all were university students at Middle East Technical University (65 females and 14 males). Their ages ranged between 19 and 24 (M=20). These participants differed in their English proficiency levels and were divided into those with a low proficiency level of English and those with a high proficiency level of English. The language proficiency level of the participants was determined by administering the Quick Oxford Placement Test (OPT) by Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations. The low proficiency experimental group contained 51 participants in total (11 males, 40 females) and included those participants whose score on the OPT fell into the lower and upper-intermediate levels. The high proficiency experimental group contained 28 participants in total (3 males, 25 females) and included those participants who obtained an advanced and a high-advanced score on the OPT. However only 36 participants (8 males and 28 females) in the low proficiency group and 20 participants (3 males and 17 females) from the

high proficiency group were used in the analysis because only those participants completed all the tasks.

The control group consisted of a total of 45 participants (12 males and 31 females) whose mother tongue was English. Their ages were between 23 and 71 (M=38). However, data from only 21 of the native speakers (9 males and 12 females) were used in the analysis, because only those participants completed all the tasks. At the time of the study, all the native English participants were either enrolled in a university or have completed university studies.

All the participants participated in the study on a voluntary basis. Participants in the experimental group were given course credit for participation.

2.2. Design

2.2.1. Instruments

Here I will describe all the instruments briefly, a more detailed explanation will be presented in each interface chapter for each task separately. Recall from the introduction that the purpose of the thesis is to test the effects of the interfaces on the performance in L2. In order to find out how the necessity of the integration of knowledge from different modules of grammar affects performance in L2, we need to find out:

- i. How well the participants perform on a test that involves purely syntactic knowledge and
- ii. How well they perform on a test that involves the interface (in our case, the syntax-semantics interface and the syntax-pragmatics interface).

To this end, for each interface, I devised two types of instruments:

1. **Grammaticality Judgement Task (GJT):** This task measured the participants' knowledge of the syntax of the construction I was interested in.

a. Syntax-semantics interface

In this part of the thesis, I was interested in whether the participants know the syntax of disjunctive questions, i.e. whether they can tell a well-formed disjunctive question

from an ill-formed one. The participants' task was to judge the grammaticality of affirmative disjunctive questions, disjunctive questions containing low negation, and disjunctive questions containing high negation.

b. Syntax-pragmatics interface

In the part of the study related to the syntax-pragmatics interface, participants needed to show that they possess the syntactic knowledge of the cleft structure; specifically the structure of *it*-clefts. As in the GJT related to the syntax-semantics interface, the participants were asked to judge the grammaticality of sentences containing *it*-clefts.

2. **Interpretation/Felicitousness Task:** This task was designed to test the effect of the interfaces *per se*. Here, I was interested in whether or not the participants know the meaning and/or the usage of the relevant construction (disjunctive questions, *it*-clefts).

a. Syntax-semantics interface

In this test, the participants were given a short context, followed by a disjunctive question. The contexts were tailored in such a way as to favor either the alternative or the yes-no reading of the question. Recall from the Introduction that an affirmative disjunctive question in English is always ambiguous between the alternative reading and the yes-no reading (as shown in (2.) above). The same ambiguity obtains in disjunctive questions with low negation (as shown in (3.) above). However, when a disjunctive question contains a high negation, the alternative reading disappears (as shown in (4.) above). The participants were asked to rate the appropriateness of the disjunctive question in the context. Since disjunctive questions with high negation do not have alternative reading, such questions were expected to receive a low score even when they followed a context that requires a disjunctive question with an alternative meaning. Thus, the participants' performance in this task depended on how well they could integrate the knowledge of syntax of disjunctive questions (the presence versus the absence of high negation) with the semantic interpretation of such questions.

b. Syntax-pragmatics interface

In this task, I investigated the participants' knowledge of the pragmatic constraints that govern the usage of the *it*-cleft structure in the discourse. Each item on the test contained a wh-question, followed by three possible answers, each in the form of a well-formed *it*-cleft sentence with a different phrase in the position of the clefted element. The participants were asked to rate the felicitousness of each option (sentences with *it*-clefts) according to the given context (the wh-question to which the cleft was meant to be the answer). Since *it*-clefts are used to stress *new* information, the option in which the clefted element contained new information was expected to receive the highest score. Therefore, the success of the participants in this task depended on how well they could integrate the syntactic knowledge of *it*-clefts with their pragmatics felicitousness.

For the detailed description of the tasks, see Chapter 3.3 (syntax-semantics interface), and Chapter 4.3 (syntax-pragmatics interface).

2.2.2. Procedure

All the tests were administered online using google forms. The participants first filled the consent and demographic data form. After that, they were invited to fill-in the experimental tasks:

- syntax-semantics GJT form,
- syntax-semantics interpretation form,
- syntax-pragmatics GJT form,
- syntax-pragmatics felicitousness form.

Each task was prepared and administered separately to avoid a fatigue effect (the participants were sent the links of each task separately at different times and were asked to complete them at different times). Each task/form lasted about 10 minutes. Participants completed the consent and demographic information form only once, at the beginning of the study and were linked to all the forms via student ID number (for L2 participants) and a nickname (for the native speaker participants).

2.3. Data Analysis

I used the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 22.0 to analyze the data and check whether or not the results are statistically meaningful. In particular, I used one-way ANOVA and repeated measures ANOVA to detect any significant differences between groups (native speakers, high- and low-proficiency L2 speakers) and between tasks (for example, the participants' performance on grammatical and ungrammatical items on GJTs), followed by independent and paired samples t-tests to further “unpack” the ANOVA results. Experiments pertaining to each interface (syntax-semantics; syntax-pragmatics) were analyzed separately.

CHAPTER 3

SYNTAX-SEMANTICS INTERFACE

This chapter, first of all, gives the state of the art about the syntax-semantics interface studies that have been done so far in SLA research. Then, it gives information about the participants who did the related tasks in the present study, followed by the description of the data collection tools and the procedure of how these tools were administered. Next, it describes how the data were analyzed and gives the results of these analyses. Finally, the findings are discussed in the framework of the syntax-semantics interface research.

3.1. Literature Review

3.1.1. Syntax-Semantics interface Studies

In this section, I present an overall review of syntax- semantics interface studies.

According to Sorace (2011); Sorace & Filiaci (2006); Sorace & Serratrice (2009); Tsimpli & Sorace (2006), the internal interfaces are easier to acquire when compared to external interfaces (see White (2011) and Sorace (2011), for a review). There have been several studies whose results were in line with this proposal (e.g. Dekydtspotter, Sprouse, & Anderson (1997); Dekydtspotter, Sprouse, & Swanson (2001); Tsimpli and Sorace, (2006), among others). Nevertheless, there are also studies which show that not all the internal interfaces are not prone to problems and can be learnt easily (e.g. Yin & Kaiser (2013); Yuan (2008, 2010); Perpnan (2014) among others).

Here, I first present a number of studies related to the syntax-semantics interface from the literature that present evidence supporting the IH, then I am going to introduce a number of studies showing evidence counter to the IH.

Dekydspotter and colleagues were among the researchers who mainly focused on the acquisition of the structures in L2 French which integrate syntax and semantics. Dekydspotter, Sprouse, & Anderson (1997) studied the interpretation of the process-and-result interpretation of double genitives in L2 French by L1 English speakers. They investigated whether L2 learners of French can differentiate process and result nominals in L2 French. An event or something ongoing is described in a process nominal while result nominals describe the result (output) of a process (White, 2003b). In French dyadic nominals, the preposition *de*- ‘of’ marks the Theme role consistently. Yet, either the preposition *de*- ‘of’ or the preposition *par*- ‘by’ can mark the Agent role. If the Agent is *par*-marked (‘by- marked’), it may be interpreted as a result or as a process (as in (6.) below) (Ayoun., 2007). However, if a *de*-marked agent is placed after the nominal, the construction ends up containing two *de*-marked arguments, and its interpretation is restricted to a result as in (6.). In other words, the process dyadic nouns as in (7.) cannot be followed by a *de*-marked agent, but only by the agent with the preposition *par* (Dekydspotter, Sprouse, & Anderson, 1997).

(6.) a. (?) la version de la 9e de Karajan

the version of the 9th of Karajan

‘Karajan 's version of the 9th’

b. la version de la 9e par Karajan

the version of the 9th by Karajan

(7.) a. *la destruction de Tokyo de Godzilla

the destruction of Tokyo of Godzilla

‘Godzilla 's destruction of Tokyo’

b. la destruction de Tokyo par Godzilla

the destruction of Tokyo by Gadzilla

Thus, the English speakers of L2 French had to acquire (double) *de*-arguments ('of-argument') first and the restrictions for such double *de*-arguments in result nominals. There were three types of participant groups in the study; a French control group, an English control group, and L2ers, which were separated into three (beginner, intermediate and advanced levels). These participants were given tasks involving scenarios including a nominal with either a process or a result interpretation. At the end of each scenario there was a French sentence which includes a *de*-nominal (either process or result) and there was a question asking whether or not that sentence was fine in the scenario. As a first result, they found that, although multiple *of*-arguments are ungrammatical in English and the participants did not get any instruction about this phenomenon in French, the L2ers acquired the multiple *de*-agents. They also showed sensitivity to the distinction between process and result in not using *de*-arguments in the dyadic process nominal. This shows that the participants acquired (at some point) the fact that multiple *de*-arguments are restricted to the dyadic nominals with the result interpretation. This results presented evidence which was in line with what IH says about the internal interfaces, i.e. internal interface properties can be acquired completely with few or no problems.

Another study by Dekydtspotter and his colleagues (Dekydtspotter, Sprouse, & Swanson, 2001) investigated whether or not adult French L2ers with L1 English could differentiate between the continuous and discontinuous *combien* 'how many' interrogatives in French. In the continuous *combien* interrogative, the wh-word *combien* is not separated from the noun phrase, while in the discontinuous *combien* interrogative, the two are separated by other material (the discontinuous *how many* interrogative is ungrammatical in English). The two different word orders (continuous and discontinuous *combien* interrogatives) result in different interpretation possibilities (illustrated by (8.) and (9.)).

- (8.) **Combien** **de** **livres** est-ce que les étudiants
 how many of books is it that the students
 achètent tous?
 buy all

‘How many books are all the students buying?’

1) counting the books that any given student is buying

2) counting only the books that the students have in common in their purchase plan

(9.) **Combien** est-ce que les étudiants achètent
how many is it that the students buy
tous **de livres?**
all of books

‘How many books are all the students buying?’

1) counting the books that any given student is buying

2) *counting only the books that the students have in common in their purchase plan

The researchers administered to the participants a truth value judgement task: each item consisted of a scenario and introduced a set of three individuals and all of these individuals chose a set of items. Apart from the three individuals, there were extra two individuals about whom extra information was not given. Those extra two individuals in the scenarios were to ask and answer the *combien* questions. Thus, the participants were asked to judge the correctness of the answer according to the scenario provided. The results showed that while the intermediate level French learners were not successful in the interpretation of the discontinuous interrogatives, the advanced level L2ers were able to interpret them successfully. Although the researchers said that this could be explained through developmental stages and mentioned the need for the French input to apprehend the discontinuous *combien* structure, they pointed out that the input cannot be the only and the direct reason behind the emergence of the interpretive restriction on discontinuous *combien* interrogatives. Thus, they argued that, since the interpretive distinction between continuous and discontinuous *combien* interrogative is not deducible from the input

easily, the mental design provided the same idiosyncratic map in the syntax and semantics interface as in the first language acquisition.

Dekydtspotter & Sprouse (2001) studied continuous and discontinuous interrogatives and their interpretations with *qui* ‘who’ involving, on the one hand, both past time reference and speech time reference and involving, on the other, only past time reference in L2 French. The continuous and discontinuous interrogatives are semantically different: an adjective immediately follows *qui*-quantifier in continuous interrogatives and the adjectives in these questions can be naturally construed as describing individuals in the speech time or past time. However, when the verb raises and takes place between the *qui*-quantifier and its adjectival restriction (i.e. the *qui*-quantifier and its adjectival restriction are separated), unless there are other pragmatic reasons to assign the interpretation, the discontinuous interrogatives can only have the interpretation of the adjective in the past time but not in the speech time. See (10.) and (11.) below for examples.

Qui (‘who’) together with its adjectival restriction *de célèbre* (‘of famous’)

- (10.) **Qui de célèbre** fumait au bistro dans
 Who of famous smoked in-the bar in
 les années 60?
 the years ’60s

‘Which famous person smoked in bars in the ’60s?’

Continuous Interrogative: Past Time Reference / Speech Time Reference

Qui (‘who’) separated from its adjectival restriction *de célèbre* (‘of famous’)

- (11.) **Qui** fumait **de célèbre**
 Who smoked of famous
 au bistro dans les années 60?
 in-the bar in the years ’60s

‘Which famous person smoked in bars in the ’60s?’

Discontinuous Interrogative: Past Time Reference / *Speech Time Reference

There were three groups of participants in the study. The control group contained 30 participants. The experimental group was divided into two groups according to the language proficiency levels (intermediate with 47 participants and advanced with 11 participants). Apart from that, there were 47 native speakers of English who were never instructed in French, to search for the effect of ‘glossing’ (word by word translation). All of the participants were attenders of a foreign language class (either French, English or German). The participants were given the tasks that had a prose narrative, a question about that prose narrative (a *wh*-question as either continuous or discontinuous), an answer to that question, and lastly a question asking whether or not that answer was correct for that question. The results showed that the L2ers adopted the right interpretation even without instruction; it could not be said that glossing strategy was the only reason behind the achievement of the L2ers. The researchers proposed that English-French interlanguage (IL) might be established by the following steps: at an earlier state with an English-like IL lexicon, and then at a later state with a French-like functional lexicon. This study can be interpreted as being related to syntax-semantics interface because it studied interpretive knowledge related with certain sentence types. Thus it involves syntax-semantics interface properties, and the results showed that the *wh*-quantifiers in French are acquirable in L2 French.

Dekydspotter & Hathorn (2005) studied the acquisition of the construction *Quelque chose de...* (‘something of + adjective’) in L2 French by examining the L2 French learners’ interpretation of quantifiers with detachable restrictions. *Quelque chose* ‘something’ is the existential quantifier and can take an adjectival restriction introduced by the particle *de*. The particle can be either attached to the quantifier, as in (12.) or be detached from it, as in (13.). The two different word orders, however, result in different interpretations, illustrated below.

- (12.) **Quelque chose de** remarquable a été observé
 something of remarkable has been observed

par chacun des chercheurs.

by each of-the researchers

‘Something remarkable was observed by each of the researchers.’

1) the researchers might have witnessed a different remarkable object

or

2) all the researchers witnessed the same remarkable object

3) any case in between.

(13.) **Quelque chose** a été observé **de** remarquable

something was observed of remarkable

par chacun des chercheurs.

by each of-the researchers

‘Something remarkable was observed by each of the researchers.’

1) the researchers might have witnessed a different remarkable object

or

2) *all the researchers witnessed the same remarkable object

3) *any case in between

The continuous *quelque chose* ‘something’ can have three different interpretations while the discontinuous version of it, which is formed by separating the ...*de* + adjective can only have one interpretation (‘the researchers did not observe the same thing’), unless a context such as (14.) follows.

(14.) En fait, la même chose a été observée .

in fact the same thing was observed

par tous les chercheurs

by all the researchers

‘In fact, the same thing was observed by all the researchers.’

One requires to have both syntactic and semantic knowledge of *quelque chose* sentences to be able to make distinctions between the continuous and discontinuous ones; i.e. for the correct interpretation of the discontinuous sentences, syntax-

semantics mappings (i.e. scope of the quantifiers) as well as semantically restricted computations are necessary.

Thus, Dekydtspotter & Hathorn (2005) studied whether or not L2 French learners accepted the discontinuous formulation where there were different objects per person and continuous formulation where both there was only one and the same object for all people and also there were different objects per participant. The participants were separated into native speakers of French (who were learning English), as well as low intermediate and high intermediate French learners (whose first language was English). The materials included a narrative, a question asking what happened in the story, and an answer to the question which involved either a continuous or a discontinuous *quelque chose* sentence. Each narrative was presented twice, once followed by a continuous answer and once with a discontinuous answer. The results indicated that L2 learners of French with low intermediate levels showed non-target performances on the comparison between continuous *vs.* discontinuous *quelque chose de* questions; i.e., they accepted the same object for all researchers' interpretation in both formulations. However, the high intermediate group showed similar results with the native speakers. This showed that acquisition of quantifiers with detachable adjectival restriction was complete in the higher levels of language proficiency. Although the authors did not take the IH as the focus of this study, the results of the study still show that the internal interfaces are easily acquirable.

Tsimpli and Sorace (2006) investigated 'focusing'¹, which involves syntax-semantic interface and (over)use of overt subject pronouns, which involves syntax-discourse interface in Greek in order to compare the acquisition of internal *vs.* external interfaces. Their participants were Russian speakers of Greek and they were grouped into three according to the length of stay in Greece. The results showed that there was no developmental phase for either interface. In other words, all the groups showed target-like performance in focusing (internal interface) while all the groups displayed overuse of subject pronouns (external interface); i.e. the internal interface

¹ Focusing has properties related to both semantics and pragmatics; therefore it is relevant in research on syntax-semantics as well as on syntax-pragmatics interface.

phenomenon was acquired easily by all the groups, while the external interface showed some problems- overuse- in the acquisition of L2 English. However, the researchers found that the structures within the same external interface differed in terms of optionality in L2 acquisition: the participants tend to overuse 1st and 2nd subject pronouns more than 3rd person pronouns because of “L1/L2 lexical differences in the personal and the demonstrative form of the third person pronoun” (p.662). Tsimpli and Sorace (2006) concluded that these findings supported the claim that different interfaces show developmental differences from each other: while the internal interfaces are acquired easily and early, acquisition of external interface is problematic and may be acquired at later stages.

I will next introduce a number of studies showing evidence (possibly) counter to IH.

Guijarro-Fuentes & Marinis (2007) studied the acquisition of Spanish personal preposition *a* ‘to’, whose interpretation involves syntax and semantics modules in L2 Spanish. The results showed that the L2ers showed non-target behavior although the structure was an example of an internal interface. This showed that the acquisition of the structures involving internal interfaces caused difficulties. However, the advanced learners’ results on the least complex conditions were similar to the native speakers, which suggests that there might be some developmental concerns and that this phenomenon might be acquired in the later stages of acquisition. This might be a piece of counter evidence for the IH, since acquisition in the later proficiency levels seemed to be fulfilled at least at some point.

Yuan (2008) studied Chinese *wh*-words, which can be used as interrogative words, as in (15.), existential polarity words (EPWs), as in (16.) and universal quantifiers, as in (17.) in the language . The *wh*-words in Chinese are accepted as variables and their truth values are linked to what licenses them. If a *wh*-particle *ne* in the head C^0 licenses them as in (15.), they are interrogative *wh*-words; when *dou*, as in (17.), licenses them, they are identified as universal quantifiers; and lastly, if a *c*-commanding negator licenses them, they are interpreted as EPW as in (16.). Thus, *wh*-word itself has different meanings, and some elements that hold certain structural links with the *wh*-word determine its meaning. To have the reading of EPW, *wh*-

words in Chinese have to be licensed and also they have syntactic and semantic restrictions (Huang, 1982; Li 1992 and Lin, 1998; as cited in Yuan, 2010)

- (15.) Ni xiang mai **shenme** (ne)? (*shenme* = an interrogative word)
You want buy what (wh-Q)
'What do you want to buy?'
- (16.) Wo bu xiang mai **shenme**. (*shenme* = EPW)
I not want buy what
'I don't want to buy anything.'
- (17.) Wo **shenme** dou xiang mai. (*shenme* = a universal quantifier)
I what each want buy
'I want to buy everything.'

Acquisition of EPWs requires the syntax-semantics interface. In its semantics part, EPWs need to be nonfactual or not in a positively fixed proposition while in its syntax part, EPWs must occur in the c-commanding scope of their licensors.

The study involved control groups and L2 Chinese groups. The L2ers were grouped into beginner, post-beginner, intermediate, post-intermediate and advanced levels of proficiency. They were tested on an acceptability judgment task. The result showed that the Chinese L2ers (at least the high proficiency group) were aware of the possibility of using wh-words as EPWs, but still, there were problems in the functions of the licensors for the *wh*-EPWs in Chinese. According to this study, the *wh*-EPWs in Chinese exist in the end-state grammars of L2ers; however, there are still problems in their usage, which shows that the grammar is not native-like. This suggests that there might be long delays and problems in the acquisition of the interfaces between syntax and other cognitive domains. In particular, even the internal interfaces might be difficult to acquire.

In 2010, Yuan conducted another empirical study which also investigated *wh*-words used as existential polarity words (EPWs) in L2 Chinese grammar as in (15). The participants were speakers of English (about one hundred) and speakers of Japanese (about one hundred), who were divided into eleven groups according to their L2

Chinese proficiency level. All the participants' engagement with Chinese started with their university education.

Like in Chinese, but unlike in English, *wh*-words in Japanese are ambiguous between the interrogative function and the quantifier function. Yuan was interested in whether the interface property of EPWs is acquirable. The results showed that at the beginning and intermediate levels there was indeterminacy in *wh*-EPWs, which he explained by Sorace's (2004; 2005) argument that acquisition of interfaces is difficult and that there may remain long-term problems in L2 grammars. He also stated that, according to the results, there were no problems in L2ers accepting semantic contexts of the *wh*-EPWs even at the early stages. However, syntax-semantics interface was only set at the advanced stages. Thus, he suggested that the result he found was not fully in line with the claim that interfaces in an L2 can be acquired completely (Dekydtspotter, Sprouse & Thyre, 1999); Dekydtspotter & Sprouse, 2001) since the results seemed to show that no interface relationship was established successfully between EPWs and their licensees such as the inferential particle *-le* and *A-not-A* and partially the yes/no question particle *-ma* (because Japanese group could successfully establish the interface in using this particle) in L2 Chinese grammars. He explained the absence of the acquisition of the syntax-semantics interface relationship by appealing to more than one variable (including the features of the grammatical phenomenon and other factors that affect the acquisition process) instead of saying it is simply domain-wide. There was evidence that Japanese speakers showed better performance than English speakers in the acquisition of certain EPW licensors in their interlanguage grammar; for example, Japanese speakers acquired 'if' words earlier than the English speakers and in Japanese speakers' L2 Chinese grammar, the yes-no particle *-ma* has a moderate licensing power while in English speakers' interlanguage grammar no licensing power belonged to the three functional-morpheme licensors. However, the results of both English and Japanese speakers of Chinese indicated that there was generally a long delay in L2 acquisition of the interface between Chinese EPWs and their licensors (as in line with Sorace 2004, 2005), which supported fully neither the IH of

Sorace and Filiaci (2006) nor studies by Dekydsporter et al., (1999); Dekydsporter and Sprause, (2001), which state that the interfaces can be acquirable fully. However, Yuan discussed general interface relationships (relying on the early version of the IH) without dividing the interfaces into internal and external. The grammatical phenomenon he studied involved syntax-semantics interface (an internal interface). The results of his study showed that there were some problems and long delays in the end state L2 grammar, which is not in line with the claim that fewer problems were expected in the acquisition of internal interfaces.

Yin & Kaiser (2013) studied the acquisition of telicity in English as a phenomenon of syntax-semantics interface. Telicity is the temporal property related to lexical aspect; i.e. it means that if a verb or verb phrase (action or event) has an endpoint somehow, then this verb is telic as in (18.) and (19.); otherwise it is atelic as in (20.) and (21.). In the examples (18.) and (19.), the boundness of the direct object (a specific quantity) determines the verb's telicity; the countable noun states the specific quantity and when this quantity of noun is finished, the action will be completed (when the apple is finished, the eating event will end as in (18.) and (19.)) so it has an endpoint. However, with mass nouns or bare plural nouns, the amounts of the mentioned nouns are indefinite and this shows continuation so the end of the event is not known. Such these unbounded entities lead the event to be atelic.

- | | | |
|-------|---------------------------------------|---------------|
| (18.) | Mary ate an apple. (bounded entity | telic event) |
| (19.) | Mary ate the apple. (bounded entity | telic event) |
| (20.) | Mary ate ice cream. (unbounded entity | atelic event) |
| (21.) | Mary ate apples. (unbounded entity | atelic event) |

Telicity does not only have a semantic (aspectual) concept but also involves syntactic movements. According to Yin & Kaiser (2013), there is the Aspect Phrase (AspP) which determines telicity “between the specifier and the head of the functional projection AspP” (p. 455). For example, in (22.), *the cupcake*, a countable noun and a bounded entity, is presumed to be involved in a syntactic operation by moving to a higher position in the structural representation of the sentence (covert movement)

(see Figure 1 below). This syntactic operation is assumed to bring the semantic interpretation. Apart from *simple telicity* as in (22.), *locatum telicity*, as in (23.), is assumed to have more than one movement operations including the Spec-AspP position; which have to occur to get the semantic interpretation (overt movement) (see Figure 2 below). Although both of the sentences ((22.) and (23.)) are telic (having the same the aspectual semantics), their syntactic processes which determine telicity are different.

