

**T.C.
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SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
İNGİLİZ DİLİ VE EDEBİYATI ANABİLİMDALİ
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**ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH ARTICLES BY TURKISH CHILD
FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS**

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**Hazırlayan
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**Tez Danışmanı
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T.C.
İSTANBUL AYDIN ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

Yüksek Lisans Tez Onay Belgesi

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ABBREVIATIONS

*	ungrammatical construction
1	1st person
3	3rd person
ABL	ablative
ACC	accusative
ACP	Article Choice Parameter
AOR	aorist
ARG	argument
CAUS	causative
CONT	continuous
COUNT	countable
DAT	dative
DEF	definiteness
DP	determiner phrase
ELF	English as a foreign language
ENUM	numeral
ESL	English as a second language
GEN	genitive
HK	Hearer Knowledge
IKW	Ionin, Ko and Wexler
L1	native language
L2	first foreign language
L3	second foreign language
L4	additional languages
L5	additional languages
LOC	locative
NEG	negative
NOM	nominative
NP	noun phrase

Ø	null article
PASS	passive
PAST	past tense
PL	plural
POSS	possessive
PRED	predicate
PRES	present tense
PROG	progressive
REL	relative pronoun
S	singular
SG	singular
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SOV	subject object verb
SPEC	specificity
SR	Speaker Referent
TLA	Third Language Acquisition
UG	Universal Grammar
VP	verb position
ZDJ	Zentral Deutsch Jugend (Goethe B1 test)
IDS	Indefinite; Specific
IDNONS	Indefinite; Non-specific
DS	Definite; Specific
DNONS	Definite; Non-specific
M	Mean
SD	Standard Deviation

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CHAPTER1

INTRODUCTION

Acquisition of articles in English is a complex phenomenon not only for native (L1) speakers but also for second (L2) language learners. It also poses a challenge for third (L3) language learners of English. It has been the focus of many researchers in L2 acquisition research for many years. The fact that native (L1) speakers of languages which have no articles or other morphological markers for definiteness, must first establish two aspects when learning a second language with articles; the distributional properties of articles, (where they can be used, where they must be used and where none are required); and the semantic or pragmatic properties of articles (what these articles mean in the context of the utterance) (Jaensch, 2008) attracted the attention of researchers on both, syntactical and semantic matters in article acquisition.

Most studies on acquisition of English articles in child L1 and L2 (e.g., Brown, 1973; Cziko, 1986; Maratsos, 1976; Schaeffer & Matthewson, 2005; Warden, 1976) have found that children overuse the definite article *the* in [-definite; +specific] contexts. There have been various attempts in the light of Piaget's (1926) egocentricity term to account for the children's overuse as maturational/pragmatic issues (Maratsos, 1976; Warden 1976) or the lack of the concept of Non-Shared Assumption (Schaeffer & Matthewson, 2005) which assumes that children ignore hearer's knowledge of a referent.

Other early research on the acquisition of articles in the 1980s also concentrated on the distributional properties of articles and morphosyntactical matters (Brown, 1973; Cziko, 1986; Maratsos, 1976; Warden, 1976; Chierchia, 1998; Huebner, 1985; Thomas, 1989 among many others). Celce-Murcia and Larsen- Freeman (1999) put importance on the classification of the English noun system and the distribution of the articles *a*, *the* and *null articles* accordingly depending on the various numbers of nouns. Others went beyond this and stressed the value of discourse related

references determining the definiteness of NPs (Bickerton, 1981; Lyons, 1999; among others). In this context, Bickerton's binary semantic system (1981) was the first proposal which grouped the English articles into four contexts depending on two semantics parameters, referentiality and definiteness of an NP. This system was further investigated and developed by various other researchers (Cziko, 1986; Hueber, 1983; Leung, 2005; Maratsos, 1974 & 1976; Parrish, 1987; Thomas, 1989; Warden, 1976) sharing similar findings that learners of L2 English overused the definite article 'the' in contexts in which the indefinite article 'a' was required. In opposition, Leung (2001) however in similar studies found an overuse of the indefinite article 'a' in definite contexts. Thus, contrary to this maturational / pragmatic view, some child and adult L2 studies suggest that the problem is linguistic in nature, causing fluctuation between specificity and definiteness features (Ionin, 2003; Ionin et al 2004)

Other more current studies especially in second language (L2) learning address the issue of article semantics and cross – linguistic transfer within the framework of Universal Grammar (UG), which is assumed to constrain the developmental patterns in article use in L2 grammar (Ionin et al, 2004; Ionin et al, 2008; Hawkins, 2006; Lardiere, 2004). Ionin et al's (2004) investigations on article semantics helped constitute the Article Choice Parameter which suggests that article use is regulated by a semantic parameter in UG. This parameter is built on two settings for article choice, the definiteness setting and the specificity setting, which accounts cross-linguistically in some ways in all languages. More specifically, Ionin et al (2004) suggest that languages with two articles encode their articles either on the basis of the definiteness setting (like in English) or the specificity setting (like in Samoan). In this context, for Ionin et al. (2004: 5) definiteness refers to "...If a Determiner Phrase (DP) of the form [D NP] is ... [+definite], then the speaker and the hearer presuppose the existence of a unique individual in the set denoted by the NP..." Specificity on the other hand refers to "...If a Determiner Phrase (DP) of the form [D NP] is ... [+specific], then the speaker intends to refer to unique individual in the set denoted by the NP and

considers this individual to possess some noteworthy property ...” (Ionin et al, 2004: 5)

With reference to the Article Choice Parameter and to control for L1 transfer effects Ionin et al (2004) investigated the acquisition of the English articles in L2 by adult L1 Russian and L1 Korean speakers (both languages without articles). Results showed a misuse of the indefinite article in definite – non-specific contexts and the definite article ‘the’ in indefinite-specific contexts. Ionin et al (2004) proposed the Fluctuation Hypothesis to account for the error patterns in the article use in L2 English which actually derived from the Article Choice Parameter (Ionin et al, 2004). The Fluctuation Hypothesis suggests:

- a. L2 learners have full access to UG principles and parameter-settings.
- b. L2 learners fluctuate between different parameter-settings until the input leads them to set the parameter to the appropriate value.

(adopted from Ionin et al, 2004: 17)

The Fluctuation Hypothesis (FH) was widely tested by various researchers (Ionin, Zubizarreta and Maldonado, 2008; Hawkins et al., 2006; Lardiere, 2004; among others). Ionin, Zubizarreta and Maldonado (2008) further tested the Fluctuation Hypothesis (FH) in the presence of possible L1 transfer effects and investigated the acquisition of the English articles by L2 learners with L1 Spanish and L1 Russian speakers (Spanish is a language with articles based on the definiteness setting, whereas Russian is a language without articles). Ionin et al (2008) proposed that the results of the L1 Spanish group showed evidence for transfer from L1 Spanish to L2 English due to the L1 Spanish speakers’ ability to transfer L1 knowledge positively to L2 English. L1 Russian speakers, however, regarding the Universal Grammar access fluctuated between the specificity and definiteness settings of the Article Choice Parameter. As a result Ionin et al

(2008) concentrated on three variables influencing the acquisition of the English articles which are L1 transfer, L2 input and UG.

A comparatively new field of third language (L3) acquisition of article systems also investigates the issue of transfer effects. In a study, Leung (2005) tested a group of adult Cantonese speakers with L2 English and a group of L1 Vietnamese learners on article choice in French. Cantonese and Vietnamese are languages without articles while English and French are typologically similar languages and have overt article systems basing article choice on the definiteness setting. Results led to the conclusion that L2 English had a positive effect on the acquisition of L3 French. In another study, Jaensch (2008) also tested the issue of L2 English influence on the L3 German article acquisition by L1 Japanese speakers. English and German are typologically similar languages and have an overt article system basing article choice on the definiteness setting. The main result offered evidence for positive influence of L2 English on L3 German.

Studies on the influence of L2 on the acquisition in a third language were conducted on adults rather than children and findings may not be compatible with children. The interesting question of the present study is to test the influence of L2 on L3 in children in the initial stage of acquisition. For that reason this study examines whether there is a positive transfer from second language (L2) German to third language (L3) English during initial stage of acquisition of the article system in L3 English by Turkish child learners. The fact that Turkish does not have identical surface structures marking definiteness (Kornfilt, 1997) and that German and English overtly realize and share the semantic conceptualization of articles (Lyons, 1999; Jaensch, 2008) provides an ideal testing case for this study. In addition, with reference to the Fluctuation Hypothesis (Ionin et al, 2004) this study also tests whether Turkish child learners of L2 English fluctuate between the two settings of the Article Choice Parameter, the definiteness setting and the specificity setting, in the initial stage of article acquisition for the reason that Turkish does not have an article system in the way English does. In order to determine fluctuation Turkish learners are expected to fluctuate between the

specificity setting and definiteness setting in their article choice in indefinite – specific (IDS) contexts and definite – nonspecific (IDNONS) as the Fluctuation Hypothesis (Ionin et al, 2004) suggests.

Thus, for examining the issue of L2 German influence on L3 English and the issue whether L2 English learners fluctuate, Turkish child learners of L2 German and L2 English are included in this study. There are also 10 native speakers of English who serve as a control group. Hereby, the focus of attention is the L2 German and L2 English learners' appropriate article choice in four article contexts (indefinite – specific (IDS) contexts; indefinite – non-specific (IDNONS); definite – specific (DS); and definite – nonspecific (IDNONS)) in a forced – choice elicitation task and supply of appropriate articles in a written production task in English both adapted from Ionin et al (2004).

Having participants from the same age groups between 11 and 12 will control for the age factor and offer comparable data considering the participants' L2 proficiencies. Testing participants on four article contexts will help determine fluctuation by L2 English learners. Having L2 German and L2 English learners will make it possible to compare results and identify the influence of L2 German on L3 English. Including native speakers of English will help determine the differences in article choice among all groups. Two different written tasks are included to obtain data for article use in controlled and in naturalistic language production.

In order to obtain results the stress of this study has been put on two research questions inspired by Jaensch (2008):

1. With reference to the L2 effect; do the different levels, elementary (A1) and pre-intermediate (B1), of L2 German proficiency have a positive effect on the child learners' judgment of articles in the L3 in the initial stage? In particular, will child learners of equal English (A1) but a higher German proficiency (B1) outperform those with lower German proficiency (A1)?

Since German and English are similar in overtly realizing both articles, the definite and indefinite articles, and sharing the same semantic conceptualization, it is expected that L2 German will have a positive effect on these learners' judgment of articles in the L3 English. In addition, for the reason that L3 learners of English have previously experienced German as an L2 and L2 German learners with higher proficiency (B1) have higher awareness towards the feature of definiteness, it is also expected that the learners with lower L3 English proficiency (A1) but higher L2 German proficiency (B1) will outperform the learners with equal (A1) English and German proficiency in the forced – choice elicitation task and the written production task.

2. Considering the Fluctuation Hypothesis; do the child learners of L2 English whose native language is Turkish fluctuate between the two settings of the Article Choice Parameter, definiteness and specificity, in the initial stage?

With reference to the second research question it is expected that the L2 English learners fluctuate between the two settings of the Article Choice Parameter, the definiteness setting and the specificity setting (Ionin et al, 2004) in both task types, the forced – choice elicitation task as well as the written production task for the reason that the article system in Turkish does not correspond to the article system in English.

The overall results of both tasks (the forced – choice elicitation task and the written production task) showed that the indefinite – specific contexts (IDS) were significantly the most difficult article contexts compared to the remaining three other contexts (indefinite – non-specific, definite – specific, definite – non-specific) for all tested groups. The results also showed that L2 German learners were more accurate than L2 English learners in the four article context types (indefinite – specific, indefinite – non-specific, definite – specific, definite – non-specific) which were examined in this study. They also showed that the L2 German learners with an A1 Level in L3 English but a B1

level in German performed significantly better than the L2 German learners with an equal English and German proficiency level of A1 in both task types. Lastly, data results also demonstrated that the performances of the L2 English learners were not significantly different on context type with low accuracy rates. These findings will be discussed within the transfer view of L2 effects and with reference to the Fluctuation Hypothesis by Ionin et al (2004).

The rest of the study is organized as follows: Chapter 2 offers a detailed presentation of the syntactical background of articles in Turkish, German and English. Chapter 3 gives an overview of literature on transfer and previous studies on the acquisition of the English article system. Chapter 4 presents methodology of this study, including research questions, subjects, materials, procedure of the study. Chapter 5 reports accuracy results of the four article contexts (indefinite – specific, indefinite – non-specific, definite – specific and definite – non-specific) presented in a forced – choice elicitation task and a written production task. Chapter 6 presents the discussion of the results of the conducted tests, conclusion, implications, and limitations of this study.

CHAPTER 2

SYNTACTICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Languages differ from each other on the basis of the presence of the article system and their discourse related different features. Thus, there have been ways of classifying them into categories as suggested by Juvonen (2000); Chierchia (1998); Bickerton (1981) and Ionin et al (2004). The three languages in this section, Turkish, German and English, therefore, can also be distinguished on this basis in how they encode articles.

Along with Juvonen (2000: 14), who proposed a categorization of the languages with respect to their definiteness setting, states that there are four types of languages: (1) some languages only have the category of definite articles; (2) other languages only have the category of indefinite articles; (3) some other languages have the categories of both, definite and indefinite articles; (4) and there are some other languages with neither articles. With reference to Chierchia (1998) Nominal Mapping Parameter languages can be grouped into three depending on their [\pm arg, \pm pred] features similar to Juvonen (2004).

Taking Bickerton's (1981) binary semantic system into account article choice depends on two aspects; referentiality, whether or not an NP has a specific referent; and definiteness, whether the noun of the given context is already known or recognized by the hearer.

With regards to Ionin et al (2004) building on those previous studies assume in their Article Choice Parameter that languages use articles to encode either definiteness, whether or not the speaker and the hearer are familiar with the referent, or specificity, whether or not the speaker refers to a specific individual represented in his/ her mind.

In co-relation to Ionin et al. (2004) and all earlier studies it can be concluded that the two semantic settings of Universal Grammar, specificity

and definiteness, are actualized by all languages in a certain way. Lyons (1999: 52) supports by pointing out that "...The most fundamental cross-linguistic distinction relating to the articles is, of course, that between languages which have them and languages which do not. All languages have demonstratives and personal pronouns, which are perhaps inherently definite, so it could be claimed that the feature [\pm Def] is represented in some form in all languages..." Some languages might have a morphological determiner to represent those features whereas other might not. Those languages which have no overt morphological determiner can still realize those two settings through different ways such as word order, stress or even case markers (Chesterman, 1991:3).

German and English are languages that fall into the category of languages with realizing both article categories, the definite and indefinite articles. They both have overt determiners, the definite and indefinite article categories, to represent specificity and definiteness, whereas it seems to be important at this point to emphasize that the article choice of these two languages happen according to definiteness rather than specificity. Turkish, however, can be categorized as a language with the indefinite article category only. The different semantic conceptualizing of articles between these three languages, namely Turkish, German and English, offers an ideal setting to investigate about the influence of those languages on each other regarding the acquisition of the L3 English article system.

In order to gain more insights about the conceptualization of articles in these three languages a detailed description of the Turkish, German and English article system is offered in this chapter accompanied by examples from each language.

2.2. TURKISH

2.2.1. Introduction

The Turkish language is a member of the Turkic language group and belongs to the larger Altaic family. It is an agglutinative language, which means that endings are added one by one to the root of a word to produce the desired meaning. In addition, it is a left-branching language and thus a language with a head final position. In a syntactical framework, it is categorized as a SOV although the word order is flexible depending on pragmatic aspects (Erguvanlı, 1984; Koç, 1996). It is also a language which lacks an overt definite article but with the category of an (optional) indefinite articles (Goad & White, 2009). In addition, it is a language rich of nominal and verbal inflections (Erguvanlı, 1984) which have an important role in conveying tense, case and other morphological features through suffixes. Regarding nominal inflections there are five different cases in the Turkish language besides the nominative case. These are accusative, dative, locative, ablative and genitive. The following Table 1 illustrates the cases and case endings in the Turkish language:

Table 1. Cases and case endings in the Turkish language

ek / suffix	görevi/ function	değişik biçimleri/ other forms			örnek / example
		ince	kalın	açık	
		ünlüden seslemeden	ünlüden		
		sonra	sonra	sonra	
-ı	Belitme durumu (accusative)	-i, -ü ü	-ı, -u	-y-ı, -y-u -y-i, -y-u	ev-i, çanta-yı, okul-u, onu; gözü, sözü, konu-y- u
-a	Yönelme durumu (dative)	-e y-e	-a	-y-a, - -n-a, -	ev-e, okul-a, yuva-ya, ona, buna
		n-e			
-da	Kalma durumu (locative)	-de nde	-da	-nda, -	ev-de, okul-da, sokak-ta, onda, bunda
		-te (ç, f, h, k, p, s, ş, t' den sonra) (after ç, f, h, k, p, s, ş, t)	-ta		
-dan	Çıkma durumu (ablative)	-den nden	-dan	-ndan, -	ev-den, okul-dan, sokak-tan, Atatürk-ten
		-ten (ç, f, h, k, p, s, ş, t' den sonra) (after ç, f, h, k, p, s, ş, t)	-tan		
-in	Tamlayan durumu (genitive)	-in un, -ün ün	-in -un	-n-in, n- -n-in, -n-	ev-in önü, sinema-nın önü, okul-un arkası, Ali'nin çantası

(Adapted from Koç, 1996: 71)

Those case inflections have an important function in determining definiteness and specificity on an NP which will be explained later on.

Görgülü (2009:2) points out "...The interaction between case morphology and definiteness as well as specificity has been widely investigated in those languages such as Turkish where there is no overt

morphological determiner (i.e. no definite article) on a given NP. The earlier studies go back as old as Erguvanlı (1984) and Dede (1986) who discuss the function of accusative marking in Turkish and argue that it is one of the strategies to mark NPs as definite...”

Another way to realize a determiner in Turkish is the use of the cardinality/ numeral word ‘bir’ which resembles on one hand a numerical classification ‘one’ but on the other hand indefiniteness in the Turkish system (Kornfilt, 1997) and ‘a/ an’ can be treated as indirect equivalents in English. Lyon (1999:93) in that sense points out “...the indirect signaling of indefiniteness by a cardinality word is extremely widespread....and the numeral ‘one’ is found in many languages...Turkish ‘bir’...” is used in this sense. However, Lyons (1999) states that the free lexical item ‘bir’ is a quasi indefinite article for the reason that it functions only indirectly and resembles the numeral ‘one’. “... Turkish, in which the quasi-indefinite article is segmentally identical to the numeral ‘one’, with the form *bir* ...Turkish, also agrees with many other language in that, generally, no determiner is used with predicative indefinites. *Bir* is, however, usually included when a singular noun used predicatively is modified...” (Lyons, 1999: 96)

(1) Biz-im misafir-imiz yaman bir adam-dir.
 we GEN guest 1PL remarkable a man is
 ‘Our guest is a remarkable man.’

(Lyons, 1999: 96)

“...In general, *bir* is only used when the indefinite noun phrase refers to a particular entity, that is, when it is a specific indefinite....Where there is no specific referent (i.e. *I’m looking for a reliable car, where I do not have a particular car in mind*), or where the identity of the thing referred to is of no importance for the discourse, Turkish has the option of using the bare noun, without determiner, an without number marking...” (Lyons, 1999: 96)

Taking a further look to the form-related aspect of the NPs in Turkish involving the bare nouns and the quasi- indefinite article ‘bir’ helps

determining a classification for article environments. In Turkish, under the category of common nouns, countable nouns can occur with ‘bir’, but can also be bare:

(2)a. Ali mektup yaz-ıyor
 Ali letter write PROG
 Ali is writing letters/ a letter.

b. Ali bir mektup yaz-ıyor.
 Ali one letter write PROG
 Ali is writing a letter

(Erguvanlı, 1984: 23)

But at the same time, compared with English, Turkish countable nouns can be perceived as mass nouns:

(3)a. Birkaç kitap al-dı-m.
 A few book buy-PAST-1S
 ‘I bought a few books.’

b. Biraz kitap al-dı-m.
 A little book buy-PAST-1S
 *‘I bought a little book.’

(Tura, 1973: 90)

Uncountable nouns, under the category of common nouns, are used as bare nouns, but they can also occur with ‘bir’ in Turkish. Likewise, are abstract nouns:

(4) Para koltuğ-un alt-ı-na düş-müş.
 money couch-GEN bottom –POSS3DAT fall-PAST
 ‘The money has fallen under the couch’

(Erguvanlı, 1984: 27)

(5) a. Mobilya/bir mobilya

Ø furniture/*a furniture

b. Ödev/bir ödev

Ø homework/*a homework

c. Bilgi/bir bilgi

Ø information/*an information

(Yılmaz, 2006: 38)

(6) Anlaşmazlık/ Bir anlaşmazlık çöz-ül-dü.

Disagreement/ A disagreement solve-PASS-PAST

'The disagreement/A disagreement was solved.'

(Yılmaz, 2006: 39)

Considering the semantic aspect of article usage, the Turkish language realizes indefiniteness, when the NP is unfamiliar to the hearer and at the same time specific (see example above), when the referent is not specific and the speaker isn't referring to a particular entity or when the referent is not important and co-occurs with 'bir', which indirectly resembles 'a/an' or 'one' in English (Kornfilt, 1997).

On the other hand an NP in Turkish is definite, when the referent is known by the speaker and the hearer and is expressed through many ways.

2.2.2. Definiteness in Turkish

Turkish is a language that still marks definiteness although there is no overt morphological maker for it. Some ways to identify definiteness is through word order, stress, case markers, adjectival modifiers and other

aspects. In addition, using the (quasi-) indefinite article ‘bir’ is one way to mark an NP as indefinite besides others (Goad & White 2009).

2.2.2.1. Word order

Word order is just one of the above listed constituents to set definiteness in Turkish. The position of the NP in subject or preverbal position sets out to make a difference in the interpretation of the NP either as definite or indefinite.

2.2.2.1.1. NPs in subject position

A bare noun at the beginning of a sentence in the Turkish language, for example, is always identified as definite as Lyons (1999: 96) supports “...the restriction of sentence – initial position to topics in Turkish will ensure that a bare noun occurring initially is interpreted as definite, but in non – initial position ambiguity is possible...” unless the NP is marked with ‘bir’. This can be fully understood by the following examples by Lyons (1999) and Tura (1973):

(7) Yer-de çocuk yat-ıyor-du. (Ambiguous; Definite or indefinite)
 ground- LOC A child lie-PROG-PAST-3S
 ‘A/ The child was lying on the ground.’
 ‘Children were lying on the ground.’

(8) Yer-de bir çocuk yat-ıyor-du. (Indefinite)
 ground- LOC A child lie-PROG-PAST-3S
 ‘A child was lying on the ground.’

(Lyons, 1999: 96)

(9) Çocuk yer-de yat-ıyor-du. (Definite)

Child ground-LOC lie-PROG-PAST- 3S

'The child was lying on the ground.'

(10) Bir çocuk yer-de yat-ıyor-du. (Indefinite)

A child ground- LOC lie-PROG-PAST-3S

'A child was lying on the ground.'

(Tura, 1973: 102-103)

(11) Bir kitap arı-yor-um. (Indefinite)

a book look-for CONT 1SG

'I am looking for a book.'

(Lyons, 1999: 96)

In example (7) 'çocuk' has a non – initial position in the sentences and thus, can be interpreted either as definite or indefinite, whereas the non – initial positioned 'bir çocuk' in example (8) is restricted to indefinite reading. In comparison to examples (7) and (8), 'Çocuk' in example (9) has an initial position in the sentences and thus, is directly interpreted as definite, whereas 'Bir çocuk' in example (10) encodes indefiniteness as it is the same for 'Bir kitap' in example (11). The NP's in examples (8), (9) and (10) are marked with 'bir' and therefore, have an indefinite reading. Considering the examples (8) and (10) a further interpretation is possible. Even though these examples include similar words and parallel to the reading an indefinite interpretation, the word order implies more details. While the NP in pre-verbal position in example (8) identifies only indefiniteness or just determines a certain type *child*, the NP in sentence initial/ subject position in example (10), besides indefiniteness, also conveys another interpretation of determining that a certain child, which is partly definite to the speaker but not to the hearer.

Another set of similar examples is given by Tura (1973:102), in which the word order judges upon definiteness and indefiniteness:

(12)a. Mektup dün Ankara' – dan gel - di. (Initial position)

letter yesterday Ankara – ABL come –PAST
 ‘The letter came from Ankara yesterday.’ (Definite reading)

b. Ankara’ –dan dün mektup gel - di. (Preverbal position)
 Ankara –ABL yesterday letter come-PAST
 ‘A letter came from Ankara yesterday.’ (Indefinite reading)
 (Tura, 1973: 102)

In Example (12a) the bare NP ‘mektup’ has an initial/ subject position in the sentence and is definite, while the bare NP ‘mektup’ in (12b) has got a pre-verbal position and is identified as indefinite.

One last example is given by Göksel and Kerslake (2005: 384) regarding the same case of definite and indefinite reading:

(13) Bura –dan hırsız gir - miş. (Preverbal position)
 here – ABL burglars get in – PAST
 ‘A burglars got in through here. / Burglars got in through here.’
 (Indefinite reading)

(14) Hırsız bura – dan gir - miş. (Initial position)
 burglars here- ABL enter – PAST
 ‘The burglars got in through here.’ (Definite reading)
 (Göksel and Kerslake, 2005:384)

2.2.2.1.2. NP s in object position

The first case is an example of indefiniteness in object NP position and reaffirms that ‘bir’ added to the NP has an indefinite reading like in example (8) in subject NP:

(15)Müdür bir araba iste-di. (Indefinite)

President a car ask for-PAST-1S
 'The President asked for a car.'