(22.) The boy ate the cupcake.

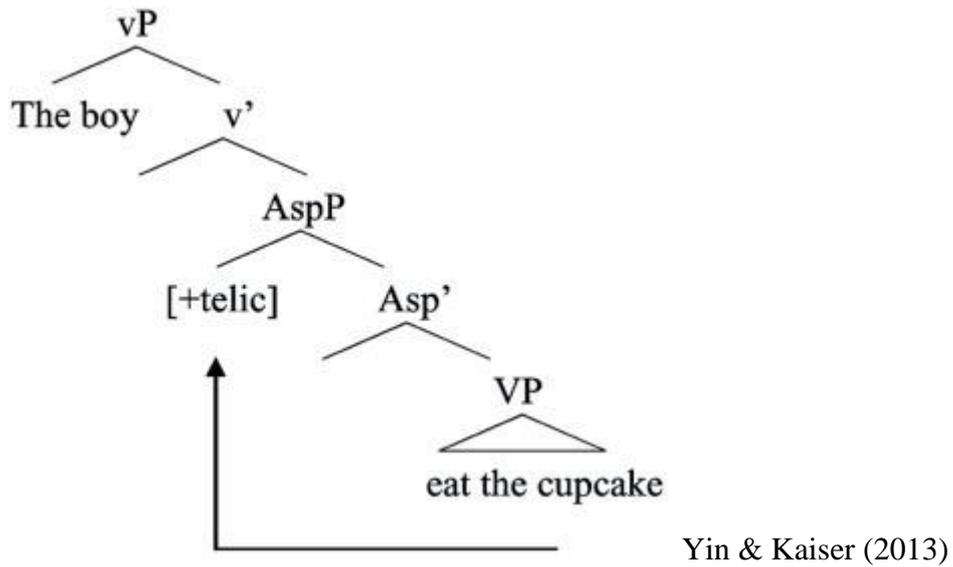


Figure 1. Syntactic Tree of the sentence “The boy ate the cupcake”.

(23.) The water filled the bucket {in 2 minutes / *for 2 minutes}.

Yin & Kaiser (2013)

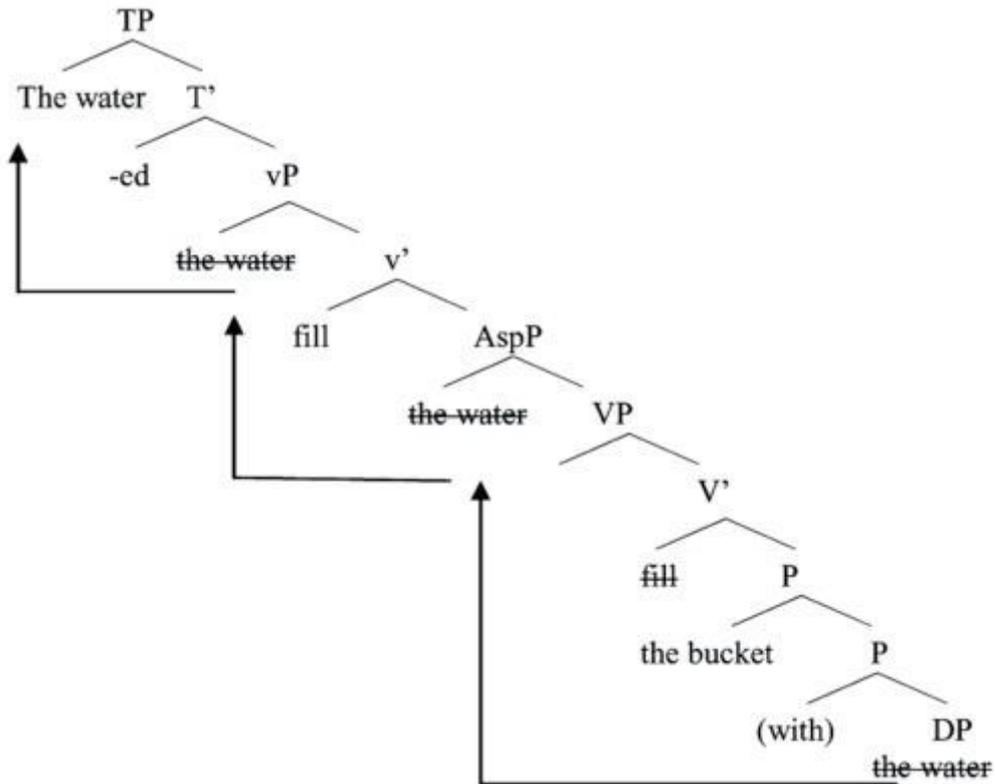


Figure 2. Syntactic Tree of the sentence “The water filled the bucket”.

The participants were categorized under four groups: the control group, as well as three L2 groups with advanced, intermediate and low proficiency English. All the L2ers had about 12 years of experience in English and lived about nine months (on average) in an English speaking country. The researchers used a sentence rating task to reveal the aspectual meanings of bi-clausal sentences. Each sentence was bounded by “and” or “but”. They controlled the construction (type of telic sentences as simple or locatum) in the first sentence and the interpretation (gave cues about the completion of the first sentence; whether the first sentence has reached its natural endpoint or not) in the second sentence. The results showed that the L2ers could not make a certain distinction between the syntax of the telicity of items as native speakers did. In addition, according to the results, the developmental stage was also

not present in the acquisition period because there were no differences between the performances of all the participants; they were all not target like. The authors concluded that telicity with its syntax-semantics interface property was not easy to acquire. They added that the learners were not able to acquire the necessary syntax for telicity which was the first condition to acquire the correct semantics and perform in a target-like fashion on this topic. This study might show that not all the topics involving the syntax-semantic interface are easy to acquire as difficulties persisted even in higher proficiency levels.

Perpinan (2014) investigated locative and existential predicates in L2 Spanish (*ser* ‘to be’, *estar* ‘to be’ and *haber* ‘to be + there insertion’) with participants who spoke different first languages: English and Moroccan-Arabic. All the three of the predicates can be locative or existential. *Estar* ‘to be’ is perfective, non-eventive and definite (derived from *ser*) as in (24.); *ser* ‘to be’ is imperfective, eventive and definite, as in (25.) and *haber* ‘to be + there insertion’) is existential and non-definite as in (26.) (*haber* also has the meaning ‘to have’, but this study compared only the existential and locative construction of these predicates).

- | | | |
|-------|--|--------------|
| (24.) | Juan está en Sevilla.
John is in Seville. | <i>Estar</i> |
| (25.) | Este edificio es un palacio.
This building is a palace | <i>Ser</i> |
| (26.) | a. Hay un libro en la mesa.
there-is a book on the table. | <i>Haber</i> |
| | b. *Hay Juan en casa
there-is John at home | |

It is controversial whether the acquisition of these locative and existential predicates in Spanish involves the lexical-semantic interface, the syntax-semantics interface or a multi-interface (lexical-syntax-semantics interface). An elicited production task was used in the study. The results showed that whereas the verb *estar* developed late because of its extra layer of syntactic complexity, low error rates in the use of the

other predicates were found. This suggests that the unproblematic acquisition process is facilitated either because of the effect of L1 or because of the mapping between the semantic properties and lexical pieces, instead of functional morphology (due to the bottleneck hypothesis by Slabakova (2009)).

My topic is disjunctive questions, which are described in the next section, on which, to the best of my knowledge, there has been no second language acquisition research so far.

3.1.2. Background To The Grammatical Phenomenon: Disjunctive Questions in English

In English, the questions are mainly categorized into three according to the answers that they require; polar question (yes/no questions), *wh*-questions and disjunctive questions (alternative questions) (Yoo, 2000).

Disjunctive questions are interrogative sentences which are *non-wh*-questions and involve disjunction (Biezma & Rawlins, 2012; Roelofsen & Van Gool, 2010; Uegaki, 2014; Yoo, 2000). These types of questions provide the options/choices that the question forms by a disjunctive phrase such as ‘a car *or* a bike’ or ‘*whether... or*’ (Han & Romero, 2004b). In this study I studied the disjunctive questions in matrix clauses including *or*, but not including a disjunction phrase such as *whether...or* or *either*.

Syntactically, disjunctive questions are analyzed under two types of scope; narrow scope, which has only one clause and includes conjoined noun phrases (27.) and wide scope, which includes two conjoined clauses (28.) (Roelofsen & Van Gool, 2010).

(27.) Did Jane bake [cookies] or [bread]?

(28.) [Did Jane bake cookies] or [did Jane bake bread]?

As observed in the examples above, disjunctive questions include the conjunction *or* as a disjunction operator which provides the meaning/interpretation. According to Rooth & Partee (1982) *or* has scopal properties and causes ambiguity in its interpretation (29.) (as cited in Yoo, 2000).

- (29.) Mary is looking for a maid or a cook
- a. *De dicto* reading / narrow scope *or*: Mary is looking for a servant until she finds one who fits with the description of x: x is a maid or x is a cook.
 - b. *De re* reading / narrow scope *or*: There is some specific individual who is either a maid or a cook, and Mary is looking for that individual x.
 - c. Wide scope *or*: Either Mary is looking for an individual who is a maid or Mary is looking for an individual who is a cook (as cited in Yoo, 2000).

According to Han & Romero (2004a) and Han & Romero (2004b), disjunctive questions (30.) are ambiguous in interpretation; they have potentially both yes/no reading (31.) (which can also be called *polar* reading (Biezma & Rawlins, 2012; Yoo, 2000)) and alternative reading (32.).

- (30.) Did John eat beans or rice?
- (31.) Yes/no reading: “Is it true or false that John ate any of these two things: beans or rice?”
- a. Yes, John ate beans or rice.
 - b. No, John didn’t eat beans or rice.
- (32.) Alternative reading: “Which of these two things did John eat: beans or rice?”
- a. John ate beans.
 - b. John ate rice. (Han & Romero, 2004a)

According to Karttunen (1977a), Groenendijk and Stokhof (1984), and Groenendijk and Roelofsen (2009), the “both” ((32.)c) and “neither” ((32.)d) alternatives are also

possible answers to disjunctive questions (as cited in Biezma & Rawlins, 2012). However, they were discussed as “less compliant” answers (as cited in Biezma & Rawlins, 2012).

- c. John ate both.
- d. John ate neither.

Thus, in the materials of this thesis, the scenarios which were created for the disjunctive questions led only to either yes/no reading or to alternative reading, excluding “both” and “neither” answers.

Focus, stress, and intonation in oral production (33.) (e.g. Han & Romero, (2004a); Roelofsen & Van Gool, (2010) among others) and discourse or a scenario in written production remove the ambiguity of the disjunctive questions ((34.) from the thesis material).

- (33.)
 - a. Did John drink coffee or tea? (neutral intonation, YN-reading only)
 - b. Did John drink COFfee or TEA? (focus in capitals, ALT-reading only) (Han & Romero, 2004a)

- (34.) Disjunctive Question: Does this shop sell books or antiques?
 - a. Yes/No Reading Scenario: John is looking for a good present for his wife who loves reading and also loves old things. He asked his friend Bill for help. Bill suggests a small shop in his neighborhood and John says: “I need to find something quickly; I don’t really care what, as long as she likes it. Does this shop sell books or antiques?”
 - b. Alternative Reading Scenario: John has to buy two presents: one for his wife and one for his boss. He wants to buy a book for his wife and an old vase for his boss. His friend Bill suggests two stores: one for the book and one for the vase. When they arrive in front of one of the shops, John asks: “So, which shop is this, does this shop sell books or antiques?”

Since I administered only written tasks to the participants, I am only interested in context-driven meanings of disjunctive questions as in (34.).

Negative Disjunctive Questions

When we look at the negative questions, there are two types of negation in English, distinguished in terms of the position of the negative marker: sentential and constituent negation. Zeijlstra (2004) states that sentential negation is yielded when the whole proposition falls under the negative operator's scope. When the negation appeals to a particular constituent, then it is only a constituent negation. Han & Romero, (2004a) and Romero & Han, (2004) say that sentential negation in polar questions is the preposed negation, as in (36.) and constituent negation in polar questions is non-preposed negation, as in (35.).

- | | | |
|-------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| (35.) | Is Jake <u>NOT</u> leaving? | <i>constituent negation</i> |
| (36.) | Is <u>N'T</u> Jake leaving? | <i>sentential negation</i> |

Disjunctive questions also can contain a non-preposed negation, as in (37.) (from the thesis materials) and a preposed negation, as in (38.) (from the thesis materials). Disjunctive questions with non-preposed negation have potentially both the yes/no reading (37.)a.) and the alternative reading (37.)b.); the meaning is assigned according to the context. However, disjunctive questions with preposed negation have only the yes/no reading ((38.)a removing the ambiguity (Han & Romero, 2004a)).

- (37.) Does Sam not write novels or short stories?
- a. Yes/No Reading: Lara works for the school magazine and needs to interview a writer – somebody who writes prose, not poetry. She asks her classmate Bill whether he knows someone whom she might interview. Bill says: “Hmm let me see... *Does Sam not write novels or short stories?*”
- Possible Answers:
- Sam does not write novels or short stories (i.e. he doesn't write either.)
- Sam does write novels or short stories.
- b. Alternative Reading: Lara is organizing a seminar in prose writing and has compiled a list of genres that she wants to be taught. She wants a

local author, Sam Hardy, to lead the seminar, but she knows that there is a genre which he doesn't write: novels or short stories, but she is not sure which. So, Lara knows that either novels or short stories will have to be taken off the list. She calls her friend Belinda, who is a literary agent and asks: "You know Sam Hardy, right? *Does Sam not write novels or short stories?*"

Possible Answers:

Sam does not write novels.

Sam does not write short stories.

(38.) Doesn't this library have journals or magazines?

- a. Yes/No Reading: Laura is a student in college. She is doing research for a school project and needs to read lots of stuff. She goes to the public library in town and asks the librarian: "Excuse me, I am looking for an article but can't find it. Doesn't this library have journals or magazines?"

Possible Answers:

No, it does not have journals or magazines (i.e., it doesn't have either).

Yes, it does have journals or magazines.

- b. Alternative Reading: Laura needs to find a journal article for one of her school projects. She goes to the library, and the librarian tells her: "We have books and magazines, but I'm afraid no journals." Because of the librarian's heavy accent, Laura doesn't understand what it is that the library doesn't have. She asks: "I'm sorry, doesn't this library have journals or magazines?"

Impossible Answer:

*It does not have journals./*It does not have magazines.

Han & Romero (2004a) claim that the reason behind the asymmetry in the interpretation is the preposing and the non-preposing of negation, but not the type of negation (sentential or constituent). They argue that sentential negation scopes over

the whole IP (the whole proposition) and constituent negation over the VP (only the verb phrase); and the disjunctions can only scope over the constituent negation. So, it can be argued that, somehow, disjunctive questions with high negation (*n't*) are not compatible with the alternative reading since they lack the wide scope disjunction reading; i.e., the disjunction cannot take scope over high negation Han & Romero (2004a).

3.2. Participants

As stated in the methodology chapter, 21 native speakers of English, 36 participations with low English proficiency, and 20 participants with high English proficiency participated in the grammaticality judgment task and in the semantic interpretation tasks.

3.3. Data Collection Tools & Procedure

The participants' ability to integrate the knowledge of both syntax and semantics (the knowledge pertaining to the syntax-semantics interface) was tested by administrating two separate tasks: a Grammaticality Judgement Task (GJT) and a Semantic Interpretation Task (SIT). The tasks were piloted before administration.

3.3.1. Grammaticality Judgement Task (GJT)

The purpose of this task was to test whether the participants know the syntax of disjunctive questions (questions that contain the disjunction *or*). Three types of disjunctive questions (DQs) were tested:

- affirmative disjunctive questions (AFFDQs) (illustrated in (2.) repeated here as (39.)).

- (39.) a. A: Does John drink coffee or tea? *Y/N*
 B: Yes, he does. / No, he doesn't.
- b. A: Does John drink coffee or tea? *ALT*
 B: John drinks coffee. / John drinks tea.

- disjunctive questions with low negation (LNDQs) (illustrated in (3.) repeated here as (40.)).

- (40.) a. A: Does John **not** drink coffee or tea? *YN*
 B: No, he doesn't. / Actually, he does.
- b. A: Does John **not** drink coffee or tea? *ALT*
 B: He doesn't drink coffee. / He doesn't drink tea.

- disjunctive questions with high negation (HNDQs) (illustrated in (4.) repeated here as (41.)).

- (41.) a. A: Does**n't** John drink coffee or tea? *YN*
 B: Yes, he does. / Actually, he doesn't.
- b. A: Does**n't** John drink coffee or tea? **ALT*
 B: *He doesn't drink coffee. / *He doesn't drink tea.

Examples in (39.) through (41.) show the form of DQs together with possible readings they have. The task that the participants completed did not include the answers; they only saw the questions and interpreted them on their own.

The task contained a total of seventy-two sentences that the participants were asked to judge. Twenty-four items were experimental sentences, i.e., they contained a grammatical or ungrammatical DQ. Half of the experimental sentences were grammatical and the other half of them were ungrammatical.

For each type of a DQ, there were four grammatical sentences and four ungrammatical sentences. Thus, there were eight sentences containing an affirmative disjunctive question (four grammatical and four ungrammatical), eight sentences containing a disjunctive question with low negation (four grammatical and four ungrammatical) and eight sentences containing a disjunctive question with high negation (four grammatical and four ungrammatical), yielding a total of twenty-four experimental items. The ungrammatical items were formed by scrambling the word order in an ungrammatical way as follows:

- Ungrammatical affirmative disjunctive questions (AFFDQs):
- (42.) Does speckles caused by the sun this cream remove or pimples?
- Ungrammatical low negation disjunctive questions (LNDQs):
- (43.) Do not hide parents from the children the money or the jewelry?
- Ungrammatical high negation disjunctive questions (HNDQs):
- (44.) To her famous lasagna doesn't the chef salt add or pepper?

In each set of items testing a particular DQ type (both in grammatical and in ungrammatical versions), there were two sentences in the Simple Present tense, one sentence in the Present Progressive tense, and one sentence in Simple Past tense. Therefore, the experimental items in this task included twelve sentences in the Simple Present tense (6 for grammatical sentences and 6 for ungrammatical sentences), six sentences in the Present Continuous tense (3 for grammatical items and 3 for ungrammatical items), and six items in the Simple Past tense (3 for grammatical items and 3 for ungrammatical items).

The remaining forty-eight of the seventy-two sentences were fillers. Twenty-four of them were grammatical sentences and twenty-four were ungrammatical. The fillers were also questions: polar questions and *wh*-questions.

The length of the items was controlled. Each sentence contained 10 to 13 words.

The participants were asked to read each sentence carefully and judge it as grammatical or ungrammatical. There were two boxes at the end of each item (grammatical and ungrammatical) for the participants to mark their choice. The participants were supposed to click on one of those boxes to judge the grammaticality of the sentence. They were able to click on only one option for each sentence (choosing two options for one item was not allowed). The participants had to answer all the questions to be able to finish the task. After they answered all the questions, they clicked on the SUBMIT button at the end of the google form page, which sent the form to the researcher. Once the participants finished the task, they were not able to reach or open the task they had completed, so it was impossible to change the answers.

3.3.2. Semantic Interpretation Task

This task was developed in order to test whether the participants are aware of the fact that, while DQs are in general ambiguous between the alternative (ALT) reading and the yes-no (YN) reading, a disjunctive question with a particular syntactic representation (namely, a HNDQ) does not allow for the ALT reading, but denotes an unambiguous YN question. To this end, I developed a questionnaire in which each item contained a short context, developed in the format of a natural conversation between two people, in which the last exchange was a DQ (capitalized in the questionnaire). Contexts were constructed in pairs (using the same names of the dialogue participants in both members of the pair), so that one of them facilitated the ALT reading of the DQ, while the other facilitated the YN reading of the same question. The participants' job was to assess to what extent it was semantically appropriate to use the capitalized DQ at the end of every context, taking into consideration the information given in the context (consequently, accessing either the ALT or the YN reading of the question). They were asked to mark their answers on a five-point Likert scale (ranging from (1): strongly inappropriate to (5): strongly appropriate). The participants rated the questions by clicking on the boxes to the right of each item. They could choose only one option on the scale, 1 to 5. Each participant had to answer all the questions to be able to finish the task.

The DQs at the end of the dialogues differed with respect to whether they were affirmative (AFFDQs) or negative. Moreover, negative questions differed in the position of the negation: some contained low negation (LNDQs) while some contained high negation (HNDQs). In total, there were thirty experimental items comprising:

- Ten items with AFFDQs (five following contexts biasing the YN reading and five following contexts biasing the ALT reading),
- Ten items with LNDQs (five following contexts biasing the YN reading and five following contexts biasing the ALT reading), and
- Ten items with HNDQs (five following contexts biasing the YN reading and five following contexts biasing the ALT reading),

Thus, the inappropriate items in the test were only five because only the HNDS in contexts biasing the alternative reading were unacceptable semantically. The other DQs with two biases were expected to be interpreted as appropriate.

These items were distributed across two lists (A and B) in such a way that of each pair of contexts (one biasing the ALT and one biasing the YN reading) which contained the same disjunctive question at the end, one was placed on list A and the other on list B. In such a way, a single participant saw each disjunctive question only once (either following a YN context or an ALT context).

In the end, each list contained five items for each disjunctive question type (affirmative, low negation, high negation), resulting in fifteen items in total. On list A, three of the items containing each AFFDQs, LNDQs, and HNDQs favored the YN reading, while two items containing each type of the DQ favored the ALT reading. On list B, the situation was reversed: three of the items containing each AFFDQs, LNDQs, and HNDQs favored the ALT reading, while two items containing each type of the DQ favored the YN reading.

The participants were warned that the questions might be unusual or not used frequently and were instructed that they should rate the questions according to the appropriateness of their *semantic* contribution. This was because of the fact that DQs (in particular, the negated ones) are rather infrequent in everyday English, so the participants (both native speakers and L2ers) might have given them low scores because they find them unnatural rather than because they think they do not fit the context.

3.4. Results & Discussion

As stated above, in this part of the study, the structures tested involved different types of disjunctive questions (DQ); affirmative (AFF) ((45.) below), low negation (LN) ((46.) below) and high negation (HN) ((47.) below).

- | | | |
|-------|------------------------------------|--------------|
| (45.) | Does Jane drink coffee or tea? | <i>AFFDQ</i> |
| (46.) | Does Jane not drink coffee or tea? | <i>LNDQ</i> |
| (47.) | Doesn't Jane drink coffee or tea? | <i>HNDQ</i> |

The GJT aimed to measure the participants' competence in the syntax of such DQs, i.e. whether the participants can tell the difference between well- and ill-formed DQs. The Semantic Interpretation questionnaire, on the other hand, measured how successful the participants are in pairing different syntactic representations of DQs with semantic interpretations, i.e. their knowledge pertaining to the syntax-semantics interface. Below, I report the results from the two tasks. However, in all groups and especially L2 groups, there were some unexpected results concerning DQs with low negation. For ease of exposition, these results will be discussed separately. In section 3.4.1, I discuss only the findings of affirmative and high negation DQs.

3.4.1. Results of the GJT

The GJT was prepared to test whether or not the participants knew the syntax of DQs. It was composed of seventy-two items, twenty-four of which were experimental. Among the experimental items, there were eight affirmative DQs, eight DQs with low negation and eight DQs with high negation, half of which were grammatical and half of which ungrammatical. The remaining forty-eight items were fillers. The participants were required to decide whether the sentence was grammatical or ungrammatical.

Each correct judgment was graded as one (1) and each incorrect judgment was graded as zero (0). For example, if a participant judged an ungrammatical item as grammatical, they got a zero on that item, and if they judged it as ungrammatical, they got a one. As a consequence, if a participant judged all the experimental items correctly, their mean score was one (1). Therefore, in the statistics below, the mean scores are obtained out of one.

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of the language proficiency level on the judgment of the grammaticality of two types of DQs; AFFDQs for grammatical and ungrammatical items and HNDQs for grammatical and ungrammatical items (recall that the results of the LNDQs are discussed separately below). Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics results for the control group and for the two experimental groups on AFFDQs and HNDQs for both grammatical and ungrammatical items. On grammatical AFFDQs, the low proficiency group obtained a slightly higher mean score (0.9375) than the native

speakers (0.9286), who in turn obtained a higher score than the high proficiency group (0.8875). On ungrammatical AFFDQs, native speakers performed better (0.9762) than both the high and low proficiency group (0.9250 and 0.9167 respectively). However, the effect of language proficiency level on the grammaticality judgment when it comes to AFFDQs was not significant either for grammatical [$F(2,74) = .823, p = .443$] or ungrammatical items [$F(2,74) = 1.226, p = .299$].

On disjunctive questions containing high negation, the high proficiency group obtained a higher score (0.8875) than both native speakers (0.8452) and the low proficiency group (0.8333) while judging grammatical items, while native speakers performed better (0.9762) than both L2 groups on ungrammatical items (0.9375 for both groups). However, the results of no group were significantly different from the results of the other two, either on the grammatical HNDQs [$F(2, 74) = .357, p = .701$] or on ungrammatical HNDQs [$F(2,74) = .739, p = .481$].

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of AFFDQs and HNDQs GJT

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min.	Max.
Grammatical AFFDQs	Native speakers	21	.9286	.11573	.75	1.00
	High proficiency L2ers	20	.8875	.18979	.25	1.00
	Low proficiency L2ers	36	.9375	.12500	.50	1.00
	Total	77	.9221	.14200	.25	1.00
Ungrammatical AFFDQs	Native speakers	21	.9762	.07520	.75	1.00
	High proficiency L2ers	20	.9250	.18317	.25	1.00
	Low proficiency L2ers	36	.9167	.14639	.50	1.00
	Total	77	.9351	.14283	.25	1.00
Grammatical HNDQs	Native speakers	21	.8452	.25588	.00	1.00
	High proficiency L2ers	20	.8875	.17158	.50	1.00
	Low proficiency L2ers	36	.8333	.24640	.25	1.00
	Total	77	.8506	.23034	.00	1.00
Ungrammatical HNDQs	Native speakers	21	.9762	.07520	.75	1.00
	High proficiency L2ers	20	.9375	.13753	.50	1.00
	Low proficiency L2ers	36	.9375	.13855	.50	1.00
	Total	77	.9481	.12393	.50	1.00

Taken together, these results suggest that language proficiency levels do not have an effect on how accurately our participants judged AFFDQs and HNDQs. Specifically,

our results suggest that the knowledge of the syntax of both AFFDQs and HNDQs does not differ across the proficiency groups, which indicates that the L2 participants have the knowledge of the syntax of these grammatical constructions that does not differ significantly from that of the native speakers.

3.4.2. Results of the Semantic Interpretation Task

The Semantic Interpretation Task was prepared to measure the performance of the participants on an interface task (integration of syntax and semantics); i.e. the mapping of a syntactic structure onto a semantic interpretation. The task tested whether or not the participants know that some DQs (AFFDQs and LNDQs) are ambiguous between a YN and an ALT reading and some (HNDQs) are not.

The task contained thirty items, each containing a short description of a situation (the *context*), followed by a DQ. The participants' task was to assess how acceptable the DQ is given the context. The thirty items were composed of fifteen pairs of contexts; the two contexts in each pair were followed by *the same DQ*. The two contexts in a pair differed minimally, so as to favor either the yes/no reading or the alternative reading of the DQ that followed. An example of the minimal pair of contexts is given below ((48.) and (49.)).

(48.) Yes/no reading (Group A): John is looking for a good present for his wife who loves reading and also loves old things. He asked his friend Bill for help. Bill suggests a small shop in his neighborhood and John says: "I need to find something quickly; I don't really care what, as long as she likes it. DOES THIS SHOP SELL BOOKS OR ANTIQUES?"

(49.) Alternative reading (Group B): John has to buy two presents: one for his wife and one for his boss. He wants to buy a book for his wife and an old vase for his boss. His friend Bill suggests two stores: one for the book and one for the vase. When they arrive in front of one of the shops, John asks: "So, which shop is this, DOES THIS SHOP SELL BOOKS OR ANTIQUES?"

I was interested in seeing whether the same kind of DQ (AFF, LN, HN) would be judged as equally good in both kinds of contexts (yes/no contexts and alternative

contexts); i.e. if participants knew what semantic interpretation a particular DQ might have.

The thirty contexts were distributed across two lists in such a way that each participant saw only one of the contexts in the each of the fifteen pairs. The fifteen items in each list contained five AFFDQs, five LNDQs and five HNDQs.

The two lists taken together contained thirty items in total: ten contexts followed by an AFFDQ (five biasing a yes/no reading and five biasing an alternative reading), ten contexts followed by a LNDQ (five biasing a yes/no reading and five biasing an alternative reading), and ten contexts followed by a HNDQ (again, five biasing a yes/no reading and five biasing an unattested alternative reading).

According to Han & Romero (2004a and 2004b), affirmative DQs and DQs containing low negation can have both a yes/no interpretation and an alternative interpretation. However, DQs containing high negation only have a yes/no interpretation; the alternative reading is not available. For instance, example (45.) above, repeated here as (50.), may be answered with: “Yes, she does/No, she does not.” or with “Jane drinks coffee/Jane drinks tea”. The former is the answer to the yes/no reading, and the latter to the alternative reading of the question. On the other hand, example (47.), repeated here as (51.), can be answered with: “Yes, she does/No, she does not.”, but since it cannot have an alternative meaning, the answers: “She doesn’t drink coffee/She doesn’t drink tea” are not possible.

- | | | |
|-------|-----------------------------------|--------------|
| (50.) | Does Jane drink coffee or tea? | <i>AFFDQ</i> |
| (51.) | Doesn’t Jane drink coffee or tea? | <i>HNDQ</i> |

Thus, I expected the participants to judge AFFDQs and LNDQs as equally acceptable after a context biasing the yes/no reading of a DQ and after a context biasing the alternative reading of the same question. However, when a DQ contains high negation, the expectation was that such a DQ would be judged as acceptable after a context that favors the yes/no reading, but as unacceptable when the context favors the alternative reading.

Each DQ was accompanied by a scale from one to five. When the participants thought that the DQ was completely appropriate in the context, they marked five; if they thought the opposite (that it was completely inappropriate), they graded it as one. Thus, the mean scores were out of five in the statistics below.

A Repeated Measures ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of language proficiency level on context type (yes/no bias and alternative bias) and question type (AFFDQs and HNDQs). Table 2 below shows the descriptive statistics of the performance of the participants on the semantic interpretation task. According to the table, all groups of participants rated AFFDQs as fairly acceptable in both yes/no contexts and alternative contexts. On the other hand, HNDQs in contexts biasing the yes/no reading were rated as slightly more acceptable by native speakers of English than by the high proficiency and low proficiency groups. In the contexts biasing the alternative reading of the question, HNDQs received the lowest scores from the control group, followed by the high proficiency group and then by the low proficiency group.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of the AFFDQs and HNDQs Semantic Interpretation Task

		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Yes/No Reading AFFDQs	Native speakers	4,3016	,89228	21
	High proficiency L2ers	4,0250	1,04472	20
	Low proficiency L2ers	4,0324	,83744	36
	Total	4,1039	,90565	77
Yes/No Reading HNDQs	Native speakers	4,1746	,90289	21
	High proficiency L2ers	3,8667	,99795	20
	Low proficiency L2ers	3,7500	,99003	36
	Total	3,8961	,97297	77
Alternative Reading AFFDQs	Native speakers	4,2381	1,00909	21
	High proficiency L2ers	4,2250	1,02637	20
	Low proficiency L2ers	4,2315	,82547	36
	Total	4,2316	,91932	77
Alternative Reading HNDQs	Native speakers	2,2778	,83887	21
	High proficiency L2ers	3,1750	1,41677	20
	Low proficiency L2ers	3,5139	,81003	36
	Total	3,0887	1,12181	77

There was a significant effect of context type ($F(1,74) = 17.9, p < .0001$) indicating that if we ignore all other variables, the items with yes/no context and alternative context were significantly different from each other. Similarly, there was a significant effect of question type, ($F(1,74) = 47.4, p < .0001$), meaning that when the context type and the proficiency groups were ignored, the AFFDQs and HNDQs would show statistically significantly different results from each other. In addition, there was a significant interaction between context type and proficiency group ($F(2, 74) = 9.08, p < .0001$), showing that if we ignore the question types, at least one group of proficiency scored the items differently for yes/no reading and alternative reading. Another significant two-way interaction was found between context type and question type ($F(1, 74) = 29.11, p = .000$), indicating that if we rule out proficiency levels, the overall mean scores of items with yes/no reading and alternative reading were different for at least one question type. However, there was no significant interaction between question type and proficiency group ($F(2, 74) = 2.61, p = .08$). Lastly, there was a three way significant interaction between proficiency group, context type and question type ($F(2, 74) = 4.74, p = .011$), indicating that the relationship between question type and context type was significantly different for at least one proficiency group.

In order to compare how the proficiency groups differ amongst themselves on the same question type in the same context, independent samples t-tests were conducted. First, I compared the mean scores given to HNDQs in contexts with the alternative bias. The first test compared the performance of the native speakers with that of the high proficiency group. The same kind of test then compared the native speakers and the low proficiency group. The native speakers' scores ($M=2.27, SD=.83$) differed significantly from both the high proficiency group ($M=3.17, SD=1.41$) [$t(39) = -2.482, p=.017$] and the low proficiency group ($M=3.51, SD=.81$) [$t(55) = -5.486, p<.0001$], indicating that L2ers rated HNDQs in contexts with the alternative bias significantly higher than the native speakers did (see Figure 3 below).

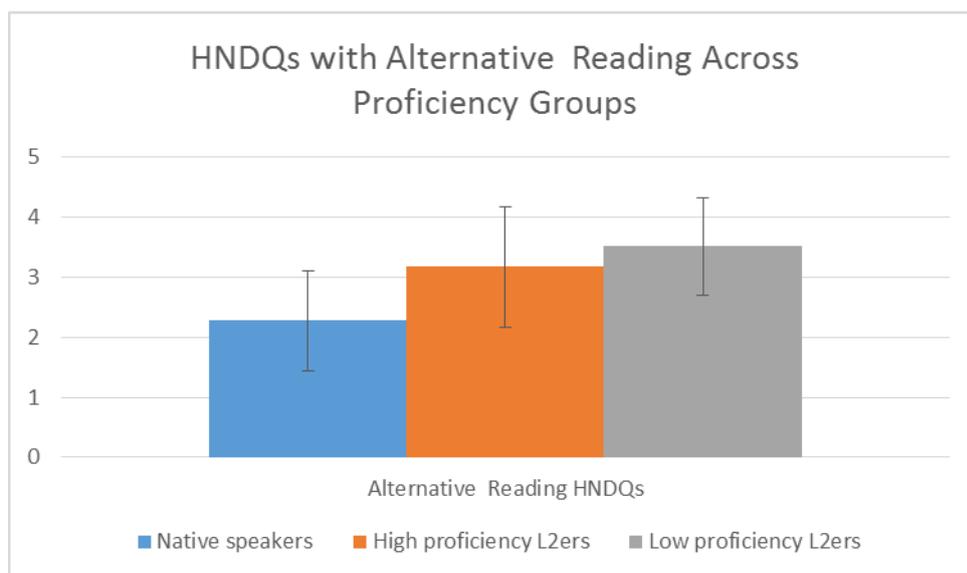


Figure 3. Mean Scores given to HNDQs with ALT Reading Across Proficiency Groups

These results suggest that the L2ers are more willing than the native speakers to assign an alternative reading to a HNDQ, which points to a deficiency in the integration of the syntax and semantics of DQs in L2 population.

There were no significant differences on any other type of DQs between the two contexts for any of the groups.

Moreover, six paired samples t-tests were run to compare each DQ type according to their context types as yes/no and alternative for all three proficiency groups.

- i. For the AFFDQs, there was no significant difference between the yes/no reading and the alternative reading for all proficiency groups: native speakers (yes/no reading: $M=4.30$, $SD=.89$; alternative reading: $M=4.23$, $SD=1.00$) [$t(20) = .235$, $p = .817$], high proficiency group (yes no reading: $M=4.02$, $SD=1.04$; alternative reading: $M=4.22$, $SD=1.02$) [$t(19) = -.887$, $p = .386$] and low proficiency group (yes no reading: $M=4.03$, $SD=.83$; alternative reading: $M=4.23$, $SD=.82$) [$t(35) = -1.021$, $p = .314$].
- ii. For the HNDQs,

ii.i. there was a significant difference between the yes/no reading (M=4.17, SD=.90) and the alternative reading (M=2.27, SD=.83) for native speakers; $t(20) = 7.977, p < .0001$.

ii.ii. There was also a significant difference between the yes/no reading (M=3.86, SD=.99) and the alternative reading (M=3.17, SD=1.41) for the high proficiency group; $t(19) = 2.319, p = .032$.

ii.iii. However, there was no significant difference for the low proficiency group between the yes/no reading (M=3.75, SD=.99) and the alternative reading (M=3.51, SD=.81); $t(35) = 1.214, p = .233$ (see Figure 4 below).

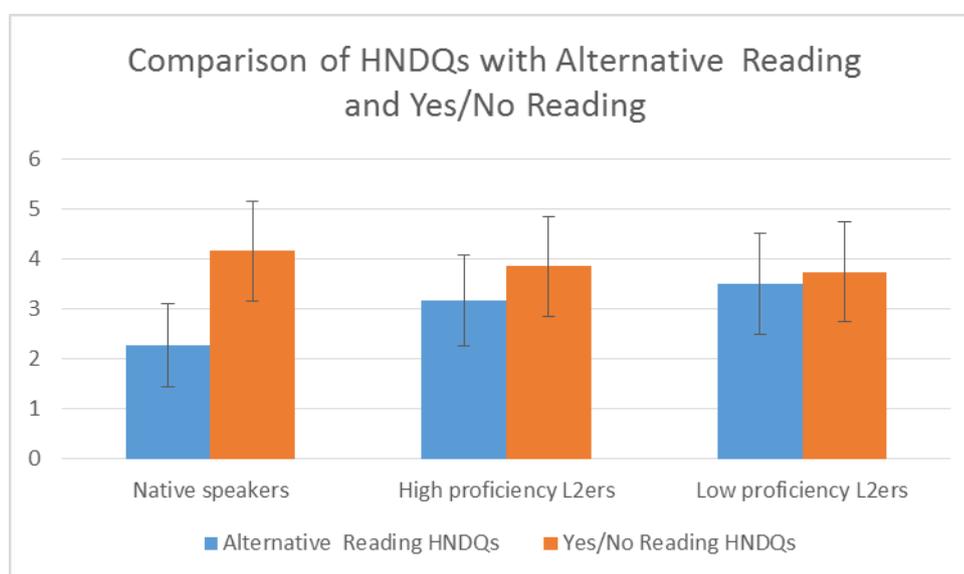


Figure 4. The comparison of Mean Scores given to HNDQs with ALT Reading and HNDQs with YN Reading Within Each Proficiency Group

These results seem to indicate that L2ers do not know that HNDQs do not have an alternative reading in English. They believe that HNDQs have alternative readings; i.e. that “Doesn’t Jane drink coffee or tea?” can mean “Which of the two does John not drink: coffee or tea?”, which indicates that they assign alternative semantics to HNDQs. However, the high proficiency L2ers align with native speakers’ judgments in assigning significantly higher scores to HNDQs in YN context than in ALT

context. By contrast, the low proficiency L2ers judge HNDQs equally in both contexts.

3.4.3. Low Negation DQ

Here, I return to the analyses of the DQs with low negation (LNDQs) compared to AFFDQs and HNDQs across proficiency levels. Recall that, according to the literature, LNDQs pattern with AFFDQs and differ from HNDQs in that they are ambiguous between the yes/no reading and the alternative reading. Here I report the participants' performance on the syntax and semantics of LNDQs.

3.4.3.1. Results of the GJT (LNDQs)

Table 3 below shows the descriptive statistics of the performance of different proficiency groups on judging the grammaticality of LNDQs. On the grammatical items, native speakers of English (0.8810) performed better than high proficiency L2ers (0.6125) and low proficiency L2ers (0.5139), and high proficiency L2ers performed better than low proficiency L2ers. For the ungrammatical items, native speakers (1.0000) did better than the other two groups and the low proficiency group (0.9583) performed slightly better than the high proficiency group (0.9375).

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of LNDQs GJT

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min.	Max.
Grammatical LNDQs	Native speakers	21	,8810	,23210	,25	1,00
	High proficiency L2ers	20	,6125	,38453	,00	1,00
	Low proficiency L2ers	36	,5139	,41380	,00	1,00
	Total	77	,6396	,39214	,00	1,00
	Ungrammatical LNDQs	21	1,0000	,00000	1,00	1,00
Ungrammatical LNDQs	High proficiency L2ers	20	,9375	,13753	,50	1,00
	Low proficiency L2ers	36	,9583	,14015	,25	1,00
	Total	77	,9643	,11972	,25	1,00

A one way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to see whether or not there was an effect of language proficiency level on the grammaticality judgement of the (grammatical and ungrammatical) LNDQs.

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the scores of the grammatical LNDQs ($F(2, 74) = 6.767, p = .002$). A Tukey HSD *post-hoc* test revealed that the performance of the low proficiency group on LNDQs ($M = .51, SD = .41$) was significantly lower than the performance of the native speakers of English ($M = .88, SD = .23$) ($p = .001$) (see Figure 5 below).

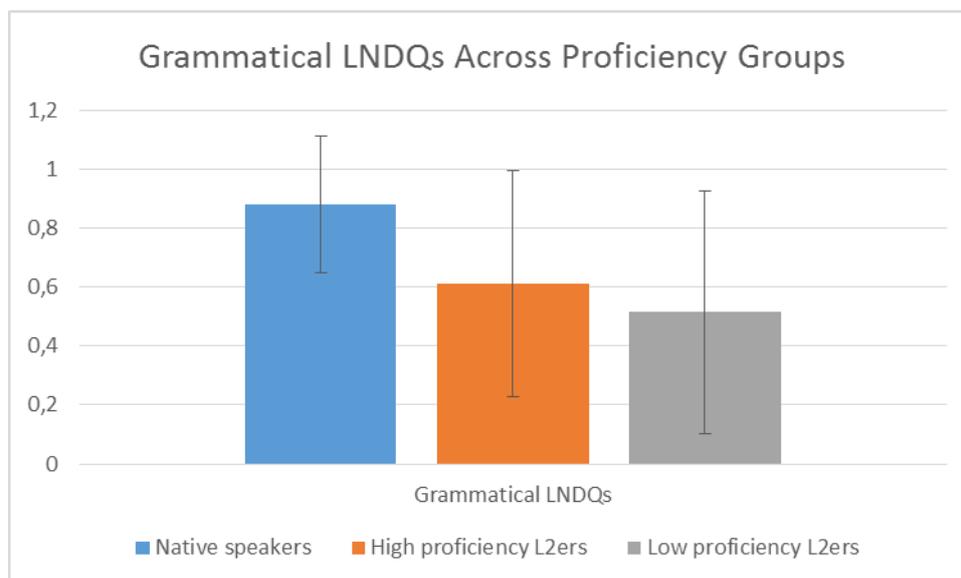


Figure 5. Mean Scores given to Grammatical LNDQs Across Proficiency Groups

There were no significant differences between the performance of native speakers and the high proficiency group ($p = .064$) and between low proficiency group and high proficiency group ($p = 1.00$).

There was no significant difference in the scores of ungrammatical LNDQs ($F(2, 74) = 1.499, p = .230$) across proficiency groups.

Thus, low proficiency L2ers marked LNDQs as ungrammatical even on the grammatical items. This indicates that this group does not possess the knowledge of the syntax of the LNDQs, perhaps because they are less used to such structures than the other two groups.

3.4.3.2. Semantic Interpretation Task (LNDQs)

Table 4 below shows the descriptive statistics of the participants' performance on the semantic interpretation task (see section 3.4.2) to see the descriptive statistics of AFFDQs and HNDQs). According to the table, all the participants assigned relatively low scores to LNDQs, regardless of the bias of the context. Native speakers of English judged LNDQs as more appropriate in contexts with the yes/no bias (3.6984) than they did in contexts with the alternative bias (2.9524). The same trend can be

detected for the low proficiency L2 group, whose scores were 3.5694 and 2.9306 respectively. Only the high proficiency L2ers judged LNDQs as more appropriate in contexts with the alternative bias (3.3750) than in contexts with the yes/no bias (3.2667).

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of the LNDQs Semantic Interpretation Task

	ProficiencyGroup	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Yes/No Reading LNDQs	Native speakers	3,6984	1,07963	21
	High proficiency L2ers	3,2667	1,24299	20
	Low proficiency L2ers	3,5694	1,19614	36
	Total	3,5260	1,17418	77
Alternative Reading LNDQs	Native speakers	2,9524	1,10572	21
	High proficiency L2ers	3,3750	1,12244	20
	Low proficiency L2ers	2,9306	,99393	36
	Total	3,0519	1,06247	77

A Repeated Measures ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of language proficiency level on context type (yes/no bias and alternative bias) and question type (AFFDQs, LNDQs, and HNDQs).

When the mean scores of the LNDQs were included in the statistics of the semantic interpretation task (reported in section 3.4.2 above), the significance of the results did not change. The findings are as follows: There was a significant effect of context type ($F(1, 74) = 23.62, p < .0001$) and question type ($F(2, 73) = 37.05, p < .0001$). There was a significant interaction between context type and proficiency group ($F(2, 74) = 7.38, p = .001$). A two-way interaction was also found between context type

and question type ($F(2, 73) = 11.75, p < .0001$). Although there was no significant interaction between question type and proficiency group ($F(4, 148) = 1.44, p = .221$), there was a significant three way interaction between proficiency group, context type and question type ($F(4, 148) = 3.50, p = .009$).

Further tests were run to make *post hoc* comparisons between context type and question type conditions across proficiency groups.

First, I compared the mean scores given to LNDQs in contexts with the yes/no bias and the alternative bias separately between different proficiency groups. Independent samples t-tests indicated that there were no significant differences between any two groups either on the LNDQs in contexts with the yes/no bias or on the LNDQs in contexts with the alternative bias. T-test results are reported below:

For the LNDQs in contexts with yes/no bias

- Native speakers ($M=3.69, SD=1.07$) / high proficiency level group ($M=3.26, SD=1.24$), $t(39) = 1.189, p = .242$.
- Native speakers ($M=3.69, SD=1.07$) / low proficiency level group ($M=3.56, SD=1.19$), $t(55) = .407, p = .686$.
- High proficiency level group ($M=3.26, SD=1.24$) / low proficiency level group ($M=3.56, SD=1.19$), $t(54) = -.895, p = .375$.

For the LNDQs in contexts with alternative bias

- Native speakers ($M=2.95, SD=1.10$) / high proficiency level group ($M=3.37, SD=1.12$), $t(39) = -1.214, p = .232$
- Native speakers ($M=2.95, SD=1.10$) / low proficiency level group ($M=2.93, SD=.99$), $t(55) = .077, p = .939$.
- High proficiency level group ($M=3.37, SD=1.12$) / low proficiency level group ($M=2.93, SD=.99$), $t(54) = 1.531, p = .132$.

Taken together, these results suggest that the proficiency level did not have an effect on the performance of the interpretation of the LNDQs. All the three groups scored similarly on LNDQs in contexts with the yes/no bias. In a similar way, all of the proficiency groups scored the LNDQs in contexts with the alternative bias.

In addition, paired samples t-tests were run to make *post hoc* comparisons between LNDQs and all other types of DQs in yes/no contexts and between LNDQs and all

other types of DQs in alternative contexts across different proficiency groups. The results indicated the following:

For the native speakers' performance on LNDQs, there was significant difference between:

- LNDQs (M=3.69, SD=1.07) and AFFDQs (M=4.30, SD=.89) following yes/no biased contexts, $t(20) = 2.194$, $p = .040$;
- LNDQs (M=2.95, SD=1.10) and AFFDQs (M=4.23, SD=1.00) following contexts with the alternative bias, $t(20) = -4.745$, $p < .0001$.
- LNDQs (M=2.95, SD=1.10) and HNDQs (M=2.27, SD=.83), following contexts with the alternative bias ($t(20) = 2.518$, $p = .020$).

For the high proficiency L2ers' performance, there was significant difference between:

- LNDQs (M=3.26, SD=1.24) and AFFDQs (M=4.02, SD=1.04) in contexts with yes/no bias, $t(20) = 2.194$, $p = .040$;
- LNDQs (M=3.37, SD=1.12) and AFFDQs (M=4.23, SD=1.00) following contexts with alternative bias, $t(20) = -2.724$, $p = .013$.