(Tura, 1973:123)

Even NPs in object position can differ in their definiteness depending on various aspects. The following example is just one case of how the position of the function word 'bir' can have a determining influence. With the given example it is shown that, if 'bir' follows an adjectival modifier, it is interpreted as indefinite:

(16) a. bir çürük elma (Numeral)
 one rotten apple
 'one rotten apple'

b. çürük *bir* elma (Indefinite reading)
 rotten an apple
 'a rotten apple'

(Kornfilt, 1997: 275)

To clarify, in example (16b) 'bir' follows the adjectival modifier and is interpreted as indefinite, but example (16a) shows that, if 'bir' is followed by the adjectival modifier as it is here 'çürük'; it takes the role of the numeral and is representing 'one' rotten apple. The next example illustrates the same context:

(17) a. Sınıf – ta güzel bir kız var. (Indefinite reading)
 class –LOC beautiful one girl there is
 'There is a beautiful girl in the class.'

b. Sınıf – ta bir güzel kız var. (Numeral)
 class-LOC one beautiful girl there is.
 'There is one beautiful girl in the class.'

(Johanson and Csato, 1998: 218)

To clarify, in example (17a) 'bir' follows the adjectival modifier and is interpreted as indefinite, but example (17b) shows once again that, if 'bir' is followed by the adjectival modifier as it is here 'güzel'; it takes the role of the numeral and is representing 'one'.

Not only is the position of the function word 'bir' significant in identifying definiteness, but also other aspects as the general position of the object NP within the sentence structure and case makers or inflections.

If the object NP has an accusative case marker, then it is to be interpreted as definite (Erguvanlı, 1984; Tura, 1973). On the other hand, if the object NP is bare, that means the NP is unmarked, then it has an indefinite reading as mentioned in the earlier part of this chapter (see NPs in Subject position). Görgülü (2009: 2) puts together "...The earlier studies go back as old as Erguvanlı (1984) and Dede (1986) who discuss the function of accusative marking in Turkish and argue that it is one of the strategies to mark NPs as definite..." and the following examples by Tura (1973: 123) illustrate this comprehensively:

(18) Müdür araba -y - ı iste- di. (Definite; case-marked)
 president car -ACC ask for -PAST
 'The president asked for *the* car.'

(19) Müdür araba iste - di. (Indefinite; bare)
 president car ask for -PAST
 'The president asked for *a* car.'

(Tura, 1973:123)

In the first example (18) the object NP is case-marked as 'araba -y - ı', and is definite since it is specific and thus familiar to both speaker and hearer, whereas in the second example (19) it is a bare object NP and is indefinite for it doesn't refer to a specific entity.

If the object NP appears with 'bir' in a preverbal position in Turkish, it is indefinite as in the example (17) 'güzel bir kız':

- (20) Çekmece-de bir defter bul-du-k. (Indefinite; preverbal)
 Drawer-LOC a notebook find-PAST-1PL
 'We found a notebook in the drawer.'
 (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005:373)

In this example (20) the NP is indefinite and introduces a new entity unfamiliar to the speaker as well as to the hearer.

The object NP realized in plural has an indefinite reading as well:

- (21) Çekmece-de defter-ler bul-du-k. (Plural; preverbal)
 Drawer- LOC notebook-PL find-PAST-1PL
 'We found notebooks in the drawer.'
 (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005:373)

In this example (21) the NP including a plural suffix has a preverbal position and is interpreted as indefinite since it refers to a newly introduced entity.

Furthermore, an object NP that is accompanied by a cardinality word is also indefinite:

- (22) Çekmece-de dört (tane) defter bul-du-k. (Cardinality word)
 Drawer-LOC four ENUM notebook find-PAST-1PL
 'We found four notebooks in the drawer.'
 (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005:373)

Another important point is, that case-marked NPs are not limited to a preverbal position they can also be placed in sentence initial position in comparison to bare object NPs that have a preverbal restriction only (Aygen-

Tosun, 1999; Erguvanlı, 1984; Göksel & Kerslake, 2005; Ketrez, 2005; Tura, 1973). As Aygen-Tosun (1999:1) points out "...The structure in [example (23) Ben belki kitap okurum.] is a case of noun incorporation (NI) or bare DP is situ. The ungrammaticality of [(24) *Ben kitap belki okurum] indicates that indefinite object DPs cannot appear in a VP- external position...":

(23) a. Ben belki kitap oku-r-um. (Grammatical; bare)

I maybe book read-AOR-1S

'I may read/do book reading.'

b. *Ben kitap belki okur-um. (Ungrammatical; bare)

I book maybe read-AOR-1S

(Aygen-Tosun, 1999:1)

Case-marked NPs in Turkish can appear in both, initial sentence position and preverbal position, as Aygen-Tosun supports (1999: 2) "...the definite DP is outside its VP-internal position..."

(23) c. Ben belki kitab-ı oku-r-um. (Preverbal)

I maybe book-ACC read- AOR-1S AGR

'Maybe I read the book.'

d. Ben kitab-ı belki oku-r-um. (Initial position)

I book-ACC maybe read-AOR-1S

'I may read the book.'

(Aygen-Tosun, 1999:1)

In addition, there are some other cases where the NP is naturally definite. Görgülü (2009: 2) defines and identifies them "...There are certain classes of NPs that are naturally definite. For example, proper names of people, places and institutions, most pronouns, pronominal..." quantifiers

that occur as objects and some others like object NP co-occurring with demonstratives and wh-words (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005; Kornfilt, 1997):

(24) Zeynep Ali-yi / on-u/adam-ı gör-dü (Proper name/ pronoun/ noun)
 Zeynep-NOM Ali-ACC he-ACC man-ACC see-PAST
 ‘Zeynep saw Ali/him/the man.’

(25) Zeynep *Ali / *o / *adam gör-dü. (Proper name/ pronoun/ noun)
 Zeynep-NOM Ali / he / man see-PAST
 Intended reading: ‘Zeynep saw Ali/ him/the man.’

(Görgülü, 2009: 2)

Görgülü (2009: 2) “...In (24) the proper name, the pronoun and the accusative marked NP respectively refer to definite descriptions and require overt case marking. Their non-accusative marked counterparts, on the other hand, are not grammatical as shown in (25)...”

(26) Ömer herkes-i/ *herkes sinirlen-dir-di. (Pronominal quantifier)
 Ömer everyone-ACC/*everyone get angry-CAUS-PAST-3S
 ‘Ömer got on everyone’s nerves.’

(Göksel & Kerslake, 2005:371-372)

(27) Bu pasta-yı/ *bu pasta beğen-me-di-m. (Demonstrative)
 This cake-ACC/ *this cake like-NEG-PAST-1SG
 ‘I didn’t like this cake.’

(Kornfilt, 1997:313)

To sum up, the definiteness of a subject or object NP depends on the realization of the given context and various above mentioned aspects. The familiarity of both, the speaker and the hearer contribute to the utterance.

2.2.2.2. Word stress

We have seen that word order plays a significant role in determining definiteness on an NP in Turkish. Word stress is another way to encode definiteness in Turkish. Erguvanlı (1984: 23) claims that ‘bir’ also identifies indefiniteness when this word is unstressed independent from the NP by stating “...the numeral bir ‘one’ functions as an indefinite article when it is not stressed...”:

(28) Bir adam gel – di. (Indefinite)

one man come –PAST

‘A man came’

(29) Bir¹ adam gel - di. (Definite, Number)

one man come –PAST

‘One man came.’

(Erguvanlı, 1984: 23)

In example (28) the NP is marked with ‘bir’ and has a neutral stress; therefore, it can be interpreted as indefinite because the entity is unfamiliar to both speaker and hearer, whereas, example (29) identical with example (28) but carrying a stress on ‘bir’ identifies one specific man in number.

Taking a further look on the sentence stress some more examples can be given, that have a distinguishing role on the definiteness of the NP in the sentence. Kerlake and Göksel (2005: 385) state that in short sentences, if the stress is put on the verb, the NP is identified as definite but, if the stress is on the NP, the NP is interpreted as indefinite including plural NPs.

(30) a. Çocuk ağl-ıyor. (Definite; verb-stress)

Child cry-PROG-3S

¹ underscoring represents word stress

'The child is crying.'

b. Çocuk ağl-ıyor. (Indefinite; noun-stress)

Child cry-PROG-3S

'There is (some) child-crying.'

c. Bir çocuk ağl-ıyor. (Indefinite; noun-stress)

A child cry-PROG-3S

'There is a child crying.'

'What is crying is a child.'

d. Bir çocuk ağl-ıyor. (Verb-stress)

A child cry-PROG-3S

'A child is crying.'

'A certain child is crying.'

(Tura, 1973:99-100)

The verb stress in example (30a) causes 'Çocuk' in initial position to be interpreted as definite as discussed earlier. (30b), though, with the stress been put on the NP 'Çocuk' is described by Tura (1973: 100) as an utterance which may be the answer to the question 'What is this noise?' and because the NP is stressed specifies the type of *child* and not another being. The reading of example (30c) is, unlike example (29), indefinite since the child is unfamiliar to the speaker and hearer

The verb stress in example (30d) causes the reader to think that the speaker is already familiar with the child and thus, is definite to some extent (Tura, 1973: 102).

Agreeing on that, that the stress on the verb of the sentence causes a definite reading, Kerslake and Göksel (2005) additionally claim that an NP with plural suffixes is included to the same way of interpretation as well.

(31) Rapor-lar yaz –ıl- dı. (Indefinite; noun-stress)

Report- pl write-PASS- PAST

‘Reports were written.’

(32) Raporlar yaz – ıl- dı. (Definite; verb-stress)

Report-pl write-PASS- PAST

‘The reports were written.’

(Göksel and Kerlake, 2005: 385)

The first example (31) shows that if the stress is put on the plural suffix of the NP, then the NP is interpreted as indefinite, but if the stress is put on the verb inflection, it is definite like in example (32).

2.2.2.3. Tense aspect modality

Another aspect that has an important role on the definiteness of an NP is the tense applied on the verb. Kerlake and Göksel (2005) assert that the tense-aspect-modality determines the NP as generic when the verb appears with the aorist morpheme ‘– (a/ı) r/ - maz’ which has a general indefinite reading; and as definite when the verb appears with a perfective aspect marker ‘-dı/ -miş’ or a future aspect marker ‘-acak’ supported by the examples by Erguvanlı (1984: 27):

(33) Çocuk - lar çabuk yorul- du. (Definite; perfective)

child -PL fast get tired –PAST

‘The children got tired fast.’

(34) Çocuk - lar çabuk yorul- ur. (Indefinite; generic)

Child -PL fast get tired –AOR

‘Children get tired fast.’

(Erguvanlı, 1984:27)

2.2.3. Specificity in Turkish

Specificity in literature has got many different definitions but all deal with the referentiality of the mentioned entity. Ionin et al (2004: 1) confirm “...Although the term *specificity* has received multiple definitions in the literature, we use it ...in a very precise sense, *specificity as speaker intent to refer...*” Aygen- Tosun (1999: 2) further asserts “...Specificity presupposes the existence of a set of individuals; the set of individuals is discourse linked and refers to a previously mentioned set. This also means that both, the speaker and hearer, are involved in the discourse and have an immediate effect of the interpretation of the discourse.

Regarding specificity feature [-/+ specific] it can be stated that; if the NP is [+ specific], the given entity in a discourse is known by the speaker and the hearer; and if the NP is [- specific], it presupposes that the given entity in a discourse is neither familiar to the speaker nor to the hearer (Aygen- Tosun, 1999; Enç, 1991; Fodor & Sag, 1982)

As mentioned earlier the Turkish language does not have the same article system as German and English and therefore does not have any direct determiners to express definiteness as well specificity. Nevertheless, there are ways of conveying specificity in Turkish. Specificity in Turkish is expressed through the accusative case marking morpheme on the noun and the morpheme ‘bir’. Aygen- Tosun (1999: 2) supports “... Specificity is marked on object DPs with the quantifier *bir* and accusative marker. All definite DPs are specific ...Indefinite can be specific or non-specific. Specific object DPs occur with an accusative marker and may occur with weak determiners such as *bir/a* or *birkaç / a few...*” The following two examples by Aygen- Tosun (1999: 2) illustrate this more specifically:

- (35) a. Ben bir kitap oku-du-m. (Non –specific)
 I a book read-PAST-1S
 ‘I read a book.’

b. Ben bir kitab-ı oku-du-m. (Specific)

I a book-ACC read-PAST-1S

'I read one of the books.'

(Aygen-Tosun, 1999:2)

Besides both sentences have an indefinite interpretation, the object NP in the first example (35a) is non-specific and does not refer to a specific entity, whereas the object NP in the second example (35b) is specific and refers to one of the definite entities.

Likewise are the examples by Görgülü (2009: 4):

(36) a. Bugün bir avukat-ı gör-üyor-um (Specific)

today one lawyer-ACC see-PROG-1SG

'I am seeing a (particular) lawyer today.'

b. Bugün bir avukat gör-üyor-um (Non-specific)

today one lawyer see-PROG-1SG

'I am seeing a lawyer today (some lawyer or other).'

(Görgülü, 2009: 4)

As seen in the above object NP can have a specific or a non-specific reading and the example (36a) shows that specific object NP have an accusative marking. Without accusative marking the object NP becomes non-specific (36b). Görgülü (2009: 4) explains "...Turkish marks specific direct objects with accusative case marking. Without accusative marking, objects get a non-specific reading. In [(36a)] the NP *bir avukat -ı* 'a lawyer-ACC' gets a specific reading; while in [(36b)] the NP *bir avukat* 'a lawyer' is interpreted as non-specific..."

Enç (1991) argues that certain constructions in which NPs are accusative-marked always have a specific reading since the referent of specific NPs is presupposed as familiar in the discourse. As a consequence, all accusative marked NPs in Turkish are necessarily interpreted specific and

NPs without accusative marker are obligatorily non-specific. The following examples by Enç (1991: 6) illustrate this reading:

(37) Odam-a birkaç çocuk gir-di. (Specific)
 My room-DAT several child enter-PAST
 'Several children entered my room.'

(38) a. İki kız-ı tanı-yor-du-m. (Specific)
 two girl-ACC know-PROG-PAST-AGR
 'I knew two girls.'

b. İki kız tanı-yor-du-m. (Non- specific)
 two girl know-PROG-PAST-AGR
 'I knew two girls.'

(Enç, 1991: 6)

Kerslake and Göksel(2005: 375) further claim that the accusative case marker help to overcome ambiguous object NP interpretations , whether specific or non-specific, and provide a specific reading:

(39) Gürcistan folkloruyla ilgili bir kitap arı- yor- um.
 (Indefinite/Non-specific)
 Georgia folklore about one book look for-PROG-1SG
 'I am looking for a book about Georgian folklore.'

(40) Gürcistan folkloruyla ilgili bir kitab-ı arı- yor - um.
 (Indefinite/ Specific)
 Georgia folklore about one book-ACC look for-PROG-1SG
 'I am looking for a (particular) book about Georgian folklore.'

(Göksel and Kerslake, 2005: 375)

Similarly, the presence of the ablative case marking on an object NP has a definite and specific reading. Its absence results in an ungrammatical utterance. The presence of the genitive case marking on an object NP has a definite and specific reading as well. In the following examples it can be observed that ablative and genitive cases have an impact on determining definiteness and specificity:

- (41) Ali köpek-ten/*köpek kork-tu.(Ablative)
 Ali dog-ABL/ *dog get/be afraid-PAST-3S
 'Ali got afraid of the dog.'

- (42) a. Kalem-in kutu-su (Genitive)
 pencil-GEN box-1S
 'the box of the pencil'

(Öztürk, 2008:417)

The absence of the genitive case maker in the same example results in a compound noun which has a non-specific reading in comparison to example (43a) which is specific:

- (43)a. Kalem-in kutu-su (Genitive; specific)
 pencil-GEN box-1S
 'the box of the pencil'

- b. Kalem kutu-su (Non-specific)
 pencil box-1S
 pencil box

(Öztürk, 2008: 417)

In some other genitive cases which express possessions like pronouns or proper names, the case marker cannot be omitted because

otherwise it would lead to ungrammaticality. Here are two examples including a pronoun and a proper name which have a definite- specific reading:

(44)a. Ben- im/* Ben kalem-im (Pronoun)

I-GEN/ * I pencil-1S

b. Ali-nin/ *Ali kalem-I (Proper name)

Ali-GEN/*Ali pencil-3S

(Öztürk, 2008:417)

In summary, considering all detailed descriptions and examples from literature in this field definiteness as well as specificity on NPs in the Turkish language can be expressed in different ways. The aspect of definiteness depends on the speaker and hearer of the discourse and their familiarity to the given entity. Subject NPs in sentence initial position and accusative case-marked object NPs are always interpreted as definite unless they are marked with the quasi indefinite article 'bir'. Non-marked accusative object NPs in each case are indefinite as well as accusative case-marked object NPs with the (quasi-) indefinite article.

The feature of specificity depends on the speaker's and hearer's familiarity of the given entity as well. An accusative case-marked object NP in general and an accusative case-marked object NP with a stressed indefinite article 'bir' in Turkish are specific, whereas a object NP without marking but accompanied with a stressed indefinite article 'bir' is non-specific.

2.3. GERMAN

2.3.1. Introduction

The German language is a member of the sub-family of Germanic in the category of Indo-Germanic language family. It is a right-branching language and has a head initial position. In a syntactical framework, it is categorized as basically SVO in main clauses although its word order changes depending on sub-ordinate clauses. It is a language which has an overt realization of definite articles and indefinite articles on nouns. The 'Duden' (2005: 288) identifies 'der, die, das' as 'definitiver Artikel' which is the counterpart for the definite article 'the' in English and 'ein, eine' as 'indefinitiver Artikel' which resembles the indefinite article 'a/ an' in English. Besides those articles the Loll (2007: 4) 'Duden' does not explicitly identify the null article as a separate class of articles, but only points out that the indefinite article in German 'ein' only occurs in singular and that some identify the null article as the result of the a plural substantive. The following sentences support this:

(45) Er hat einen Freund.– Er hat Freunde.

(Indefinite article – Null article)

he has a friend-ACC – he has friend -PL

'He has a friend. – He has friends. '

(Helbig & Buscha, 2005: 325)

Gerhard Helbig und Joachim Buscha (2005: 320ff.) identify the categories for German articles as definite (der), indefinite (ein) and the null article (\emptyset) (Helbig & Buscha, 2005: 32). Hereby, Helbig & Buscha (2005: 329) state that the definite, indefinite and the null article do not have a clear distinguishing meaning like various demonstrative pronouns, for example, *this*. Their use is dependent on different semantic, syntactic and discourse related aspects. One important step towards the form-related aspect is made by the noun classification which helps determining the use of articles. According to the German classification of nouns, all nouns appear to be either common nouns (das Mädchen-*girl*) or proper nouns (Hans- *a German name*). An additional division is made for common nouns which can be categorized as either concrete nouns which refer to perceptible entities like

individuals (das Kind – child), names of substances (die Milch – milk) or collective nouns (das Gepäck – luggage) or abstract nouns which are not perceptible entities like properties (die Klugheit – intelligence, wisdom), relations (die Ehe – marriage) states and processes (die Hoffnung – hope; die Arbeit – work) or mental things (die Physik- Physics; die Theorie – theory) (Helbig& Buscha, 2005: 206; Vater, 1979:48).

Taking a further look, concrete nouns in singular mostly appear with the definite and indefinite article in German and seldom are realized as bare nouns. Except for names of substances, since they do not have any plural realization they often co- occur with the null article or the definite article, whereas the indefinite article is seen only exceptionally. Abstract nouns have no plural forms and the distribution of the three articles is the same as for the names of substances (Helbig& Buscha, 2005: 207). Chesterman (1991: 129) illustrated the German article division as in the following Table 2:

Table 2. Division of German articles

	Non-divisible	Divisible	Divisible
	whole (sg.)	quantity (sg.)	quantity (pl.)
Indefinite	ein Auto	Wasser	Autos
Definite	das Auto	das Wasser	die Autos

(Adapted from Chesterman, 1991:129)

Besides, noun classification which has a preliminary role on article use, the specific properties of a noun itself have an equal amount of importance in applying the appropriate article in terms of genus and case which seems to be more complex in German compared to English. Since there has to be a total article- noun agreement with the reference noun, the noun has to be identified in number; whether singular or plural, case; whether it is a nominative, accusative, dative or genitive noun and genus; whether it is

masculine, feminine or neuter in order to apply the appropriate definite article in German. The other way around, the definite article helps determining the identification of entities as well (Höhne, 1994: 173).

Helbig& Buscha (2005: 324) point out that the distinction between the article stems and their inflections are important and add that the definite article's stem is 'd-'. There are six inflections assignable to the stem 'd' : +er, +es, +em, +en, +as, and +ie. Combinations of the articles and these articles perform to define genus in German where - in a non-traditional manner – the plural is identified as a German genus, and thus it will dispense with the notion of number. Hereby, Helbig& Buscha refers to the different cases in German including singular and plural forms as illustrated in the Table 3 adapted from Helbig& Buscha (2005: 324):

Table 3. Declination of German definite articles - article inflections

Case/ Genus	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
Nominative	d-er	d-as	d-ie	d-ie
Accusative	d-en	d-as	d-ie	d-ie
Dative	d-em	d-em	d-er	d-en
Genitive	d-es	d-es	d-er	d-er

(Adapted from Helbig& Buscha, 2005: 324)

Considering the distribution of the articles inflections it can be concluded that different genus; masculine, neuter, feminine, require different numbers of cases. The masculine genus reveals four different cases. The neuter genus and plural require three different article cases and the feminine genus needs two different article cases in total which are dependent on the nouns (Wilhelm, 2002: 4).

The indefinite article 'ein/-e' in German helps determining the indefiniteness of an entity. It must be totally agreeing with the genus and case of the noun (Höhne, 1994: 175) since there is no plural form of an indefinite article. Helbig& Buscha (2005: 325) state that the indefinite article

'ein/-e' representing 'a/an' in English does not have a plural form since it refers to singular items and that it is obligatorily replaced by the null article. Helbig& Buscha (2005: 325) illustrate this with the following example:

(46)Gib mir bitte ein / irgendein Buch! – Gib mir bitte irgendwelche Bücher!
 give me please a/ any book – give me please any books
 (Indefinite article / irgendein= any – any)
 ' Please give me a / any book! / Please give me any books*'
 (Helbig& Buscha, 2005: 325)

Lyons (1999:93) regarding the indefinite articles points out "...the indirect signaling of indefiniteness by a cardinality word is extremely widespread....and the numeral 'one' is found in many languages...German 'ein'..." is used in this sense. Lyons (1999: 96) also states that the indefinite article is a quasi-indefinite and this "...quasi-indefinite article is segmentally identical to the numeral 'one'. Wilhelm (2002: 4) supports in German "...der sog. indefinite Artikel ist mit dem Zahlwort für die Zahl 1 identisch. Im Deutschen hat er keine eigene Pluralform...".

(47) Er hat gestern **ein** Buch gekauft (Singular) (Indefinite article)
 he have-PRE-3SG yesterday a book buy-PP
 ' He bought a book yesterday.'
 Er hat gestern Bücher gekauft (Plural) (Null article)
 he have-PRE-3SG yesterday book-PL buy-PP
 ' He bought books yesterday.'
 (Wilhelm, 2002: 70)

The following Table 4 illustrates the declination of the German indefinite article:

Table 4. Declination of German indefinite articles - article inflections

Case/ Genus	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
Nominative	ein	ein	ein –e	--
Accusative	ein-en	ein	ein -e	--
Dative	ein-em	ein –em	ein -er	--
Genitive	ein -es	ein –es	ein -er	--

(Adapted from Höhne, 1994: 175)

Considering the distribution of the indefinite articles inflections it can be concluded that different genus, masculine, neuter, feminine, require different numbers of cases. The masculine genus reveals four separate cases. The neuter genus requires three different cases and the feminine genus two different article cases which are dependent on the nouns.

The null article in German functions in different ways. Partly, it is used to replace indefinite and definite articles in German, partly, it is obligatory due to some semantic reasons and partly, due to some specific syntactic constructions. Moreover, it is applied on proper nouns (in particular proper names and geographical names) as Helbig& Buscha (2005: 338) state the same in German “ Der Nullartikel wird in vielfältiger Weise verwendet. Teils dient er als Ersatzform für den unbestimmten oder bestimmten Artikel, teils ist er durch semantische Gruppierungen von Substantiven, teils durch bestimmte syntaktische Konstruktionen bedingt. Außerdem steht er bei Eigennamen(vor allem Personennamen und geographischen Namen)...“

Besides the form- based distribution of the articles in German a further point of importance is that German marks definiteness in its article system overtly which is supported by Lyons (1999:48) who states “... The greatest concentration of languages marking definiteness today is in Western Europe...”

2.3.2. Definiteness in German

German marks definiteness in its article system overtly. There are two forms to express definiteness. The definite article 'der, die, das' in German is used to express the [+definite] setting, whereas the indefinite article 'ein/-e' in German is used to express the [-definite] setting. Gerhard Helbig und Joachim Buscha(2005: 334) exemplify this:

(48)Dort steht ein Haus. Das Haus gehört meinem Freund.

There-LOC be-PRE-3SG a house. The house belong- PRE-3SG
my- DAT friend.

'There is a house. The house belongs to my friend.'

(Helbig& Busha, 2005: 334)

Gerhard Helbig und Joachim Buscha (2005: 334) further explain that the definite article is placed before a noun that has previously been mentioned and due to communicative features cannot be defined as new, but that represents an identified and familiar entity in the discourse. In this example(48) the entity 'Haus' is first mentioned and co-occurs with the indefinite article 'ein', but repeatedly mentioned in the second sentence it is used with the definite article 'das' since it is familiar to both, the speaker and the hearer.

Concerning definite NPs Hawkins (1978: 167) states referring to the speaker "...He (a) introduces a referent(or referents) to the hearer; and (b) instructs the hearer to locate the referent in some shared set of objects [...]; and he (c) refers to the totality of the objects or mass within this set which satisfy the referring expressions..."

In this example(48), all three presuppositions are fulfilled:

(a) the speaker introduces the entity 'Haus' resembling 'house' in English to the hearer.

(b) instructs the hearer to locate the referent overtly by using 'dort' resembling 'there' in English.