For the low proficiency L2ers' performance, there was significant difference between:

- LNDQs (M=3.56, SD=1.19) and AFFDQs with (M=4.03, SD=.83) in contexts with yes/no bias, $t(35) = 1.813$, $p = .078$.
- LNDQs with alternative bias (M=2.93, SD=.99) and AFFDQs with alternative bias (M=4.23, SD=.82), $t(35) = -6.717$, $p < .0001$;
- LNDQs (M=2.93, SD=.99) and HNDQs (M=3.51, SD=.81) following contexts with alternative bias, $t(35) = -2.602$, $p = .013$.

The results of the comparison between the LNDQs and other types of DQs indicated that native speakers gave lower scores to the LNDQs in context with yes/no bias than the AFFDQs in contexts with the same bias. They also gave lower scores to the LNDQs in context with alternative bias than to AFFDQs with the same bias. However, they rated LNDQs in contexts with alternative bias higher than HNDQs in the same kind of context. This shows that the low negation of the DQs (possibly more unusual and less frequently used than affirmative DQs), decreased the rate of

the acceptability. However, native speakers seem to be aware of the fact that HNDQs in contexts with alternative bias cannot be accepted as grammatical, as shown by the fact that even otherwise dispreferred LNDQs received a higher score in this condition. However, the L2ers of English failed to interpret LNDQs differently from HNDQs in contexts with either bias (except for the low proficiency L2 group, which judged LNDQs even lower than HNDQs in contexts with alternative bias – exactly the opposite of the native speaker judgment). Thus, this shows that low proficiency L2ers are not used to see and use LNDQs structures at all and think that these types of questions are always ungrammatical (see Figure 6 below).

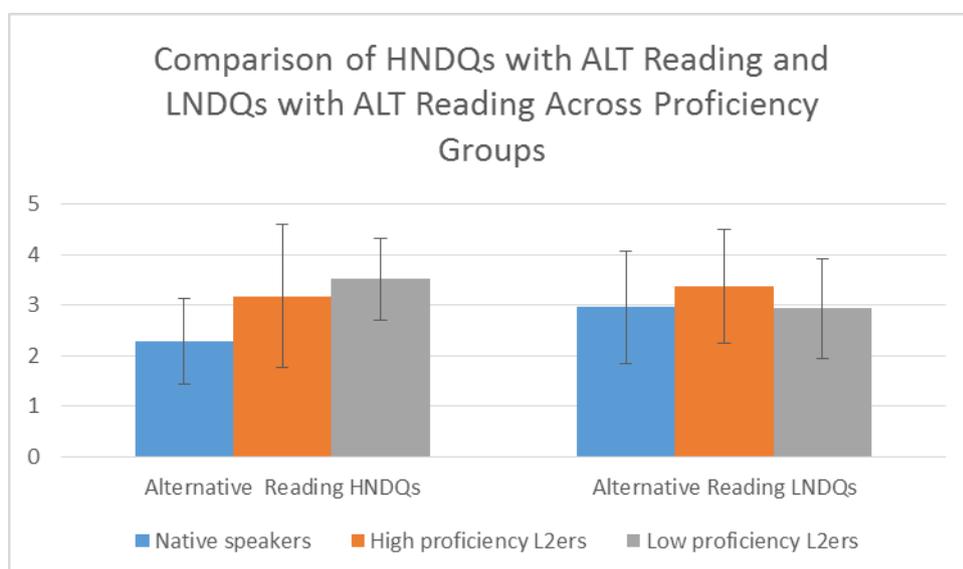


Figure 6. The comparison of Mean Scores given to HNDQs with ALT Reading and LNDQs with ALT Reading Across Proficiency Groups

Although the rates of the participants with high English proficiency level on the LNDQs and AFFDQs with yes/no bias was native-like, they gave statistically similar scores to the LNDQs and to HNDQs with alternative reading; so it shows that they treat LNDQs as equally (un)acceptable as HNDQs with alternative reading.

Overall, when the results of LNDQs were compared to the AFFDQs and HNDQs, the results showed that the L2ers had trouble with LNDQs, especially in contexts with alternative bias; they rated this kind of DQs as low as they rated HNDQs with

alternative reading, although English allows LNDQs with alternative reading. Significant differences between HNDQs with alternative reading and all other question and context types of DQs- without significant differences between other types of questions and context types- were expected.

3.5. Discussion

The results of the two tasks described in this chapter indicated that the participants possess the knowledge of the syntax of DQs (as evidenced by scores that were not significantly different from the scores of the control group). The only exception to this is the LNDQs, where the participants from the low proficiency level group were unsuccessful. However, despite the fact that the participants possess the knowledge of the syntax of DQs, they displayed non-native performance in the task requiring the syntax-semantics interface. These results are in line with the early version of the IH (Sorace, 2005; Sorace & Filiaci, 2006), according to which properties of a construction related to narrow syntax are acquired in a more straightforward way than the properties pertaining to interfaces. Thus, with the exception of the LNDQs, the results confirmed my hypothesis that the participants would perform better on the syntax of DQs than on their semantics (recall that the performance of L2ers on the syntax was expected to be closer to the native speakers than their performance on the semantics task).

In the semantic interpretation task, however, the performance of both L2 groups was non-target like when it comes to the semantic interpretation of HNDQs. As we saw above, unlike the native speakers, the L2ers gave relatively high scores to this kind of DQs even in contexts which were biased towards the alternative reading. This indicates that L2ers are not confident in the mapping between syntax and semantics of (negated) DQs, which points to an interface difficulty. However, the low and the high proficiency L2 participant groups differed from one another in that only the low proficiency group gave similar scores to the HNDQs in contexts with the alternative reading bias and to HNDQs in contexts with the yes/no reading bias. L2 participants with high English proficiency gave significantly lower scores to the former than to the latter. This difference shows that there might be some developmental differences

in the acquisition of HNDQs. In other words, as the proficiency level increases, the performance on the semantics of DQs might show an increasing trend. If this conjecture is correct, this result runs counter to the later version of the IH, on which the acquisition of interface properties shows no developmental patterns (Sorace & Serratrice, 2009; Sorace, 2011; White, 2011). Rather, properties of internal interfaces are supposed to be acquired early, while properties of external interfaces should remain problematic even in near-native grammars. My results do not confirm this statement.

However, as suggested by Yuan (2008, 2010) and White (2011), there might be several reasons other than the implication of an interface for the underperformance of L2ers on the semantics of DQs. One such reason might be the effect of L1 (Turkish). In Turkish, DQs are not ambiguous between the YN and ALT readings (they have separate forms for each reading); the DQs in (52.) only has the alternative reading, while the one in (53.) only has the YN reading.

(52.) a. A: Ahmet kahve mi (yoksa) çay mı içer?
Ahmet coffee question mar. (or) tea question mar. drink
Does Ahmet drink coffee or tea?

B: Ahmet çay içer. / Ahmet kahve içer.
Ahmet tea drinks/ Ahmet coffee drinks.
Ahmet drinks tea./ Ahmet drinks coffee.

B:* Evet içer./
** Yes drink.3rdSing.S.presentT*
Yes he drinks.
 *Hayır içmez.
**No he drinkNeg.3rdSing.S.presentT.*
No he does not drink.

(53.) a. A: Ahmet kahve veya/ya da çay içer mi?
Ahmet coffee or tea drink question mar.
Does Ahmet drink coffee or tea?

B: Evet içer./

Yes drink.3rdSing.S.presentT

Yes he drinks.

Hayır içmez.

No he drinkNeg.3rdSing.S.presentT.

No he does not drink.

Moreover, there is only one place for the negative morpheme (-mA ‘not’) in negated DQs (attached to the verb), as in (54.)

(54.) a. A: Ahmet çay mı

Ahmet tea question mar.

yoksa kahve mi içmez?

(or) coffee question mar. drink

Doesn't Ahmet drink coffee or tea?

B: Ahmet çay içmez/

Ahmet tea drinkNeg.3rdSing.S.presentT./

Ahmet does not drink tea./

Ahmet kahve içmez.

Ahmet coffee drinkNeg.3rdSing.S.presentT./

Ahmet does not drink coffee.

B:* Evet içer./

** Yes drink.3rdSing.S.presentT*

Yes he drinks.

*Hayır içmez.

**No he drinkNeg.3rdSing.S.presentT.*

No he does not drink.

Finally, such negative DQs do have ALT readings, as in (54.).

The negation in Turkish might be said to occupy a higher syntactic position (high negation) if the verb in questions raises out of the VP and to a higher functional head (C)².

Because of this reason, possibly, the participants whose native language was Turkish found LNDQs weird and unusual. This might be transferred from their L1. However, L1 transfer cannot explain all the results. First of all, even the native speakers of English gave relatively low scores to the negated DQs. Another reason was that no transfer was observed in other results; for example AFFDQs, they do not have YN reading in Turkish yet the L2ers could interpret it in English in a nativelike manner.

Another, or perhaps a complementary reason for the results I obtained might be the input that the participants received. They grew up in Turkey and did not have much experience abroad. Thus, they were not exposed English in a native-speaker environment. This might influence their performance on specific phenomena. The frequency of the input regarding DQs that the participants were exposed to, was another factor that might have affected the result related to DQs. DQs overall seem to be rather rare in English and this seems to be especially true of LNDQs, as indicated by relatively low scores that grammatical LNDQs received even from native speakers. In addition, one of the reasons might be that DQs might simply be a difficult construction and our participants, whose proficiency level is not native like, have not yet mastered them. In the research of Dekydsporter and colleagues, for example, who also studied difficult constructions, the participants were very advanced level learners, mostly native like, who also live in the country where their second language was spoken.

Finally, it is possible that the proficiency levels did not differ sufficiently between the L2 groups. Adding more proficient and more beginner proficiency level groups might yield different results.

² Footnote: T-to-C raising is controversial in Turkish (see Kural (1993) who claims that it exists, and Aygen (2002), who claims that it does not exist).

CHAPTER 4

SYNTAX-PRAGMATICS INTERFACE

In this chapter, I present the review of the literature related to the syntax-pragmatics interface, as well as give the background to the *it*-cleft structure (which I used to test the participants' knowledge of the syntax-pragmatics interface). Secondly, information about the participants who took the tests is given, followed by the description of the data collection tools and the procedure. Next, the results are reported and discussed in the framework of the syntax-pragmatics interface research.

4.1. Literature Review

4.1.1. *Syntax-Pragmatics interface Studies*

According to the research on second language acquisition and bilingual development, the interface between syntax and pragmatics (an external interface) is the place where most of the non-extensive, but residual optionality and instability are observed. Sorace and colleagues (e.g. Belletti, Bennati & Sorace, 2007, Sorace & Filiaci, 2006; Tsimpli and Sorace, 2006) demonstrated that even native-like speakers of Italian might not be fully proficient in discourse/pragmatics constraints of focus and topic in Italian, proposing that there may be long-lasting and persisting problems at the interface between syntax and pragmatics. This, as I mentioned before, is expected on the Interface Hypothesis (IH)(Sorace, 2005; Sorace & Filiaci, 2006). Here, I am going to present some of the studies from the second language acquisition literature; firstly, the studies in favor of the IH and then the ones reporting counter evidence to IH.

In Italian, null subjects are allowed in root clauses, as in (55.), non-root clauses, as in (56.), and they are the only pragmatically appropriate alternative in certain

pragmatics conditions, as shown by the inappropriateness of the overt pronoun usage in (57.) and (58.) (Serratrice, 2007).

(55.) Laura_i ha salutato la sua amica e *pro_i*
 Laura has said-bye the her friend and *pro_i*
 è uscita dalla macchina.
 is gone-out from- the car

“Laura said good bye to her friend and (she) got out of the car”

(56.) Laura_i ha salutato la sua amica mentre *pro_i*
 Laura has said-bye the her friend while *pro_i*
 è uscita dalla macchina.
 is gone-out from- the car

“Laura said good bye to her friend while (she) got out of the car”

(57.) ??Laura_i ha salutato la sua amica e lei_i
 Laura has said-bye the her friend and she
 è uscita dalla macchina.
 is gone-out from- the car

“Laura said good bye to her friend and she got out of the car”

(58.) ??Laura_i ha salutato la sua amica mentre lei_i
 Laura has said-bye the her friend while she
 è uscita dalla macchina.
 is gone-out from- the car

“Laura said good bye to her friend while she got out of the car.”

(Serratrice, 2007)

From the syntactic perspective, Position of Antecedent Strategy (PAS) of Carminati (2002:41) says that an antecedent in the specifier position of the sentence (inflectional phrase) is preferred by null pronouns while an antecedent which does not hold the position of specifier in an inflectional phrase is preferred by the overt pronoun (as cited in Serratrice, 2007). From the pragmatic point of view, Ariel (1994) said that the preference for null or overt subject depends on the relative accessibility of their antecedent (as cited in Serratrice, 2007); i.e., by using reduced

forms of pronouns (such as *pro*), the speaker refers to more salient (subject) antecedents, while less salient (non-subject) antecedents are referred to by topic shift (Serratrice, 2007) and the usage of an overt pronoun. Thus, according to PAS, null subjects exist in syntax and the complementary distribution of null and overt subjects in Italian is determined by both syntactic and discourse-pragmatic constraints. However, Grimshaw and SamekLodovici (1998) and Holmberg (2005), among others, stated that null subjects are allowed syntactically, but their distribution is regulated by pragmatics in null-subject languages (as cited in Sorace & Filiaci, 2006). Thus, to be able to acquire the pronominal subjects in null-subject languages, firstly, one must have the correct representation of the syntactic licenser(s) (the position of the antecedent). Secondly, s/he has to know the pragmatic interface conditions which regulate the use of null or overt subjects appropriately in contexts (Sorace & Filiaci, 2006).

Sorace & Filiaci, (2006) investigated pronominal subjects (interpretation of the backward and forward anaphora in sentences); in other words, “resolution of ambiguous anaphoric dependencies between null and overt pronouns and inter-sentence antecedents” (p.350)) in L2 Italian. In the study, there were two groups of participants: the control group and the near-native Italian speakers whose native language was English. The researchers used a picture verification task. The results showed that there were more differences between the groups in terms of overt pronouns than null pronouns. The two groups differed from each other in backward anaphora interpretation more than in forward anaphora. The near-native speakers chose subject of the matrix clause as a possible antecedent of overt subject pronoun especially in the backward anaphora significantly more than native speakers. Sorace & Filiaci, (2006) concluded that the near-native Italian speakers had null subject grammar and the PAS, but they might lack the necessary processing resources to combine different information sources (including interpreting pronominals).

Tsimpli & Sorace (2006) investigated focusing (pertaining to syntax-semantic interface) and (over)use of overt subject pronouns (involving syntax-discourse interface) in Greek in order to compare the acquisition of internal vs. external

interfaces. Their participants were Russian learners of Greek, and were grouped into three groups according to their length of residence in Greece. The results showed that there was no developmental phase for either interface, meaning that the performance on the interface properties did not increase with the proficiency. Instead, focusing (which involved syntax-semantics interface) was acquired in a target-like manner even by the least exposure group, while all the groups overused the subject pronouns (which involved syntax-pragmatics interface). Tsimpli and Sorace concluded that these findings supported the claim that interfaces differ from each other in terms of developmental phases, i.e. that the properties of internal interfaces are acquired very early, while the properties of external interfaces remain problematic even very late in the L2 acquisition.

Serratrice et al. (2009) and Sorace et al. (2009) both compared the acquisition of internal (syntax-semantics) interface and external (syntax-pragmatics) interface. They examined specific and generic noun phrases (which involve the syntax-semantic interface) and null and overt subject pronouns (which involve the syntax-pragmatics interface) in Italian. The participants were both children and adults. The children were divided into four main groups: English-Italian bilinguals, Italian-Spanish bilinguals living in Spain, English monolinguals, and Italian monolinguals. The English-Italian bilingual groups were also divided into two: the ones living in the UK and the ones living in Italy. In addition, the children were grouped as younger children and older children. Besides, there were monolingual Italian and monolingual English adult groups. The researchers used offline acceptability judgment tasks. The children were asked to evaluate the sentences that they heard with particular pictures and animations in contexts. Spanish and Italian structures overlap completely in terms of the use of null and overt subject and its pragmatic constraints concerning the topic shift. In addition, definite articles for specific and generic plural NPs are required to be in the subject position in both languages. However, Italian and English structures overlap only partially because English is a non-null-subject language and also the definite article is not allowed in generic contexts. The results showed that external and internal interfaces caused different

difficulties. First of all, the participants over-accepted overt subject pronouns in no-topic shift contexts. Sorace and Serratrice (2009), who discussed the two abovementioned studies in their article, proposed that according to these results, the reasons behind the overgeneralization of overt pronouns might be less efficient processing and also (the amount of) exposure to English. Secondly, the English-Italian children living in the UK accepted significantly more ungrammatical bare plural NPs in generic contexts. However, Serratrice et al., (2009) and Sorace & Serratrice (2009) argued that the cause of this problem was due to input quality. Besides, the quantity of the input was effective for both interface types in a way that the more the participants received the Italian input (by living in Italian settings), the less they made errors. In short, both studies indicated that the bilinguals had difficulty in using the grammatical phenomena involving syntax-pragmatics interface, which might be increased in combination with the quantity and quality of the input.

Belletti, Bennati & Sorace (2007) investigated production and interpretation of post-verbal subjects in addition to null and overt pronominal subjects in L2 Italian. It was argued that the use of post-verbal subjects, as well as pronominal subjects, was governed by pragmatic constraints. The participants were English near-native speakers of Italian. Four types of tasks were administered to examine interpretation and outputs of pronominal subjects in Italian, which were elicited and spontaneous. These tasks were VS videos, storytelling, picture verification and headlines. The results showed that the near-native speakers displayed non-target behavior in using post-verbal and pronominal subjects. Near-native speakers used overt pronominal subjects significantly more frequently than the control group. Similarly, near-native speakers were more likely to interpret overt subject pronouns as co-referential with the subject of the main clause than the control group. Near-native speakers under-used postverbal subjects across verb classes more than native speakers did. Belletti, Bennati & Sorace, (2007) explained the non-native behavior by saying that the null-subject parameter was reset in the grammar of L2 Italian, but L1 computations

interfered with L2 use. Thus, the results displayed supporting evidence for the interface hypothesis.

According to Sorace and Serratrice (2009), some of the factors that affect learnability of interface structures are as follows:

- (a) The interpretable features that influence interface mapping between syntactic structures and interpretation are underspecified.
- (b) There is a cross-linguistic effect on representations and/or in parsing strategies.
- (c) There are processing limitations; poor access to knowledge, poor information coordination, and poor resource division.
- (d) The quality and quantity of the input that the bilingual speakers are exposed to (whether native speakers, non-native speakers or attired speakers produced the language)
- (e) The nature of bilingualism, which causes control limitations in managing two languages, might also effect acquisition of the interface structure.

Antonova-Ünlü (2015) tested IH by Sorace and Filiaci (2006) by examining the acquisition of Turkish case markers on direct objects, which probably involves multiple interfaces (syntax-semantics-morphology-pragmatics), including an external (syntax-pragmatics) interface. Selecting case markers for the direct object in Turkish involves multiple interfaces and discourse-related conditions might regulate this selection in particular situations: using zero marker with first mentioned and/or indefinite direct objects as seen in (59.), and using the accusative marker with previously mentioned and/or definite direct objects as seen (60.), may depend on the discourse-related conditions (Antonova-Ünlü, 2015).

(59.) Yaşlı bir adam **hazine** bul-muş. (indef. object)
old one man-N-M treasure-N-M find-PER.EV-3P.SG
'An old man found treasure.'

(60.) Bütün **haziney-i** kimsesiz (def. object)

all treasure-ACC orphan
çocukla-ra bağışlamış.
children-DAT donate-PER.EV-3P.SG
'He donated all the treasure to orphan children.'

(Antonova-Ünlü, 2015).

The participants were Russian speakers of L2 Turkish who were highly proficient speakers and had been living in Turkey for a long time. The materials used for data collection were fictional narratives. The findings showed that there were fossilized errors and thus incomplete acquisition on the use of accusative case markers in Turkish, which is the only case marker in the language that can be omitted in certain conditions. The participants had a tendency to omit accusative case markers in definite common nouns and to use non-marked form of the noun in definite contexts. Thus, they seem to use non-marked form of the case for definite and non-definite common nouns as standard in the place of direct objects. However, they consistently used other case markers, which do not involve external interfaces, nearly without errors. Therefore, this study revealed evidence which was in line with the IH.

Contrary to the studies mentioned above and many other studies revealing evidence in favor of IH, there are studies providing counter evidence to the hypothesis that syntax-pragmatics interface, as an external interface, is problematic and shows long-lasting indeterminacies in the use of specific phenomena.

Ivanov (2009; 2012) explored to what extent English learners of Bulgarian have acquired the pragmatic function of clitic-doubling in Bulgarian. The clitic system in Bulgarian is a complex one. There are accusative and dative pronominal clitics, possessive clitics, a future clitic, 'to be' clitic in the present tense, accusative and dative reflexive clitics and an interrogative clitic (see Table 5 below for Bulgarian pronominal clitics). The table shows eight paradigms of case, number, person and gender for 3rd person singular. Addition of the preposition *na* makes the clitics dative. The accusative and dative case markings of clitics are different with the exception of 1st and 2nd person plural (Ivanov, 2009).

Table 5. Bulgarian Pronominal Clitics

	Singular			Plural
1 st person	me/mene (Accusative) mi/na mene (Dative)			ni/nas (Accusative) ni/na nas (Dative)
2 nd person	te/tebe (Accusative) ti/na tebe (Dative)			vi/vas (Accusative) vi/na vas (Dative)
3 rd person	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	gi/tjax (Accusative) im/na tjax (Dative)
	go/nego (Acc.) mu/na nego (Dative)	ja/neja (Acc.) ji/na neja (Dative)	go/nego (Acc.) mu/na nego (Dative)	

Ivanov, 2009

Bulgarian clitics are preverbal and are positioned immediately before the verb no matter how many words or morphemes come before them as in (61.). No element can come in between the verb and the clitic, as in (62.).

- (61.) Toj sigurno **ja** poznavava.
 he perhaps her-cl. know-3p.sg
 ‘Perhaps he knows her.’

- (62.) * Toj **ja** sigurno poznavava. (Ivanov, 2009, 2012).

Clitics are found in the post-verbal position only when placing them before the verb would lead to their presence as the first element in the sentence (this is referred to as Tobler-Mussafia effect). This is illustrated in (63.) and (64.).

- (63.) Ø Vidjax **go**
pro see-1p.sg him-cl.
 ‘I saw him.’

- (64.) ***Go** vidjax. (Ivanov, 2009, 2012).

As to clitic doubling in Bulgarian, a direct or indirect object DP and a coreferential clitic appear within the same sentence as in (65.).

- (65.) Ivan go vidja Maria.
 Ivan him-cl.ACC.masc. see-3p.sg Maria
 ‘Maria saw Ivan.’ (Ivanov, 2009)

Bulgarian pragmatically requires doubling of *topical* objects, and the appropriateness of the utterance is provided with the use of clitic doubling in such sentences as in (66.)

- (66.) a. Njakoj viždal li e Ivan dnes?
 somebody seen Q is Ivan today
 ‘Has anybody seen Ivan today?’
- b. Ivan #(go) vidjax sutrinta
 Ivan (him-cl.) saw-1p.sg in-the-morning
 ‘I saw Ivan in the morning.’
- c. Sutrinta #(go) vidjax Ivan ’

(Ivanov, 2009, 2012)

In the study, there were participants with intermediate and advanced level of Bulgarian and a control group as well. They were supposed to mark the topical objects via clitic-doubling. Ivanov (2009; 2012) used a context sentence elicitation task in which the participants rated the appropriateness of the answers to questions in each context. The contexts included a certain situation, described in English, and a short dialogue after this situation. The results showed that the pragmatic meaning of clitic doubling in Bulgarian was acquired completely by the advanced L2 speakers of Bulgarian, who showed results similar to the native speakers’. However, the intermediate level learners of Bulgarian demonstrated non-native behavior, which revealed that they still did not know the pragmatic constraints of fronting and clitic doubling. Nonetheless, seeing the advanced learners’ performance, it is to be expected that the intermediate level learners of Bulgarian would acquire the necessary knowledge with more exposure to Bulgarian. These findings showed that, although there were some problems in the acquisition of clitic doubling in Bulgarian in the intermediate level L2 speakers (showing that syntax-pragmatics interface might cause difficulty in the early levels of acquisition), there were no problems in the end-state grammar. This indicated that interface properties, even external interface properties, might be acquired and used in a native-like manner.