(c) refers to the totality of the 'Haus' within this discourse set which satisfy the referring expressions.

It can be concluded from above that the NP is definite when it has an unambiguous referent to both speaker and hearer, whereas the NP is indefinite when it has an unambiguous referent just for the speaker. The following example can illustrate this condition more explicitly:

(49) Ich bringe auf die Party morgen eine gute Freundin von mir mit, wenn es dir recht ist.

I take- FUT to the party tomorrow a good friend of mine, if it you okay be.

'I will take a good friend of mine with me to the party tomorrow, if it is okay for you.'

(Indefinite ; specific)

(Bisle-Müller, 1991: 39)

In this example (49) the speaker has got a specific friend in mind and the referent 'Freundin' is unambiguous since the entity is unfamiliar to the hearer. For that reason, here the indefinite article 'eine' is used accordingly. Hawkins (1978: 212) defines "...the speaker has a particular...referent in mind. The identity of this referent will generally be arbitrary for the hearer unless indentifiability can be guaranteed despite the indefiniteness of the reference..."

Leaning back to the first example (48) applying the definite article on an entity depending on its familiarity to the hearer, another important aspect concerning definite interpretation of NPs that is explained by Ionin et al.(2004: 7) "...Previous discourse is not always necessary for establishing uniqueness. In some cases, the uniqueness presupposition is satisfied as a result of mutual world knowledge...". Bisle-Müller (1991: 25) and Werner (1978: 234) support this view with their example:

(50) Wer ist der Präsident der USA?

who be-3SG the president the-GEN USA

'Who is the president of the USA?'

(Bisle-Müller, 1991:25)

(51) Ich kenne die neun bayrischen Städte.

I know-1SG the nine Bavaria-ACC city-PL

'I know the nine Bavarian cities.'

(Ottmar Werner, 1978: 234)

In the first example (50) the definite article 'der' is used due to the mutual world knowledge of both, the speaker and the hearer, since they are familiar to the knowledge that there is 'one' president of a country and this presupposition, hence, is that the 'USA' has one president only as well. In the second example (51) indicating the number of Bavarian cities has the presupposition that they are known and as a result the definite article 'die' is used.

2.3.3. Specificity in German

Donellan (1978: 214) claims "...that the intention to refer to something in using a definite description is a complex intention involving expectations regarding one's audience". It means that the speaker has to take the hearers expectation about the utterance into account while describing his or her thoughts. Concerning this Donellan (1978: 50) "... the presence or absence of speaker reference should be thought of as based on such intentions of the speaker towards his audience or lack of them – not on whether the speaker believes or does not believe about someone or something that he or it fits the description...". Regarding such references Hawkins (1978:212) has a clear distinction and defines specific and non-specific as "... In specific reading the speaker has a particular, included, referent in mind. The identity of this referent will generally be arbitrary for the hearer unless identifiability can be guaranteed despite the indefiniteness of the reference. In a non-specific

interpretation the identity of the included referent will be arbitrary for both speaker and hearer. Which of the potential referents is included and which is excluded is indeterminate...”

To sum up, when the speaker has a particular referent in his or her mind does not necessarily require the hearer’s identification of the entity and it can still be expressed as an indefinite NP within the discourse. When, on the other hand, the NP in the discourse cannot be identified by both, the speaker and the hearer, it has a non –specific interpretation since none of the participants of the discourse are familiar with the entity. A further explanation is made by Oomen (1977:97) that [+specific] does not mean that the speaker is not able to identify the entity, but the hearer. Rather, it means that at least the speaker, but also the hearer usually knows, that no arbitrary entity is meant, but a particular entity which is illustrated in the following examples:

(52)Er geht in die Kirche (Non – specific)
he go-3SG in the church-SG

vs. Er geht in die Kirche (am Moritzplatz) (Specific)
he go-3SG in the church-3SG

‘He goes to church vs. He goes to the church (at Moritz square).’

(Bisle-Müller, 1991: 64)

In the first part of the example (52) it can be determined that even though a definite article ‘die’ is placed before the NP ‘Kirche’ it has a non-specific reading because the speaker intends to express that ‘He goes to church’, whereas in the second part of the example (52) the speaker has a specific ‘church’ in mind which is located ‘am Moritzplatz’ and therefore it has a specific reading.

Another example of a non-specific reading is the following:

(53)Klaus hat eine Wohnung gemietet, aber ich weiß nicht wo.
(Non-specific)

Klaus have-3SG a-ACC flat rent-PP, but I know not where.
 'Klaus has rented a flat, but I don't know where.'

(Bisle-Müller, 1991: 64)

In this example (53) the speaker tells that 'Klaus' has rented an apartment, but cannot identify where it is. Thus, the sentence has a non-specific reading since both speaker and hearer cannot identify the entity of the discourse.

Furthermore, relative clauses in German have a determining role on the interpretation of an NP as well. Independent from the definiteness setting of their reference nouns in the main clause, they have an identifying effect on them. Relative clauses are introduced through the relative pronouns which are mostly morphologically similar to the definite articles in German. Lyons (1999:61) states "...The use of definite articles...to introduce ...relative clauses is very common, and in some cases is probably to be explained in terms of the close relationship between determiners and pronouns. In the following examples the relative element or pronoun (indicated as REL) is identical morphologically to the definite article of the language illustrated..." which is German:

(54)Der Mantel, den er trägt, ist zu groß.

the coat REL-ACC he wears is too big

'The coat he is wearing is too big.'

(Lyons, 1999: 62)

Lyons (1999: 61) further adds "...In German the relative pronoun is in most forms identical to the definite article (which can also have demonstrative value, and can be used pronominally)..." The next examples by Bisle-Müller demonstrate this:

(55)a. Ich suche ein Buch, das ich gestern bekommen habe; es ist ein schönes.

I look for –PRE-CONT a-ACC book, REL-ACC I yesterday get-PP
 have- 1SG; it be-3SG a nice. (-Def ;+Spec)

'I am looking for a book which I got yesterday; it was a nice one.'

b. Ich suche den Mann, der mir das gestern erklärt hat, er war groß.

I look for –PRE-CONT the-ACC man, REL-ACC me this yesterday
 explain-PP have-3SG, he be-PAST-2SG tall.

(+Def ;+Spec)

'I am looking for the man who explained me this yesterday, he was tall.'

(Bisle- Müller, 1991: 23)

Although the reference word of the relative pronoun is indefinite, the relative clause introduces a specific interpretation in example (55a). The same can be claimed for the next example (55b) even though the definite article is used.

A more interesting example is the following in which the merge of the preposition 'in' and the definite article 'das' causes a non-specific reading, whereas the full forms require a specific reading:

(56)Er geht ins Kino (Non-specific) vs. Er geht in das Kino (Specific)

he go-3SG to the cinema-SG vs. he go -3SG to the cinema

' He goes to cinema vs. He goes to the cinema.'

(Bisle-Müller, 1991: 64)

In the first example (56) it can be determined that in the non – specific reading the contraction of the definite article 'das' realized as 'ins' is used to state that 'He' goes to an arbitrary cinema which does not refer to a particular cinema in the speaker's mind ', whereas the full forms 'in das' (56) require a specific reading since it refers to a specific 'cinema' in the speaker's mind.

Bisle-Müller (1991: 64) claims that the contraction of the prepositions and the definite articles are partly affecting the interpretation of the NP and that the interpretation of the full forms, which is preposition + article,

regarding the feature [\pm specific] changes according to the presence of the contraction forms unless it is explicitly pointed out. The following Table 5 from Helbig&Buscha (2005: 355) illustrate the forms in German:

Table 5. Distribution of merged prepositions with definite dative and/ or accusative case-marked articles in singular

	an	auf	bei	durch	für	hinter	in	über	um	unter	von	vor	zu
masculine/ neuter dem→	am	-	bei m	-	-	hinterm	im	überm	-	unterm	vom	vorm	zum
neuter das→	ans	aufs	-	durchs	fürs	hinters	ins	übers	ums	unters	-	vors	-
feminine der →	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	zur

(Adapted from Helbig&Buscha, 2005: 355)

Considering these forms the following examples support the interpretation of NP used with prepositions as [\pm specific]:

(57) Gestern war er im Kino – Warst du schon in dem Kino (dort drüben)?

yesterday be-PAST-3SG he in-DAT cinema – be-PAST-2SG you already in the-DAT cinema (over there)? (Non- specific – specific)

‘ He was in the cinema yesterday – Have you already been to the cinema (over there)?’

(Helbig& Buscha, 2005: 349)

The first part of the example (57) shows the use of the merged form and has a non-specific reading since it does not refer to a particular ‘cinema’, whereas the second part of the sentence(57) the full form is used where the speaker refers to a specific ‘cinema’ in his or her mind and thus has a specific reading. The next example by Bisle-Müller (1991: 64) reconfirms this:

(58) a. Die Kinder schauen immer durch das Fenster in unsere Wohnung rein.

the child-PL look-3PL always through-ABL the window into our flat-SG.

'The children always look into the flat through the window.' (Specific)

b. Die Kinder schauen immer durchs Fenster in unsere Wohnung rein.
the child-PL look-3PL always through-ABL window into our flat-SG.

'The children always look into the flat through the window.'

(Non-specific)

(Bisle-Müller, 1991: 64)

The example (58a) shows the use of the full forms which presupposes that the speaker in his or her discourse refers to a particular 'window' in the 'apartment', whereas the example (58b) does not refer to a specific 'window' but to any window of the apartment. The presence of the reduced form in this case leads to a [+specific] interpretation. Compared to this example, the next example shows another case unlike to the previous:

(59) a. Du willst doch nicht auf dem Boden essen? (Specific)

b. Du willst doch nicht aufm Boden essen?
you want-2SG yes not on the floor eat ?

(Arbitrary, since no real grammatical reduction)

'You don't want to eat on the floor, right?'

(Bisle-Müller, 1991: 64)

The example (59a) shows the use of the full forms which presupposes that the speaker in his or her discourse refers to a particular 'floor', whereas the example (59b) has an arbitrary function since it does not realize a grammatical standard form 'aufm'. Hence, the hearer can interpret this form as well as specific but also as non-specific due to the lack of a standard reduced form this time.

2.3.4. Referentiality and definiteness

From a discourse related aspect the two settings [\pm SR] which resembles whether an NP has a specific referent or not and [\pm HK] which resembles the familiarity of the referent of the given context to the hearer come into play. Accordingly, there are four different possibilities for NP reference: [+SR /+HK], [-SR /+HK], [+SR /-HK], [-SR /-HK] (Hueber, 1983: 133).

German encodes these four semantic fields separately. [+SR /+HK] setting is encoded with the definite article 'der, die das' and the indefinite article 'ein/-e' and the null article 'Ø' are used for [-SR /+HK]. The [+SR /-HK] context are realized with the indefinite article 'ein/-e' or the null article 'Ø'. The [-SR,-HK] is similar to [+SR /-HK] and is used with either the indefinite article 'ein/-e' or the null article 'Ø'.

The different realization of each NP reference settings is further discussed extensively in the next parts.

2.3.4.1. Referential definites [+SR /+HK]

Referential definite NPs require the definite article 'der, die, das' because the presupposition is that the identity of the NP from the given discourse is familiar to the hearer as it is stated by Hawkins (2001:234) "...If an NP refers to a specific entity which the hearer can identify from what has been said before or from the context, *the* is used..." The following two contexts illustrate this:

(60) Ich möchte mir ein Buch kaufen. Das Buch darf aber nicht zu teuer sein.

I would me a book buy. The-NOM book-SG may but not too expensive be

(Definite article; Introduced to the hearer in the previous sentence)

‘ I’d like to buy a book. However, the book shouldn’t be too expensive.’

(Helbig & Buscha, 2005: 336)

(61) Es wird ein gebrauchtes Auto zum Verkauf angeboten. Das Auto ist sehr gut.

it be-PRE-PASS a used-ACC car to-DAT sell-SG offer-PPP. The-NOM car be- 3SG very good.

(Definite article; Introduced to the hearer in the previous sentence)

‘A used car is offered for sale. The car is very good.’

(Helbig & Buscha, 2005: 336)

Both examples (60) and (61) are representing an entity introduced previously and thus have a definite reading depending on the context since the hearer can identify the entities ‘Buch= book’ and ‘Auto= car’

2.3.4.2. Non-referential definites [-SR /+HK]

Non-referential definite NPs do not have a specific referent but appeal to the general knowledge state of the hearer. Therefore, [-SR /+HK] are used for generics. Generics in German are realized with the definite article ‘der, die, das’. Helbig & Buscha (2005: 334) state that the definite article is placed before a noun when their corresponding entities of reality are identified by generalization. Hereby, the noun represents the member of a class which is representative for the entire class. Those generics can also occur with the indefinite article ‘ein/-e’ and the null article. Helbig & Buscha (2005: 335) give further details that for the same function the indefinite article ‘ein/-e’ with singular noun and the null article with plural nouns can be used as well which is exemplified:

(62) a. Das Auto ist ein Verkehrsmittel. (Definite article)

'The car is a means of transport.'

b. Ein Auto ist ein Verkehrsmittel. (Indefinite article)

'A car is a means of transport.'

c. Ø Autos sind Verkehrsmittel. (Null article)

'Cars are means of transport.'

(Helbig & Buscha, 2005: 335)

In these examples (62a,b,c) 'Auto= car' and 'Autos= cars' do not refer to a type of car, but there is a reference to a class of transport that is referring to our general knowledge about those entities.

2.3.4.3. Referential indefinites [+SR /-HK]

NPs recognized as *referential indefinites* (Hawkins, 2001: 235) refer to an entity which is either mentioned the first time in the discourse or the hearer cannot identify it from the discourse, nevertheless, it is specific in use since the speaker refers to a specific entity. On account of the unfamiliarity of the hearer regarding the entity of the discourse the NP is to be considered as new information. The nouns must be either singular to encode indefiniteness or plural to encode the null article.

(63) a. Wir haben ein Auto.

'We have a car.'

(Hearer cannot identify from context; Specific; Indefinite article)

b. Ich möchte mir ein Buch kaufen.

'I'd like to buy a book for myself'

(First- mentioned noun; Specific; Indefinite article)

(Helbig & Buscha, 2005: 336)

c. Wir werden ihm zum Geburtstag Ø Bücher schenken.

'We're going to give him books for his birthday.'

(First- mentioned; Specific; Null article)

(Helbig & Buscha, 2005: 339)

The NP in the example (63a) is a specific 'car' the speaker refers to but is not identifiable by the hearer from the context. In the second and third examples (63b) and (63c) the NP 'ein Buch' and 'Bücher' are specific in their use considering the speaker's intention but unfamiliar to the hearer since it is mentioned the first time. In the latter example (63c) the null article is obligatory since the noun is plural.

2.3.4.4. Non- referential indefinites [-SR /-HK]

Non- referential indefinite (Hawkins, 2001: 234) NPs do not refer to a specific entity, therefore the hearer is not familiar to the entity from previous discourse. Since the entity is unfamiliar to the hearer, the use of either the indefinite article 'a /an' or the null article are obligatory in this context. Hawkins (2001: 234) confirms "...If an NP refers to a non-specific entity which the hearer cannot identify from what has already been said, or from the context, a or Ø is used...". This discourse context is similar to the previous context, and the NP must be either singular and is marked with the indefinite article 'ein/-e' or plural and is marked with the null article Ø. The next example helps to clarify this:

(64)a. Ich möchte ihm zum Geburtstag ein Buch schenken.

'I want to give him a book for his birthday.' (Non-referential; Indefinite)

(Helbig & Buscha, 2005: 336)

b. Hat er Ø Brüder?

'Does he have books?' (Non- referential; Null article)

(Helbig & Buscha, 2005: 339)

In example (64a) 'Buch' can be identified as any 'book' because the speaker does not refer to a specific book. In the example (64b) 'Brüder' is the plural form of 'Bruder' resembling 'brother' in English and due to its plural actualization it is used with the null article. In addition, it does not refer to a specific group of brother and thus is non-referential.

2.3.4.5. Additional uses

Besides the above listed contexts there are other specific situations where the definite articles, indefinite article or the null articles are used. More cases where the definite article in German is mainly used are with proper nouns which are cited by Helbig & Buscha (2005: 330 ff.) and Höhne (1994:173 ff.):

1. before names of mountains, oceans, lakes, seas heavenly bodies and rivers: *die Alpen, der Fichtelberg, das Mittelmeer, die Elbe, die Erde...*
2. before some country names and landscapes in plural as well with names accompanied with Republic, Union, State, Kingdom and their corresponding contractions and country names ending with -ei: *die Vereinigten Staaten von America – die USA, die Niederlande, die Türkei ...* other exceptions are: *die Schweiz, der Libanon...* which are singular in use.
3. with names of street, buildings, institutions and ships: *die Talstraße, die Thomaskirche, die 'Carpathia'...*
4. for identifying names of people, actor roles, art, jobs: *die Maria, die Sixtinische Madonna, der Schriftsteller; Er spielte den Mephisto grandiose...*
5. before names of newspapers and magazines: *die 'Frankfurter Allgemeine'*

Other specific cases where the indefinite article in German is mainly used are cited by Helbig& Buscha (2005: 338 ff.):

1. accusative nouns following the syntactic structure: nominative + haben + accusative case and with verbs like bekommen, sich wünschen, suchen in : *Er hat einen Sohn; Er bekam einen ausgezeichneten Berater; Er sucht in ihm eine Hilfe...*

2. with measurements in accusative in syntactic structures 'nominative + haben + accusative case' used with numbers that can be transformed into the structure 'nominative + sein + adjective: *Der Berg hat eine Höhe von 1244 m. (= ist hoch)*

Other specific cases where the indefinite article in German is mainly used are cited by Helbig& Buscha (2005: 339 ff.):

1. with an arbitrary amount of substances in singular, nouns ending with -zeug, -werk etc.: *Er trinkt gern Bier; Spielzeug...*

2. naming jobs, functions, nationalities, views in the syntactic structures 'nominative + sein/ werden+ nominative' or 'nominative + verb + als+ nominative': *Er ist Bürgermeister; Sie arbeitet als Verkäuferin*

3. with abstract nouns representing a state, a feature, processes: *Sie hat Geduld; Arbeit ist die Grundlage seines Erfolgs*

4. proper nouns regarding names of people, titles: *Peter, Doktor Lehmann*

5. with continents, most countries, most landscapes and islands: *Asien, Frankreich, Hawaii, Berlin*

6. names of festivals: *Weihnachten*

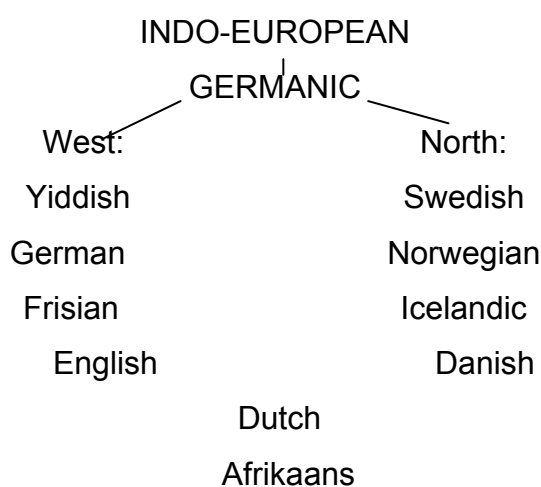
7. with book titles, school subjects: *Lehrbuch der englischen Sprache, Englisch*

2.4. ENGLISH

2.4.1. Introduction

The English language like the German language is a member of the sub-family of Germanic in the category of Indo-Germanic language family as the following Figure 1 indicates:

Figure 1. The Germanic branch of the Indo-European family of languages



(Adapted from Fromkin, 2003:529)

It is a right-branching language and has a head initial position. In a syntactical framework, it is categorized as a SVO. It is also a language which has an overt realization of definite articles and indefinite articles on nouns.

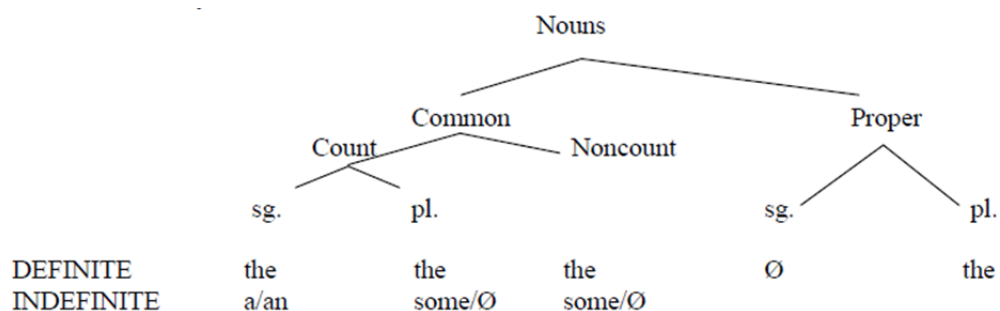
Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999: 273) define "...Most of the strictly form-based information about English articles depends on the English noun classification system. All English nouns are classified as either common nouns or proper nouns. In addition, all common nouns can be further classified as non-count nouns or count nouns. Non-count nouns are singular in number for purposes of subject-verb agreement but cannot take the indefinite article and the plural inflection as common nouns do..."

In addition Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999: 273) state "...The lexical classification of English common nouns into count and non-

count nouns is a very important preliminary to correct use of articles. It is a conceptual distinction that accounts for many systematic patterns in article usage...”

To sum, the English nouns are classified in two main groups; the nouns are either common nouns (a girl) or proper nouns (Jack). Additionally, all common nouns are further divided according to the [\pm count] feature. They are either countable (a girl) or uncountable (water) which has a significant role on the article choice. The following Figure 2 illustrates this division:

Figure 2. Noun classification for article use



(Adapted from Larsen-Freeman & Celce-Murcia, 1999: 272)

Likewise, Hawkins (2001: 232) puts the English articles together in three groups as followed:

- (65) a. I should take *the* rabbit to the vet.
 b. I saw *a* rabbit in the garden yesterday.
 c. I saw Ø rabbits in the garden yesterday

(Hawkins, 2001: 232)

According to Hawkins (2001: 233) the English definite article ‘the’ is used with count nouns in both singular and plural, mass nouns and abstract nouns; the English indefinite article ‘a/an’ is used with singular count nouns and abstract nouns; and the Ø (zero/null article) in English is used with plural count nouns, mass nouns and abstract nouns. The following Table 6 illustrates the article distribution in the English language:

Table 6. Articles and types of nouns in English

Article	Noun types	Examples
The	+count, +singular	<i>The rabbit</i> was running.
	+count,-singular	<i>The rabbits</i> were running.
	-count, +mass	He made <i>the porridge</i> for us.
	-count, -mass	<i>The understanding</i> they reached was short-lived.
A/An	+count, +singular	I saw <i>a rabbit</i> in the garden.
	-count, -mass	They reached <i>an understanding</i> .
Ø	+count, -singular	I saw <i>Ø rabbits</i> in the garden.
	-count, +mass	He made <i>Ø porridge</i> for us.
	-count, -mass	The situation calls for <i>Ø understanding</i> .

(adapted from Hawkins 2001: 233)

Besides the form- based distribution of the articles in English a further point of importance is that English marks definiteness in its article system overtly which is supported by Lyons (1999:48) who states "... The greatest concentration of languages marking definiteness today is in Western Europe...as well as...English..."

2.4.2. Definiteness in English

English marks definiteness in its article system. There are two forms to express definiteness. The definite article 'the' in English is used to express the [+definite] setting, whereas the indefinite article 'a/an' in English is used to express the [-definite] setting. Ionin et al (2004: 7) exemplifies this:

(66) I saw a cat. I gave the cat some milk. (Indefinite; definite)

(Ionin et al, 2004; 7)

Ionin et al (2004: 7) further explains "...The feature [+definite] receives morphological expression in the English article system through the article *the*. This is illustrated in (5) [I saw a cat. I gave the cat some milk]. On the first mention of a cat, there is no presupposition that a unique cat exists...As a result, the indefinite article *a* is used. In contrast, on second mention of the same cat, the existence of a particular, unique cat (the one that has just been mentioned) has been established. The conditions on definiteness have been met, so *the* is used..."

Since in this example (66) in the first statement the entity is first mentioned it co-occurs with the indefinite article 'a/an', but the repeatedly mentioned entity in the second statement since it is familiar to both, the speaker and the hearer, it is used with the definite article 'the'. Ionin (2004: 5) further explains "...the feature [+definite] reflects the state of knowledge of *both* speaker and hearer...If a Determiner Phrase (DP) of the form [D NP] is . . . [+definite], then the speaker and hearer presuppose the existence of a unique individual in the set denoted by the NP..." If not the NP has got an indefinite reading. Lyon (1999: 264) supports "...it carries a conventional implication that there is some pragmatic set accessible to hearer and speaker within which existence and uniqueness is hold..." The NP is definite when it has an unambiguous referent to both speaker and hearer, whereas the NP is indefinite when it has an unambiguous referent just for the speaker.

(67) I read *an interesting book, which my cousin gave me.*

(Ionin & Wexler, 2002:150)

In this example (67) the speaker has got a specific book in mind and its referent therefore is unambiguous since it refers to a certain book the

speaker got, but to the hearer the NP is not identifiable and thus ambiguous. Consequently, here the indefinite article 'a' is used accordingly.

Taking a further look on definiteness of NPs Ionin et al. (2004: 7) also adds "...Previous discourse is not always necessary for establishing uniqueness. In some cases, the uniqueness presupposition is satisfied as a result of mutual world knowledge..."

(68)The winner of the tournament will receive a prize.

(Ionin et al, 2004; 7)

According to Ionin et al. (2004: 7) "...For instance... it is not necessary that the speaker and hearer be talking about some salient winner. Given our world knowledge that a tournament typically has only one winner, the uniqueness presupposition is satisfied..."

To sum, the use of the definite article 'the' in this example (68) is due to the mutual world knowledge of the speaker and the hearer since they are familiar to the knowledge that a tournament has only one winner and the presupposition is that this tournament, as a result, will have one winner as well.

2.4.3. Specificity in English

In the earlier section it was pointed out that English marks definiteness overtly in its article system, which is realized through the definite article 'the' and indefinite article 'a/an' regardless of specificity. Specificity, on the other hand, is not marked overtly in English but is expressed through the context which reflects "...the state of knowledge of *the speaker* only..." (Ionin et al., 2004: 5).

Ionin et al (2004: 7) notes on this matter "... Standard English has no marker for the [+specific] feature in its article system. It has two articles, *the*

and *a*, that are used in [+definite] and [- definite] contexts, respectively, regardless of specificity...”

NPs in English whether occurring with a definite or indefinite article can be marked with specificity. Specificity is distinguished in two ways, either [+specific] or [- specific]. Ionin et al. (2004: 5) defines “... Specificity:...If a Determiner Phrase (DP) of the form [D NP] is . . . [+specific], then the speaker intends to refer to a unique individual in the set denoted by the NP and considers this individual to possess some noteworthy property...” The following statements by Ionin et al. (2004: 8) exemplify this:

- (69) a. I'd like to talk to the winner of today's race—she is my best friend! (Specific)
- b. I'd like to talk to the winner of today's race—whoever that is; I'm writing a story about this race for the newspaper. (Non-specific)
- (Ionin et al., 2004: 8)

In the example (69a) a specific definite NP is used. In this example the speaker intends to refer to a particular individual which is the winner and this individual has the noteworthy property of being the speaker's friend. In the example (69b) a non- specific definite NP is used since the speakers does not refer to a particular individual. The speaker just intents to talk to the winner since every race has a winner although s/he is not known yet.

Other examples by Fodor and Sag (1982:359) show a non-/ specific indefinite NP context:

(70) A man just proposed to me in the orangery –though I am much too embarrassed to tell you who it was. (Indefinite / Specific)

(71) A man is in the women's bathroom- but I haven't dared to go in there to see who it is (Indefinite/ Non-specific)

(Fodor and Sag, 1982:359)

In the first example (70) of a specific indefinite NP, the speaker intends to refer to a particular entity in his/ her mind, but the hearer does not know about it. Therefore, 'a man' in this example is specific. In the second example (71) neither the speaker nor the hearer have any prior knowledge about the entity. Hence, the indefinite 'a man' is non-specific since it can be any man. From the above examples (70) and (71), it can be summarized that the semantic feature specificity is independent of the definiteness feature. Specific and non – specific features can be assigned in definite NP settings as well as in indefinite NP settings depending on the intention of the speaker. Thus, a sentence marked as [+definite, -specific] or [+definite, +specific] encodes the definite article 'the' regardless of its specificity. A sentence identified as [-definite, -specific] or [-definite, +specific] still encodes the indefinite article 'a/ an' regardless of its specificity.

2.4.4. Referentiality and definiteness

Apart from the distinction of the features of definiteness and specificity as applied to nouns and their references, Bickerton (1981) proposed two settings regarding the semantic properties, referentiality and definiteness, of a given NP. He introduced the features [\pm SR] which resembles whether an NP has a specific referent or not and [\pm HK] which resembles the familiarity of the referent of the given context to the hearer. Accordingly, there are four different possibilities for NP reference: [+SR /+HK], [-SR /+HK], [+SR /-HK], [-SR /-HK] (Hueber, 1983: 133). White (2009: 15) clarifies "...English divides the above semantic fields in the following ways: *the* for [+SR, +HK]; *a* or \emptyset for [+SR,-HK]; and *a* or \emptyset for [-SR,-HK]. Underscoring the complexity of the article system, generic reference (or [-SR, +HK]) may take *the*, *a*, or \emptyset ..."

In addition to those four categories for NP references since Bickerton's taxonomy had no further category researchers (Butler, 2002; Thomas, 1989) added another category of idioms and conventional uses of articles that could receive all three articles *the*, *a*, and \emptyset .

White (2009: 15) supports "...Researchers have found it necessary to include a fifth category of idiomatic use (Butler, 2002; Thomas, 1989) as there remain article uses (e.g., *all of a sudden* and *living hand to mouth*) which Bickerton's universals seem unable to account for. The idiomatic category, like generics, contains all three article choices: *the*, *a*, and \emptyset ..." In the following a detailed description of five categories proceeds:

2.4.4.1. Referential definites [+SR /+HK]

NPs that are identified as *referential definite* and thus are applied with the definite article 'the' since the given entity from the context has a specific referent and is assumed to be known by the hearer. Hawkins (2001:234) states "...If an NP refers to a specific entity which the hearer can identify from what has been said before or from the context, *the* is used..." The following context represents only one example to clarify this:

(72) A: An old man, two women and several children were already there when arrived.

B: Did you recognize the old man? (Definite; specific)

(Lyons, 1999:4)

Since 'man' in this example (72) is introduced in the conversation and the hearer can identify the 'man' the definite article 'the' is used in the second use. Another reason for the use of the definite article in this context is that the 'old man' is physically present and visible for both, speaker and hearer.

(73) Speaker A: How will you get a ticket for the England-France match?

Speaker B: I have a contact.

Speaker A: Is that *the* same contact who failed to get you tickets for Wimbledon?

(Hawkins, 2001: 234)

Since 'contact' in this example (73) is introduced in the conversation and the hearer can identify the 'contact' the definite article 'the' is used in the second use. Another reason for the use of the definite article in this context is that the 'contact' even though s/he is physically absent for both, speaker and hearer, s/he is identifiable to them.

2.4.4.2. Non – referential definites [-SR /+HK]

NPs are identified as non – referential and definite and thus have a general use. They are called generic nouns in literature and can occur with the definite, indefinite or zero articles. The following contexts represent only one example to clarify this assumption:

(74)Speaker A: I saw a rabbit eating my carrots yesterday.

Speaker B: a. *The rabbit* can cause problems for *the gardener*.

b. *A rabbit* can cause problems for *a gardener*.

c. \emptyset *Rabbits* can cause problems for \emptyset *gardeners*.

(Hawkins, 2001:235)

In this example (74) speaker B statements do not refer to a specific rabbit or gardener, but there is a reference to a type of rabbit and gardener that are referring to our general knowledge about those entities.

2.4.4.3. Referential indefinites [+SR /-HK]

NPs that are identified as *referential indefinites* (Hawkins, 2001: 235) and thus refer to an entity which is either mentioned the first time in the discourse or the hearer cannot identify it. Since the entity of the discourse is

not familiar to the hearer it resembles new information. Additionally, an NP must be singular in order to be marked with the indefinite article 'a/ an' and plural in order to receive the null article \emptyset . The following context represents only one example to clarify this:

(75) Speaker A: How will you get a ticket for the England-France match?

Speaker B: I have **a** contact / I have \emptyset contacts.

(Hawkins, 2001:235)

The NP options in example (75) 'a contact' and 'contacts' are specific in their use, although it is first mentioned in this discourse. The next example by Ionin et al. (2004: 67) shows another context where the indefinite article is used obligatorily:

(76) Gary: I heard that you just started college. How do you like it?

Melissa: It's great! My classes are very interesting.

Gary: That's wonderful. And do you have fun outside of class?

Melissa: Yes. In fact, today I'm having dinner with (a, the, —) girl from my class— her name is Angela, and she is really nice!

(Ionin et al., 2004: 67)

In this example (76), although the 'girl' is mentioned first, it is specific from the context as well.

2.4.4.4. Non- referential indefinites [-SR /-HK]

NPs that are identified as *non- referential indefinites* (Hawkins, 2001: 234) and thus the NP does not refer to a specific entity which the hearer is familiar to from previous discourse. Since the entity of the discourse is not familiar to the hearer the use of either the indefinite article 'a /an' or the null

article are obligatory in this context. Hawkins (2001: 234) confirms “...If an NP refers to a non-specific entity which the hearer cannot identify from what has already been said, or from the context, a or \emptyset is used...” Since this discourse context is similar to the previous context, it has to be pointed out that an NP must be singular in order to be marked with the indefinite article ‘a/ an’ and plural in order to receive the null article \emptyset . The next example helps to clarify this:

(77) Speaker A: What does she want to do when she’s married?

Speaker B: Have **a** baby / Have \emptyset babies.

(Hawkins, 2001:234)

In this example (77), speaker B does not refer to a specific ‘baby’ in his/ her mind, but mentions it the first time. The entity is unfamiliar to Speaker A. The next example by Ionin et al. (2004: 66) shows another context where the indefinite article is used obligatorily since ‘the child’ from the discourse does not refer to a specific ‘book’ in its mind:

(78) In a children’s library

Child: I’d like to get something to read, but I don’t know what myself.

Librarian: Well, what are some of your interests? We have books on any subject.

Child: Well, I like all sorts of things that move—cars, trains. . . . I know! I would like to get (a, the, —) book about airplanes! I like to read about flying!

(Ionin et al., 2004: 66)

In summary, the following Table 7 adapted from Yılmaz (2006: 15) from Hawkins (2001:235) shows the English article use in the four [\pm specific referent] and [\pm hearer knowledge] contexts.

Table 7. Bickerton's taxonomy of English articles

Features	Environment	Articles	Example
[-SR /+HK]	Generics	A/An, The, Ø	The rabbit is a nuisance. A rabbit is a nuisance. Ø Rabbits can be nuisance ØTheories must always be supported by Ø evidence.
[+SR /+HK]	Referential definites	The	She left the baby at home. Goldilocks ate the porridge. She presented the evidence.
[+SR /-HK]	Referential indefinites	A/An, Ø	I have a contact. I have Ø contacts. They reached an understanding. She presented Ø evidence
[-SR /-HK]	Nonreferential indefinites	A/An, Ø	She wants to write a book. She wants to write Ø books. It can be difficult to reach an understanding. They need Ø evidence to support their theory.

(Adapted from Yilmaz, 2006: 15)

2.4.4.5. Idioms and conventional uses

In addition to those four contexts related uses of articles there are many other cases where the use of articles comes to surface which those four contexts account. Proper nouns are just one of the various cases. As Ko et al.(2010: 218) states "... However, prior mention is not always necessary for use of *the*. When the uniqueness presupposition is part of the common ground as a result of mutual world knowledge, *the* can be also used. Some examples are given adapted from Brown (1973:345); see also Hawkins 1978)..."

(79) a. Unique for all: *the moon, the Earth, the sky*, etc.

b. Unique in a given setting: *the desk, the ceiling, the floor*, etc.

c. Uniquely salient for a given social group: *the car, the boss, the Constitution, etc.*

d. Uniquely salient by pointing/nodding/spotlighting: *the chair, the singer, etc.*

e. Uniquely salient by entailment: *the engine, the head, the captain, etc.*

f. Unique by definition: *the last sentence, the first of the month, etc.*

g. Unique by inference: *the plumber who fixed my sink last week did a poor job*

(Ko et al., 2010: 2018)

To explain, '*the Earth*' is unique for all speakers and hearers. I will not further discuss each item since some of them are treated in the previous contexts above and others go beyond the scope of this paper.

Butler (2002) and Thomas (1989) studies added the category of idioms and other conventional uses to the classification of the English articles. NPs belonging to that category can co-occur with all three article 'the', 'a/an' and \emptyset . The following statements exemplify those idioms and conventional uses:

(80) a. He is always on \emptyset edge. (Idiom)

b. *He is always on *the edge*.

c. He lives on *the edge* of the town.

(Master, 1994:238)

The idiom in (80a) 'to be on edge' resembles 'to be always tense and nervous'. The definite article makes the sentence in (80b) ungrammatical. However, in the non-idiomatic context (80c) 'the edge of the town' refers to the part of the town where 'he' lives.

(81) a. All of a sudden, he woke up from his coma.

b. In *the* 1960s, there were lots of protests against the Vietnam War.

c. He has been thrown out of work, and his family is now living \emptyset hand

to mouth.

(Idioms and conventional uses)

(Goto-Butler, 2002: 479)

In these examples (81) it is overt that all three articles 'a/an; the; Ø' can be applied to idiomatic and conventional uses.

In the next chapter a review of literature on cross linguistic transfer and on acquisition of articles will follow.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The acquisition of the article system in English is a complex phenomenon not only for native (L1) speakers but also for second (L2) language learners and third (L3) language learners. There has been a lot of early research in the field of Applied Linguistics on the influence of first language (L1) on the acquisition of the English articles in second language (L2) (Brown, 1973; Huebner, 1985; Ionin et al., 2004; Thomas, 1989 among many others). However, it is hard to determine to what extent prior language learning experience and knowledge influence third language acquisition of articles since they can have either facilitation or inhibition effect on the acquisition progress.

In literature there are two types of transfer. The facilitative effect is defined as positive cross linguistic transfer, whereas the inhibition effect is called negative transfer. In general, transfer of certain linguistic knowledge to an L2 or an L3 within the framework of Universal Grammar (UG) (Chomsky, 1965), however, is constrained by certain innate principles and parameters existing in learners. As for the acquisition of articles in L2, the UG has attracted a lot of attention for the fact that not all languages have articles (Lyons, 1999) and native (L1) speakers of languages without articles or other ways of marking definiteness, must primarily acquire two aspects of articles, the distributional (where they can be used, where they must be used and where none are required) and semantic/pragmatic (what these articles mean in the context of the utterance) features of articles, while learning an L2 that has both article categories (Jaensch, 2008). In this context, Ionin et al's (2004) investigations on article semantics helped constitute the Article Choice Parameter (ACP) with its two settings, the definiteness setting and the specificity setting, which suggests that the developmental patterns in

article use is regulated by a semantic parameter in UG. To account for possible errors Ionin et al. (2004) proposed the Fluctuation Hypothesis (FH) which derived from the ACP. It suggests that (1) L2 learners have full access to UG principles and parameter-settings and (2) L2 learners fluctuate between different parameter-settings until the input leads them to set the parameter to the appropriate value. (Ionin et al, 2004: 17). This Hypothesis was taken over and tested by many other researchers (Ionin et al, 2008; Hawkins, 2006; Lardiere, 2004). So, research in this area started to grow gradually and some important work emerged over the last decades building on other earlier studies on the acquisition of articles in English.

To set up the necessary context for this study, this chapter gives definitions for the key terms of this study, namely positive and negative cross linguistic transfer within the Universal Grammar (UG) framework and presents previous studies conducted on the acquisition of the English article system in L1, L2 as well as in L3 since the purpose of the study is to investigate for positive cross linguistic transfer from L2 to L3 in the acquisition of the English articles and also to test the Fluctuation Hypothesis (Ionin et al., 2004).

3.2. CROSS LINGUISTIC TRANSFER

3.2.1. Introduction

The role of cross linguistic transfer has attracted the attention of many researchers in the field of second language acquisition as well as third language acquisition (Brown, 2007; Ellis, 1994; Gas and Selinker, 1994; Kellerman, 1995; Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991; Odlin, 1989; Selinker, 1992). In that context, there have been lots of attempts to define transfer. However for most of researchers relating to language learning, it refers to the use of prior language knowledge and experiences whether consciously or

unconsciously in the target language by applying various strategies to facilitate the acquisition process (Doyé, 2003; Gass & Selinker, 1983). Thus, the interaction of the former storage of experiences and knowledge with the present learning situation is directly associated with the term 'transfer' and can result in either positive or negative transfer.

In literature, there are two types of transfer. Transfer is considered to be negative, if the prior language knowledge delays or makes the target language more difficult (Yule, 2010). Transfer is considered to be positive, on the other hand, if the prior language knowledge facilitates or improves the active learning process (Doyé 2003).

Various hypothesis about transfer emerged from the question of what factors are involved and what items are more likely to be transferred and how it is transferred from the native (or another language) to the target language to account for an explanation the order of acquisition and transfer effects in second language acquisition.

The next section provides information about some of these hypotheses and studies.

3.2.2. Studies and hypotheses on cross linguistic transfer

There have been a number proposals concerning cross linguistic transfer. One of those early hypotheses was the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) (Brown, 1987; Lado, 1957 among others) which is primarily based on describing and classifying linguistic similarities and difference. It takes language transfer as the central process involved in second language learning and suggests positive transfer happens depending on the native language facilitating the formation of a new entity in the target language while negative transfer happens when the old habit delays the formation of a new entity (Lado, 1957: 2). However the CHA was believed to involve some degree of subjectivity which did not meet the scientific formalization of behavioristic psychology.

Due to some shortcomings of the CAH, another theory was proposed on language transfer called the markedness theory (Eckman et al., 1986; Selinger, 1991). Isurin (2005:1115) briefly defines ‘...The core hypothesis of markedness theory concerns correlations, i.e. pairs of “marked” (least distributed) and “unmarked” (more distributed) structural entities in the language...’ According to this theory, those more complex or marked linguistic forms like the indefinite article in English ‘an’ in the target language will be more difficult to acquire than the wider distributed unmarked form ‘a’. This theory seems to be problematic because markedness does not consider the role of transfer. It remains difficult to estimate the extent of which linguistic structures in L2 are more likely to be replaced by corresponding L1 structures and did not meet the expectation of scientific objectivity. As studies in this field grew in number researchers agreed that the development in the learners’ interlanguage may be assignable to multiple sources.

In a study, Gilbert (1983), for instance, examined the acquisition of the definite article in L2 German by speakers of Spanish, Greek, Italian, Portuguese, Turkish and Yugoslav with residence in Germany. Spanish, Greek, Italian, and Portuguese are languages overtly realizing the definite article of the way German does. Turkish and Yugoslav are languages that do not have corresponding forms to the definite article in German. Results showed that Spanish participants with a longer residence uttered the definite article more (87%) than participants with shorter residence (Greek (75%); Italian (69%); Portuguese (35%); Yugoslav (19%); and Turkish (15%). Within the direct application of the theory of transfer, participants with corresponding categories in the L1 would easily facilitate their acquisition process of building a new category in their L2 by transferring already existing equivalents. However, in participants with no corresponding categories in their L1 the process of developing the category in their L2 would result in delay. However, Gilbert (1983) suggests that the differences in the rate of occurrence of the definite article in German by all participants is evidence of the overlapping structure in the early stages of SLA and supported the idea that some universal principles were involved in the process of acquisition.

Another outcome was that all groups overgeneralized the use of the definite articles regardless of the longitude of their residence which led to the understanding that positive as well as negative transfer effects are involved.

Similar findings were also observed by other researchers (Odler and Redding, 1971; Zobl, 1982; 1984). They agree on learners' following a specific route in their acquisition process. This route is considered to be systematic and errors to be nonrandom and part of linguistic rules and principles.

The certainly most important contribution was made by Chomsky (1965) with his Universal Grammar which suggests that "the grammar constrains a core of fixed principles and certain open parameters which are set in accordance with experience..." (Romaine, 2003:420) being constantly revised on the basis of new input. Due to the incompatibility of previous assumptions to Chomsky's view, many scientists have followed the UG theory in their studies of second language acquisition trying to explain the order of development in the acquisition process and the role of cross linguistic transfer (e.g., Flynn, 1989, on the acquisition of relative clauses in English by speakers of Japanese and Spanish).

Cross-linguistic inference was not only an important matter for SLA research but also for TLA. In this context, for TLA the role of transfer is to be weight on a different more complex level for the fact that two (or three) languages take part in the process. To be more precisely, it is referring "present learning material to already existing language knowledge and learning experiences and consequently extending them."(Neuner, 2003:24).

3.2.3. Variables effecting transfer

The complexity of the term transfer reaches far beyond the term of transferring already existing specific linguistic knowledge or experiences to the target language and involves many other variables effecting cross linguistic transfer (Cenoz, 2001; Clyne, 1997). However, identifying those

variables exactly is very difficult, but findings of scientific research especially in third language acquisition (Cenoz, 2001; De Angelis, 2007; Hammarberg, 2001; Williams and Hammarberg, 1998 among others) helped to determine at least several of them which can be grouped into two, namely language – based factors and learner – based factors. Language typology, psychotypology and L2 status are considered to be language – based variables, while proficiency, amount of target language exposure, linguistic awareness, age, context of acquisition, automaticity and recency are variables considered as learner – based factors.

In this context, language typology, followed by L2 status, has been considered to be the most influential factor in the choice of the source language and cross linguistic transfer as Hammarberg (2001: 22) supports in claiming with reference to L3 acquisition “... Various factors that condition L2’s influence on L3 have been proposed. Thus many studies provide evidence for a typological similarity: influence from L2 is favoured if L2 is typologically close to L3, especially if L1 is more distant...”

However, it is to be pointed out that the role of individual differences, like age and other, has also a certain degree of influence on the cross linguistic transfer. Although a fully examination of all these influencing factors is certainly beyond the scope of this study, it definitely seems to be an interesting point to determine how these above listed factors cause variations in transfer.

In the next sections, some of these influential variables effecting cross linguistic transfer are presented in which typology and L2 status are pointed out to be the most decisive factors.

3.2.3.1. Typological distance/ Similarity of languages

The distance or similarity between languages seems to be the most important factor in transfer. Cenoz (2001) supports from results of her studies on the influence of L1 Basque and L1 Spanish on L2 English. She concluded

that all students present a higher amount of transfer from Spanish, an Indo European language, than from Basque, a non-Indo European language to English.

Parallel to Cenoz (2001) study, all other conducted studies in this field provide evidence for typological similarities being the most influential. Learners tend to rely on prior language knowledge typologically close to the target language. Although the influence from an L2 that is typologically closer to L3 is favoured when the L1 is more distant, there are also some other cases where learners relied on the distant language even though the learners experienced typologically closer languages (Rivers, 1979; Schmidt and Frota, 1986).

As a result, it can be said that the typology of languages is important for the preference of the source language for the acquisition of a third or additional language, but more research is needed to gain more insight about cases which offered counterevidence.

3.2.3.2. L2 status

Cenoz (2001: 9) refers to the term L2 status as 'language other than the L1'. This factor is assumed to be significant since it refers to a non – native language for the learners and is associated with 'foreign language effect' (Meisel,1983) which facilitates cross linguistic transfer by blocking native language effect since the target language is treated as same of being foreign. De Angelis referred to the term L2 status as 'association of foreignness' and argued that in this case L2 would be favoured as a source of lexical transfer to L3. This effect of the L2 status is realized in Grosjean's (1995) Language Mode continuum in which the notion of language mode is the likelihood of language transfer, in particular lexical transfer, depending on the speaker's mode and activation of languages (For further details see: Language Mode).

In a study, Williams and Hammarberg (1998) tested a native speaker of English who had acquired L2 German in Germany on the influence of her L1 and L2 while learning L3 Swedish in Sweden. The study last 2 years and results provided evidence for L2 having a privileged role in lexical transfer and pronunciation. However, with an increase of L3 exposure over time the L2 influence was overridden by her L3 and her pronunciation shifted more to her L1.

However, some researchers claim that the most recently acquired language is more available for transfer (Cenoz, 2001; Hammarberg, 2001) but this matter must be treated with caution, because, as seen in the previous parts, this factor can easily be set on an equal level with the typological similarity of languages. In this case, the L2 status would be suppressed by the factor of typological similarity of languages regardless of L1 or L2 status.

This study confirms previous studies on typological distance in multilingual acquisition and proves that linguistic distance is a stronger predictor of cross-linguistic influence compared to L2 status in initial stage of acquisition, but it also indicates that L2 status as well as language proficiency and metalinguistic development related to age affect cross-linguistic influence.

3.2.3.3. Age , (meta-)linguistic awareness, length of residence and exposure to a non-native language environment

All variables, age, linguistic awareness, length of residence, and exposure, are interacting factors with proficiency level of the learner. They correlate in many instances.

A study conducted by Cenoz (2001) provides evidence for this interaction and its effect on cross linguistic transfer. The study (also reviewed in typology and L2 status in the earlier part) by Cenoz (2001) draws conclusions on the age factor on language transfer and its intertwinement

with proficiency, typology and metalinguistic awareness. The results indicate that older students have higher metalinguistic awareness, compared to younger students of the same background, which extends their ability of typological judgments between languages. The exposure to a language and its proficiency level naturally either depends on the length of residence in a non-native environment or to the amount of L2 instruction environment (Ringbom, 1987; Vildomec, 1963; Williams and Hammarberg, 1998). The question about whether the amount of exposure to L3 in a natural L3 environment results in a decrease of cross linguistic transfer from prior languages and favouring L3 as a source language due to amount of exposure was investigated by Fouser (2001). Results proved the hypothesis in that it showed that L3/L5 Korean learned in Korea became the source language of influence for the participants' L2 Japanese.

One inevitable aspect of proficiency, in this context, is the learners' linguistic awareness or meta-linguistic awareness, which can be defined as the outcome of the learners' decision-making, supervisory strategies that help learners to think about the learning process, plan for learning, monitor the learning task, and evaluate how well one has learned. Those regulate the learning process. The more developed the learners' linguistic awareness is the more does it facilitate language transfer as explicitly seen in the study by Cenoz (2001) and Fouser (2001).

3.2.3.4. Proficiency

Proficiency is a learner specific factor that determines the possibility of transfer between languages. Hammarberg (2001: 22) exemplifies the term proficiency with "...L2 influence is favoured if the learner has a high level of competence in the L2 and if the L2 has been acquired and used in natural situations..." This means in other words the learner must have a certain degree of L2 competence that facilitates the transfer process since transfer

depends on the learners' recognition of the linguistic features between first, second (or additional) and target language.

3.2.3.5. Recency

The factor of recency in multilingualism came out as early as in the 1960s with Vildomec (1963) being the first claiming that transfer is more likely to happen from 'vivid' languages rather than from languages being forgotten in use for a time. The idea is recency of use as a factor determining the choice of the source language in the acquisition process. In that, recency is assumed to facilitate the occurrence of some kinds of cross linguistic transfer due to the easy access to the language learned last (Hammarberg, 2001; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998). This claim was supported by different studies (Shanon, 1991; Deweale, 1998).

In a study, Deweale (1998) confirmed Shanon's (1991) hypothesis in comparing the production of lexical invention by learners of L2 French with L3 learners of French with both L1 Dutch. Results showed, due to the order of their acquisition, that Learners of L2 French relied more on their native language while L3 learners of French relied more on their more recent language L2 English although both groups were familiar to English as an L3 (for the first group) or an L2 (for the latter group). However De Angelis (2007) has offered findings that are not consistent with the notion of recency.