Slabakova and Ivanov (2011) argued that syntax-discourse (external) interface is similar to internal interfaces with respect to acquisition and difficulties that it causes. They compared Valenzuela (2005, 2006), who studied L2 acquisition of clitic left dislocation as a marker of topicality in L2 and Ivanov (2009), which I reported above, although the conclusions of these two studies were different from each other. While Valenzuela (2005, 2006) said that the evidence found in the study showed some residual optionality at the syntax-discourse interface, Ivanov (2009) found complete acquisition in the end-state grammar of L2 Bulgarian. Slabakova and Ivanov (2011) re-interpreted the findings of Valenzuela (2005, 2006) and argued that the learners' lower accuracy might be due not to the lack of knowledge at the syntax-pragmatics interface, but rather to the possibility that the participants might consider discourse cues over semantic cues in processing. They suggested that when these extra semantic contrasts over discourse contrasts were removed and the participants were tested on their performances on focus and topic only, as in Ivanov (2009), most of the advanced learners would show a native-like performance on discourse-related clitic-doubling.

Rothman (2008) studied pronominal (null vs overt) subject distribution in L2 Spanish. In Spanish, like in Italian, overt subjects are accepted to have a switch-reference or focalized quality (e.g. Fernández-Soriano, 1993; Picallo 1998; Rigau, 1988; Rizzi, 1997 as cited in Rothman, 2008). When new referents appear in the discourse, overt subjects have to be used to eliminate referential ambiguity, as seen in (67.). Likewise, using the subject pronominals overtly becomes strange when a discourse referent is formed, as shown in (68.). When one is giving an answer to a topic question, as in (69.), an overt subject is required. In addition, overt subject pronouns in embedded clauses are interpreted as referentially disjoint with the subject of the main clause by serving as contrastive focus, as in (70.). To mark focus, overt subjects are used as in (71.) (Rothman, 2008).

- (67.) Canté muy mal en frente de todos.
 'I sang horribly in front of everyone.
 Lola y Raúl /ellos/*Ø piensan que estoy

- Lola and Raul/they/*Ø think that I am
avergonzado ahora.
embarrassed now’.
- (68.) Lola y Raúl no cantaron bien.
‘Lola and Raul did not sing well.
*Lola y Raúl/ ?ellos/Ø estarán avergonzados.
*Lola and Raul/?they/Ø must be embarrassed.’
- (69.) ¿Quién vio a José anoche?
‘Who saw José last night?
... yo/*Ø lo vi.
I/*Ø him saw.’
- (70.) Los profesores creen que ellos se dedican más [que ella].
‘The professors think that they dedicate themselves more [than she
(does)].’
- (71.) Nunca pensé que tuvieras que cortar el césped.
‘I never thought you would have cut the lawn.
Fulanoi me dijo que éli lo haría.
Fulano told me he would do it.’ (Rothman, 2008).

The features of [Topic Shift] or [Focus] govern the use of overt subject in the pragmatics, as in the examples (67.) through (71.) above. Rothman (2008) stated that null subjects are the unmarked forms and the overt subject is needed only in cases of focus or disambiguation.

Rothman (2008)’s participants were a group of intermediate Spanish L2 speakers, a group of highly advanced L2 Spanish speakers, and the control group. He used (i) a pragmatic felicitousness judgment task in which the participants were expected to rate the sentences according to “how natural they sound”, and (ii) context sentence translation task, which was in English and had contextualized stories with answers below them and the participants were asked to translate the answers into Spanish. The results showed that only the intermediate level learners used overt subjects in a non-native manner although they had syntactic knowledge of null subjects. However,

the highly advanced group showed native-like performance, which indicates that difficulties at the syntax-pragmatics interface are not inevitably permanent in L2 grammar.

Dugarova (2014) studied *wh*-topicalization in Chinese, which involves a syntax-pragmatics interface (an external interface). She investigated whether or not very advanced L2 Chinese speakers, whose native language is Russian, could acquire the phenomenon (Sorace and Filiaci, 2006; Tsimpli and Sorace, 2006), whether the acquisition of interface properties is dependent on different variables (e.g. Yuan, 2010) and whether a representational rather than a processing difficulty might be the cause of differences between native and non-native performance (e.g. White, 2011). Example (72.) represents the general situation of *wh*-word staying in its base-generated place, while (73.) shows ‘*wh*-topicalization’ with *wh*-fronting in Chinese. The *wh*-phrase *sheide xiaoshuo* ‘whose novels’ in (73.) (as a *wh*-topic), moved from its base-generated position to Spec-TopP, at the beginning of the sentence, by leaving a trace *t* at its original position. Topicalizing the *wh*-phrase requires discourse-driven condition; i.e., the value of the *wh*-phrase which was fronted, must take a set which was built in the discourse, so it is accepted that *wh*-topicalization in Chinese involves syntax-pragmatics interface (Dugarova, 2014).

(72.) Lisi xihuan kan [sheide xiaoshuo]?
 Lisi like read whose novel
 ‘Whose novels does Lisi like to read?’

(73.) (Zhe ji ge zuojia dangzhong)
 this few CL writer among
 [TopP [sheide xiaoshuo]_i Lisi xihuan kan t_i]?
 whose novel Lisi like read
 ‘(Among these several writers) whose novels does Lisi like to read?’

An acceptability judgment task was used, which included experimental sentences and control sentences with discourse-linked *wh*-questions with contexts or non-discourse-linked *wh*-questions. According to the findings, Russian speakers of Chinese

differentiated discourse-linked and non-discourse-linked *wh*-fronting in Chinese by accepting discourse-linked *wh*-topicalization, while not accepting the non-discourse-linked *wh*-topicalization. This suggested that Chinese *wh*-topicalization with its discourse requirement was acquired by advanced learners of Chinese. Dugarova argued that the acquisition of syntax-pragmatics interface properties does not always cause problems to language learners in their interlanguage grammar. Moreover, L2 interfaces can involve different variables and this might also influence the L2 learners performance as Yuan (2010) stated.

The findings in the literature seem to show that whether an interface is problematic or not depends on the language (both L1 and L2), the particular phenomenon, as well as other variables involved in the interface properties. While examining the problems originating from the interface property of the relevant phenomenon, it should be noted that the more interfaces are involved in a particular language structure (integration of different types of language and/or cognitive modules), the harder it might get to be acquired (White, 2011).

4.1.2. Background To The Grammatical Phenomenon: It-cleft Sentences

The ‘cleft sentence’ as a term was first coined by Otto Jespersen in 1937 (as cited in Dékány, 2010). There are several types of cleft sentences: *it*-clefts (also called simply *clefts*), or *wh*-clefts. In this thesis, I am only interested in the *it*-cleft construction.

An *it*-cleft sentence is built as in (74.); the dummy pronoun *it* is followed by the copula and the focused expression, and then by a (relative-clause-like) cleft clause which might be introduced by relative pronouns such as *which*, *whom*, *who* or *when* (Hedberg, 2013; Kim, 2012; Lahousse and Borremans, 2014; among others). However, I only used *that* complementizer instead of a *wh*-operator as the head of the cleft clause in my study.

(74.) Components of the *it*-cleft construction

It is Jane_i whom we met_[_i] on holiday in Italy.

Cleft + Copula + Clefted Constituent + Cleft clause / Pseudo-relative clause

Pronoun (Focus or highlight)

As for the syntax of the *it*-cleft construction, first of all, the clefted element must be a constituent; i.e. it forms a syntactic constituent with the cleft clause, but it has to be a constituent itself in order to be able to perform syntactic operations (Dékány, 2010). The copula must be in the singular form. The tense of the copula might be either in the default present tense as in (76.) or it agrees with the tense of the cleft clause as in (75.).

(75.) It was Henry Ford's company that produced the Model T.

(76.) It is Henry Ford's company that produced the Model T.

When it comes to clefted elements, determiner phrases (DP) and prepositional phrases (PPs) can be clefted, as in (77.) and (78.), respectively; while clefting of other phrase types of phrases (such as verb phrases (VPs), adjectival phrases (Aps), adverbial phrases (AdvPs) and clauses) is controversial. Since I only used DPs and PPs in my materials for this study, I am not going to give information in detail about what can or cannot be clefted (see Dékány (2010) for special contexts which allow clefting of phrases other than the DP and the PP). Lastly, the clefted pronouns always bear accusative case even if they agree with the subject position of the embedded clause as in (79.).

(77.) It is the red shirt that Jane wants to buy.

(78.) It was to David that I sent mail yesterday.

(79.) It is me who left a message for you.

The *it*-cleft construction, illustrated in (81.) below, conveys the same information semantically as the simple sentence in (80.). Although both sentences represent the

same proposition, the cleft sentence (81.) is said to have different information structure from (80.). This is presented in (82.) (Kim, 2012; see also Prince, 1978; Collins, 1991; Delin & Oberlander, 1995).

- (80.) We met Jane on holiday in Italy.
(81.) It is Jane whom we met on holiday in Italy.
(82.) A. Presupposition (Background): We met X on holiday in Italy.
B. Highlighted (Foreground or focus): Jane
C. Assertion: X is Jane.

Sentences in (83.) and (84.) below both presuppose that *Jane bought something*. However, (83.) does not contain ‘new information’ when compared to the presupposition. This ‘new information’ has to be conveyed in some form or another in every cleft sentence (Ackerman & Goldberg 2001, as cited in Dékány, 2010). Otherwise, the sentence is ungrammatical/infelicitous as in (83.).

- (83.) #It was something that Jane bought.
(84.) It was something expensive that Jane bought.

Prince (1978) suggested two broad types of *it*-clefts from the informativeness point of view. These are a) stressed-focus *it*-clefts and b) informative-presupposition *it*-clefts. The focus represents new information in the former type and the *that*-clause, usually represents the known (from the context) information, as in (85.) below. In the latter type of *it*-clefts, focus usually involves an anaphoric item and *that*-clause involves the message as a fact which is known. This is shown in (86.) below. In this thesis, I focus on *it*-cleft sentences as answers to *wh*-questions, in which case the clefted element needs to represent new information, information asked about (focus), and the cleft clause should contain given information, as in (85.).

- (85.) A. Who cooked the pasta for Sue in the kitchen?
B. It was John that cooked the pasta for Sue in the kitchen.
(86.) ‘... from a tissue of lies ... the notorious medieval piece known as the Fetha Negest was woven, thereby consecrating the theocratic and feudal character of the ruling classes. It is this same myth which is

perpetuated in the two so-called modern constitutions (that of 1931 and of 1955), wherein it is stated that a multi-religious multi-ethnic Ethiopia is a Christian fief cut in the image of the ruling minority's own religious prejudices and class interests.' (Challenge, p. 31; as cited in Prince, 1978)

Belletti (2015) states that clefts can be distinguished in terms of the clefted elements' being the focus of the new information or contrastive focus information. Moreover, she argues that "subject clefts can express focus of new information, as in (87.), while object/non-subject clefts can only express corrective/contrastive focus as in (88.)." (p.44). Although she explains this by giving examples from French, the examples below show subject cleft and object clefts in English.

- (87.) A. -Who cooked last week?
B. - It is Jane that cooked last week. *New Information Focus*
- (88.) A. - Jane told me that you bought a book for Marry.
B. - It was a pen that I bought for Marry. *Correction Focus*

Lahousse and Borremans (2014) say that the contrastive clefts are the most prototypical examples of *it*-clefts as in (89.).

- (89.) A. - Who went to the cinema with Sue yesterday?
B. - It was John that went to the cinema with Sue yesterday.

In such clefts, the cleft clause gives the known information, which is called *background information* in Lambrecht (1994)'s terminology (as cited in Lahousse and Borremans, 2014). The clefted constituent represents new information (since the DP/NP has not been introduced in the preceding context), thus it is 'narrowly focused' and has 'implication of contrast' in the sense that it generates contrast between other referents; i.e. the referent of the clefted element is the result of choice between other possible potential referents (Declerck (1988; as cited in Lahousse and Borremans, 2014).

Heggie (1993) separated *it*-clefts into *syntactic* and *metalinguistics* clefts (as cited in Dékány, 2010). In the syntactic clefts, there are DPs or arguments in the clefted

constituent position and the meaning they hold is ambiguous between the basic informational reading (90.) or contrastive reading as in (91.) (Dékány, 2010).

- (90.) A. - Who mowed the lawn?
B. - It was Mrs Solis that mowed the lawn.
- (91.) A. - Who mowed the lawn?
B. - John, the gardener did.
C. - No! It was Mrs Solis that mowed the lawn. (Dékány, 2010)

In the metalinguistic clefts, the clefted constituent position is held by adjectives or adjuncts. The only reading of these clefts is contrastive, as in (92.) and not informational, as in (93.) (Heggie, 1993).

- (92.) A. - What colour are her eyes?
B. - Her eyes are green.
C. - Yes, it's SUPER green that her eyes are.
D. - No, it's BLUE that her eyes are, not green.
- (93.) A. - What colour are her eyes?
B. - *It's green that her eyes are. (Heggie, 1993: 50)

Of these two categories of *it*-clefts in Heggie (1993), it was the syntactic clefts that I examined in this study.

I analyzed the clefts in which the clefted constituent highlights the focus of the sentence by giving new information or contrast. In both cases, it is the clefted element, not the pseudo *wh*-clause, that provides the “new information, but not the known information” to the readers.

Although there have been plenty of studies in the literature on the cleft construction in English, its prosodic and/or pragmatic properties, to the best of my knowledge, there has been no research studying the L2 acquisition of the *it*-cleft structure, focusing on its syntax-pragmatics interface property. In what follows, I describe the participants, the materials and procedures, as well as the results of the present study.

4.2. Participants

21 native speakers of English, 36 participants with low English proficiency, and 20 participants with high English proficiency participated in the grammaticality judgment task and in the semantic interpretation tasks for the syntax-pragmatics interface study.

4.3. Data Collection Tools & Procedure

4.3.1. Grammaticality Judgement Task

The grammaticality judgement task was designed to check whether the participants possess the knowledge of the syntax of *it*-cleft constructions. The task contained forty-two items in total. Out of the forty-two items, fourteen were experimental items containing declarative sentences with the *it*-cleft construction (seven were grammatical, as in (94.) and seven were ungrammatical, as in (95.)). The ungrammatical sentences were formed by scrambling the words in an ungrammatical way, as in (95.)

- (94.) It was milk that I forgot to buy for breakfast.
(95.) It was a book on vacation that I read about animals.

Twenty-eight items were fillers (fourteen of them were grammatical and fourteen of them ungrammatical). The fillers were also declarative sentences. The length of the experimental sentences ranged from ten words to eleven words.

The participants were asked to read each sentence carefully, decide whether it was grammatical or not, and then click the appropriate box on the right (either grammatical or ungrammatical). For each item, it was only possible to check one box. All the questions had to be answered in order to complete and submit the task. After finishing the task, the participants were supposed to click on the *submit* button and send their responses to the researcher. After sending their responses, the participants could not reach or open the task again, so they could not change their original responses.

4.3.2. Pragmatic Felicitousness Task

The purpose of the syntax-pragmatics felicitousness task was to test whether the participants know the pragmatic constraints on the usage of the *it*-cleft construction. In particular, I was interested to know whether the participants know that this construction can only be used in contexts where the clefted element is focused.

The task included nine items, each containing a *wh*-question, followed by three possible answers. Therefore, there were nine questions and twenty-seven answer options in total. The *wh*-word was the subject, the object, and the indirect object in three questions each. All the answer options under each question were declarative *it*-cleft sentences. The three options were truth-conditionally equivalent, but differed in what element was clefted: only one option contained the *new* information (the answer to the question) in the position of the clefted element. The other two options were also *it*-clefts, but the clefted elements in these sentences were not new information, but rather *old* information (information already given in the question). Thus, which of the *it*-clefts was the appropriate answer to the question depended on the question itself; the questions provided the discourse context for each *it*-cleft option under them.

Each answer option under each question was accompanied by a Likert scale on their right. The scale was from 1 to 5 (1=strongly inappropriate, 2=inappropriate, 3=neither appropriate nor inappropriate, 4=appropriate and 5=strongly appropriate). The participants were asked to read carefully the contexts/questions and the three sentences below them. They were informed that all the answers were grammatical, but they might show differences in how well they answer the question. For each answer option, they were asked to decide how appropriate it was as the answer to the *wh*-question. Then they were asked to mark their choices on the Likert scale to the right of each answer (from 1 to 5) by clicking on the appropriate button.

The participants were not allowed to choose more than one button for one sentence/option under each question. All the questions had to be answered to complete the task. In addition, when the participants finished the task and submitted their responses, they had no opportunity to reach the file again.

4.4. Results & Discussion

As mentioned above, there were two tests concerning the syntax-pragmatics interface in this study. Both of them tested the participants' knowledge pertaining to the *it*-cleft construction in English. An example of the *it*-cleft structure is given in (96.) below, for the reader's convenience.

(96.) It was Monica's sister who studied English in South London.

Recall that, while the sentence above is always grammatical, it is only pragmatically appropriate when the clefted element (in the example above: *Monica's sister*) denotes new information and is inappropriate otherwise.

The aim of the two experiments conducted in this part of the study was to see, firstly, how well the participants knew the syntax of the *it*-cleft construction (the GJT) and when this grammatical phenomenon was presented within a discourse (integrating syntax with pragmatics – the Pragmatic Felicitousness Task), to what extent they could use this structure appropriately. Below, I report the results of both tasks.

4.4.1. Results of the GJT

The GJT compared how well L2ers know the syntax of the *it*-cleft sentences compared to native speakers. Recall that there were forty two items in total in this test; fourteen experimental items (containing *it*-cleft constructions), seven of which were grammatical and seven of which were ungrammatical, and twenty-eight fillers (fourteen grammatical and fourteen ungrammatical).

Table 6 below shows the descriptive statistics of the GJT, which show the performance of all the proficiency groups on judging the grammatical and ungrammatical *it*-cleft items. Each correct judgment was scored as one and each incorrect judgment was scored as zero, so the means were calculated out of 1.

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics of *it*-cleft Sentences GJT

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min.	Max.
Grammatical <i>It</i> -cleft Sentences	Native speakers	21	.7959	.22393	.29	1.00
	High proficiency L2ers	20	.9143	.14947	.43	1.00
	Low proficiency L2ers	36	.8690	.16153	.29	1.00
	Total	77	.8609	.18096	.29	1.00
	Native speakers	21	.9048	.11369	.57	1.00
Unrammatical <i>It</i> -cleft Sentences	High proficiency L2ers	20	.8214	.16631	.43	1.00
	Low proficiency L2ers	36	.7738	.16860	.43	1.00
	Total	77	.8219	.16248	.43	1.00

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to explore the impact of the language proficiency level on the results of the grammaticality judgment task. In the ratings of the grammatical items, there was no significant difference between any two of the proficiency groups ($F(2, 74) = 2.34, p = .103$). However, there was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the scores of the ungrammatical items ($F(2, 74) = 4.73, p = .012$). The Tukey HSD Post-hoc comparisons indicated that the mean score for native speakers of English ($M = .90, SD = .11$) was significantly higher from the mean score of the low proficiency L2ers ($M = .77, SD = .16$) ($p = .008$). High proficiency L2ers ($M = .82, SD = .16$) did not differ significantly from either control group or low proficiency L2ers ($p > .05$) (see Figure 7 below).

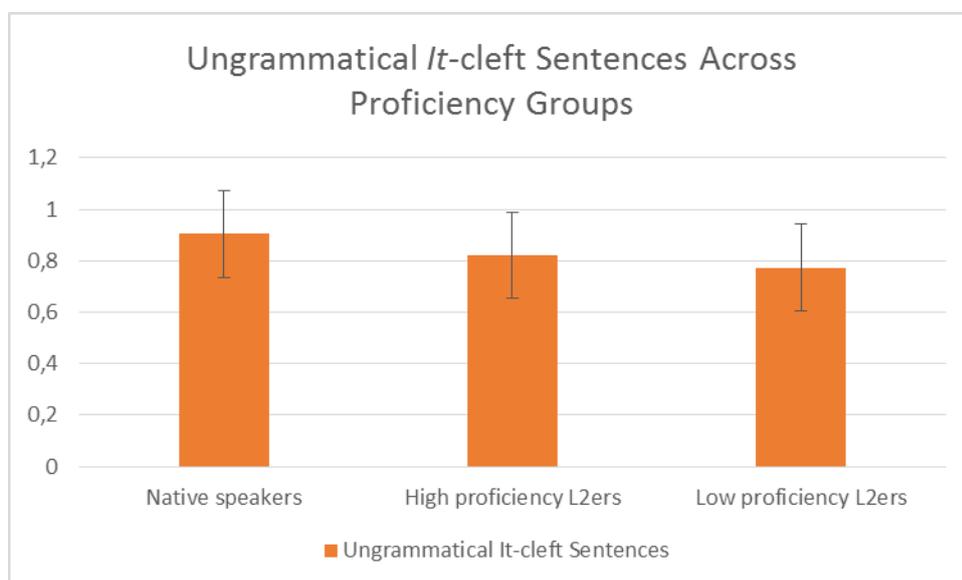


Figure 7. Mean Scores given to Ungrammatical *It*-cleft Sentences Across Proficiency Groups

These results indicate that low proficiency L2ers judged ungrammatical items as grammatical to a greater extent than the native speakers, which shows that they have trouble differentiating between grammatical and ungrammatical *it*-cleft items. This in turn points to problems in the syntax of the construction. L2ers of the higher proficiency level, on the other hand, seem to have a better grasp on the syntactic properties of the *it*-cleft construction.

4.4.2. Results of the Pragmatic Felicitousness Task

The Pragmatic Felicitousness Task measured whether or not the participants could use appropriately the *it*-cleft structure when a discourse was provided, i.e., when there was a need for an interface by integrating syntax and pragmatics. The task contained nine experimental items, each consisting of a *wh*-question followed by three *it*-cleft sentences as possible answers to this question. The question served as a context-creator in that it mentioned certain entities (the mention in the *wh*-question made these entities *old* or *given* information in the answer) and asked for the answer to a *wh*-phrase (this constituent constituted *new* information in the answer). Two of

the answers offered were inappropriate in the context (because they contained old information in the position of the clefted element) and only one was appropriate (i.e., contained new information as the clefted element). Each of the *it*-cleft sentences offered as possible answers to the question was accompanied by a scale from 1 to 5 and the participants' job was to assess how appropriate each of them was as an answer to the question. An example of an experimental item is given in (97.) below.

(97.) What did Sue buy from the supermarket on Tuesday?

A) It was Sue that bought some fruit from the supermarket on Tuesday.

New Information

B) It was some fruit that Sue bought from the supermarket on Tuesday.

Old Information

C) It was on Tuesday that Sue bought some fruit from the supermarket.

Old Information

Thus, in the entire test, there were nine options which were appropriate in their contexts and eighteen options which were inappropriate in the discourse.

Table 7 below shows the descriptive statistics of the performance of the proficiency groups on the appropriate and inappropriate *it*-cleft sentences.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics of the *it*-cleft Sentences: Pragmatic Felicitousness Task

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min.	Max.
Infelicitous <i>It</i> -cleft sentences	Native speakers	21	1.3915	.48670	1.00	2.61
	High proficiency L2ers	20	1.9389	.85039	1.00	4.00
	Low proficiency L2ers	36	1.7454	.76329	1.00	3.28
	Total	77	1.6991	.74412	1.00	4.00
Felicitous <i>It</i> -cleft sentences	Native speakers	21	4.5291	.48292	3.67	5.00
	High proficiency L2ers	20	4.9111	.23529	4.00	5.00
	Low proficiency L2ers	36	4.9012	.23574	3.89	5.00
	Total	77	4.8023	.35942	3.67	5.00

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to see how well L2ers could recognize appropriate and inappropriate cleft sentences according to a discourse. There was no significant difference in the inappropriate/infelicitous cleft sentences between any two of the proficiency groups ($F(2, 74) = 3.05, p = .053$) at the $p < .05$ level. However, there was a significant difference in the appropriate/felicitous cleft sentences ($F(2, 74) = 10.41, p < .0001$). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the native speakers of English ($M = 4.52, SD = .48$) was significantly different (lower) from both experimental groups; high proficiency L2ers ($M = 4.91, SD = .23$) ($p = .001$) and low proficiency L2ers ($M =$

4.90, SD = .23) ($p < .0001$). High proficiency L2ers did not differ significantly from low proficiency L2ers ($p > .5$) (see Figure 8 below).