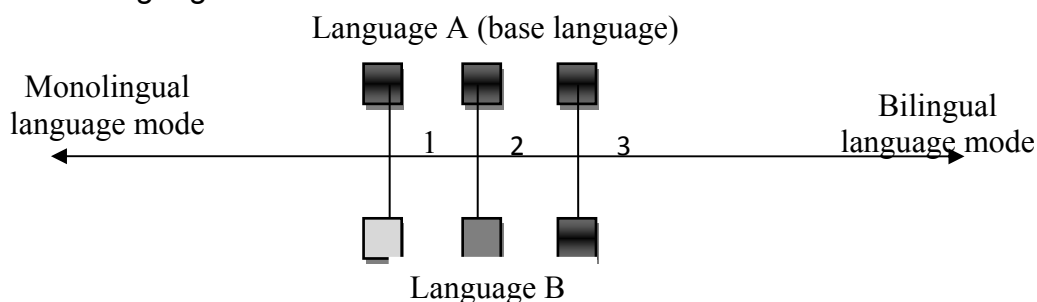
3.2.3.6. Language Mode

Bilinguals who have reflected on their bilingualism will often report that they change their way of speaking when they are with monolinguals and when they are with bilinguals. Whereas they avoid using their other language with the former, they may call on it for a word or a sentence with the latter or

even change over to it completely. This condition in a way is also a reflection of the term language mode.

Grosjean (2001: 2) states“ What is clear from...this is that, at any given point in time and based on numerous psychosocial and linguistic factors, the bilingual has to decide, usually quite unconsciously, which language to use and how much of the other language is needed – from not at all to a lot. If the other language is not needed, then it will not be called upon or, in neural modeling terms, activated. If on the other hand it is needed, then it will be activated but its activation level will be lower than that of the main language chosen. The state of activation of the bilingual’s languages and language processing mechanisms at a given point in time has been called language mode... “Grosjean visualizes this definition using the illustration presented below in Figure 3:

Figure 3. Language mode



(adapted from Grosjean, 2001: 3)²

² Grosjean(2001: 3) assumes with reference to this representation of the language mode (figure 1.1 in the original article) as follows:

The bilingual’s languages (A and B) are depicted on the vertical axis by a square located at the top and bottom parts of the figure, their level of activation is represented by the degree of darkness of the square (black for a highly active language and white for a deactivated language) and the ensuing language mode is depicted by the position of the two squares (linked by a discontinuous line) on the horizontal axis which ranges from a monolingual mode to a bilingual mode. Three hypothetical positions are presented in the figure, numbered 1 to 3. In all positions it is language A that is the most active (it is the base language, i.e. the main language being produced or perceived at a particular point in time) and it is language B that is activated to lesser degrees. [...]. Note that in all three positions, the base language (language A) is fully active as it is the language that governs language processing. [...],

The notion 'language mode' by Grosjean can be reviewed as the likelihood of language transfer, in particular lexical transfer, depends directly on the speaker's language mode.

3.2.3.7. Context

Context or as De Angelis (2007:39) prefers to name 'formality of context' describes the language production of a learner in the learning context either formal or informal. Dewaele (1998, 2001) has investigated the factor of context in two of his studies about French-English. He comes to the conclusion that speakers in an informal setting due to language switches produce more mixed utterances and speakers of a formal setting produce shorter utterances. This studies lead to the fact that the learners of a formal setting show a higher degree of monitoring their target language production for accuracy³

3.2.4. Summary

The notion of cross linguistic transfer overall has attracted a lot of attention in second language acquisition as well as third language acquisition over the last few decades and became part of extensive research on its role in the acquisition process. Other important questions about what factors are involved in the occurrence of transfer and how transfer happens where commonly addressed issues leading to important findings and hypothesis in this field. Recall that cross linguistic transfer can either have a positive effect

dynamic interferences may still take place that is speaker-specific deviations from the language being spoken...”

³ At this point it has to be clarified that the results of the studies have been simplified

or negative effect on the acquisition process. Since the purpose of this study is to examine whether L2 German has a positive effect on the acquisition of the article system in L3 English, it was necessary to bring together all factors influencing cross linguistic transfer. Thus, an overall evaluation of the studies and findings about cross linguistic transfer leads to several generalizations.

Firstly, studies have shown that multiple sources are involved in the acquisition process in second language as well as third language. Factors as typology, L2 status have proved to be strongly influential in most studies. A language that is typologically similar to the target language is favoured as source languages compared to more distant languages.

Secondly, relating to L2 status, studies have shown that in initial stage of acquisition previously learned foreign languages are preferred as source languages besides typological similarities. However, in latter stages of acquisition the order may change according to the exposure, language context, age, proficiency in prior languages and other variable involved in the acquisition process.

Lastly, it is important to point out that transfer on its own is a weak attempt to explain the complex process of the acquisition of foreign languages. The most revolutionary theory of Universal Grammar has been followed by many researchers trying to account for this assuming the acquisition process to be systematic and errors to be nonrandom. Hereby principles and parameters are assumed both to constrain the order of acquisition and to explain the effects of transfer in second language learning and third language learning.

The following section includes studies on a more specific field called acquisition of articles since this study aims to examine the influence of L2 German on L3 English in the initial stage of acquisition and builds on previous studies and findings in cross linguistic transfer as well as article acquisition.

3.3. STUDIES ON ARTICLE ACQUISITION

3.3.1. Introduction

The acquisition of articles has attracted scientific interest and research in this field started to grow gradually. Some important work in his field emerged over the last decades. In the following sections some earlier studies followed by more current studies will be presented in the light of Bickerton's (1981) Binary Semantic System, the Nominal Mapping Parameter by Chierchia (1998), Definiteness by Lyons (1999), the Article Choice Parameter and the Fluctuation Hypothesis by Ionin et al (2004) in which the latter one will be part of further investigation in this study.

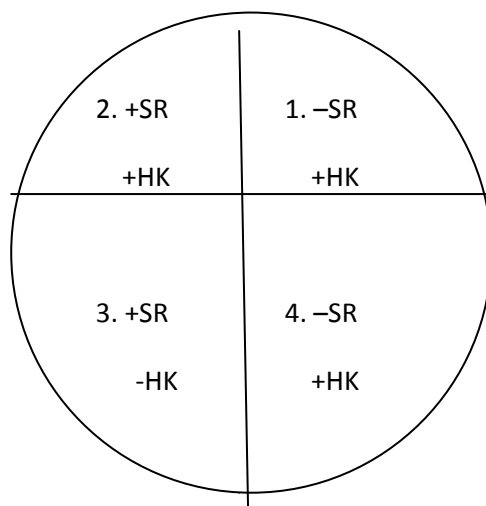
3.3.2. Bickerton's (1981) Binary Semantic System and earlier studies

One of the early contributions relating to the semantic /pragmatic features of articles and the interpretation of articles in different contexts was suggested by Bickerton in 1981. Bickerton's (1981) binary semantic system emphasized that articles choice can be traced back to two different aspects, referentiality and identifiability of nouns by the listener, depending on the properties of the target noun (whether it is singular/ plural or mass/ count noun). In this context, referentiality resembles whether an NP has a specific referent and is denoted by $[\pm SR]$. Identifiability, on the other hand, stands for whether the noun of the given context is already known or recognized by the audience and is indicated as $[\pm HK]$.

Bickerton's (1981) Binary Semantic System was taken over by many researchers investigating the acquisition of the English articles. It was adopted by Hueber (1983) in his study about the production of articles in the interlanguage of an adult 23 – year old Laotian, speaker of Hmong, acquiring English in a natural setting in the USA. At the beginning of the study the learner had a beginner level of English. The study took 54 week in total where every three weeks the learner's narrative performance was recorded

to examine the acquisition of the definite article 'the'. The data was evaluated according to Bickerton's system(1981) and Hueber (1983) concluded that in that specific learner's interlanguage there was an overgeneralization of about 90% of the definite article 'the' before all nouns. First, the overuse of the definite article started to decrease in [-SR, -HK] contexts but continued to be high in [+HK] contexts which turned into an overuse of 'the' in all [+SR] contexts around the sixth month of the study. At the end of the first year, the use of the definite article by the participant developed into using it completely with [+HK] contexts. Hueber proposed with follow up findings in 1985 that there was a systemacity in the acquisition of articles. Another significant outcome of Hueber's (1983) study was the classification of NP contexts in languages. With reference to Bickerton's (1981) study he proposed that there are four NP contexts which involved [-SR, +HK], [+SR, +HK], [+SR, -HK] and [-SK, -HK] which were indicated in Hueber's (1983: 133) semantic wheel illustrated in Figure 4:

Figure 4. Semantic Wheel by Hueber (1983)



(Adapted from Hueber, 1983: 133)

Another researcher Parrish (1987) investigated the article use of a 19 – year old Japanese acquiring English in a classroom setting. The learner had background knowledge of six years of ELF and four months of ESL. At

the beginning of the study the subject's level of English was determined as a beginner. The investigation took 16 weeks in total where every ten days the learners' narrative performance was tape recorded. The learner had to fulfill two assignments. One task was to talk about Japan and the other task was to describe his immediate city of residence and campus in which his use of articles was observed. Results showed that the learner's accuracy rate of the use of the definite article at the end of the study rose up to 84%, the indefinite accuracy rate reached 50% and the null article was overgeneralized. Relating to the study results Parrish (1987) suggested that the null article and the definite article were initially acquired in second language acquisition and on a later stage followed by the indefinite article 'a'.

In another study Cziko (1986) found that children acquiring English as a L1 go through four stages first tending to overgeneralize the definite article 'the' to specific indefinite contexts until they reach stage four in which they perform an adult-like level of use of articles considering both contexts, definite and indefinite. Thomas (1989) further developed Cziko's (1986) hypothesis about the article use to L2 acquisition and stated that L2 learners initially interpret *the* as denoting specific referent [\pm SR] rather than assumed hearer knowledge [\pm HK] by examining 30 adult learners of L2 English aged between 24 and 46 with different L1s which were languages with articles as German, French, Italian, Spanish and Greek with seven speakers; and article-less languages as Korean, Chinese, Japanese and Finnish with 23 speakers. The participants' tasks were to complete a paired story-telling task in which one of the pairs had to tell a story about a picture to the partner which this partner could not see. Thomas (1989) concluded that learners of both L1 language backgrounds, with and without articles, overused 'the' in indefinite specific [-Def, +Spec] contexts by interpreting 'the' as denoting specificity [\pm Spec] rather than definiteness [\pm Def] and learners with article-less language L1 background tended to omitted articles. In addition, the learners of article-less languages overproduced the null article more than the learners with languages with articles since their languages were without

articles. Nevertheless, overall findings showed the more proficient the participants were the more accurate were their use of articles.

Another earlier study on L1 English article acquisition by children was conducted by Brown (1973). Results showed that children aged between 2 and 3 supplied the appropriate definite article 'the' 90% of the time. However, similar to previous findings the definite article 'the' was also used inappropriately in indefinite contexts. He suggested that children can misuse article until they reach the age of 4 although they are able to distinguish between definite and indefinite contexts. To account for the overproduction of the definite article in indefinite contexts, he suggested that children ignored the assumed hearer knowledge [\pm HK].

Maratsos (1974, 1976) and Warden (1976) in their studies on article acquisition obtained similar results which were in line with Brown's (1973) proposal. In Maratsos' (1976) study children's overuse of the definite article 'the' in indefinite contexts was explained in the light of Piaget's (1926) egocentricity term about children ignoring the hearer's knowledge.

Warden (1976) investigating the article acquisition by comparing 3 to 11 years old children with adults also confirmed the overuse of the definite article in indefinite contexts by children. Children at the age of 3 overproduced the definite article 54% of the time, whereas children at the age of 9 declined to 18% of the time. Adults, on the other hand, used the articles appropriately up to 0%. Relating to these results Warden (1976) referring to Piaget (1926) argued that children are egocentric as well.

It can be concluded that Bickerton's (1981) Binary Semantic System has been taken over by many researches (Brown, 1973; Cziko, 1986; Hueber, 1983; Maratsos, 1974; 1976; Thomas, 1989; Parrish, 1987; Warden, 1976) to guide their investigations about the L1 and L2 acquisition of the English articles which all obtained similar results of using the definite article in indefinite contexts inappropriately in particular. Those findings concerning the English articles built the background for other categorizations and more recent studies in this field.

3.3.3. Nominal Mapping Parameter by Chierchia (1998)

According to Juvonen (2000: 14), who proposed a categorization of the languages with respect to the definiteness setting, states that there are four types of languages. (a) Some languages only have the category of definite articles; (b) other languages only have the category of indefinite articles like Turkish; (c) some other languages have the categories of both, definite and indefinite articles, like German and English; (d) and some other languages haven't got any articles like Estonian.

Chierchia (1998) similar to Juvonen (2000) did a categorization of languages according to the distributional properties of articles in his Nominal Mapping Parameter. It is a parameter which categorizes languages into three groups. This categorization was made according to whether the noun phrases can function as arguments indicated as [\pm arg] or whether the noun phrases are predicates requiring a determiner (Jaensch, 2008) denoted as [\pm pred], which is a way to interpret the syntactic category headed by nouns in the actualization of NP's cross linguistically. In order to make his theory comprehensively, Chierchia (1998: 352) explained that "...nouns appear to play a double role. On the one hand, as restrictors of quantifiers (as in *every man*) and in predicate position (as in *John and Bill are doctors*) they must be predicates. On the other hand, as devices for kind reference they must be arguments (names of kinds)..."

For Chierchia (1998) nominal constituents seem to have a double role. They are, on one hand, non-referring and are actualized in a predicate position like in 'John and Bill are doctors'. On the other hand, they are referring and are actualized as arguments like 'every man'. Hence, depending on the [\pm arg, \pm pred] setting, languages can have NP's denoting [+arg, -pred], [+arg, +pred] or [-arg, +pred]. The first category, [+arg, -pred], are languages with NP's that denote only kinds like Chinese and Japanese languages. The second category of [-arg, +pred] which are languages with NP's that denote only predicates, like Romance languages. The last category

is the one of [+arg, +pred] which are languages with NP's either arguments or predicates as they are all illustrated in the Table 8:

Table 8. The Nominal Mapping Parameter

Feature specification	Denotation	Language
[-arg], [+pred]	<i>Predicates</i>	Romance languages
[+arg], [+pred]	Arguments or predicates	Germanic languages
[+arg], [-pred]	Kinds	Chinese, Japanese

(Adapted from Alexiadou, 2007: 192, Table 2)

1. [+arg, -pred] languages, which have no articles and lack number marking on nouns – any bare noun can be an argument, as in Japanese:

Soosya-wa gooru-rain-o mezasite rasuto-supaa-to-o kaketa
 runnerTOP goal-lineACC aiming-at last-spurtACC do-past
 'The runner made a last spurt for the finish line.'

(Jaensch, 2008: 81)

2.[+arg, +pred] languages, which have definite/ indefinite articles but also have a count/ mass distinction for nouns – some nouns need licensing but count plurals and some mass nouns do not, as in German and English

Der Mann verkauft Bücher in einem Buchladen
 theNOM man sellPRES/3PS bookACC/PL in aDAT bookshop
 'The man sells books in a bookshop.'

(Jaensch, 2008: 81)

3. [-arg, +pred] languages, which have definite/ indefinite articles and number marking on nouns and determiners – all nouns need to be licensed, as in Spanish:

El hombre vende los libros en una librería
 the man sellPRES/3PS thePL bookPL in a bookshop
 ‘The man sells books in a bookshop.’
 (Jaensch, 2008, 82)

3.3.4. Definiteness by Lyons (1999)

Lyons (1999) concentrates on the semantic value of article system in English and specifies that the English definite and indefinite articles, ‘the’ and ‘a’, are denoted with definiteness [\pm Def] rather than denoted with specificity [\pm Spec]. This means that the article choice in some languages happens to whether a referent is familiar to the speaker or not. Accordingly, every NP headed with the definite article ‘the’ must be read as definite and interpreted as known to the referent and every NP headed with the indefinite article ‘a’ must be interpreted as indefinite and inferred as unfamiliar to the speaker regardless of the NP’s being specific or non-specific as noted in his examples by Lyon (1999: 167):

(82) Joan wants to present the prize to **the** winner
 (a) ... but he doesn’t want to receive it from her. (Definite/ Specific)
 (b) ... so she’ll have to wait around till the race finishes. (Definite /Non-specific)

(Example (19) from Lyons 1999:167)

(83) Peter intends to marry **a** merchant banker
 (a) ... even though he doesn’t get on at all with her. (Indefinite/ Specific)

(b) ... though he hasn't met one yet. (Indefinite/ Non-specific)

(Example (18) from Lyons 1999:167)

Lyons (1999) also suggested that besides Germanic language, languages which have an overt morphology to encode definiteness, there are some other languages that encode specificity in the selection of the article as in Samoan language. Lyons (1999: 48) argues "...marking of simple definiteness is often a real feature. Most of the languages which mark definiteness overtly are in Europe and around Mediterranean. Like...English is one of those which mark definiteness overtly..."

3.3.5. Article Choice Parameter and Fluctuation Hypothesis by Ionin et al (2004) and Recent Studies

White (2009: 16) states "...Recent studies have replaced the classification scheme of HK and SR with one of definiteness and specificity..." Indeed, in recent studies about the English article acquisition Ionin et al (2004) proposed that the article use is regulated by a semantic parameter in Universal Grammar named the Article Choice Parameter. This Article Choice Parameter with its two settings, specificity and definiteness, establishes the whole makeup of the article system cross linguistically. In other words, Ionin et al (2004) suggest that languages with two articles encode their articles either on the basis of the definiteness setting (like in English) or the specificity setting (like in Samoan) as illustrated in Table 9

Table9. Article Settings cross linguistically

by definiteness			by specificity		
	+definite	-definite		+definite	-definite
+specific			+specific		
-specific			-specific		

(Adopted from Ionin et al, 2004)

In this context, for Ionin et al. (2004) definiteness refers to whether or not a referent is familiar to both, the speaker or hearer. In the light of this definition Ionin et al (2004: 5) suggest that "...If a Determiner Phrase (DP) of the form [D NP] is ... [+ definite], then the speaker and the hearer presuppose the existence of a unique individual in the set denoted by the NP..." On the other hand, Ionin et al (2004: 5) state "...If a Determiner Phrase (DP) of the form [D NP] is ... [+specific], then the speaker intends to refer to unique individual in the set denoted by the NP and considers this individual to possess some noteworthy property ..." This semantic feature of specificity depends on whether the speaker refers to a specific entity represented in his/her mind. Ionin (2003) follows some examples from Fodor & Sag (1982):

(84) A man just proposed to me in the orangery
(though I'm much too embarrassed to tell you who it was). (Specific)

(85) A man is in the women's bathroom
(but I haven't dared to go there to see who it is). (Non-specific)

(Fodor & Sag, 1982:359, ex. (7)-(8))

Considering the two parameter values, the definiteness and specificity setting, of the Article Choice Parameter, Ionin et al (2004), in their study, investigated the acquisition of the English articles in L2 by adult L1 Russian and L1 Korean speakers with different proficiency levels in English. Russian and Korean are languages without articles, whereas English is a language realizing both article categories overtly on the basis of the definiteness setting. Due to the difference between the languages the variable of transfer is absent in this case. The participants' tasks were to complete a forced-choice elicitation task followed by a written production task in English. Results showed that L1 Russian speakers were using the indefinite article 'a' in definite – non-specific contexts 33% of the time and the definite article 'the' in indefinite-specific contexts 36% of the time. L1 Korean speakers were

selecting the indefinite article ‘a’ in the same context, definite – non-specific, 14 % of the time and the definite article ‘the’ in indefinite-specific contexts 22% of the time. The results led to the conclusion that especially in ambiguous definite – non-specific [+def; -spec] and indefinite – specific [-def; +spec] contexts learners appear to fluctuate between the definiteness and specificity settings in their definite and indefinite choice of articles in English. Ionin et al. (2004:214) state “...In our study, we examine whether adult L2 English learners make the same type of error. To control for L1 transfer effects, we tested speakers of Korean, a language with no articles. The results of a forced-choice elicitation task showed that adult L1-Korean L2-English learners indeed overuse ‘the’ in place of ‘a’ in presuppositional indefinite contexts...” Ionin et al (2004) proposed the Fluctuation Hypothesis to account for the error patterns in the article use in L2 English. The Fluctuation Hypothesis suggests:

- a. L2 learners have full access to UG principles and parameter-settings.
- b. L2 learners fluctuate between different parameter-settings until the input leads them to set the parameter to the appropriate value.

(Adapted from Ionin et al, 2004: 17)

Accordingly, in order to determine fluctuation, it is expected that the learners overuse the definite article in indefinite –specific contexts and overuse the indefinite articles in definite – non- specific contexts as illustrated in Table 10 adapted from Ionin et al (2004: 18) which is in line with the Ionin et al’s (2004) study results:

Table10. Possible Article grouping

	+definite	-definite
+specific		\ / \ / \ / \ /
-specific	\ / \ / \ / \ /	

(Adapted from Ionin et al (2004: 18))

The Fluctuation Hypothesis was confirmed and further developed by another study by Ionin, Zubizarreta and Maldonado (2008) investigating whether Learners of L2 English with L1 Spanish and L1 Russian will fluctuate between the two parameter settings, definiteness and specificity. Spanish is a language with articles selecting the article on the basis of definiteness as in English, whereas Russian is a language without articles. The results showed that the group of L1 Spanish learners used the articles in definite and indefinite contexts appropriately, whereas L1 Russian learners fluctuated between the definiteness and specificity settings as suggested in the Fluctuation Hypothesis. Ionin, Zubizarreta and Maldonado (2008) proposed that the results of the L1 Spanish group showed evidence for transfer from L1 Spanish to L2 English due to the L1 Spanish speakers' ability to transfer L1 knowledge positively to L2 English. L1 Russian speakers, however, regarding the Universal Grammar access fluctuated between the specificity and definiteness setting of the Article Choice Parameter. As a result Ionin et al (2008) pointed on three variables influencing the acquisition of the English articles which are L1 transfer, L2 input and UG. They also found support by the L1 Spanish speakers in their suggestion that transfer overrides fluctuation and L2 learners with L1s that have articles should transfer article semantics from their L1 to their L2.

In line with the results of Ionin et al (2008) were the findings by Hawkins et al. (2006) investigating the acquisition of articles in L2 English by L1 Japanese and L1 Greek speakers. Japanese is a language without articles, whereas Greek is categorized as a language with articles. Results revealed that Japanese learners fluctuated between the two settings in Universal Grammar, while Greek learners showed positive transfer from L1 due to the knowledge state in L1 about article semantics and transfer from L1.

Lardiere (2004) examined the article acquisition by a L1 Chinese learner of L2 English. Her results showed that the L1 Chinese speaker supplied the appropriate definite article 84% of the time and the indefinite article 75, 5% of the time. Supporting Ionin et al (2008) she, additionally,

concluded that the definite article was acquired easily than the indefinite article because the definite article was categorized as featurally less complex.

3.3.6. Studies on L3 acquisition of articles

Besides article semantics in L2 TLA (third language acquisition) researchers were also interested "...in learning more about typology's overall role in the learner's ability to acquire an L3 as. Leung's (2005) findings suggest that knowledge of an L2 typologically close to the L3 facilitates acquisition. Gibson, Hufeisen, and Libbon (2001) observed that the typological relationship between the L1 and L3 has no bearing on L3 acquisition, but that that of the L2 and L3 might...". (Heidrick, 2006: 2).

In her study Leung (2005) investigated a group of L1 Cantonese with L2 English L3 French and a group of L1 Vietnamese learners of L2 French. Both languages, Cantonese and Vietnamese, are languages without articles and any other morphological marker for definiteness. English and French are typologically similar languages; similar in realizing an overt article system and sharing the same semantic conceptualizing (of definiteness setting) of articles. Data collection happened through written and oral production tasks. Results showed that the group of L2 English-L3 French learners significantly outperformed the Learners of L2 French in both task types and all three contexts, definite, indefinite- specific and indefinite – non-specific, and thus, concluded that L2 English had a positive effect on L3 French.

Leung's study (2005) was taken over and developed by Jaensch (2008) in her study about the influence of L2 on the article choice in L3. Jaensch (2008) investigated in her own study the influence of L2 in the acquisition of the feature of definiteness [\pm Def] in L3. Hereby, she compared two groups of 39 native Japanese speakers with different levels of L2 English proficiency. Japanese is a language with no overt article system but encoding NPs on the basis of the specificity setting, whereas English and German both

have an overt article system in which the selection of the proper article is based on definiteness. Jaensch (2005: 83) states “the present study also looks at the acquisition of the feature [\pm definite] in an L3, but differs somewhat from Leung (2005), in that it looks at the influence of the L2 proficiency (English) on this feature in the L3 German of L1 Japanese speakers...” After determining the participants’ language proficiencies in English and German, she conducted her test materials. They collected data through a forced – choice elicitation task in German which the learners completed by choosing a determiner from the given set of answers. This set of answers also included different cases of definite and indefinite articles. In the following is a sample by Jaensch (2008: 84):

(86) [+definite, -specific] with narrow scope reading

A: Entschuldigung. Können Sie mir helfen?

B: Ja, natürlich, was suchen Sie dann?

A: Ich suche ___ Straße wo sich das Stadttheater befindet, aber leider weiß ich den Namen nicht davon.

Antwort: der die das den dem einen eine ein einem einer

(Jaensch, 2008: 84)

Initial results of the forced- choice elicitation task indicated that the learners’ appropriate article choice was high as Jaensch (2008: 85) states “...learners were supplying appropriate articles a good deal of the time (78%)... However, a higher overuse of the definite article was found in contexts where a native speaker would use an indefinite article...” This led to a further look which showed “...a significantly higher overuse of the definite article in indefinite dative contexts. This pattern was confirmed throughout all German proficiency groups, and was further found to be significant when compared with nominative and accusative Case for proficiency groups 1 and 2...” (Jaensch, 2008: 85). She concluded that the learners made inappropriate choices neither due to the NPs specificity nor definiteness. The test results also indicated that learners of equal German

but a higher English proficiency significantly outperformed the learners with a lower English proficiency which indicated positive influence of L2 English on L3 German.

3.3.7. Summary

Many studies have been conducted to examine the acquisition of the English articles in L1, L2 but less in L3. An overall evaluation of the use of articles leads to several generalizations.

Firstly, studies revealed that the definite article is acquired at earlier stages in article acquisition compared to the indefinite article.

Secondly, all studies revealed that there was an overuse of the definite article in indefinite contexts and more specifically in indefinite – specific contexts [-definite, +specific] by children as well as by adults. In this context, two theories were proposed to account for this overuse. Especially, relating to the children's overuse of the definite article 'the' in indefinite contexts in L1 and L2 the egocentricity account by Piaget (1926) was used. The Fluctuation Hypothesis by Ionin et al (2004) was another theory to account for the definite article overuse across all groups in L2 acquisition of articles including errors in form of the indefinite article 'a' in definite contexts. This Hypothesis suggests that the error patterns in the use of articles in L2 English are due to developmental patterns. The learners fluctuate between different parameter-settings of Universal Grammar until the input leads them to set the appropriate parameter value (Ionin et al, 2004).

Lastly, studies about the influence of L1 on L2 (Ionin et al, 2008; Hawkins, 2006; Lardiere, 2004) and L2 on L3 (Jaensch, 2008; Leung, 2005) in the acquisition of articles revealed that the previous experience of a language with an overt article system marking definiteness has a positive influence on setting the appropriate parameter setting of Universal Grammar and using the articles appropriately (Leung, 2005; Jaensch, 2008), whereas

transfer from languages without articles resulted in omission and substitution errors (Ionin et al, 2008; Hawkins, 2006; Lardiere, 2004).

The aim of this study is to investigate whether there is a positive influence from L2 to L3 in the acquisition of articles. More specifically, due to the similarities in their article systems of the two typologically similar languages German and English the purpose of the study is to test whether there is a positive influence from L2 German to L3 English in the initial stage of acquisition by child learners with L1 Turkish. Additionally, considering the differences in the article system in Turkish and English another aim is to test whether Turkish child learners fluctuate between the two settings of the ACP (Ionin et al, 2004) referring to the FH (Ionin et al, 2004). Thus, the next chapter detailed description of the methodology of this study including the research questions, information about the subjects of this study, materials and testing procedure.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1. INTRODUCTION

There has been a lot of research conducted in literature about the acquisition of articles in English and some common findings have been drawn from those studies (see: Chapter 3 Literature Review). In the light of these study results, the difference between the article systems in Turkish, German and English (Turkish is a language that lacks an overt definite article, but German and English overtly realize the definite and indefinite articles basing the choice on the definiteness setting) provides a good opportunity to investigate the article choice in different contexts in L3 English by Learners of L2 German with L1 Turkish. More specifically, the aim of this study is to examine two issues: (1) whether similarity of having overt definite and indefinite determiners in German and English and basing article choice on the definiteness setting results in a positive transfer from second language (L2) German to third language (L3) English during initial stage of the acquisition of the article system in L3, and (2) whether due to the difference between Turkish and English in article system, Turkish children fluctuate between the two settings of the Article Choice Parameter (Ionin et al, 2004). Thus, this study examines the following questions:

Research Questions:

1. With reference to the L2 effect; do the different levels, elementary (A1) and pre-intermediate (B1), of L2 German proficiency have a positive effect on the child learners' judgment of articles in the L3 in the initial stage? In particular, will child learners of equal English (A1) but a higher German proficiency (B1) outperform those with lower German proficiency (A1)?

2. Considering the Fluctuation Hypothesis; do the child learners of L2 English whose native language is Turkish fluctuate between the two settings of the Article Choice Parameter, definiteness and specificity, in the initial stage?

With reference to these above presented research questions, brief information about the syntactical background of the three languages, Turkish, English and German, will be given followed by the predictions for both research questions in the light of the syntactical differences.

The article system in Turkish is different from the article system in English and German. Turkish is a language that lacks overt morphological determiner for definiteness, but uses different ways to mark definiteness and specificity. Some ways of marking definiteness and specificity are using accusative case markers, word order, intonation and the quasi-indefinite article 'bir' which also corresponds to the numeral 'one' in Turkish (Kornfilt, 1997). English and German, on the other hand, are languages that overtly realize articles, the definite and the indefinite articles, basing their article choice on the definiteness setting (Lyons, 1999; Jaensch, 2008) and sharing the same semantic conceptualization.

With respect to the first question, due to the similarity of having overt determiners in German and English and sharing the same conceptualization, it is expected that L2 German will have a positive effect on these learners' judgment of articles in L3 English. In addition, for the reason that L3 learners of L3 English have previously experienced German as an L2 and L2 German learners with higher proficiency (B1) have higher awareness towards the feature of definiteness, it is also expected that the learners with lower L3 English (A1) but higher L2 German proficiency (B1) outperform the learners with equal (A1) English and German proficiency in the forces – choice elicitation task and the written production task.

With respect to the second research question, whether due to the difference between Turkish and English in article system, Turkish children fluctuate between the two settings of the Article Choice Parameter by Ionin et

al.(2004), I expect the L2 learner of English with L1 Turkish to fluctuate between the two settings of the Article Choice Parameter, the definiteness setting and the specificity setting (Ionin et al, 2004) in both task types, the forced – choice elicitation task as well as the written production task for the reason that the article system in the Turkish language does not correspond to the article system in the English language. Accordingly, the following sections provide detailed information about the subjects followed by the materials of this study. Lastly, the data collection procedure will be outlined.

4.2. SUBJECTS

The participants in this study were two groups of English learners. The first group involved 41 Turkish learners of L2 English. The second group was a group of 36 Turkish learners of L2 German and L3 English. In order to compare the subjects' task outcomes there were also 10 English native speakers involved who served as a control group. In the following sections a detailed presentation of the characteristics of each group is described.

4.2.1. L2 English learners with L1 Turkish

The group consisted of 41 native speakers of Turkish aged 11 to 12 who had all received obligatory English classes as an L2. Their mean of length of education was between 5 and 6 years all beginning at a mean age of 7. None of these participants had any other further non-native language experience before beginning English as an L2. The following Table 11 illustrates the characteristics of the learners of L2 English:

Table 11. Background information of L2 English with L1 Turkish
L2 English learners

Number	41
Sex	15 male, 26 female
Age range	11-12
Native language	Turkish
L2	English
Exposure (in years)	5 to 6 years

All non-native participants of the L2 English group completed the Oxford Placement Quick Test which is a standard measure of proficiency for English in all levels from A1 to C2. This enabled a division of the group into two L2 English proficiency sub-groups, an A1 (Beginner) group of 39 and an A2 (Elementary) group of 2 subjects at the beginning of the study, as shown in Table 12:

Table 12. Grouping of L2 English learners with L1 Turkish according to L2 English proficiency levels

	Group 1	Group 2
L2 English proficiency levels	A1 (Beginner)	A2 (Elementary)
Number	39	2

4.2.2. L2 German Learners with L1 Turkish

This group consisted of 36 native speakers of Turkish aged 11 to 12 who had all received obligatory German classes as an L2. Their mean of length of German instruction was between 6 and 7 years beginning at a

mean age of 6 years. None of these participants had any other further non-native language experience before beginning English as an L3. The mean length of English education was between 2 and 3 years all beginning at a mean age of 10 years, as shown in Table 13:

Table 13. Background information of L2 German learners with L1 Turkish
L2 German learners

Number	36
Sex	21 male, 15female
Age range	11 – 12
Native language	Turkish
L2 and	German
exposure (in years)	6 – 7 years
L3	English
Exposure (in years)	2 – 3 years

All non-native participants of the L2 German group completed the Oxford Placement Quick Test at the beginning of the study, as well. This enabled a division of the group into two L3 English proficiency sub-groups, an A1 (Beginner) group consisting of 23 participants and an A2 (Elementary) involving 13 participants, as shown in Table 14:

Table 14. Grouping of L2 German learners with L1 Turkish according to L3 English proficiency levels

	Group 1	Group 2
L3 English proficiency levels	A1 (Beginner)	A2 (Elementary)
Number (and sex)	23	13

The English proficiency groups were further divided according to the L2 German learners' German proficiencies, which were obtained via Fit 1, which measures an A1 level of proficiency in German, and ZDJ1, which measures a B1 level of German, from the Goethe Institute. The following Table 15 shows the division of the participants according to their proficiencies in both languages, German and English.

Table 15. Grouping of L2 German learners with L1 Turkish according to L2 German and L3 English proficiency levels

L2 German proficiency groups	L3 English proficiency groups	
	Group 1 Beginner (A1)	Group 2 Elementary (A2)
A1 (Beginner)	14	7
B1 (Pre- intermediate)	9	6

4.2.3. Monolingual English speakers

This study also involved a group of 10 English native speakers who served as a control group aged 11 to 12, as well. All child speakers of this group originated from different parts of the UK or the USA. The following Table 16 presents the characteristics of this group:

Table 16. Monolingual English children's background information

Monolinguals	
Number	10
Sex	5 male, 5 female
Age range	11 – 12

4.3. MATERIALS

Previous research on second language acquisition of articles carried out tests on article acquisition involving techniques like forced-choice elicitation, production tasks either orally, written or both to elicit data from participants (Hueber, 1983; Ince, 2012; Ionin et al, 2004; Jaensch, 2008; Leung, 2005; Parrish, 1987; Thomas, 1989; Yilmaz, 2006). This study collected data by conducting two of these commonly used techniques, as well: a forced-choice elicitation task and a written production task. Proficiency tests were also included in the task in order to determine the participants' proficiency levels in English and German. The following sections offer details about the administered proficiency tests, forced-choice elicitation task and written production task.

4.3.1. Proficiency tests

Before running any tests on the participants' article choices two proficiency tests were run in order to prepare the setting for the main study. The two tests were, firstly, the Oxford Placement Quick Test and, secondly, Fit1 and ZDJ1 from the Goethe Institute to determine the participants' language levels in English and German administered only on the non-native participants which were described earlier in section '4.2 Subjects'.

The Oxford Placement Quick Test is a standard measure of proficiency for English. This test has a standardized scale that determines learners' levels as beginner, elementary, intermediate, or advanced including all levels from A1 to C2.

Fit 1 is a standard test measuring an A1 level of proficiency in German, and ZDJ1 standard test which measures a B1 level of German from the Goethe Institute.

4.3.2. Forced – choice elicitation task

The forced – choice elicitation task is a preferred task type because it allows total control over the testing material and is an easy way to elicit observable answers from subjects' performances (Ionin et al, 2004; Jaensch, 2008). Thus, the first part of the main study was a forced- choice task for examining the choice of determiners in various semantic contexts with reference to Bickerton's (1981) taxonomy and Ionin et al's (2004) Article Choice Parameter. In the forced – choice elicitation task a number of different contexts are given since the interpretation of the relevant determiner is dependent on the nouns in a given context. Those contexts include 40 short dialogues where in each one the determiner to be examined is omitted. These dialogues were adapted from Ionin et al (2004) and slightly changed. All omitted articles are selected from singular concrete nouns and are object NPs. Following Ionin et al.'s (2004) Article Choice Parameter, four different contexts build the baseline for the dialogues. These are all definite-specific, definite-non-specific, indefinite-specific and indefinite-non-specific. Those four contexts are further divided into narrow scope, wide scope, and no interaction categories (Ionin et al, 2004) in order to provide a range of different contexts (see Appendix C for all test items categorized according to the above classifications) In addition, all four contexts are utilized evenly in number consisting of 10 items per article context type (10 definite – non-specific, 10 definite – specific, 10 indefinite-specific and 10 indefinite-non-specific contexts). The test also includes additional 12 items that are used as distracters and have no effect on the test results since they represent an irrelevant category for the study. Hence, the total number of different contexts is 52. These 52 contexts provide a set of article options ranging from *the*, *a* to \emptyset (*null article*) and are distributed in a random order. In the following are example dialogues for each context;

4.3.2.1. [+Definite/ + Specific]

The presented example is resembling a [+definite/ + specific] context with a wide scope interaction in which the speaker, in this case Officer 2, is familiar with the knowledge offered in italics.

(87) Conversation between two police officers

Police Officer 1: I haven't seen you in a long time. You must be very busy.

Police Officer 2: Yes. Did you hear about Mrs. Ally, a doctor was killed 2 weeks ago? *We are trying to find (a / the / —) murderer of Mrs. Ally —his name is Jake Cortuga.*

(Adapted from Ionin et al, 2004)

In this example (87) the article to be selected would be the definite article 'the' for the reason that the speaker 'Police Officer 2' knows the murderer and he /she is referring to a specific person he / she has in mind. .

4.3.2.2. [+Definite/ - Specific]

The given example (88) has a [+definite/ - specific] interpretation since the context is definite with a narrow scope in which Officer 2 has no knowledge of the entity in italics.

(88) At the police station

Officer 1: Yesterday a man broke into a house and took the TV, microwave oven and fridge.

Officer2: Yes, that's correct! *We are looking for (a / the / —) man – but we still don't know who he was.*

(Adapted from Ionin et al, 2004)

In this example the speaker (88) 'Officer 2' knows about the particular man but the speaker does not refer to a man that he has in mind.

4.3.2.3. [-Definite/ + Specific]

This example (89) offers a [-definite/ + specific] context which is of a wide scope in which the speaker 'man' has specific knowledge about the entity:

(89) At the station

Man: Excuse me, do you work here?

Security guard: Yes.

Man: Can you help me? *I am looking for (a / the / —) train; I think it came 10 minutes ago.*

(Adapted from Ionin et al, 2004)

In this example (89) both, the speaker and the hearer, do not presuppose the existence of the 'train' which the speaker 'man' refers to.

4.3.2.4. [-Definite/ - Specific]

This example (90) has a [-definite/ - specific] context where there is a narrow scope in which the speaker 'Customer' has no knowledge of the entity marked with italics:

(90) At a shop

Shop Assistant: Good morning, Mr. May I help you?

Customer: Yes, please. *I want to buy (a / the / —) present for my wife for her birthday tomorrow but I don't know what to buy.*

(Adapted from Ionin et al, 2004)

Here (90) neither the speaker nor the hearer is familiar to the entity 'present'. Besides this the speaker 'customer' has no specific 'present' in mind.

4.3.2.5. Additional items

The additional items as mentioned in the earlier part (see: Forced – choice elicitation Task) have no relevance for the study since they either represent an NP with a possessive adjective placed before or the grammatical category of superlatives or ordinal numbers as it is demonstrated in the following examples:

(91) At home

Kate: Jack, honey? How was your exam?

Jack: I'm okay. I feel good. I think, *I passed (a / the / —) my exam.*

(Adapted from Ionin et al, 2004)

(92) In the café (the →superlative)

Rose: How was your trip to London?

Jim: It was wonderful. *I saw (a / the / —) most beautiful place in my life.*

(Adapted from Ionin et al, 2004)

In the first example (91) the noun 'exam' is encoded with the possessive article 'my' and thus does not require any additional article. The second example (92), on the other hand, includes the superlative adjective and therefore, has to be used with the definite article and its choice is not discourse related as in the above four contexts.

4.3.3. Written production task

The second part of the main study was a written production task adapted from Ionin et al (2004) in which the participants, except for the English natives (since their responses had no effect on the data results), had to complete the same set of tasks with the purpose of obtaining similar production results in a more naturalistic setting compared to the forced – choice elicitation task. In the written production task all participants got the same 4 tasks to write about in 3 to 5 sentences. The tasks involved the following:

1. Talk about a favourite object that you have or had in the past:
 - a. Talk about something that you got as a present, and tell about how you got it,
 - or
 - b. Talk about something that you lost and tell about how you lost it.
2. Talk about your holiday: What did you do? , Where did you go?, What did you eat and drink?, Who did you meet ...
3. Describe your room – talk about what objects you have in your room and describe them.
4. Think you have got \$1000 – You must spend it right away. Talk about where you go and what you buy.

This written production task is used to gain more data about the article selection of the subjects in a more indirect but naturalistic way and to support the subjects' performances in the forced – choice elicitation task. By writing about the tasks, which mostly involve describing objects and places, the participants are predominantly expected to use nouns with reference to especially previously mentioned two contexts which are [+definite/ + specific] and [- definite/ - specific]. All of the contexts in the written production task

were marked, categorized and counted individually. This detailed analysis offers implications about the subject's article selection performance.

4.4. PROCEDURE

All subjects were invited into classroom settings, where they were seated randomly. Before the session started, the test takers were instructed with a standardized explanation of directions about how to complete the first part of the test, namely the forced – choice elicitation task. After handing out the forced – choice elicitation task the subjects were asked to read through the given 52 contexts including the 40 contexts to be examined carefully and select the appropriate determiner for the particular context in the given dialogue form from the set of given article choices in a time span of 40 minutes. The subjects were allowed to ask for unknown vocabularies since the aim of the test is to examine the article choice only. They were not allowed to leave the classroom before completing the test.

Following the first session, the second part of the test, namely the written production task, was handed out to the subjects in the same classroom setting, except for the control group. Here the experimental groups were instructed to read through the given four tasks described above and to write one paragraph consisting of 3 to 5 sentences to answer each task separately. In this task the subjects had no time limitation. Yet again they were allowed to ask about unknown vocabulary, but couldn't leave the session until all tasks were completed by each subject individually.

The next chapter discusses results of the conducted forced – choice elicitation task and the written production task.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This section involves two parts, the results of the forced – choice elicitation task and the results of the written production task. First, the results of the conducted forced- choice elicitation task which included items of 4 different article contexts will be presented. Recall that, these four context task are indefinite – definite contexts, indefinite – non-specific contexts, definite-specific and definite – non-specific contexts (see Appendix C for all test items categorized according to the above classifications) Hereby, first, the overall accuracy rates of the 23 learners of L2 German with an A1 level of English and the 39 learners of L2 English with an A1 level of English and the control group in each of the four article contexts will be presented in order to have comparable data and to determine the differences among these groups and among the four article contexts. Next, the accuracy rates of the 23 participants with equal level of L3 English (A1) but different levels of L2 German proficiencies (A1 and B1) will follow in order to determine the differences between the article choices among the two groups of learners of L2 German and the article contexts as well. The last section of this chapter presents the results of the written production which included 4 different tasks. Recall that only the participants of the experimental group had to respond to the assignments in the written production task in order to obtain data to support the forced – choice elicitation results.

To analyze each of the results of the forced – choice elicitation task a one – way repeated measure of ANOVA was used. For the written production task, the use of the appropriate article was analyzed by marking, categorizing and counting each context individually. Their means are given in percentages.

In the next section, some necessary details about the forced – choice elicitation task will be introduced and the results will be discussed.

5.2. FORCED – CHOICE ELICITATION TASK RESULTS

The forced- choice elicitation task was conducted on all participant groups, a group of 36 learners of L2 German, a group of 41 Learners of L2 English and 10 native speakers of English who served as a control group. Recall that, the forced – choice elicitation included 40 items of 4 article contexts (10 definite-specific, 10 definite-non-specific, 10 indefinite-specific and 10 indefinite-non-specific) in short dialogue form in which each one the determiner to be examined was omitted and 12 additional items that have no relevance for the test results and are therefore excluded from the results. All participants completed the forced – choice elicitation task by choosing an article from a given set of options (a, the and null article) for all four contexts as shown in the following examples:

(93) definite-specific

Conversation between two police officers

Police Officer 1: I haven't seen you in a long time. You must be very busy.

Police Officer 2: Yes. Did you hear about Mrs. Ally, a doctor was killed 2 weeks ago? *We are trying to find (a / the / —) murderer of Mrs. Ally —his name is Jake Cortuga.*

(Adapted from Ionin et al, 2004)

(94) definite-non-specific

At the police station

Officer 1: Yesterday a man broke into a house and took the TV, microwave oven and fridge.

Officer2: Yes, that's correct! *We are looking for (a / the / —) man –*

but we still don't know who he was.

(Adapted from Ionin et al, 2004)

(95) indefinite-specific

At the station

Man: Excuse me, do you work here?

Security guard: Yes.

Man: Can you help me? *I am looking for (a / the / —) train; I think it came 10 minutes ago.*

(Adapted from Ionin et al, 2004)

(96) indefinite-non-specific

At a shop

Shop Assistant: Good morning, Mr. May I help you?

Customer: Yes, please. *I want to buy (a / the / —) present for my wife for her birthday tomorrow but I don't know what to buy.*

(Adapted from Ionin et al, 2004)

In what follows is the discussion of the overall results of the forced – choice elicitation task.

5.2.1. Overall results from the forced– choice elicitation task

The forced – choice elicitation task, as pointed out in the earlier section, was run on all test groups, the two experimental groups and the control group. The overall results of the learners of L2 German and learners of L2 English were further categorized according to their proficiency level of A1 in English in order to obtain comparable data for analyses. Therefore, the overall results show the appropriate choice of articles by 23 learners of L2 German with an A1 level of English and 39 learners of L2 English with an A1 level of English and the control group in all four contexts (definite-specific,

definite-non-specific, indefinite-specific and indefinite-non-specific). These results are grouped according to the three groups' mean accuracy scores and SDs of the use of the definite and indefinite articles in previously mentioned four contexts and are reported in decimals in Table 17. Each target like response was numbered with 1 and incorrect choices were marked as 0. The means in Table 17 are out of a total number of 40 test items regarding each participant's individual performance.

Table 17. Overall mean accuracy scores for article use in four contexts

Subjects	IDS		IDNONS		DS		DNONS	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Learners of L2 German (n=23)	5.74	1.738	6.13	1.984	5.65	2.187	6.61	2.350
Learners of L2 English (n=39)	3.05	1.503	3.49	1.554	3.85	1.565	3.67	1.660
Control Group (n=10)	8.40	1.174	8.50	.707	9.40	.699	9.50	.707

IDS (indefinite – definite contexts), IDNONS (indefinite – non-specific contexts), DS (definite-specific), DNONS (definite – non-specific contexts)

In Table 17, the mean accuracy scores of the L2 German learner group's results show an almost consistent level of performance on a type-by-type basis in which the mean score of definite-specific context (DS) is the lowest ($M = 5.65$) and the definite – non-specific contexts (DNONS) is the highest ($M = 6.61$) followed by the indefinite – non-specific contexts (IDNONS) ($M = 6.13$) and indefinite – specific contexts (IDS) ($M = 5.74$). This indicates that the learners of L2 German seem to be more accurate in the mentioned definite – non-specific contexts (DNONS) and indefinite – non-specific contexts (IDNONS), whereas they seem to be less accurate in definite-specific contexts (DS). The mean accuracy score of indefinite –

specific contexts (IDS) provides little evidence for high or low degree of accuracy since it has an in-between mean score (M= 5.74).

Relating to the L2 English learners' results, Table 17 demonstrates an also almost consistent level of performance on a type-by-type basis in which the mean score of indefinite-specific context (IDS) is the lowest (M= 3.05) and the definite – specific contexts (DS) is the highest (M= 3.85) followed by the definite – non-specific contexts (DNONS) (M= 3.67) and indefinite – non-specific contexts (IDNONS) (M= 3.49). This indicates that the learners of L2 English seem to be more accurate in the mentioned definite – specific contexts (DS) and definite – non-specific contexts (DNONS), whereas they seem to be less accurate in indefinite-specific contexts (IDS). The mean accuracy score of indefinite – non- specific contexts (IDNONS) provides little evidence for high or low degree of accuracy since it has an in-between mean score (M= 3.49).

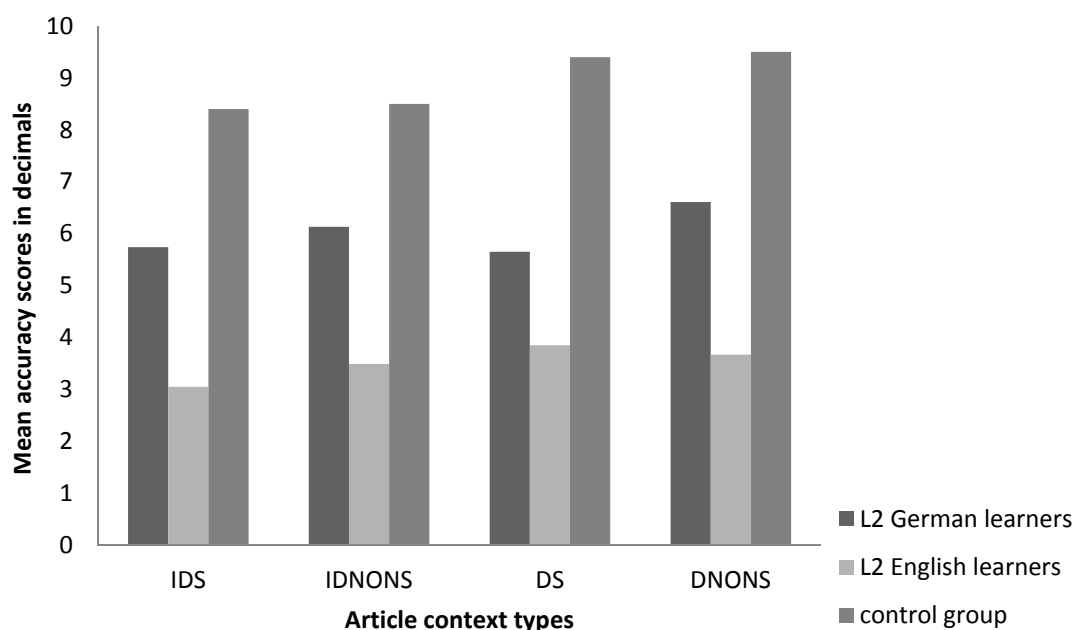
Table 17 illustrates that the mean accuracy scores of the control group of native speakers of English are almost consistent on a type-by-type basis too in which the mean score of indefinite-specific contexts (IDS) is the lowest (M= 8.40). The mean scores also indicate that the control group seems to be the most accurate in definite – non-specific contexts (DNONS) and definite – specific contexts (DS), whereas they seem to be less accurate in indefinite-specific contexts (IDS) and in indefinite – non- specific contexts (IDNONS) with a mean score of (M= 8.50).