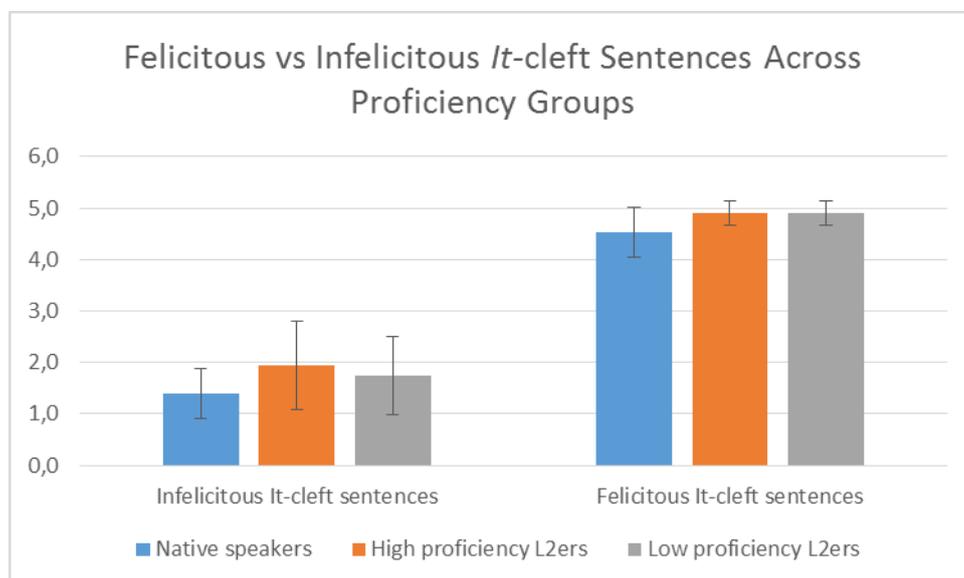


Figure 8. The comparison of the Mean Scores given to Felicitous and Infelicitous *It*-cleft Sentences Across Proficiency Groups

According to these findings, when the scores of the appropriate and inappropriate cleft items in a context were compared across proficiency levels, it seems that all proficiency groups could recognize inappropriate cleft sentences, and both L2 groups (even the low proficiency group) assigned even higher scores to the appropriate items than the native speakers did. This was an indication of the L2ers' knowledge of the pragmatics involved in the use of the *it*-cleft construction. The fact that the native speakers gave the appropriate *it*-cleft answers scores lower than the L2ers can be explained if they found that answering a *wh*-question with any kind of a cleft sentence is less felicitous than answering it with a simple S-V-O sentence. L2 learners seem to have ignored this consideration.

4.5. Discussion

Recall, first, that my preliminary hypothesis was that the L2ers would know the syntax of the *it*-clefts. However, this hypothesis was not entirely confirmed since the low proficiency L2ers seemed not to have the reliable syntactic knowledge of the *it*-

cleft structure (they judged even the ungrammatical sentences with *it*-clefts as grammatical, showing that they could not confidently differentiate between the grammatical and ungrammatical items with *it*-clefts). The second hypothesis was that there would be incomplete acquisition in the pragmatics of the *it*-cleft structure. However, surprisingly, even though there were some problems in the acquisition of the syntax of the *it*-clefts in the lower level L2 group, there were no problems in the pragmatics. All groups – even the low proficiency L2ers, who could not always differentiate the ungrammatical *it*-clefts from the grammatical ones – could recognize the inappropriate clefts. In light of the findings reported in the literature, this result was entirely unexpected. According to the SLA research on the acquisition of interface phenomena, L2 speakers should display long-lasting (possibly insurmountable) problems in the acquisition of external interfaces (Sorace & Serratrice, 2009; Tsimpli & Sorace, 2006; White, 2011). However, my participants showed target-like performance on the syntax-pragmatics interface, without any developmental delay or residual optionality in the L2 grammar. It seems that difficulties related to the acquisition of L2 interface properties vary from construction to construction, indicating that the fact that an (external) interface is involved might not be the crucial cause of the observed difficulties. For example, as the study on the difficulty of cleft sentences conducted by İrgin (2013) showed, *it*-clefts are one of the most confusing cleft types to recognize for the participants who were Turkish EFL learners. The study also showed that cleft structure was syntactically challenging especially without explicit instruction. Therefore it might not be surprising that the low proficiency L2ers had difficulties in the syntax of *it*-clefts. The pragmatics of *it*-clefts, however, seems to pose no difficulties in SLA.

The reason of these results might be the effect of L1; i.e. *it*-clefts in Turkish are hard to learn because they do not exist in Turkish. However, pragmatics is learnt easily because focusing and topicalization are present in Turkish and are done in a similar way in both Turkish and English. In other words, information structuring in English works similarly as in Turkish. That might explain the non-native performance in the syntax of *it*-clefts, and the native-like performance in the pragmatics.

CHAPTER 5

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The Interface Hypothesis (IH) was first proposed by Sorace and Filiaci (2006), who stated that narrow syntax properties can be acquired completely, although the acquisition might last until the end-state interlanguage grammar. However, acquisition of interface properties (integrating syntax and other cognitive domains) might pose some long-term problems and might not be completed.

The developed version of the IH (e.g. Tsimpli and Sorace, 2006; Sorace & Filiaci 2006, White, 2007 ; who divided the interfaces external and internal), suggested that different types of interfaces might cause different (permanent) problems at different phases in L2 acquisition. The structures involving internal interfaces (sub-modules of language), such as syntax-semantic and syntax-morphology interfaces are acquired easily and cause fewer problems without encountering the processing limitations because they involve mapping between formal features of the language system only (Sorace & Serratrice, 2009). However, properties involving syntax and other cognitive domains, which are external to the core language system, are acquired late or incompletely because of the processing difficulties. Thus, those processing difficulties might cause permanent optionality at the end-state grammar of L2ers.

The results of this thesis run counter to the IH. In line with the IH, complete acquisition was expected on the grammatical phenomenon of disjunctive questions, and in particular on the mapping between the syntax and semantics of such questions, since this requires the internal, syntax-semantics interface. Similarly, persistent developmental delays were expected in the acquisition of the structure of *it*-clefts, especially in the process of selecting the pragmatically appropriate *it*-cleft,

given that this involves the external, syntax-pragmatics interface. However, neither set of the results is compatible with the IH. On the contrary, we saw that the syntax-semantics mapping of various types of DQs was not acquired fully by the second language learners (not even by the high proficiency L2 group). Moreover, we observed that there might be a developmental trend in the acquisition of the semantic interpretation of DQs with high negation (HNDQs) since only the low proficiency L2ers assigned such DQs the alternative reading to the same extent to which they assigned them the yes/no reading. The high proficiency L2 group, on the other hand, was native-like in this respect and was significantly less likely to assign a HNDQ the alternative reading than the yes/no reading.

In the same vein, lasting problems were expected in the L2ers' performance on the pragmatics of *it*-clefts, which involves the syntax-pragmatics interface. However, here, there were no problems at all, not even in the low proficiency L2 group. This shows that the knowledge of the pragmatics of the *it*-clefts is obtainable even without explicit instruction even by L2 speakers who do not possess perfect knowledge of the syntax of *it*-clefts. This in turn suggests that not every phenomenon poses equal interface problems (White, 2011), indicating that focusing on the interface property of a construction as the sole culprit for non-native performance might be misguided.

My results are thus in line with the research on the second language acquisition which shows that some internal interfaces (such as syntax-morphology) might be problematic while some external interfaces can be acquired in a target-like manner (Antonova-Ünlü, 2015). For example, White's (2003a) study on persistent problems with inflectional morphology in L2 English (in a participant with L1 Turkish, which is rich in inflectional morphology, but lacks articles) found that, although the participant showed a high level of accuracy in the use of tense and agreement morphology and its syntax, the performance of article use (definite and indefinite) was remarkably lower even after 10 years of exposure to English in Canada. This showed that there might be some residual problems in the acquisition of the grammatical structures requiring the integration of knowledge at an internal interface even in the higher levels of proficiency. On the other hand, we also have examples in

the literature of complete acquisition of the structures involving an external interface. One such study is Ivanov (2009), which examines object clitics in L2 Bulgarian and reports that the participants had acquired both syntax and pragmatics of clitics in Bulgarian exhibiting target like performance on distinguishing the felicitous and infelicitous options with Bulgarian object clitics in the pragmatics task. In addition, Rothman (2008)'s study of null and overt subject pronouns in L2 Spanish by L1 speakers of English showed that there were developmental delays in the acquisition of the phenomenon. While the lower level of L2ers were successful in the syntax of the null subjects, but not target-like in the pragmatics conditions, the higher level proficiency L2ers performed in a native-like manner. Thus, Rothman (2008) suggested that even though the syntax-pragmatics interface was more challenging than narrow syntax, it does not cause fossilization in the end-state L2 grammar, but only delays (as a result of complex nature of the syntax-pragmatics interface).

The differences between the acquisition of DQs and *it*-cleft sentences might be because of input quality and quantity. The DQs are more difficult constructions for Turkish speakers of English when compared to *it*-cleft sentences. The participants are highly likely to encounter the *it*-cleft construction in their input because it is used to express focus and focusing is a highly frequent operation in communication. However, the possibility that they are exposed to DQs (except maybe the AFFDQs) is low because there are numerous (more frequent) ways in English in which the speaker can offer a choice of alternatives to the hearer. This is especially true of negated DQs since even non-disjunctive negated questions seem to be rather rare in the input to L2ers. As a result, this might indicate that acquisition changes from construction to construction not simply depending on the interface property.

To sum up, based on the findings of this thesis, I maintain that not all grammatical phenomena which integrate syntax and another module of language proper (an internal interface) are acquired easily and without problems. The problems related to the semantics of DQs observed in the lower level proficiency group might be due to the participants' overall low proficiency, indicating that internal interface phenomena may be subject to *developmental* delays. On the other hand, the fact that the high

proficiency group did not show native-like performance might mean that there might even be residual problems in this area (further research is needed with native-like proficiency groups) in the acquisition of internal interfaces.

As for the external interfaces, it can be concluded that not all the grammatical phenomena involving the external syntax-pragmatics interface pose residual difficulties and optionality in the end-state grammar of L2 learners. The results reported here show that even the participants with lower levels of English acquired the pragmatics of the *it*-clefts. This showed that - for this very specific topic - there was not even a developmental delay in the acquisition of the pragmatics of the construction, despite the lack of the syntactic knowledge in the lower level L2ers.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

The main goal of this study was to test if Turkish learners of English with different language proficiency levels had acquired a phenomenon which requires the syntax-semantics interface and a phenomenon which requires the syntax-pragmatics interface. The phenomena studied in the thesis were disjunctive questions (DQs), which require the knowledge of syntax and semantics for the correct usage and *it*-clefts, which require the knowledge of syntax and pragmatics to be used correctly.

For the internal interface, I investigated whether or not the L2 English learners knew the syntax of DQs in their affirmative and also negated form (in particular, the possibility of contracting versus non-contracting negative markers). Then I tested if they were aware of the fact that the alternative meaning of a DQ disappears when the negation is fronted (HNDQs). For the external interface, I tested whether the L2 English learners had the knowledge of the grammaticality of the *it*-cleft structure. Then I investigated whether L2ers knew the pragmatics of the phenomenon; i.e., the fact that the *it*-cleft construction is felicitous only when the clefted element is the focus of the sentence.

One of the main goals of this study was to compare the acquisition of the internal and external interfaces by comparing the performances of the L2ers, i.e. to see whether or not these interface types were acquired completely and, if not, to see which of these two interfaces posed fewer problems in the acquisition of the studied structures (DQs and *it*-clefts).

Another goal was to see if there were developmental effects in the acquisition of each interface; whether low proficiency groups performed worse than high proficiency group.

In order to test these research questions, two types of tasks for each interface type were conducted. The first one was a grammaticality judgment task (testing different structures for each interface) which tested pure syntactic knowledge. The grammaticality judgment tasks asked the participants whether or not the sentences written in the related structures were grammatical. The other task type was the interface task, which was the semantic interpretation task for the internal interface and the pragmatic felicitousness task for the external interface. The semantic interpretation task was designed to see if the participants knew that, apart from HNDQs, which have only the yes/no reading, the other two types of DQs had potentially two meanings: the yes/no reading and the alternative reading. For this purpose, the participants were given a questionnaire presenting them with DQs in a context leading them to either yes/no meaning or alternative meaning. The participants were asked to rate the appropriateness of each DQ according to its context.

I used a pragmatic felicitousness task to measure the knowledge of pragmatics in the syntax-pragmatics interface chapter. The aim of the task was to see whether or not the participants knew that the clefted element in an *it*-cleft must be the focus of the *it*-cleft sentence and it has to involve new information according to the context. Thus, the task included different contexts, which were *wh*-questions, and three options with *it*-clefts under each question. The clefted element was focused and conveyed new information only in one of the options, while the clefted elements in the other two were not the focus of the question and contained the old (already given) information.

The results of the investigation of the acquisition of the internal interface showed that second language learners had the knowledge of the syntax in DQs and the participants' performance on the semantic interpretation task showed that there were problems in the acquisition of DQs: HNDQs in contexts biasing the alternative meaning, which is semantically inappropriate, were accepted by both the high and

the low proficiency level L2ers to a greater extent than by the native speakers. This result did not confirm the hypothesis that the internal interface would cause no problems in the acquisition or that it might be expected to be acquired completely (cf. Yin & Kaiser, 2013; Yuan, 2008, 2010).

As to the external interface, even though there were problems in the syntax of the *it*-clefts by the low proficiency level L2ers, all the second language learners had the target-like knowledge of pragmatics, which disconfirmed the hypothesis that the external interfaces cause problems in L2 acquisition which result in incomplete acquisition at different proficiency levels or in permanent problems in end-state L2 grammar.

These results showed that contrary to the early or developed version of IH (Sorace & Filiaci, 2006; Tsimpli and Sorace, 2006; Sorace & Serratrice, 2009), there were more problems caused by the internal interface than the external interface. Moreover, in the case of the syntax-pragmatics interface, the narrow syntactic properties of the *it*-cleft construction proved more problematic than their pragmatic properties (counter to the early version of the IH). Finally, while the IH suggests that there would be no developmental phases detected in the acquisition of the phenomena at either interface, the developmental pattern was observed in the acquisition of the syntax of the *it*-cleft construction and in the acquisition of the semantics of disjunctive questions.

6.1. Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

The number of the participants was a limitation. There were not many subjects that participated in the study, and very few of this number were male participants since there are few male students in the Department of Foreign Language Education in METU. In addition, language proficiency level was another limitation. The language proficiency levels might be separated in a more fine-grained manner and might vary as lower intermediate, intermediate, higher intermediate, advanced, higher advanced and native like to see the developmental differences.

In the native language of the participants, Turkish, the phenomena investigated in this study show different properties than in English. Thus, in order to see the effect of L1 transfer, the same phenomena might be investigated with other L2 learners whose first languages have the same or similar grammatical phenomena as in English (DQs, specifically negated DQs, and *it*-cleft sentences).

Further study might also be conducted with the participants with different input quality and quantity; e.g. with participants living in a country where English is spoken versus participants living in a non-English speaking country (it may also vary in terms of from whom they receive English: native speakers of English, bilingual English speakers, attired speakers of English or L2ers of English, for example, in the family or at school).

Another limitation was about the online administration of the tasks. The participants did not have a chance to ask questions related to the tasks immediately and they could not reach the task after they submitted it. This might be controlled in future studies.

Finally, certain items in Pragmatics Felicitousness Task were different from the rest in that they contained an option (an *it*-cleft sentence) with an NP whose thematic role was different from that in the question, as in (98.), where *John* is the agent in options (A) and (C), but not in (B). However, there were only 2 items like this in the questionnaire, so they likely did not significantly affect the result.

- (98.) Who went to the cinema with Sue yesterday?
- A) It was John that went to the cinema with Sue yesterday.
- B) It was Sue that went to the cinema with John yesterday.
- C) It was the cinema that John went to with Sue yesterday.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: TURKISH SUMMARY

GİRİŞ

Bu tezin amacı ikinci dil ediniminde İngilizce sözdizim-anlambilim ve sözdizim-edimbilim arakesitlerindeki dilbilgisel olguları araştırmaktır. Asıl olay doğru kullanım için, bu arakesitler birden fazla dil modülünün bilgilerini birleştirmeyi gerektiriyor. Bu sebeple, özellikle, İngilizce dil yeterlikleri düşük seviyede (ortalama altı ve üstü derece) ve yüksek seviyede (ileri ve çok ileri derece) olan katılımcı grupları arasında değişiklik gösteren ve anadilleri Türkçe olan insanların İngilizce'deki ayrıştırıcı soruları ve ayrıık cümleleri ('*it-cleft*' tümceleri) edinimini araştıracağım.

Dil, farklı yollarla birbirini etkileyen ve birbiriyle etkileşim içinde olan birçok dilbilgisi modülünden oluşur. Bu modüller, örneğin, sesbilim, biçimbilim, anlambilim, sözdizim ve edimbilim gibidir. İkinci dil öğrencileri dil kazanımında, bu farklı altsistemlerdeki edimleri süresince yeterlik seviyesinde değişkenlik gösterebilir. Yani, bir öğrenci sözdizimde, sesbilim ya da edimbilimden daha iyi olabilir.(VanPatten, 2007). Örneğin, Gracanin-Yüksek ve Kırkıcı (basılacak) evet/hayır sorularıyla ikinci dil öğrenen Türklerin sözdizimsel, anlabilimsel ve edimbilimsel yeterliklerini araştırmışlardır. Ortalama üstü/ileri seviyedeki bu ikinci dil öğrencilerinin sözdizimdeki yeterlik seviyelerinin edimbilimdekenden daha yüksek olduğunu bulmuşlardır. Benzer şekilde, 2002 yılında Ionin & Wexler Rus çocuklarının İngilizce edinimlerini araştırmış ve çocukların sözel çekimleri atladıklarını ama dilbilgilerindeki işlevsel kategorilerin varlığından haberdar

olduğunu bulmuşlardır. İkinci dil öğrencilerinin bükümlü biçimbilimde eksikken dillerarası dilbilgisinde soyut sözdizim özelliklerine sahip oldukları sonucuna varmışlardır. Bu tezin amacı da farklı dilbilgisi modül bilgilerinin birleşimine dikkat ederek ikinci dil öğrenimindeki belli dilbilgisel olguları (ayrıştırıcı sorular ve ‘it-cleft’ tümceleri) araştırmaktır.

Arakesitler

Birden fazla dilsel altsistem ya da farklı dilbilgisi modüllerinin birleşimini gerektiren dilbilgisel bir görüngenü edinimi zor görünmektedir (Sorace, 2011). Bu yüzden, ikinci dil edinimi hakkındaki son yıllardaki çalışmalar, arakesit kavramına vurgu yapmaktadır, örneğin bu arakesit olgusunun farklı modül bilgilerinin birleşmesini gerektirmesi gibi.

Arakesitler, işlevi bir sözün anlamını ve sesini yorumlama olan simgeleme seviyeleri olarak görülen Mantıksal Şekil ve Sesbilimsel Şekil olarak ilk kez 1995 yılında Chomsky tarafından tanımlanmıştır. İkinci dil araştırmasındaki ‘arakesit’ teriminin açıklamaları, bu terimi farklı dilbilgisel modüller veya simgeler arasındaki etkileşim ve çakışma olarak özetliyor (White, 2011). Ramchand & Reiss (2007) ‘arakesit’in dilin alt-modüllerini bağlayan birimlere ve/veya dil ve dildışı diğer bilişsel sistemler arasındaki bağlantı olabileceğini önermişlerdir (akt. Sorace, 2011). Farklı seviyede simgelemeler birbiriyle çakıştığında, bu seviyeler arasında bir arakesit vardır. Örneğin, bir tümcenin sözdizimi anlambilimiyle etkileşim içinde olmalı; böylece bir sözdizim-anlambilim arakesiti var olur; bir tümcenin sözdizimi ayrıca biçimbilimle de etkileşimde olabilir, böylece bir sözdizim-biçimbilim arakesiti oluşur. Son olarak, bir tümcenin sözdizimi edimbilimiyle de etkileşimde olur, böylece sözdizim-edimbilim arakesiti de olur (White, 2011).

İkinci dil edinimi araştırmalarına göre, salt sözdizimsel özellikler, ikinci dil ediniminde herhangi önemli bir sorun yaşanmadan kazanılır. Ancak, sözdizimsel bilgi ve diğer bilişsel alanlar arasında etkileşim gerektiren sınırlamaların uygulanmasında kalıcı çeşitlilik olabilir (A. Sorace, 2005, 2011; White, 2011).

Sorace & Filiaci (2006) sözdizim ve diğer alanlar arasındaki arakesitlerle ilgili olan dilbilgisel olguları edinmenin zor olduğunu öne sürdüler, böylece bu durum, bu şekilde bir etkileşim gerektiren yapıların kullanımında çeşitliliğe neden olmaktadır. Bu çeşitlilik nerdeyse anadil seviyesindeki kadar ileri seviye dil yeterliğine sahip ikinci dil öğrencilerinde bile devam edebilir ve tamamen geçmeyebilir. Bu durum *Arakesit Varsayımı (AV)* olarak bilinmektedir. Bu varsayımın gelişmiş versiyonu, ikinci dil öğrencilerinin sözdizimin, sözdizim-edimbilim arakesiti gibi doğada tam dilsel olmayan bilişsel alanlarla etkileşimde olduğu dışsal arakesitlerini ediniminin zor hatta neredeyse imkansız olduğunu ve hatta ikinci dil çeşitliliğinin neredeyse anadil seviyesinde olanlarda bile gözlendiğini savunmaktadır (Sorace, 2005; Sorace & Filiaci, 2006). Sözdizim-anlambilim ya da sözdizim-sesbilim arakesitleri, ve diğer yandan sadece dilbilgisinin biçimsel özellikleriyle etkileşimde olan *içsel* arakesitler ikinci dil öğrencileri tarafından tamamen edinilebilir ve ikinci dil öğrencilerinin son dilbilgisi durumu anadil dilbilgisiyle çakışmaktadır (A. Sorace & Filiaci, 2006; A. Sorace, 2005).

Sözdizim-anlambilim arakesiti bir *içsel* arakesit örneğidir. Sözdizim-anlambilim arakesiti Dekydtspotter ve iş arkadaşları tarafından birçok makalede tartışılmıştır. Bu bilim insanlarının yürüttüğü çok sayıda araştırma Fransızca'yı ikinci dil olarak öğrenenlerin ikinci dil girdilerinin kendilerine öğretilmediğini ya da buna maruz kalmadıklarını göstermiştir. (Dekydspotter, 2001; Dekydspotter & Hathorn, 2005; Dekydspotter & Indiana, 2001; Dekydspotter & Renaud, 2009; Dekydspotter, Sprouse & Anderson, 1997 diğerleri arasında). Araştırmalar, öğrenciler yüksek bir yeterlik seviyesine ulaştıklarında olgunun anadillerinde var olmadığını kabul etmeye ve farkında olmadan ikinci dilde var olan çeşitli sözcük dizilimi değişkenleriyle ilgili yorumda bulunmaya başladıklarını gösteriyor (White, 2011). Bu da AV'nin gelişmiş şeklinin söylediğine benziyor; mesela, ikinci dil edinirken sözdizim ve diğer *içsel* dilbilgisel alanları birleştiren özelliklerin ediniminde hiçbir sorunun yaşanması beklenmiyor (Sorace & Serratrice, 2009; Tsimpli & Sorace, 2006).

Sözdizim ve söylem arasındaki arakesit dışsal kesitlerin altında sınıflandırılır. Sözdizim-edimbilim arakesiti birçok ikinci dil araştırmasında en çok çalışılan ve odaklanılan arakesitlerden biridir. Gizli öznel dillerdeki konu ve odak yorumları ve öznenin farkedilmesiyle bilgi yapısı etkileşimi, sözdizim-edimbilim arakesit araştırmaları altında incelenmektedir (White, 2011). Örneğin, Belletti, Bennati, ve Sorace (2007), Sorace ve Filiaci (2006), Tsimpli ve Sorace, (2006) anadile yakın seviyede ikinci dili konuşanların bile konu ve odak farkındalığına bağlı olan ve özne düşmesini yöneten söylem kısıtlamalarıyla sorun yaşadığını gösterdiler. İkinci dil öğrencilerinin son dilbilgisi durumunda hataların ve uygunsuz gizli özne kullanımının ikinci dil ediniminde uzun dönemli ve kalıcı sorunlar olduğunu öne sürdüler, çünkü bunlar sözdizim ve edimbilim arasındaki arakesitte yer almaktadırlar. Belletti ve Leonini (2004), Hertel, (2003); ve Lozano (2006) farklı yeterlik seviyelerindeki sırasıyla İtalyan, İspanyol ve Yunan ikinci dil öğrencilerinde benzer sonuçlar buldular.