In addition, as can be seen from the results in Table 17, comparisons of the overall accuracy scores across all three groups also show that the control group on a type- by- type basis is the overall most accurate group followed by the group of learners of L2 German. Relating to the accuracy scores in Table 17 the group of learners of L2 English is the overall least accurate group.

Figure 5 shows the mean accuracy scores for four article contexts (indefinite – definite contexts, indefinite – non-specific contexts, definite-specific and definite – non-specific) by the two experimental groups, the

learners of L2 German and learners of L2 English all with an A1 level of English proficiency and the control group.

Figure 5. Overall mean accuracy scores for article context types



To examine whether the difference in the mean accuracy scores of the experimental groups show any statistical significances a repeated measures analyses of variances (ANOVAs) was conducted with context types (IDS, IDNONS, DS, DNONS) as the repeated-within factor and language groups (L2 German learners, L2 English learners and control group) as the between-subjects factor. The results revealed an overall significant main effect for article context type ($F(3, 207) = 3.296, p = .021$); a significant main effect for language groups (L2 German learners, L2 English learners and the control group) ($F(2, 69) = 16.94, p = .000$); and no interaction between the three language groups (L2 German learners, L2 English learners and the control group) ($F(6, 207) = 1.103, p = .362$) which suggests that there are significant differences among the language groups (L2 German learners, L2 English learners and the control group) in terms of overall accuracy for the four context types. The post-hoc analysis of language groups (L2 German learners, L2 English learners and the control group) revealed significant

differences among all groups (Bonferroni, $p = .000$) in which the English native speakers were significantly more accurate on four article contexts than the two L2 learners. The L2 English group was the least accurate group among the three groups which suggests that L2 German has an effect on the article choice.

Pairwise comparisons (Bonferroni, $p < .05$) of the four context following the ANOVA above, indicated that IDS (indefinite – specific) contexts were significantly more difficult than the three other context types (Bonferroni, $p = .018$), confirming previous findings of Cziko's (1986), Thomas (1989), Brown (1973), Maratsos (1974, 1976), Warden (1976) and Ionin et al. (2004) showing an overuse of the definite article in indefinite- specific contexts.

To examine significant differences in the least accurate language group by context type, an ANOVA with the mean accuracy scores of the L2 English learners was conducted with context type as repeated within subjects. Results revealed no main effect for context type ($F(3, 114) = 1.832$, $p = .145$) confirming Ionin et al. (2004) in their Fluctuation Hypothesis (2004) bringing further forward that L2 learners have full access to Universal Grammar principles and parameter settings (definiteness and specificity) and L2 learners fluctuate between different parameter settings until the input leads them to set the parameter to the appropriate value (Ionin et al, 2004: 17).

The next section will follow with the accuracy results of the forced-choice elicitation task by the learners of L2 German with L3 English to find out whether the accuracy results were affected by the participants' proficiency in L2 German.

5.2.2. Results from the forced-choice elicitation task by the two L2 German groups with L3 English A1 level

In this section, in order to obtain a more specific homogeneous group including only subjects with an A1 level of L3 English proficiency, firstly, all

learners of L2 German with an L3 English proficiency level of A2 were excluded. Additionally, a further division of this L3 English A1 homogeneous group based on the subjects' proficiency levels into L2 German proficiencies followed which enabled to obtain two further sub-groups, a group with equal level (A1) of L3 English and L2 German proficiency (n=14) and a group with L3 English A1 but with a higher L2 German proficiency (B1) (n=9) as shown in Table 18. To explain, the mean accuracy scores of the forced-choice elicitation task are categorized according to the distribution of the participants into two groups which are L2 German A1 and German B1. Table 18 shows the means and SDs accuracy scores of the four article context types in decimals. The results in Table 18 are the means of the total number of 40 test items regarding each participant's individual performance based on their equal English (A1) level and L2 German proficiency levels, A1 and B1. It also shows the results of the control group of 10 native speakers of English to build the basis.

Table 18. Mean accuracy scores by L2 German groups with L3 English level A1

Subjects		IDS		IDNONS		DS		DNONS	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
German	A1 (n=14)	5.00	1.617	5.07	1.639	4.43	1.453	5.36	1.946
	B1 (n= 9)	6.89	1.269	7.78	1.202	7.56	1.740	8.56	1.424
Control Group (n=10)		8.40	1.174	8.50	.707	9.40	.699	9.50	.707

IDS (indefinite – definite contexts), IDNONS (indefinite – non-specific contexts), DS (definite – specific), DNONS (definite – non-specific contexts)

An item based analysis of the mean accuracy results of the group with equal level (A1 level) of L3 English proficiency and L2 German proficiency in Table 18 demonstrate that this group is almost consistent on a type-by-type basis except for the lowest mean score in definite – specific contexts (DS)

(M= 4.43) . On the other hand, they are the most accurate in definite – non-specific contexts (DNONS) (M= 5.36) followed by the indefinite – non-specific contexts (IDNONS) (M=5.07) and the indefinite- specific contexts (IDS) (M= 5.00) across all four contexts.

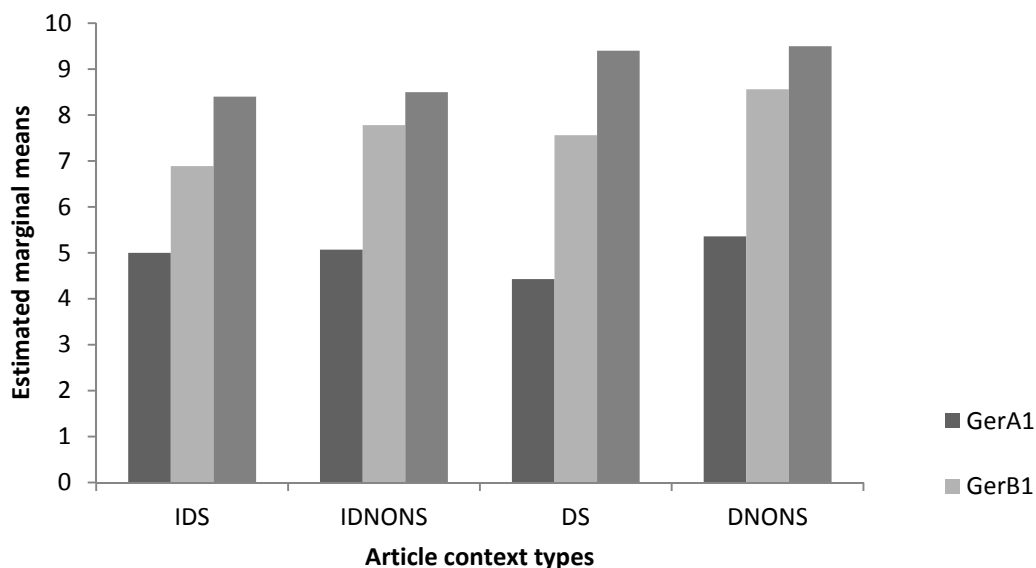
An item based analysis of the mean accuracy scores of the four article context types show that the L2 German B1 group with L3 English level A1 are highly accurate in definite – non-specific contexts (DNONS) (M= 8.56) followed by the score in indefinite – non- specific contexts (IDNONS) with the mean scores of (M= 7.78) . It is followed by the definite – specific contexts (DS) (M= 7.56). On the other hand, the mean score in indefinite –specific contexts (IDS) is the lowest (M= 6.89).

The mean accuracy scores of the control group are almost consistent on a type-by-type basis as well. The mean score of indefinite-specific contexts (IDS) is also the lowest (M= 8.40) and the definite – non-specific contexts (DNONS) is the highest (M= 9.50) followed by the definite –specific contexts (DS) (M= 9.40). This indicates that the control group seems to be the most accurate in definite – non-specific contexts (DNONS) and definite – specific contexts (DS), whereas they seem to be less accurate in indefinite-specific contexts (IDS) and in indefinite – non- specific contexts (IDNONS) with a mean score of (M= 8.50).

As also can be seen from the mean scores in Table 18, overall accuracy for four context types among all groups show that all three groups are the most accurate in definite – non- specific (DNONS) contexts. In addition, the mean scores of the German B1 group and the control group show the lowest accuracy score in indefinite – specific (IDS) contexts (M= 6.89) and (M = 8.40). Further comparisons of the results between the two L2 German groups, A1 and B1, show that the participants' judgments in both groups are highly accurate in definite – non-specific contexts (DNONS) as mentioned earlier, but vary a lot in all remaining contexts, in indefinite – non-specific contexts (IDNONS), indefinite – specific contexts (IDS) and definite – specific contexts (DS).

Figure 6 illustrates the mean accuracy scores of the L2 German proficiency groups (A1 and B1) with an A1 proficiency level in L3 English and the control group.

Figure 6. Mean accuracy scores by German proficiencies and control group



To examine whether the differences observed in the mean accuracy scores of four context types in three groups is statistically significant a repeated measures analyses of variances (ANOVAs) was conducted with context types (IDS, IDNONS, DS, DNONS) as the repeated-within factor and language groups (L2 German A1, L2 German B1 and control group) as the between-subject factor. The results revealed an overall significant main effect for context types ($F(3, 90) = 3.32, p = .023$); a significant effect for language groups ($F(2, 30) = 27.27, p = .000$); and no significant interaction for language groups ($F(6, 90) = 1.220, p = .303$) which suggests that there are significant differences among the language groups in terms of overall accuracy for four context types. The post-hoc analysis (Tukey HSD, $p < .05$) of language groups revealed that the English native speakers were significantly more accurate on four context types than the two L2 German

learners, and that the L2 German B1 learners were significantly more accurate from L2 German A1 learners.

Pairwise comparisons (Bonferroni, $p < .05$) of four article contexts indicated that indefinite – specific contexts (IDS) contexts ($p = .074$) were significantly more difficult than the three other context types confirming previous findings of Ionin, Zubizarreta and Maldonado (2008) suggesting that three variables influence the acquisition of the English articles which are L1 transfer, L2 input and UG and that L2 learners with L1s that have articles should transfer article semantics from their L1 to their L2. In this case, all results ascertain that L2 German learners with B1 level of German has a positive influence on the judgment of the appropriate article in L3 English in initial stage of acquisition by child learners.

In the next section, a brief overview of the written production task will be presented followed by the discussion of the results of the written production task in the light of the results from the forced – choice elicitation task.

5.3. WRITTEN PRODUCTION TASK RESULTS

The written production task involving 4 different assignments was run subsequently only on the experimental group of 36 L2 German learners and L2 English learners. All participants were expected to write 3 to 5 sentences about each of the 4 tasks. Recall that, the written production task involved four different assignments that predominantly require the use of noun phrases as they are presented in the following:

1. Talk about a favourite object that you have or had in the past:
 - a. Talk about something that you got as a present, and tell about how you got it,
 - or
 - b. Talk about something that you lost and tell about how you lost it.

2. Talk about your holiday: What did you do? , Where did you go?, What did you eat and drink?, Who did you meet ...
3. Describe your room – talk about what objects you have in your room and describe them.
4. Think you have got \$1000 – You must spend it right away. Talk about where you go and what you buy...

(Adapted from Ionin et al, 2004)

In the next section, the overall results will be presented and discussed in the light of the findings from the forced – choice elicitation task.

5.3.1. Overall written production task results by experimental groups

As mentioned in the previous section, all 77 participants of the experimental group completed the four tasks of the written task production as expected. In order to collect data from the written production task all NP environments of the subject's utterances were analyzed and only NPs contexts requiring the articles 'a' and 'the' in single object NP environments were selected for further investigation. The number of all selected NPs was summed up to elicit a base number for the total use of both articles, definite and indefinite. In addition to this, all appropriate article uses were assigned with the number 1 and were counted as the overall results in percentages illustrates in Table 19. In contrary to the expectations, this task obtained less utterances and during the classification of the article contexts only a small number of preferred NP environments were gained from nearly all of the 77 participants which appeared restricted to only definite – specific(DS) and indefinite – non-specific (IDNONS) contexts. Therefore, the table involves only mean accuracy results from indefinite – non-specific contexts (IDNONS) and definite – specific contexts (DS) in percentages.

Table 19. Overall mean accuracy scores for article use by experimental group

Subjects	obligatory IDNONS NPs	appropriate use of IDNONS articles	obligatory DS article NPs	appropriate use of DS article
L2 German learners (n=36)	189	53,97% (n=102)	40	50 % (n= 20)
L2 English learners (n=41)	222	6, 76% (n=15)	74	9, 46% (n= 7)

IDNONS (indefinite – non-specific), DS (definite – specific), NP (noun phrase)

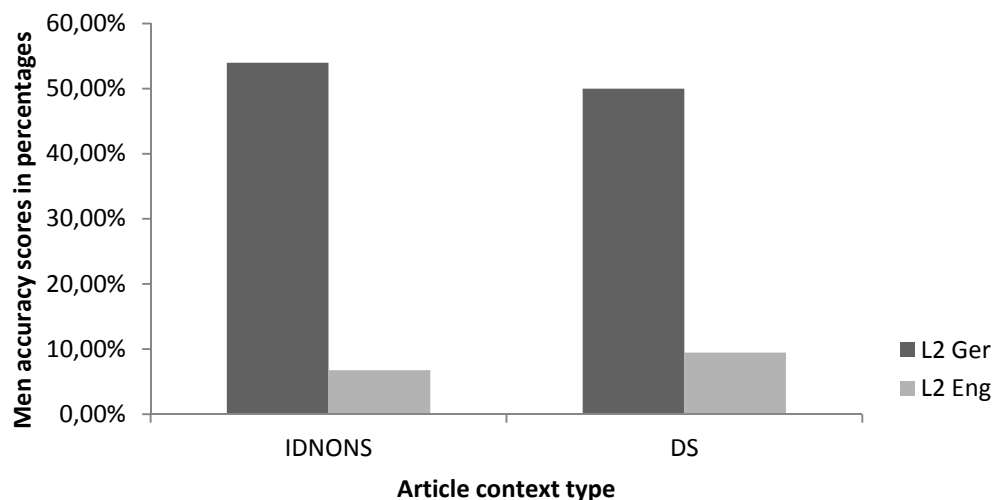
The accuracy results in Table19 demonstrate that in indefinite-nonspecific contexts (IDNONS) all learners of L2 German used the indefinite article ‘a’ accurately at a rate of 53, 97% and in definite- specific contexts (DS) the L2 German learners supplied the appropriate definite article accurately at the decreasing rate of 50%. This results show that the L2 German group is supplying the indefinite as well as the definite article in an almost consistent level of accuracy.

Relating to the L2 English group the results in Table 19 reveals that this group is more accurate in supplying the definite article in definite – specific contexts (DS) at the rate of 9,46 %, whereas they supply the indefinite article in the indefinite – non-specific (IDNONS) at a rate of 6,76%.

As can be seen from the results in Table19 the L2 German learners are more accurate than the L2 English learners in their judgment in supplying the appropriate article in both contexts, IDNONS and DS.

Figure 7 illustrates the mean accuracy rate of the appropriate suppliance of the definite and indefinite articles by groups, the L2 German learners as well as the L2 English learners.

Figure 7. Overall mean accuracy scores by L2 German and L2 English learners



To sum up, the written production task, since it reflects article use in a naturalistic setting, also provided supplementary useful information in that it showed that the two groups, L2 German and L2 English learners' performances and were found in line with the results of the forced – choice elicitation task in that it confirmed that the L2 German learners performances were more accurate overall. However, inappropriate selections of the indefinite article in both groups were based on omissions in indefinite – nonspecific contexts (IDNONS), whereas the inappropriate sections of the definite article in definite – specific contexts (DS) could be traced back to partly omission of the article and to a relatively small number to misuse of the indefinite article as some excerpts from both participants performances show:

(97) ...I have got [a] Ø bed, [a] Ø cupboard, [a] Ø picture, lots of books and toys in my room

(Omission of the indefinite articles)

(98)...I lost my teddy bear, I liked it. My mum buy [the] Ø teddy bear...

(Omission of the definite article)

(99)... I buy...a dog. [The] A dog is Golden.

(Misuse of the indefinite article)

In the next section, the accuracy rates of the written production task by the L2 German learners with the same L3English A1 proficiency level but different L2 German proficiency levels as A1 and B1 will be presented to find out whether the accuracy results were affected by the L2 German group's proficiency. Then, the results will be shortly discussed in the light of the L2 German learners' results in the forced – choice elicitation task.

5.3.2. Results from written production task by L2 German proficiency levels with L3 English A1 level

To begin with, for the reason that results in the forced – choice elicitation task measures confirmed the positive effect of German proficiencies on article choice, the same procedure was applied to the written production task, as well. All participants of the experimental group with an L3 English proficiency level of A2 were excluded in order to obtain a specific homogeneous group including only subjects with an A1 level of L3English. After this, a further division followed regarding the L2 German proficiency levels which resulted in two further sub-groups, a group with equal level (A1) of L3 English and L2 German proficiency (n=14) and a group with higher L2 German proficiency (B1) (n=9) as shown in Table 20. Table 20 illustrates the accuracy results of the two groups in percentages.

Table 20. Mean accuracy rates for article use in IDNONS and DS by L2 German proficiency with L3 English A1 level

Subjects	obligatory IDNONS article NPs	appropriate use of IDNONS article	obligatory DS article NPs	appropriate use of DS article
German A1 (n=14)	82	75,6% (n= 62)	22	54,55% (n= 12)
B1(n= 9)	149	77,18% (n=115)	42	54,76% (n= 23)

IDNONS (indefinite – non-specific), DS (definite – specific), NP (noun phrase)

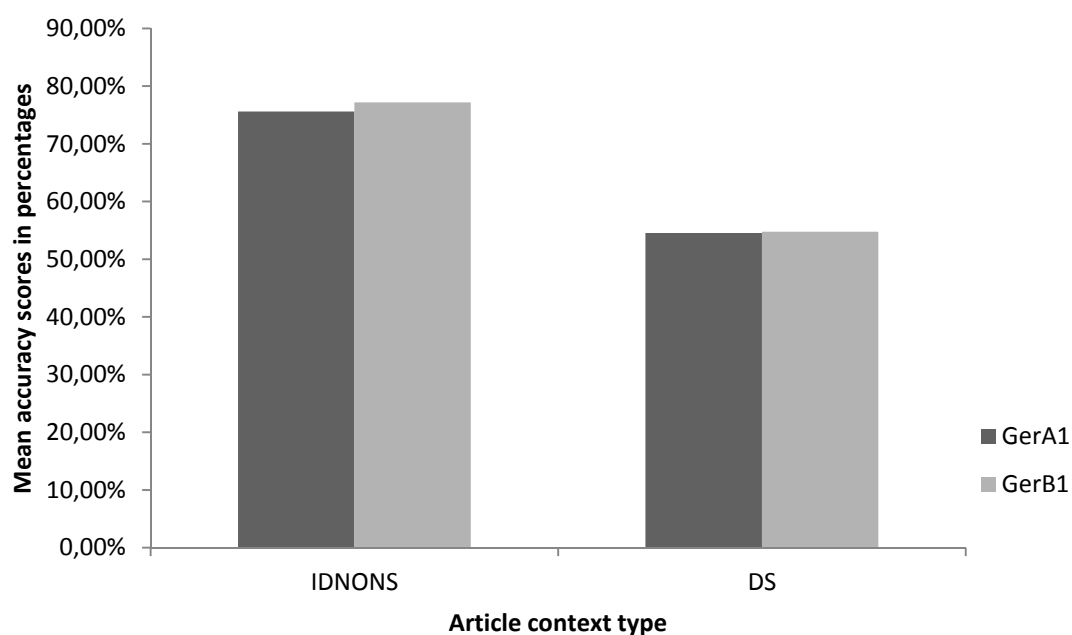
As can be seen in Table 20 the mean accuracy results of L2 German learners with an A1 level of German proficiency show that they are more accurate in indefinite – non-specific contexts (IDNONS) (M= 75,6%) and less accurate in definite – specific contexts (DS) (M= 54,55%) on a type-by-type basis.

The accuracy results of the group of L2 German learners with a B1 level of German proficiency show that this group is more accurate in indefinite – non-specific contexts (IDNONS) (M= 77,18%) and less accurate in definite – specific contexts (DS) (M= 54,76%) on a type-by-type basis..

In addition, a comparison of the overall results of both L2 German groups (A1 and B1) in Table 20 reveals that both groups show little differences in their results regarding the two article context types IDNONS and DS. However, the German B1 group again performed at a slightly accurately in indefinite – non-specific as well as definite – specific.

Figure 8 shows the mean accuracy rate of the appropriate supplience of the definite and indefinite articles based on the two German proficiency groups A1 and B1 with L3 English A1 level.

Figure 8. Overall mean accuracy scores on article context types by L2 German proficiency with L3 English A1 level



To sum up, the mean accuracy scores of the written production task reveal that even though the differences between both German proficiency groups, A1 and B1, are slightly different from each other, the German B1 proficiency group seemed to be more accurate which brings up further support for the findings of the forced – choice elicitation task in that it shows that the L2 German proficiency effects the appropriate suppliance of articles in the initial stage of article acquisition.

5.4. SUMMARY

Overall results of both conducted tasks, namely the forced –choice elicitation task and the written production task were ways to collect data investigating the article acquisition process by three groups (L2 German learners, L2 English learners and English native speakers) in this study. There were various significant outcomes.

Firstly, data analyses revealed that the English native speakers remained the most accurate group compared to the two other groups, the L2 German learners and the L2 English learners in the examined four article context types (indefinite – specific, indefinite – non-specific, definite – specific, definite – non-specific). Besides this, data analyses also revealed that the L2 German learners and L2 English learners showed significant differences across all four article context types in which the L2 German learners were more accurate than the L2 English learners in supplying the appropriate article. Results of the written production task confirmed these findings. Moreover, further analysis showed that the L2 German learners with an A1 Level in L3 English but a B1 level German performed significantly better than the L2 German learners with equal English and German proficiency level A1 in both task types. This implies that the participants' performances are positively influenced by German proficiency in initial stage of acquisition of the article system in L3 English.

Secondly, data results also showed that the performances of the L2 English learners were not significantly different on context type. Their performances in the written production task also revealed that this group is less aware of article use compared to the German group in both task types which suggests that this group fluctuates in its article choice in the initial stage of article acquisition which accounts for the Fluctuation Hypothesis by Ionin et al. (2004).

Lastly, results also showed that the indefinite – specific contexts (IDS) was significantly the most difficult article context compared to the remaining three other contexts (indefinite – non-specific, definite – specific, definite – non-specific) which is in line with previous findings on article acquisition (Cziko, 1986; Thomas, 1989; Brown, 1973; Maratsos, 1974; 1976; Warden, 1976; Ionin et al, 2004).

In the next chapter a detailed discussion of the results of the forced – choice elicitation task and the written production task in the light of the research questions of this study will be presented followed by the limitations and implications of this study.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1. DISCUSSION

In this chapter, a detailed discussion of the results obtained from the forced-choice elicitation task and the written production task will be presented in the light of the research questions. This study examines the following research questions as listed:

1. With reference to the L2 effect; do the different levels, elementary (A1) and pre-intermediate (B1), of L2 German proficiency have a positive effect on the child learners' judgment of articles in the L3 in the initial stage? In particular, will child learners of equal English (A1) but a higher German proficiency (B1) outperform those with lower German proficiency (A1)?

2. Considering the Fluctuation Hypothesis; do the child learners of L2 English whose native language is Turkish fluctuate between the two settings of the Article Choice Parameter, definiteness and specificity, in the initial stage?

Recall that, a group of 36 Turkish child L2 German learners of L3 English, a Turkish child group of 41 L2 English learners and a control group of 10 native English speakers were tested on their judgment of appropriate articles in English.

To begin with, the article system in Turkish is different from the system in English and German. In literature, Turkish is categorized as a language that lacks overt morphological determiner for definiteness, but uses different ways to mark definiteness and specificity. Some ways of marking definiteness and specificity are using accusative case markers, word order, intonation and the quasi-indefinite article 'bir' which also corresponds to

the numeral 'one' in Turkish (Kornfilt, 1997). German and English, however, are languages that share the same semantic conceptualization and realization of articles (Lyons, 1999; Jaensch, 2008). Both languages base their article choice on the definiteness setting of the Article Choice Parameter proposed by Ionin et al (2004). Relating to article semantics of both languages, the first issue tested in this study is whether there is a positive transfer from second language (L2) German to third language (L3) English during initial stage of acquisition of the article system in L3 English by child learners. Initial accuracy results from the forced – choice elicitation task reveal that the English native speakers is the most accurate group compared to the two other groups, the L2 German learners and the L2 English learners in the examined four article context types (indefinite – specific, indefinite – non-specific, definite – specific, definite – non-specific). In addition, all groups show significant differences across all four article context types in which the L2 German learners are more accurate than the L2 English learners in choosing the appropriate article. The accuracy results of the written production task confirm this finding which indicates for positive cross linguistic transfer from L2 German to L3 English. The difference in accuracy between the L2 German learners and the L2 English learners appears to be due to the different realization of the article systems in the previously experienced languages by both groups and their level of awareness towards certain linguistic patterns which is consistent with the findings of Ionin, Zubizarreta and Maldonado (2008).

Recall that Ionin, Zubizarreta and Maldonado (2008) suggest that three variables influence the acquisition of English articles which are (1) L1 transfer; (2) L2 input; and (3) UG and that L2 learner with L1s that have articles should transfer article semantics from their L1 to their L2. Following Ionin, Zubizarreta and Maldonado (2008), Turkish child learners of L2 German and L3 English have already experienced a language that has the same semantic conceptualization and realization of articles, namely German basing its article selection on the definiteness setting, and performed more accurately compared to the L2 English learners. Turkish child learners of L2

English, however, are not familiar to the article semantics of English since Turkish differs from English in its realization of articles (Kornfilt, 1997).

Further investigations on the L2 German group's results from the forced – choice elicitation task and the written production task show that the L2 German learners with an A1 level in L3 English but a B1 level German performed significantly better than the L2 German learners with equal English and German proficiency level A1 in both task types. This result supports the findings of Jaensch (2008), who has investigated the influence of L2 proficiency in English on the learners' judgment on German articles.

These findings are the first to confirm that there is a positive transfer from L2 German to L3 English in the initial stage of acquisition of articles in English by Turkish child learners. More specifically, this study provides clear evidence for the strong effect of German proficiency on Turkish children's judgment on article choices in that subjects of low English (A1), but higher German proficiency (B1) make more accurate selections and outperform the group of subjects with equal English and German proficiency levels (A1) in the forced – choice elicitation task and the written production task.

The second research question of this study examines whether the child L2 English learners fluctuate between the two settings of the Article Choice Parameter by Ionin et al (2004), the definiteness and specificity setting due to the differences between the Turkish article system and the English article system (Kornfilt, 1997). Initial results from the forced- choice elicitation task considering the performances of all subjects reveal that all groups make statistically significant inappropriate choices in especially indefinite – specific contexts (IDS) compared to the remaining three other article contexts (indefinite – non-specific, definite – specific, definite – non-specific) This shows that all participants have the most difficulty in processing especially indefinite – specific contexts (IDS) which is consistent with various previous findings on article acquisition by children in L1 and L2 (Brown (1973), Cziko (1986), Maratsos (1974, 1976), Schaeffer & Matthewson (2005), Thomas (1989), Warden (1976)). To account for the errors in indefinite – specific contexts Brown (1973), Cziko (1986), Maratsos (1974,

1976), Schaeffer & Matthewson, (2005), Thomas (1989), Maratsos (1974) as well as Warden (1976) suggests that children ignore the hearer's knowledge of a referent referring to Piaget's (1926) egocentricity term.

Parallel to these results, the overall accuracy rates of the L2 English learners in all tested context type (indefinite – specific, indefinite – non-specific, definite – specific, definite – non-specific) are the lowest. Further analyses reveal that the performances of the L2 English learners are not significantly different in any of the four context types (indefinite – specific, indefinite – non-specific, definite – specific and definite – non-specific). Their performances in the written production task also show lower accuracy rates compared to the L2 German learners' group in both task types which suggests that this group fluctuates between the specificity setting and the definiteness setting in its article choice in the initial stage of article acquisition and is less aware of article use which accounts for the Fluctuation Hypothesis by Ionin et al. (2004). Recall that the Fluctuation Hypothesis (Ionin et al., 2004) proposes that the error patterns in the use of articles in L2 English are due to developmental patterns and the learners' L2 grammar is controlled by the learners' Universal Grammar (UG). Hereby, errors are suggested to be nonrandom. The learners fluctuate between different parameter-settings, the definiteness setting and the specificity setting, of UG until the input leads them to set the appropriate parameter value (Ionin et al, 2004).

Following Ionin et al's (2004) Fluctuation Hypothesis and in answer to the second research question Turkish child learners of L2 English at initial stage of acquisition of the article system in English fluctuate between the two settings of the Article Choice Parameter.

6.2. CONCLUSION

In this study, I have tested Turkish child learners of L2German and Turkish child learners of L2English at the initial stage of article acquisition

involving four article contexts. These contexts were indefinite – specific (IDS), indefinite – non-specific (IDNONS), definite – specific (DS) and definite – nonspecific (IDNONS). The main aim is to find out whether there is a positive transfer from second language (L2) German to third language (L3) English during initial stage of acquisition of the article system in L3 English. In relation to this question, I have examined the influence of the L2 German on the appropriate article choice in a forced – choice elicitation task and supply of the appropriate article in a written production task in the L3 English. The article system in Turkish is different from the system in English and German. In literature, Turkish is categorized as a language that lacks overt morphological determiner for definiteness, but uses different ways to mark definiteness and specificity (Kornfilt, 1997). English and German, on the other hand, are languages that overtly realize articles, the definite and the indefinite articles, basing their article choice on the definiteness setting (Lyons, 1999; Jaensch, 2008).

Since Turkish child learners of L2 German and L3 English have experienced a language that has the same semantic conceptualization and realization of articles, namely German, they performed more accurately compared to the L2 English learners and initial results provide evidence for positive transfer from L2 German to L3 English in both tests types, the forced – choice elicitation task and the written production task. The difference in accuracy between the L2 German learners and L2 English learners appears to be due to the different realization of the article systems in the experienced languages by both groups and their level of awareness towards certain patterns. Nevertheless, the test results additionally reveal differences between the L2 German learners and native speakers of English in terms of accuracy. This difference in accuracy between the two groups seems to be due to the fact that the non – native group is still in the state of learning L2 German and L3 English. To find clear evidence for positive transfer from L2 German to L3 English additional investigation on the learners of L2 German were run. The results reveal that the group of higher German proficiency (B1) but low English proficiency (A1) outperformed the group of German learners

with equal (A1) level of proficiency in both languages, German and English and provide clear evidence for positive transfer from L2 German to L3 English in initial stage of acquisition.

Another aim of this study is to examine whether child learners of L2 English with L1 Turkish fluctuate between the two settings of the Article Choice Parameter (Ionin et al, 2004). In relation to this question, I have tested the L2 English group on four article contexts (indefinite – specific (IDS), indefinite – no-specific (IDNONS), definite – specific (DS) and definite – non-specific (IDNONS)) presented in the forced – choice elicitation task and article supply in the written production task. Results show that the L2 English learners' article choice is not significantly different on article context type. In addition, their overall performance in both task types is low with the indefinite – specific context having the lowest accuracy rate in the forced – choice elicitation task which appears to be mainly due to the difference in the article systems in Turkish and English. This suggests that Turkish child learners of L2 English fluctuate between the definiteness and specificity setting of the Article Choice Parameter (Ionin et al, 2004) in the initial stage of acquisition in line with the Fluctuation Hypothesis by Ionin et al (2004).

As for possible implications of this study it can be recommend that all four article context types (indefinite – specific, indefinite – non-specific, definite – specific, definite – non-specific) can be taken into consideration while teaching articles to learners. They can be taught explicitly by raising awareness to the semantic features of articles in addition to the form – based instructions involving the selection of articles based on familiarity such as first- mentioned items requiring the indefinite article and repeatedly-mentioned items requiring the definite article. The fact that all non native proficiency groups keep on making inappropriate article selections it is also important that the learners become aware of the discourse value of articles. A further suggestion of this study towards reducing errors in article choice in English is that especially L2 German learners of L3 English can be trained and motivated to make positive cross linguistic transfer from their L2 German

since both languages, German and English, share the same semantic values for article use.

As a final note, this study is an attempt to explore the complex phenomenon of article acquisition in third language with reference to L2 transfer by child learners. To my knowledge, this is the first study that provides data for L3 English article acquisition by child native speakers of Turkish learning German as a second language. In that sense, I hope that it will make some unique contribution to the field. However, this study is not without limitations.

For the fact that this study investigated child L2 German learners of L3 English who have not completed their learning process in both languages, there is a need to do further research on more advanced learners, specifically, in L2 German. Due to of the close L3 English proficiency levels (A1 and A2) of the participants and the limited number of L3 English A2 level participants, it also seems to be necessary to gain further data from a higher number of participants in order to be able generalize results easily. With reference to the written production task, the results provided little information about the participants' performances in all four article context types (indefinite – specific, indefinite – non-specific, definite – specific, definite – non-specific) since it only offered data of indefinite – non-specific contexts (IDNONS) and definite – specific contexts (DS). Therefore, the content of the written production task needs revision to trigger more utterances for all context types. However, the results of this study should be treated in the light of the above presented limitations.

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APPENDIX A

Forced-choice Elicitation Task

Forced – choice Elicitation Task

Read and choose the article.

1. At the police station

Officer 1: Yesterday a man broke into a house and took the TV, microwave oven and fridge.

Officer 2: Yes, that's correct! We are looking for (a / the / —) man – but we still don't know who he was.

2. At home

Kate: Jack, honey? How was your exam?

Jack: I'm okay. I feel good. I think, I passed (a / the / —) my exam.

3. In the café

Cindy: Yesterday, I and my daughter Becky were in the park.

Beth: What did you do there?

Cindy: We played in the sand and saw a little dog. Becky played with (a / the / —) dog.

4. At school

Cindy: Hey, Lucy! What did you do last night?

Lucy: Not much. I worked on (a / the / —) my German homework.

5. At a restaurant

Lisa: I called you yesterday, but you didn't answer. Your phone was busy.

Sophie: Sorry, I was very busy! I was talking to (a / the / —) my mum.

6. Conversation between two police officers

Police Officer 1: I haven't seen you in a long time. You must be very busy.

Police Officer 2: Yes. Did you hear about Mrs. Ally, a doctor was killed 2 weeks ago? We are trying to find (a / the / —) murderer of Mrs. Ally —his name is Jake Costa.

7. At the restaurant

Waiter: Are you waiting for someone?

Peter: Yes, I am. I am waiting for (a / the / —) friend from school. She will be late.

8. In a library

Librarian: We have lots of books here

Woman: Well, I like all sports—basketball, football. . . . I know! I want (a / the / —) book about volleyball! I like to read about it.

9. Meeting in the street

Charlie: Hi, Britney! It's nice to see you. What's up?

Britney: I'm meeting (a / the / —) friend from school. She called me yesterday and invited me to her house.

10. At the bookshop

Assistant: Can I help you?

Woman: I am looking for (a / the / —) special book; it's by Mary Shelley, and it's name is "Frankenstein"

11. At home

Mum: Where's Bianca? Is she coming home for dinner?

Anne: No, she isn't. She is eating dinner with (a / the / —) colleague; she didn't tell me who.

12. At home

Jack: I am so sorry?

Judy: What's wrong?

Jack: I broke (a / the / —) your favourite juice glass.

13. At work

Rose: Let's go to the cinema after work. Can Jake come?

Alex: No, he is busy. He is having lunch with (a / the / —) manager of his office ; I don't know who that is, but I'm sure he can't come.

14. On the phone

Linda: I went to a bookstore yesterday.

Rick: Oh, what did you get?

Linda: I got lots of things— some magazines, two red pens, and an interesting new book. I really liked (a / the / —) book.

15. At a tennis match

Paul: I think the game finishes in 5 minutes. I am tired! Can we go?

Mike: No, let's wait. I want to see (a / the / —) winner- she is my friend!

Paul: You are right!

16. In the library

Tina: I like this book very much; Happy Elephants. It was very good!

Luke: That's right! I want to meet (a / the / —) writer of this book someday? – He is very famous.

17. At the hospital

Doctor: Hey Dr. John? You look sleepy. So what did you do?

Erik: Well, yes. I walked around my floor. I had some coffee and checked my e-mails. And I talked to (a / the / —) nurse. That's all.

18. In the street

Judy: Do you have time for lunch?

Simon: No, I'm sorry. I am meeting with (a / the / —) professor of our university, Prof. Bucket; it's an important meeting.

19. At a café

Susan: My son Arthur loves Spiderman.

Emma: Well, he is lucky! This week, I'm having lunch with (a / the / —) writer of this comic strip—he is an old friend of mine. So I can get his autograph for Arthur!

20. At school

Alice: What did you do last night?

Robin: I went to a supermarket and bought films—a German film. Then, I came home and watched (a / the / —) film.

21. At the gym

Luke: Are you leaving?

Tim: Yes, I have to study for (a / the / —) my English exam tomorrow.

22. In the park

Mary: I heard that it was your son Roger's birthday last week. Did he have a good party?

Roger: Yes! It was great. He got lots of presents—books, toys.

And best of all — he got (a / the / —) cat!

23. At the supermarket

Assistant: Can I help you?

Customer: I bought some milk but I am very angry. I want to talk to (a / the / —) shop owner – I don't know who he is, but I want to see him now!

24. At a gallery

Sandy: Do you see that beautiful painting?

Diana: Yes, it's wonderful.

Sandy: I would like to meet (a / the / —) artist of that painting; but don't know his name. He didn't write it.

25. At the gym

Judy: Last Saturday, I didn't have any place to go, and it was raining.

Samantha: So what did you do?

Judy: First, I cleaned my room. Then I ate lunch. And then I read (a / the / —) book.

26. Meeting in the street

Charlie: Hi, Britney! It's nice to see you. What's up?

Britney: I'm meeting (a / the / —) mother of my friend from school. She called me yesterday and invited me to her house.

27. In the café

Rose: How was your trip to London?

Jim: It was wonderful. I saw (a / the / —) most beautiful place in my life.

28. In the café

Jill: Listen? My cousin Claudia is in Washington, D.C. now.

Richard: That's great. What's she doing there?

Jill: She is interviewing (a / the / —) singer; I'm afraid I don't know who, exactly.

29. In the street

George: Listen? You know my friend Fred?

Amelia: Yes, what's the matter?

George: He is a reporter now and he is meeting (a / the / —) champion of the tennis match! I don't remember her name!

30. In the line of the cinema

Gill: There are only two tickets for the new film.

Bob: Yeah, we are lucky. You know, I feel sorry for (a / the / —) third person in this line.

31. At school

Mr. Crate: I'm looking for Mrs. Kent. Where is she?

Secretary: She is meeting with (a / the / —) student, but I don't know who it is.

32. In a "Lost and Found"

Clerk: Can I help you? Are you looking for something?

Customer: Yes, I am looking for (a / the / —) green scarf. I think, I lost it here last week.

33. At school

Student: Sorry, teacher! Can I come in?

Teacher: You are very late!

Student: I was missed (a / the / —) bus, so I ran to school.

34. In a house

Manager: How can I help you?

Client: I want to rent a flat here. I want to live on (a / the / —) first floor of this house.

35. At a shop

Shop Assistant: Good morning, Mr. May I help you?

Customer: Yes, please. I want to buy (a / the / —) present for my wife for her birthday tomorrow but I don't know what to buy.

36. In a clothing store

Man: Can I help you?

Sarah: Yes, please! I am looking for (a / the / —) warm hat. It's cold outside.

37. At school

Bob: Hi, Chris. Do you have time to talk?

Chris: No, I'm sorry. I am meeting with (a / the / —) student from my English class; he needs help with his homework, and it's important.

38. In the park

Peter: Where is your dog?

Clara: Look, over there! It's playing with (a / the / —) its ball.

39. At home

Mum: Where is your little sister?

Boy: She is in her room. She is playing with (a / the / —) her toys.

40. On the phone

Marta: Hi, Katy. Is Robbie at home?

Katy: No, he went to New York for this weekend. He is staying with (a / the / —) family of his best friend—I'm afraid I don't know who it is.

41. At the supermarket

Assistant: Can I help you?

Customer: I bought some milk but I am very angry. I want to talk to (a / the / —) shop owner – I don't know who he is, but I want to see him now!

42. At the party

Mandy: Hey, that's a cool party. Who helped you planning it?

Claire and Bob: Thank you. We asked (a / the / —) our best friend Kim.

43. At home

Gary: How is your new school? Do you like it?

Melissa: It's great! My classes are very interesting. Tomorrow, I'm having lunch with (a / the / —) girl from my class—her name is Tina, and she is really friendly!

44. After a women's running race

Reporter: Excuse me! Can I come in?

Security: What do you need?

Reporter: I am a reporter. I need to talk to (a / the / —) winner of this race; I don't know who she is, so can you please help me?

45. At the office

Reporter 1: Hi! So, you are back! Do you have time for dinner?

Reporter 2: Sorry, no. I'm busy with a story about restaurants.

Today, I am interviewing (a / the / —) chef of Sushi Bar—he is a very famous chef, and he doesn't have much time for interviews.

46. At the phone

Bill: Is Erik home?

Rick: Yes, but he's on the phone. It's an important business call. He is talking to (a / the / —) owner of his company! I don't know who that person is.

47. In a cafe

Tom: How was your trip to New York?

Susan: Great! I went to many museums, and ate in lots of wonderful restaurants. I also visited many friends. And I saw (a / the / —) play.

48. At home

John: What were you doing yesterday at 3 o'clock?

Judy: Not much. I was reading (a / the / —) my favourite book all afternoon.

49. At the station

Man: Excuse me, do you work here?

Security guard: Yes.

Man: Can you help me? I am looking for (a / the / —) train; I think it came 10 minutes ago.

50. In an airport

Man: Excuse me, do you work here?

Security guard: Yes.

Man: In that case, perhaps you can help me. I am looking for (a / the / —) red-haired girl; I think that she flew in on Flight 239.

51. At school

Mr. Blue: This school year has started! It's wonderful!

Mr. House: Yes, that's right! I heard almost all teachers in this school are men.

I want to talk to (a / the / —) woman teacher – I don't know who she is, but I want to meet her.

52. At the phone

Father: I'm looking for your mum. Is she home?

Daughter: Yes, but she's writing an email to (a / the / —) secretary of her office! I don't know her –but it's very important.

APPENDIX B

Written Production Task

Production Task

Read and write your answers to each point. (Write between 3 and 5 sentences.)

1. Talk about a favourite object that you have or had in the past:
 - a. talk about something that you got as a present, and tell about how you got it,
 - or
 - b. talk about something that you lost and tell about how you lost it.

2. Talk about your holiday: what did you do? , where did you go?, what did you eat and drink?, who did you meet ...

3. Describe your room – talk about what objects you have in your room and describe them.

4. Think you have got \$1000 – You must spend it right away. Talk about where you go and what you buy.

APPENDIX C

Categorized Forced-choice Elicitation Task Items

IA [+definite, +specific]**Definite, wide scope, speaker knowledge****1. Conversation between two police officers**

Police Officer 1: I haven't seen you in a long time. You must be very busy.

Police Officer 2: Yes. Did you hear about Mrs. Ally, a doctor was killed 2 weeks ago? We are trying to find (**a** / **the** / —) murderer of Mrs. Ally —his name is Jake Costa..

2. At school

Student: Sorry, teacher! Can I come in?

Teacher: You are very late!

Student: I was missed (**a** / **the** / —) bus, so I ran to school.

3. At a tennis match

Paul: I think the game finishes in 5 minutes. I am tired! Can we go?

Mike: No, let's wait. I want to see (**a** / **the** / —) winner- she is my friend!

Paul: You are right!

4. In the library

Tina: I like this book very much; Happy Elephants. It was very good!

Luke: That's right! I want to meet (**a** / **the** / —) writer of this book someday? – He is very famous.

IB [+definite, -specific]**Definite, narrow scope, no speaker knowledge**

5. After a women's running race

Reporter: Excuse me! Can I come in?

Security: What do you need?

Reporter: I am a reporter. I need to talk to (a / the / —) winner of this race; I don't know who she is, so can you please help me?

6. At the supermarket

Assistant: Can I help you?

Customer: I bought some milk but I am very angry. I want to talk to (a / the / —) shop owner – I don't know who he is, but I want to see him now!

7. At the police station

Officer 1: Yesterday a man broke into a house and took the TV, microwave oven and fridge.

Officer2: Yes, that's correct! We are looking for (a / the / —) man – but we still don't know who he was.

8. At the supermarket

Assistant: Can I help you?

Customer: I bought some milk but I am very angry. I want to talk to (a / the / —) shop owner – I don't know who he is, but I want to see him now!

9. At a gallery

Sandy: Do you see that beautiful painting?

Diana: Yes, it's wonderful.

Sandy: I would like to meet (a / the / —) artist of that painting; but don't know his name. He didn't write it.

IIA [+definite, +specific]

Definite, no scope interactions, speaker knowledge

10. In the street

Judy: Do you have time for lunch?

Simon: No, I'm sorry. I am meeting with (a / the / —) professor of our university, Prof. Bucket; it's an important meeting.

11. Meeting in the street

Charlie: Hi, Britney! It's nice to see you. What's up?

Britney: I'm meeting (a / the / —) mother of my friend from school. She called me yesterday and invited me to her house.

12. At a café

Susan: My son Arthur loves Spiderman.

Emma: Well, he is lucky! This week, I'm having lunch with (a / the / —) writer of this comic strip—he is an old friend of mine. So I can get his autograph for Arthur!

IIB [+definite, -specific]

Definite, no scope interactions, no speaker knowledge

13. On the phone

Marta: Hi, Katy. Is Robbie at home?

Katy: No, he went to New York for this weekend. He is staying with (a / the / —) family of his best friend—I'm afraid I don't know who it is.

14. In the street

George: Listen? You know my friend Fred?

Amelia: Yes, what's the matter?

George: He is a reporter now and he is meeting (a / the / —) champion of the tennis match! I don't remember her name!

15. At the phone

Father: I'm looking for your mum. Is she home?

Daughter: Yes, but she's writing an email to (a / the / —) secretary of her office! I don't know her –but it's very important.

16. At the phone

Bill: Is Erik home?

Rick: Yes, but he's on the phone. It's an important business call. He is talking to (a / the / —) owner of his company! I don't know who that person is.

17. At work

Rose: Let's go to the cinema after work. Can Jake come?

Alex: No, he is busy. He is having lunch with (a / the / —) manager of his office ; I don't know who that is, but I'm sure he can't come.

III A [-definite, +specific]

Indefinite, wide scope, speaker knowledge

18. In an airport

Man: Excuse me, do you work here?

Security guard: Yes.

Man: In that case, perhaps you can help me. I am looking for (a / the / —) red-haired girl; I think that she flew in on Flight 239.

19. At the station

Man: Excuse me, do you work here?

Security guard: Yes.

Man: Can you help me? I am looking for (a / the / —) train; I think it came 10 minutes ago.

20. At the restaurant

Waiter: Are you waiting for someone?

Peter: Yes, I am. I am waiting for (**a / the / —**) friend from school. She will be late.

21. In a “Lost and Found”

Clerk: Can I help you? Are you looking for something?

Customer: Yes, I am looking for (**a / the / —**) green scarf. I think, I lost it here last week.

III B [-definite, -specific]

Indefinite, narrow scope, no speaker knowledge

22. In a library

Librarian: We have lots of books here

Woman: Well, I like all sports—basketball, football. . . . I know! I want (**a / the / —**) book about volleyball! I like to read about it!

23. At a shop

Shop Assistant: Good morning, Mr. May I help you?

Customer: Yes, please. I want to buy (**a / the / —**) present for my wife for her birthday tomorrow but I don’t know what to buy.

24. In a clothing store

Man: Can I help you?

Sarah: Yes, please! I am looking for (**a / the / —**) warm hat. It’s cold outside.

IV A [-definite, +specific]

Indefinite, no scope interactions, speaker knowledge

25. At school

Mr. Blue: This school year has started! It’s wonderful!

Mr. House: Yes, that's right! I heard almost all teachers in this school are men. I want to talk to (a / the / —) woman teacher – I don't know who she is, but I want to meet her.

26. At home

Gary: How is your new school? Do you like it?

Melissa: It's great! My classes are very interesting. Tomorrow, I'm having lunch with (a / the / —) girl from my class—her name is Tina, and she is really friendly!

27. At the office

Reporter 1: Hi! So, you are back! Do you have time for dinner?

Reporter 2: Sorry, no. I'm busy with a story about restaurants. Today, I am interviewing (a / the / —) chef of Sushi Bar—he is a very famous chef, and he doesn't have much time for interviews.

28. At the bookshop

Assistant: Can I help you?

Woman: I am looking for (a / the / —) special book; it's by Mary Shelley, and its name is "Frankenstein"

29. At school

Bob: Hi, Chris. Do you have time to talk?

Chris: No, I'm sorry. I am meeting with (a / the / —) student from my English class; he needs help with his homework, and it's important.

30. Meeting in the street

Charlie: Hi, Britney! It's nice to see you. What's up?

Britney: I'm meeting (a / the / —) friend from school. She called me yesterday and invited me to her house.

IVB [-definite, -specific]**Indefinite, no scope interactions, no speaker knowledge****31. At school**

Mr. Crate: I'm looking for Mrs. Kent. Where is she?

Secretary: She is meeting with (a / the / —) student, but I don't know who it is.

32. At home

Mum: Where's Bianca? Is she coming home for dinner?

Anne: No, she isn't. She is eating dinner with (a / the / —) colleague; she didn't tell me who.

33. In the café

Jill: Listen? My cousin Claudia is in Washington, D.C. now.

Richard: That's great. What's she doing there?

Jill: She is interviewing (a / the / —) singer; I'm afraid I don't know who, exactly.

VA simple definite [+definite, +specific]**34. On the phone**

Linda: I went to a bookstore yesterday.

Rick: Oh, what did you get?

Linda: I got lots of things— some magazines, two red pens, and an interesting new book. I really liked (a / the / —) book.

35. In the café

Cindy: Yesterday, I and my daughter Becky were in the park.

Beth: What did you do there?

Cindy: We played in the sand and saw a little dog. Becky played with (a / the / —) dog.

36. At school

Alice: What did you do last night?

Robin: I went to a supermarket and bought films—a German film. Then, I came home and watched (a / the / —) film.

VB simple indefinite [-definite, -specific]

37. In a café

Tom: How was your trip to New York?

Susan: Great! I went to many museums, and ate in lots of wonderful restaurants. I also visited many friends. And I saw (a / the / —) play.

38. At the gym

Judy: Last Saturday, I didn't have any place to go, and it was raining.

Samantha: So what did you do?

Judy: First, I cleaned my room. Then I ate lunch. And then I read (a / the / —) book.

39. At the hospital

Doctor: Hey Dr. John? You look sleepy. So what did you do?

Erik: Well, yes. I walked around my floor. I had some coffee and checked my e-mails. And I talked to (a / the / —) nurse. That's all.

40. In the park

Mary: I heard that it was your son Roger's birthday last week. Did he have a good party?

Roger: Yes! It was great. He got lots of presents—books, toys. And best of all — he got (a / the / —) cat!

Additional Items: Distracters/ irrelevant category:**41. At the party**

Mandy: Hey, that's a cool party. Who helped you planning it?

Claire and Bob: Thank you. We asked (**a / the / —