Diğer yandan Roberts, Gullberg, ve Indefrey (2008)'in araştırması AV'yi dolaylı bir yoldan destekledi. Flemenkçe'yi ikinci dil olarak edinen Alman ve Türk konuşmacıların çevrimdışı görevlerde açık özne kullanımında farklı sonuçlar gösterdiğini buldular. Flemenkçe'yi ikinci dil olarak öğrenen Alman konuşmacılar ve anadili Flemenkçe olanlar her seferinde açık zamirleri kullanırken (Almanca'da Flemenkçe'ye benzer olarak açık özne kullanmak gerekir) Türk katılımcılar (anadilde gizli özne) tümce dışsal göndermelerine (kendi anadillerine benzer durum) atfen açık bir zamir kullanma eğilimi gösterdiler. Ancak, çevrimiçi göz temaslı araştırma her iki ikinci dil konuşmacı grubunun da, anadillerine bağlı kalmadan, karar vermede edimbilim gerektiren açık zamirleri anlamasının anadili Flemenkçe olan konuşmacılardan daha uzun sürdüğünü ve onların zamir süreciyle sorunları olduğunu gösterdi.

Şimdiki Çalışma

Bu tezde bir içsel arakesit olan sözdizim-anlambilim arakesitinde, bir de dışsal arakesit olan sözdizim-edimbilim arakesitinde İngilizce'yi ikinci dil olarak öğrenen Türk konuşmacılarının performansını karşılaştırıyorum.

Sözdizim-Anlambilim Arakesiti

Bu tezde araştırdığım yapı hem sözdizim hem de anlambilim bilgilerinin birleşimini gerektiren ayrıştırıcı sorular, 1.'de gösteriliyor.

1. Does John like coffee or tea?

John kahve mi sever çay mı?

İngilizce'de bu sorular *seçmeli* (SEÇ) ve *evet/hayır* (E/H) cevapları arasında belirsizdir, 2.de gösterildiği gibi.

2. a. A: Does John drink coffee or tea? YN

John kahve ya da çay içer mi? E/H

B: Yes, he does. / Actually, he doesn't.

Evet içer./ Hayır içmez.

- b. A: Does John drink coffee or tea? ALT

John kahve ya da çay içer mi? SEÇ

B: He drinks coffee. / He drinks tea.

O kahve içer./ O çay içer.

Soru olumsuzlandığı zaman, olumsuzluk düşük ise iki anlam da devam eder. 3.de gösterildiği gibi.

3. a. A: Does John not drink coffee or tea? YN

John kahve ya da çay içer mi? E/H

B:No, he doesn't. / Actually, he does.

Hayır içmez./ Aslında evet içer..

b. A: Does John not drink coffee or tea? ALT

John kahve ya da çay içmez mi? SEÇ

B: He doesn't drink coffee. / He doesn't drink tea.

O kahve içmez./ O çay içmez.

Ancak, olumsuzlama yüksek ise yani yardımcı fiile yapışık bir şekilde sondan eklenmiş bir ek olarak görünüyorsa, 4.de olduğu gibi, seçenekli anlamı kaybolur.

4. a. A: Doesn't John drink coffee or tea? YN

John kahve ya da çay içer mi? E/H

B:No, he doesn't. / Actually, he does.

Hayır içmez./ Aslında evet içer..

b. A: Doesn't John drink coffee or tea? *ALT

John kahve ya da çay içmez mi? *SEÇ

B: *He doesn't drink coffee. / *He doesn't drink tea.

**O kahve içmez./ *O çay içmez.*

Sözdizim-anlambilim arakesitine ilişkin sorunsallarım aşağıdaki gibidir:

1. Farklı dil yeterlik seviyesine sahip olan ve anadilleri Türkçe olup İngilizce'yi ikinci dil olarak öğrenenler ne derecede ayrıştırıcı soruların sözdizimini biliyorlar? Özellikle ayrıştırıcı sorulardaki ön ünlüleşene (yüksek olumsuzlama) karşı ön-ünlüleşmeyen (düşük olumsuzlama) olumsuzluk belirticisini biliyorlar mı? Başka bir deyişle, bir ayrıştırıcı sorunun iki durumda da dilbilgisel olduğunu biliyorlar mı?
2. Farklı dil yeterlik seviyesine sahip olan ve anadilleri Türkçe olup İngilizce'yi ikinci dil olarak öğrenenler, yukarıda belirtilen 4. tümcede olduğu olumsuzlama yüksek olduğunda, ayrıştırıcı soruların seçenekli anlamının ortadan kalktığını biliyorlar mı?

İkinci dil edimindeki arakesit edimini alan yazını takip ederek, katılımcıların ayrıştırıcı soruların sözdiziminde anlambilimine oranla daha az sorun yaşayacaklarını bekledim. Diğer bir deyişle, katılımcıların dilbilgisel ayrıştırıcı soruları dilbilgisi dışı ayrıştırıcı sorulardan ayır edebileceklerini, ancak dilbilgisel yapılara uygun anlamsal yorumlamalar atarken zorluk yaşayacaklarını bekledim.

Sözdizim-Edimbilim Arakesiti

Sözdizim-edimbilim arakesitindeki dilbilgisi konusunu incelemek için, 'it-cleft' tümcelerinin üzerinde durdum. Bir 'it-cleft' tümcesi 5.'de olduğu gibi kurulur.

5. It was John that I met at the party yesterday.

Dün partied tanıştığım John'du.

Altı çizili bileşen ayrık öğedir. Ayrık öğenin yeri birçok öbek türüyle (ad öbekleri, eylem öbekleri, yer-yön öbekleri gibi) doldurulabilir ancak yalnızca bu özel öbek odak noktası ise (aynı zamanda bu tez çalışmasındaki tümcelerde, yeni bilgiyi içeriyorsa). Tezimin bu kısmında, aşağıdaki sorunsalları inceliyorum.

1. Farklı dil yeterlik seviyesine sahip olan ve ana dilleri Türkçe olup İngilizce'yi ikinci dil olarak öğrenenler 'it-cleft' tümcelerinin sözdizimini anlama düzeyinde ne derecede biliyordur?
2. Farklı dil yeterlik seviyesine sahip olan ve ana dilleri Türkçe olup İngilizce'yi ikinci dil olarak öğrenenler, söylem içerisindeki ayırık kuruluşların kullanımının uygunluğunun edimsel sınırlamalarını biliyor mu? Başka bir deyişle, ikinci dil öğrenenler ayırık kuruluşların yalnızca ayırık öge sözcenin odağı olduğu zaman uygun olduğunu biliyorlar mı yoksa ana dili İngilizce olanlarla karşılaştırdıklarında performanslarında değişkenlik mi gözleniyor?

Burada yine, katılımcılarının 'it-cleft' tümcelerinin sözdizim bilgilerinin edimsel bilgilerinden daha iyi olacağını bekledim (çünkü sözdizim-edimbilim arakesitinde sözdizim başka hiçbir dilbilgisel bilginin bütünleşmesini gerektirmezken edimsel bilgi gerektirir).

Bu iki arakesiti karşılaştırdığımızda (sözdizim-anlambilim; sözdizim-edimbilim), eğer AV doğru ise, katılımcıların sözdizim-anlambilim arakesitinin ediminde sözdizim-edimbilim arakesitine kıyasla daha az sorunla karşılaştığımızı bulmamız gerekir. Bunun nedeni, ilk arakesit bir içsel arakesit, diğeri ise bir dışsal arakesittir. Aynı zamanda benim beklentilerim, düşük seviye İngilizce yeterliğine sahip katılımcıların yüksek yeterliğe sahip katılımcılardan daha kötü sonuçlar göstereceği yönündedir.

Yöntembilim

Katılımcılar

Bu tez çalışmasında iki deneysel ve bir kontrol olmak üzere üç farklı katılımcı grubu kullanıldı.

Deneysel gruplardaki katılımcılar ODTÜ İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bölümü öğrencileri olup İngilizce yeterliklerinde farklılık göstererek düşük ve yüksek dil yeterlik seviyelerinde iki grup olmak üzere düzenlendiler. Katılımcıların dil yeterlik seviyesi (OPT) Oxford Üniversitesi Yayınevi ve Cambridge Üniversitesi Yerel Sınavları

uygulanarak belirlendi. Düşük dil yeterliğine sahip deney grubu 36 katılımcıdan (8 erkek ve 28 kadın) oluşmuştur. Bu gruptaki katılımcıların OPT sonuçları orta seviye olarak bulunmuştur. Dil yeterliği yüksek olan katılımcıların grubu 3 erkek ve 17 kadın olmak üzere toplam 20 kişiyi içermiştir. Bu katılımcılar OPT’de ileri seviye sonuçlar elde etmiştir. Bu çalışmanın control grubunu ise İngilizce’yi anadili olarak konuşan 21 katılımcı (9 erkek, 12 kadın) oluşturmuştur. Katılımcıların yaşları 23 ve 71 (M=38) arasında değişiklik göstermiştir. Çalışmanın yürütüldüğü sırada, bu gruptaki katılımcıların bir kısmı üniversitede eğitim görmekteyken bir kısmı da üniversite eğitimini amamlamıştı.

Bütün katılımcılar çalışmada gönüllü olarak yer almıştır. Ayrıca deney grubundaki katılımcılara yardımları için fazladan ders notu verilmiştir.

Araştırma Deseni

Araçlar

Bu çalışmanın amacı arakesitlerin ikinci dil edinimi üzerindeki etkisini araştırmaktır. Farklı modüllerden dil kurallarının ikinci dildeki performansı nasıl etkilediğini bulmak için aşağıda sıralanan maddelerin incelenmesi gerekmektedir:

- iii. Yalnızca sözdizimsel bilgiyi içeren bir testte katılımcıların ne derece iyi bir performans gösterdiği
- iv. Arakesitleri içeren bir testte katılımcıların ne derece iyi bir performans gösterdiği (bu durum bizim çalışmamızda sözdizim-anlambilim arakesitlerini ve sözdizim-edimbilim arakesitlerini içermektedir).

Bu bağlamda her bir arakesit için iki farklı araç kullanılmıştır.:

- 1 Dilbilgisel Yargı Testi (DYT):** Bu araç ile bulunmak istenen yapı sözdizim bilgisini ölçmektedir.

a. Sözdizim-anlambilim arakesiti

Tez çalışmasının bu kısmında katılımcıların ayrıştırıcı soruların sözdizimini bilip bilmedikleri; örneğin, dilbilgisel ya da dilbilgisi dışı ayrıştırıcı soruları ayırt edebilirler mi diye, inelenmek istenmiştir. Bu noktada katılımcıların yapması gereken olumlu ayrıştırıcı soruların, düşük olumsuzlanan ayrıştırıcı soruların ve yüksek olumsuzlanan ayrıştırıcı soruların dil kurallarına uygunluğunu değerlendirmektir.

b. Sözdizim-edimbilim arakesiti

Çalışmanın bu sözdizim-edimbilim arakesiti ile ilgili kısmında katılımcıların ‘*it-cleft*’ (ayrık) tümcelerinin sözdizim bilgisine sahip olup olmadıklarını göstermeleri gerekmektedir. Diğer arakesitin DYT’inde olduğu gibi bunda da katılımcılardan ‘*it-cleft*’ tümcelerinin dilbilgiselliğini değerlendirmeleri istendi.

2 Yorumlama/Uygunluk Testi: Bu araç, arakesitlerin etkilerini ölçmek için tasarlanmıştır. Burada katılımcıların ilgili kuruluşun (ayrıştırıcı sorular, ‘*it-cleft*’ tümceleri) anlamını ve/ya kullanımını bilip bilmediklerini inceledim.

a. Sözdizim-anlambilim arakesiti

Bu testte katılımcılara ayrıştırıcı soruların takip ettiği kısa bağlamlar verilmiştir. Bağlamlar her bir sorunun bir evet/hayır ya da seçenekli anlama sahip olacağı şekilde düzenlenmiştir. İngilizce’de olumlu ayrıştırıcı sorular özlerinde her zaman evet/hayır ve seçenekli olmak üzere iki anlamı da barındırır. Hangi anlamın olacağına dair bu belirsizlik düşük olumsuzlanan ayrıştırıcı sorularda da gözlemlenirken, yüksek olumsuzlanan ayrıştırıcı sorularda böyle bir belirsizlik yoktur. Bu yüksek olumsuzlanan sorular dil kullanıcılarını yalnızca evet/hayır yanıtına yönlendirir. Katılımcılardan bağlam içerisindeki ayrıştırıcı soruların kullanımının uygunluğunu değerlendirmesi istenmiştir. Yüksek olumsuzlanan ayrıştırıcı sorular özlerinde

seçenekli anlam taşımadıkları için seçenekli bir anlama yönlendiren bağlam içinde dahi olsalar bu tür soruların düşük puanlarla değerlendirilmesi beklendi. Bu nedenle, katılımcıların bu testteki performansları ayrıştırıcı sorulardaki sözdizim bilgilerini bu soruların anlambilimsel yorumlanmasına ne kadar katabildiklerine bağlıdır.

b. Sözdizim-edimbilim arakesiti

Bu testte, katılımcıların söylem içerisindeki *it*-cleft (ayrık) tümce yapısını yöneten edimsel sınırlamaların bilgisini inceledim. Bu testteki her bir öge bir ne sorusu ve bu soruya üç olası yanıt içermektedir ve her bu yanıtların her biri dilbilgisell olarak iyi kurulmuş ve her birinin ayrık ögelerinde farklı sözcük öbeklerinin olduğu *it*-cleft tümceleri. Katılımcılardan her bir seçeneğin (*it*-cleft tümceleri) verilen söyleme (*it*-cleft tümcesindeki ayrık ögenin yanıtını içermesi amaçlanan ne sorusu) göre uygunluğunu değerlendirmesi istenmiştir. *It*-cleft tümceleri yeni bilgiyi vurgulaması için kullanıldığından ayrık ögenin yeni bilgiyi içerdiği seçeneğin en yüksek dereceyle değerlendirilmesi beklenmiştir. Bu nedenle, katılımcıların bu testteki başarıları, *it*-cleft tümcelerinin sözdizim bilgisini ne derecede bu yapıların edimsel uygunluklarıyla bütünleştirebildiklerine bağlıdır.

Yöntem

Tüm testler google formlar kullanılarak internet üzerinden uygulanmıştır. Katılımcılar önce onay formunu ve demografik veri formunu doldurmuşlardır. Daha sonra ise aşağıdaki deneysel testlere davet edilmişlerdir:

- Sözdizim-anlambilim DYT,
- Sözdizim-anlambilim Yorumlama testi,
- Sözdizim-edimbilim DYT,
- Sözdizim-edimbilim Uygunluk testi.

Katılımcıların yorulup yanlış yargılarda bulunmasının önüne geçmek için her bir test ayrı ayrı hazırlanmış ve uygulanmıştır; her biri ayrı bağlantılarda gönderilmiş ve katılımcılardan her bir testi farklı zamanlarda yapmaları rica edilmiştir. Testlerden her biri yaklaşık 10 dakika sürmektedir. Katılımcılar onay ve demografik veri formunu çalışmanın başında yalnızca bir kez doldurmuşlar ve daha sonra her bir katılımcıya (deney grubu için) öğrenci numaraları ya da (İngilizce anadil konuşmacıları için) takma adlarla bağlantı kurulmuştur.

Verilerin İncelenmesi

Verilerimi incelemek ve istatistiksel olarak anlamlı mı değil mi diye kontrol etmek için SPSS 22.0 programını kullandım. Özellikle, farklı katılımcı gruplarında ve testlerdeki performanslar arasında herhangi anlamlı bir fark var mı yok mu bulabilmek için tek yönlü ANOVA ve yinelenmiş ölçüler ANOVA'ya ek olarak bağımlı ve bağımsız grup testlerini kullandım. Her arakesite ilişik deney ayrı ayrı incelenmiştir.

Bulgular ve Sonuç

Sonuç olarak, beklentilerin aksine, varsayımlarım doğrulanamadı. En başta, sözdizim-edimbilim arakesitindeki edimbilim testinin sonuçları hiçbir gelişimsel farkın olmadığını gösterdi (beklenmedik bir şekilde düşük İngilizce seviye grubu 'it-cleft' tümcelerinin sözdiziminde hedef dışı başarımlar göstermiştir). İkinci olarak, İngilizce öğrencileri sözdizim-anlambilim arakesiti çalışmalarında, ayrıştırıcı soruların sözdizim testinde anadilleri gibi tam bir başarımlar gösterirken, anlambilim testinde hedef dışı sonuçlar göstermişlerdir.

Özetle, bu tezin bulguları AV'ye karşı deliller sunmuştur. Ayrıştırıcı soruların ediniminde sorunlar ortaya çıkmıştır (İngilizce öğrenenler yüksek olumsuzluklu ayrıştırıcı soruları doğru bir şekilde yorumlayamamışlarken, bir söylem içerisindeki 'it-cleft' tümcelerinin kullanımında tam bir edinim gözlenmiştir (düşük İngilizce seviyesine sahip katılımcılar bile anadilleriymiş gibi sonuçlar sergilemişlerdir).

Genel Tartışma

AV ilk olarak Sorace and Filiaci (2006) tarafından ortaya atıldı. Buna göre dar sözdizimsel dil özellikleri, edinimleri diller arası gelişimin sonuna kadar sürse de, tam olarak edinilebilir. Ancak arakesit özelliklerinin (sözdizimsel ve zihinsel alanların birleşiminden oluşan) edinimleri uzun erimde sorunlu ve eksik olabilir.

AV'nın geliştirilmiş versiyonu (Tsimpli and Sorace, 2006; Sorace & Filiaci 2006, White, 2008; arakesitler iç ve dış olarak ikiye ayrılır) farklı arakesit türlerinin ikinci dil ediniminin çeşitli evrelerinde kalıcı sorunlara yol açabileceğini öne sürmüştür. Örnek vermek gerekirse anlambilimsel-sözdizimsel ya da sözdizimsel biçimbilimsel arakesitler gibi, içsel arakesitleri içeren yapılar işleme problemleriyle karşılaşmaksızın kolaylıkla edinilebilirler, çünkü bu yapılar dilin sadece biçimsel özelliklerinin eşleştirilmesini içerirler (Sorace & Serratrice, 2009).

Ancak, dil sisteminin dışında yer alan sözdizimsel ve diğer zihinsel alanların birleşimi olan özellikler işleme güçlüğü yüzünden geç edinilirler ya da edinimleri gerçekleşmez. Bu işleme güçlükleri de de dil öğrenenlerin son aşamadaki dillerinde kalıcı değişkenliğe (bu özellikleri kullanmadaki değişkenlik) yol açar.

Bu çalışmanın sonuçları AV'ye karşı kanıt oluşturmaktadır. AV gereğince ayrıştırıcı soruların özellikle de bu soruların sözdizimsel ve anlambilimsel özelliklerinin birleştirilmesinin tamamıyla edinimi beklendi, çünkü bu süreç yalnızca içsel, sözdizimsel ve anlambilimsel, arakesitlerin işlenmesini gerektirir.

Aynı biçimde, 'it-cleft' (ayrık tümcelerinin) ediniminde, özellikle edimbilimsel olarak uygun olan tümceler seçilmesi sürecinde, çünkü bu dışsal bir arakesit (sözdizimsel ve edimbilimsel) içermektedir, kalıcı gelişimsel gecikmeler beklendi.

Ancak iki türdeki sonuçlar da AV ile uyumlu değiller. Aksine sözdizimsel-anlambilimsel işlem gerektiren çeşitli ayrıştırıcı soru türlerinin dil yeterliği yüksek seviyede olanlar tarafından bile tamamıyla edinilmediği gözlemlendi. Ayrıca yüksek

olumsuzlanan ayrıştırıcı soruların ediniminde gelişimsel bir eğilim gözlemlendi. Çünkü İngilizce yeterlik seviyesi düşük olan katılımcılar bu tür soruları evet/hayır sorusunu yorumladıkları gibi yorumladılar.

Bir diğer taraftan İngilizce yeterlik düzeyi yüksek olan öğrenciler ise yüksek olumsuzlamalı ayrıştırıcı soruları evet/hayır sorularını yorumladıkları gibi yorumlamaya daha az yatkınlık gösterdiler. Aynı şekilde İngilizce yeterlik düzeyi düşük olan öğrencilerin ‘*it-cleft*’ (ayrık) tümcelerinin ediniminde, sözdizimsel-edimbilimsel arakesit içerdiğinden, kalıcı sorunlar beklendi. Ancak bu çalışmada yeterlik düzeyi düşük olan katılımcı grubunda bile böyle bir durum gözlenmedi. Bu da ‘*it-cleft*’ (ayrık) tümcelerinin edimbilimsel özelliklerinin doğrudan öğretim olmasa bile öğrenciler tarafından ayırt edilebileceğini göstermektedir.

Bu da, anadil dışı davranışlar sergilenmesinin tek suçlusu olarak bir kuruluşun arakesit özelliğine odaklanmanın yanlış yönlendirdiğini belirterek, her yapının eşit bir şekilde arakesit sorunu ortaya koymadığını öne sürmektedir (White, 2011)

Bu sebeplerden, araştırmamın sonuçları içsel arakesitlerin ediniminin sorunlu, dışsal arakesitlerin ediniminin ise anadildekine yakın bir şekilde gerçekleşebileceğini gösteren araştırmalarla aynı doğrultudadır. (Antonova-Ünlü, 2015).

Genel Sonuç

Dil edinimi ve ikinci dil edinimi (diğer şeylerin arasında) çeşitli dilbilgisi modüllerinin (sözdizim, anlambilim, biçimbilim...) özelliklerini içselleştirmenin yanısıra farklı dilbilgisi modüllerinin içeren bütünleşik bilginin edinimini (diğer bir deyişle “arakesitler”in edinimi) içerir. Son yıllarda yapılan ikinci dil edinimi araştırmalarında ikinci dil öğrenen yetişkinler tarafından içsel arakesit özelliklerinin tamamen edinilirken, dışsal arakesitlere ait olan dilbilgisel olguların daha zorluklarla edinildiği ve bu dışsal arakesitlerin aradil dilbilgisinde kalıcı gecikmeler gösterebildiği iddia edilmektedir. Bu *Arayüz Varsayımı* (AV) olarak bilinir. Bu deneysel çalışmanın amacı iki arakesitin edinimi karşılaştırmaktır: içsel arakesit

olarak sözdizim-anlambilim arakesiti ve dışsal arakesit olarak sözdizim-edimbilim arakesiti araştırılmıştır. Bu çalışmadaki içsel arakesit içeren dilbilgisel olgu (sözdizim-anlambilim) İngilizcedeki *ayrıştırıcı sorular*; özellikle de olumsuzlanan ayrıştırıcı sorulardır. Yüksek olumsuzluklu ayrıştırıcı sorular yalnızca evet/hayır anlamına sahip ve seçenekli anlam içermezken, olumlu ve düşük olumsuzluklu ayrıştırıcı sorular ise evet/hayır ve seçenekli anlamların ikisine de sahiptir. Bu ayrıştırıcı sorulara uygun anlamı yükleyebilmek için, bir kişi ayrıştırıcı soru türlerinin sözdizimsel yapısını ve her bir ayrıştırıcı soru türünün anlambilimsel örüntüsünü bilmek zorundadır. Katılımcıların ayrıştırıcı sorular üzerindeki dil kullanımını ölçmek için iki tür materyal kullanılmıştır: Dilbilgisel Yargı Testi ve Anlambilimsel Yorumlama Testi. Bu çalışmadaki dışsal arakesit (sözdizim-edimbilim) içeren dilbilgisel olgu, İngilizcedeki ayrık tümce türlerinden biri olan ‘*it-cleft*’ tümceleridir. ‘*It-cleft*’ tümcelerindeki ayrıklanan yapı tümcenin odağını konumundadır ve İngilizcede bu yapı, ‘*it-cleft*’ tümcesi bir *ne*-sorusuna yanıt olarak kullanılıyorsa, (bilinmeyen ya da paylaşılmamış) yeni bilgiyi içerir. ‘*It-cleft*’ tümcelerini doğru ve yerinde kullanabilmek ayrık tümce yapısının sözdizimsel ve edimbilimsel bilgisini gerektirir. Katılımcıların ayrık tümcelerden ‘*it-cleft*’ yapısının üzerindeki dil kullanımını ölçmek için iki tür materyal kullanılmıştır: Dilbilgisel Yargı Testi ve Edimbilimsel Uygunluk Testi. Bu iki alt-çalışmadaki katılımcılar iki gruba ayrılmıştır: Kontrol grubu (anadili İngilizce olan katılımcılardan oluşmuştur) ve Deney grubu (Anadili Türkçe olup Türkiye’de ikamet eden ve İngilizceyi ikinci dil olarak öğrenen katılımcılardan oluşmuştur). Deney grubundaki katılımcılar İngilizce dil yeterlik düzeylerine göre ikiye ayrılmışlardır: İngilizce yeterlik seviyesi düşük olanlar (orta seviye) ve İngilizce yeterlik seviyesi yüksek olanlar (ileri seviye). Sözdizim-anlambilim arakesit olgusu yüksek İngilizce seviye grubu ve düşük İngilizce seviye grubunun ikisinin de yüksek olumluluk ayrıştırıcı soruların sözdizim bilgisine anadili gibi sahip olduklarını ortaya çıkarmıştır. Buna karşın, yüksek İngilizce seviye grubu ve düşük İngilizce seviye grubundaki katılımcıların hiçbirinde anlambilim testinde tam bir edinim görülmemiştir (seçenekli anlam yüklenen yüksek olumsuzluklu ayrıştırıcı soruları kabul etmişlerdir). Bu durum, (içsel arakesit bile içerse) bu yapıların ediniminde bazı sorunların ortaya

çıkabileceğini göstermektedir. Sözdizim-edimbilim arakesinin sonuçları düşük İngilizce yeterlik grubunun anadil-dışı performans sergileyerek '*it-cleft*' tümcelerinin sözdizimsel yapısında bazı sorunlar yaşadığını gösterirken, yüksek İngilizce yeterliği grubunun '*it-cleft*' tümcelerinin sözdizimsel yapısını anadili gibi bildiğini göstermiştir. Şaşırtıcı bir şekilde, iki grupta da '*it-cleft*' tümcelerinin uygun durumlarda doğru bir şekilde kullanımı için gerekli olan edimsel bilginin olduğu görülmüştür. İki grup da '*it-cleft*' tümcelerini anadili gibi doğru bir şekilde yorumlamışlardır. Düşük İngilizce seviye grubu '*it-cleft*' yapısının sözdizim bilgisinden yoksun olmasına rağmen, edimbilimsel sınırlamalarını bilmekteydi. Ayrıca, yüksek İngilizce seviye grubu, dil yeterlik düzeyi arttıkça, tam bir ediminim gerçekleştirebileceğini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bu da sözdizim-edimbilim arakesiti olgusunun edimbilimsel yapısının hiçbir zorluk arzetmeden anadil seviyesinde tam bir şekilde edinilebildiğini işaret etmektedir. Genel olarak, içsel arakesit özelliklerinin edinimi savunulduğu gibi sorunsuz olmayabilir ve aynı zamanda, dışsal arakesit olguları da zorluk göstermeden tam bir şekilde edinilebilir. Bu durumdan ötürü, bu çalışmanın sonuçları, AV'yi destekler gibi görünmemektedir.

APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

INTERFACES IN SECOND LANGUAGE ENGLISH

This study investigates the acquisition of English as a second language. It has been prepared by Emine EREN GEZEN under the supervision of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Martina Gračanin Yüksek as part of a master thesis at the Department of English Language Education, Institute of Social Sciences, Middle East Technical University. The aim of the study is to investigate the acquisition of English grammatical phenomena at the syntax-morphology, syntax-semantics, and syntax-pragmatics interface. Participation in the study is voluntary. Your identity will not be revealed in the thesis or in any further publication(s) that might stem from it. Your answers will be kept confidential and will be evaluated by only the researchers. The results will be used only in scientific publications.

The survey does not contain anything disturbing. However, if you feel disturbed because of the sentences you read or any for any other reason during the study, you are free to leave the survey undone.

After filling in the survey, if you have any questions, you can send me an e-mail. My information is: Emine EREN GEZEN, research assistant at the department of ELT in METU, Ankara-TURKEY (Office: EF- B14; Tel: +90 0312 210 3628 Tel: 05372387360; E-mail: eeren@metu.edu.tr or emineeren89@gmail.com).

I voluntarily agree to participate in the survey. I understand I can withdraw at any time without giving reasons and that I will not be penalized for withdrawing nor will I be questioned on why I have withdrawn. I agree for the information that I gave to be used in scientific publications. I agree to sign (by writing my name below) and date this informed consent form.

Name Surname

Date

Signature

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APPENDIX C: SYNTAX-SEMANTICS GJT

Please read the sentences carefully and mark them either as grammatical or ungrammatical by placing a cross (x) in the appropriate box on the right.

	Grammatical	Ungrammatical
1) Does Jane leave house or the office at four o'clock?		
2) Does Derek the suite in the hotel or the room not like?		
3) Does the evidence support this story that he told the police?		
4) Are the small back window or the front door they closing?		
5) Insects that harm plants does this poison kill or plants themselves?		
6) When this machine start does to work when we add the new supplements?		
7) What did their friends explore in the cave when they had a walk in the forest?		
8) Like the delicate and fragile girls what kind of sports do?		
9) Is Julia not putting the skirt or the dress into the suitcase?		
10) Do the customers buy homemade food in this expensive store?		
11) Do they taste the cookies before they pack them into boxes?		

12) What time does the film in which Julia Roberts is the leading actress start?		
13) Go to the cinema does your housemate often with his friends?		
14) The weather what was like when they went to ski in France?		
15) Do most farmers not pick apples or peaches in the fall?		
16) When did Sue and her partner win the competition on the television?		
17) Doesn't his lips or his fingernails David bite when he is nervous?		
18) Does speckles caused by the sun this cream remove or pimples?		
19) Does the snow usually cover all the roofs in this neighborhood in winter?		
20) How do they get to work since their car broke last week?		
21) Didn't on this towel dry his hands or his face Simon?		
22) Did they visit St Petersburg on their last summer vacation?		
23) When do you get up and go to school since you have to change three busses?		
24) How did long stay Kevin and his girlfriend in Paris and Nice?		
25) To her famous lasagna doesn't the chef salt add or pepper?		

26) Did Messi hit the ball after referee signaled the end of the match?		
27) Why are you wearing that coat although the weather is pretty hot?		
28) Does this special night vision camera detect bodies or motions?		
29) Do not hide parents from the children the money or the jewelry?		
30) Why does he ask a lot of questions even though she doesn't like it?		
31) Does your girlfriend normally do her shopping on Saturday?		
32) Does too much this old bag which belonged to royal families before cost?		
33) On Saturdays, she does her best friends from her old school meet?		
34) Did the travel agency the bus seats or the plane seats reserve?		
35) When going on holiday they are to that exotic country?		
36) Isn't a gang attacking students or teachers in this neighborhood?		
37) The book about beliefs of different cultures harsh criticize did the reviewers?		
38) Do the students not take syntax or semantics every term?		
39) Without an oven how making are they the raisin nut cookie?		

40) She on Mondays does her friends meet at a small cafe?		
41) Isn't painting the living room he or the dining room?		
42) He asks why a lot of questions after finishing the exam?		
43) Does Brad's sister call his parents whenever she is in town?		
44) Why did your grandfather English classes take at this age?		
45) Did the life-guard save the boy or the girl from drowning?		
46) The director did the new movie shoot in which a huge war scene was displayed?		
47) Doesn't your younger sister eat eggs or cheese for breakfast?		
48) Is the picture book coloring the little boy that shows an elephant?		
49) The knife did or the gun the inspector not examine?		
50) Are the nurses in the city hospital analyzing samples of blood?		
51) How does Susan like her coffee in the mornings?		
52) Is the cook chopping potatoes or carrots at this moment?		
53) Are for tomorrow's concerting the singers practicing?		
54) Is the lazy student music to listening during the mathematics class?		
55) Did the detectives not question the man or the woman?		

56) The Pumas were living where you said in the America?		
57) Where normally stay the freshman students when they first come?		
58) Is yoga or Pilates not Mary attending in order to relax?		
59) Is your dad not cleaning the garage at the weekends?		
60) Didn't the Browns buy a Ferrari or a Mercedes last month?		
61) Did the couple cancel the ceremony when they heard the news?		
62) Where does she live in the city where she goes to school?		
63) Don't medicine students study biology or pharmacology before going into medicine?		
64) Where was the fox when you visited the zoo in the city?		
65) Did Jason break his brand new cell phone entirely accidentally?		
66) Get up and have breakfast do you when in the morning?		
67) Which fruit are they eating while they are studying math?		
68) Did have your sister in physics a degree in addition to her math degree?		
69) Automatically work does this coffee machine that was donated by a benefactor?		
70) Which animals do live in the water together with		

seals?		
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71) You watch do when Tom and Jerry with the children that you babysit?		
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72) Do wild cats the men who don't respect animals like?		
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APPENDIX D: SYNTAX-SEMANTICS INTERPRETATION TASK (Group A)

Please read each of the contexts carefully and on the scale provided please rate to what extent is the boldfaced and underlined question SEMANTICALLY appropriate in this context (put a cross (x)). (1= Strongly inappropriate, 2=inappropriate, 3= Neither appropriate nor inappropriate, 4= appropriate, 5= Strongly appropriate). You might find the questions unusual, but please rate the appropriateness of that semantic contribution.

	1	2	3	4	5
1. John is looking for a good present for his wife who loves reading and also loves old things. He asked his friend Bill for help. Bill suggests a small shop in his neighbourhood and John says: "I need to find something quickly; I don't really care what, as long as she likes it. <u>Does this shop sell books or antiques?</u>					

	1	2	3	4	5
2. Lara works for the school magazine and needs to interview a writer – somebody who writes prose, not poetry. She asks her classmate Bill whether he knows someone whom she might interview. Bill says: "Hmm let me see... <u>Does Tommy not write novels or short stories?</u> "					

	1	2	3	4	5
3. Don is complaining to Adam about a student in his French class. He says: "Although he still has problems in advanced reading and writing, he wastes time playing computer games. He does nothing else!" Adam is surprised: " <u>Doesn't he read newspapers or books?</u> "					

1 2 3 4 5

4. Dave and Carol work in the department of material development for young learners. One of the books that they examine seems complex and abstract for young children. Dave says: "Those kids cannot understand what they read without seeing visuals. **Doesn't this book contain pictures or figures?**"

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1 2 3 4 5

5. Jane and Jill are at a concert. Jane loves the band and says: "I really want to hear this band again. Apparently they will remain in town for a week or so but they have no other concerts scheduled. I wonder if I could see them in a different place. What do you think; **does this band play in bars or restaurants?**"

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1 2 3 4 5

6. Nick is inviting some friends over to watch the season finale of the Survivor all together. He wants to invite Garry and his wife as well, but he knows that Gerry's wife either doesn't watch soap operas or reality shows. Since he doesn't remember which, he calls Garry and asks: "**Does your wife not watch soap operas or reality shows?**"

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1 2 3 4 5

7. Sally is on a strict diet, trying to lose weight. The dietician told her she should even drink her tea with no sugar and no sweetener. She goes to a restaurant and orders a cup of tea. After the waiter brings the tea, she asks: "Excuse me! **Does the tea contain sugar or sweetener?**"

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1 2 3 4 5

8. Steve's wife had to work late one night. The next morning, Steve says to her: "I took the children to a restaurant last night. They were happy because I allowed them to order fast food rather than vegetables and soup."
His wife replies: "I bet. So, **did they order a hamburger or a sandwich?**"

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1 2 3 4 5

<p>9. Sally studies biology and works for a project in which they study frogs. When she tells Helen about finding frogs in the forest for their laboratory experiments, Helen is really surprised: "Wait a minute; I didn't know you needed frogs. <u>Does your experiment not involve rats or mice?</u>"</p>					
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<p>10. Frank lives in a rented apartment with his wife and kids, but he has just bought an old house. However, they cannot move there until it is renovated, so for a while Frank's family has to pay both the rent and the mortgage. Dana, Franks' wife, complains to her father that Frank's income is not enough for both, and that they are getting into debts. Dana's father says: "I wish you had told me earlier. Of course, I will help Frank with the payment that he is running behind on. But you have to tell me: <u>doesn't he pay the rent or the mortgage?</u>"</p>	1	2	3	4	5
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<p>11. Jane and Mary are talking about their sons who are best friends and are in Europe for summer school. Jane says: "Isn't it wonderful that the boys have already visited Austria and Germany?" Mary is surprised: "Did they? My son never let me know!" Jane asks: "What? <u>Didn't he send a card or a letter?</u>"</p>	1	2	3	4	5
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<p>12. Laura needs to find a journal article for one of her school projects. She goes to the library, and the librarian tells her: "We have books and magazines, but I'm afraid no journals." Because of the librarian's heavy accent, Laura doesn't understand what it is that the library doesn't have. She asks: "I'm sorry, <u>doesn't this library have journals or magazines?</u>"</p>	1	2	3	4	5
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1 2 3 4 5

<p>13. Kevin’s company decided to do business with companies in the Baltics. They need somebody who knows the languages spoken in this area. Kevin went to speak with Dan, the head of Human Resources, to ask if any of the employees might be appropriate for the job. Dan said: “I am not sure. But, wait! <u>Did Julia not learn Russian or Finnish?</u>”</p>					
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<p>14. Eve is shopping for a birthday present for her friend Mike. Mike collects old toys, especially toy vehicles, and Eve knows he has a nice collection that is missing only an old toy car or an old toy bicycle, but she doesn’t remember which. So, she calls Mike’s wife Sheila and says: “I know Mike is missing only one toy vehicle to complete his collection. So tell me, <u>does he not own a car or a bicycle?</u>”</p>	1	2	3	4	5
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<p>15. Kelly is complaining to her best friend Sarah about her upstairs neighbors: “We are having huge problems with our neighbor’s children. You know we have a small baby girl and my sick grandmother with us and it’s really hard. She can’t sleep at all!” Sarah reacts: “Wait, so <u>do the children disturb your baby or your grandmother?</u>”</p>	1	2	3	4	5
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APPENDIX E: SYNTAX-SEMANTICS INTERPRETATION TASK (Group B)

Please read each of the contexts carefully and on the scale provided please rate to what extent is the boldfaced and underlined question SEMANTICALLY appropriate in this context (put a cross (x)). (1= Strongly inappropriate, 2=inappropriate, 3= Neither appropriate nor inappropriate, 4= appropriate, 5= Strongly appropriate). You might find the questions unusual, but please rate the appropriateness of that semantic contribution.

	1	2	3	4	5
1. John has to buy two presents: one for his wife and one for his boss. He wants to buy a book for his wife and an old vase for his boss. His friend Bill suggests two stores: one for the book and one for the vase. When they arrive in front of one of the shops, John asks: "So, which shop is this, <u>does this shop sell books or antiques?</u> "					

	1	2	3	4	5
2. Lara is organizing a seminar in prose writing and has compiled a list of genres that she wants to be taught. She wants a local author, Sam Hardy, to lead the seminar, but she knows that there is a genre which he doesn't write: novels or short stories, but she is not sure which. So, Lara knows that either novels or short stories will have to be taken off the list. She calls her friend Belinda, who is a literary agent and asks: "You know Sam Hardy, right? <u>Does he not write novels or short stories?</u> "					

1 2 3 4 5

<p>3. Don is telling his friend Adam about how his father influences his son. He says: “My son takes his grandfather as his role model. The grandfather reads newspapers and goes fishing, but he never ever reads books and I am worried that my son will be just like him.” Adam is confused: “Wait, I lost you for a second. So, your father, <u>doesn’t he read newspapers or books?</u>”</p>					
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1 2 3 4 5

<p>4. Dave and Carol teach young learners at different primary schools. When they met at a seminar, Dave mentioned a supplementary book for kids, but said that the lack of figures in the book caused the children to have a hard time comprehending the text. The next day Carol wanted to recommend a supplementary book to her own students and called Dave: “Hey Dave! Yesterday, you mentioned a book but said it lacks certain visuals. I’m afraid I forgot what you said. <u>Doesn’t this book contain pictures or figures?</u>”</p>					
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1 2 3 4 5

<p>5. Jane owns a bar and wants to have a band to come and play there. She knows that the band only plays in bars or only plays in restaurants but she is not sure which, so she calls the manager of the band and asks: <u>“Does your band play in bars or restaurants?”</u></p>					
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1 2 3 4 5

<p>6. David was telling his friend, Simon that he and his wife do not have a television at home and they read at least one hour before going to sleep. Simon, whose wife does not work and could not live without watching something on TV, asks: “How can your wife live without a TV? <u>Does she not watch soap operas or reality shows?</u>”</p>					
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1 2 3 4 5

<p>7. Harry is telling a story to his friend Mark: "You remember those friends of mine that you don't like, who are vegetarian? The other day we went to a restaurant which serves only three dishes for lunch; salad, ham sandwich and hamburger. And guess what?" B: "Oh no! <u>Did they order a hamburger or a sandwich?</u>"</p>					
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1 2 3 4 5

<p>8. Peter needs to get some animal subjects for his labyrinth experiments. However, he has no money left in the budget to buy any, so he asked his friend Sue, who is working for a private company and has a lab full of rats and mice, for help. Sue says: "You are in luck. We don't need both rats and mice for our current experiment." Peter says: "Oh, great. So, which one can I have? <u>Does your experiment not involve rats or mice?</u>"</p>					
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1 2 3 4 5

<p>9. David works late every day and has an extra job at the weekends. Cindy and Anna, his co-workers, discuss this. Cindy says: "I wonder why David works so hard. I am not sure the money he gets is worth it." Anna replies: "Maybe, but I think he really needs it. <u>Doesn't he pay the rent or the mortgage?</u>"</p>					
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1 2 3 4 5

<p>10. Jane is talking to Mary about her son Victor who is in Europe for summer school. Jane complains that Victor sent her only a postcard, but not a letter, which he promised to do. Mary obviously misunderstands and says: "Well, you got a card and a letter, so why are you complaining?" Jane corrects her: "No, he didn't send both." Mary asks: "So, <u>didn't he send the card or the letter?</u>"</p>					
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1 2 3 4 5

<p>11. Sally is in a restaurant and her tea has just arrived. She tastes it and notices that it is sweet. Since she suffers from diabetes, she can only have the sweetener but not sugar, so she asks the waiter: "Excuse me, <u>does the tea contain sweetener or sugar?</u>"</p>					
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1 2 3 4 5

<p>12. Laura is a student in college. She is doing research for a school project and needs to read lots of stuff. She goes to the public library in town and asks the librarian: "Excuse me, I am looking for an article but can't find it. <u>Doesn't this library have journals or magazines?</u>"</p>					
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1 2 3 4 5

<p>13. Mary loves learning languages of the Baltics and she has taken a course in almost all of them. It is Mary's birthday next week and her friend Wendy wants to give her a gift certificate for a language course. She knows that there is one language that Mary hasn't taken a course in, but she cannot remember if it is Russian or Finnish. So, she calls Mary's mother, tells her about her birthday present plans and asks: "I need your help on this one. <u>Did Mary not learn Russian or Finnish?</u>"</p>					
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1 2 3 4 5

<p>14. Boss: "Did you see Vincent in the morning? He is late again." Colleague: "No sir, he hasn't arrived yet. He walks to work every day." Boss: "Oh my God! <u>Does he not own a car or a bicycle?</u>"</p>					
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1 2 3 4 5

<p>15. Carla has two sons, who tend to make a lot of noise. She knows that people downstairs have a small baby and an old grandmother and she wants to make sure that her children don't disturb either of them. So, she calls her downstairs neighbor and says: "I'm really sorry about the noise. <u>Do the children disturb your baby or your grandmother?</u>"</p>					
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APPENDIX F: SYNTAX-PRAGMATICS GJT

Please read each sentence carefully and decide whether it is grammatical or not. Then put a tick (✓) in the appropriate box on the right.	Grammatical	Ungrammatical
1) It is Jane whom we met on holiday in Italy.		
2) Young children feed cats with milk mostly.		
3) The stains were removed from the shirt by the housekeeper.		
4) Her boss' the description of shoes was irritating.		
5) It was milk that I forgot to buy for breakfast.		
6) It was a book on vacation that I read about animals.		
7) This town I like that are located around.		
8) The best dancer is in this dancing school Sally.		
9) A pair of shoes was bought by Sally and Susan.		
10) She brought the vegetables to cook.		
11) A key was used to open the box by Mark.		
12) It is her way of manners that towards children upsets me.		
13) David Jane met at the party and Mary.		
14) Mary went to Rome those shoes where she bought.		
15) It was Monica's sister who studied English in South London.		
16) It was his family to whom Mary cooked all a delicious meal.		

17) Leonard bought his wife a ring for their anniversary.		
18) The project should be carry out carefully.		
19) It was Ana who started the fight between the best friends.		
20) It is my brother David whom we are looking for.		
Please read each sentence carefully and decide whether it is grammatical or not. Then put a tick (✓) in the appropriate box on the right.	Grammatical	Ungrammatical
21) The radio on the coffee table broke by the cat.		
22) I couldn't move the table because it is too heavy.		
23) The techniques used in advanced academic writing could be sum up in three different ways.		
24) It was his best friend Susan whom he talked about.		
25) It was Carol to whom the children gave a birthday present.		
26) Jack crashed into a red car on the street.		
27) The vase dropped by the child.		
28) It was rained this morning for 3 hours.		
29) Paper a piece of was torn.		
30) The tree was hit with a stick by Jane.		
31) The cheapest clothes on sale Shirts are in this shop.		
32) The letters are always mailed by Mary.		
33) It was to his girlfriend lies that Gerald told last month.		
34) He convinces his mother to make cake.		
35) The acceptance requirements to job applications could change by the committee.		

36) Mary defended her thesis in January before she got married.		
37) A large sized picture was painted by Bob.		
38) It was the results that he was waiting for of the exam.		
39) Week at school was learnt abstract numbers this.		
40) It was her that Sheldon's girlfriend is looking after the girl.		
Please read each sentence carefully and decide whether it is grammatical or not. Then put a tick (✓) in the appropriate box on the right.	Grammatical	Ungrammatical
41) All the pizza was eaten by the boys.		
42) It was the vase which I put it in the kitchen.		

APPENDIX G: SYNTAX-PRAGMATICS FELICITOUSNESS TASK

<p>Read the questions in bold and the three sentences below it. For each sentence decide how appropriate it is as the answer to the Wh- question. Mark your choice on the right of each answer by placing a tick (✓) in the appropriate box (very appropriate, appropriate, moderately appropriate, little appropriate, not appropriate). All the sentences are grammatical, but they may differ in how well they answer the question.</p>					
1) Who went to the cinema with Sue yesterday?	1	2	3	4	5
A) It was John that went to the cinema with Sue yesterday.					
B) It was Sue that went to the cinema with John yesterday.					
C) It was the cinema that John went to with Sue yesterday.					
2) Who will John ask for information about the course schedules?	1	2	3	4	5
A) It is the course schedules that John will ask for information about.					
B) It is Sue that John will ask for information about the course					

schedules.					
C) It is John that will ask Sue for information about the course schedules.					
3) To whom did your sister send her recommendation letter?	1	2	3	4	5
A) It is my sister that sent her recommendation letter to John.					
B) It is John that my sister sent her recommendation letter to.					
C) It is my sister's recommendation letter that she sent to John.					
4) Who cooked the pasta for Sue in the kitchen?	1	2	3	4	5
A) It was the pasta that John cooked for Sue in the kitchen.					
B) It was John that cooked the pasta for Sue in the kitchen.					

C) It was Sue that John cooked the pasta for in the kitchen.					
5) What does Mary put in her special soup?	1	2	3	4	5
A) It is some spices that Mary puts in her special soup.					
C) It is her special soup that Mary puts some spices in.					
D) It is Mary that puts some spices in her special soup.					
6) Which textbook did the instructor use in the linguistics course last term?	1	2	3	4	5
A) It is the instructor that used <i>Introduction to Linguistics</i> in the linguistics course last term.					
B) It is <i>Introduction to Linguistics</i> that the instructor used in the linguistics course last term.					
C) It is last term that the instructor used <i>Introduction to</i>					

<i>Linguistics</i> in the linguistics course.					
7) What did Sue buy from the supermarket on Tuesday?	1	2	3	4	5
A) It was Sue that bought some fruit from the supermarket on Tuesday.					
B) It was some fruit that Sue bought from the supermarket on Tuesday.					
C) It was on Tuesday that Sue bought some fruit from the supermarket.					
8) Who met Sue at the conference?	1	2	3	4	5
A) It was Sue that John met at the conference.					
B) It was John that met Sue at the conference.					
C) It was at the conference that John met Sue.					

9) To whom did Bob buy a watch last year?	1	2	3	4	5
A) It was Mary that Bob bought a watch for last year.					
B) It was a watch that Bob bought for Mary last year.					
C) It was last year that Bob bought a watch for Mary.					
10) For whom did grandma baked a cake yesterday?	1	2	3	4	5
A) It was grandma that baked a cake for children yesterday.					
B) It was the children that grandma baked a cake for yesterday.					
C) It was yesterday that grandma baked a cake for children.					

APPENDIX H: TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enformatik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>

YAZARIN

Soyadı : EREN GEZEN

Adı : Emine

Bölümü : İngiliz Dili Öğretimi

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : A Postcolonial Narratological Study of Silence in Abdulrazak Gurnah's *Admiring Silence* and *By the Sea*

TEZİN TÜRÜ: Yüksek Lisans Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
3. Tezimden bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz.

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: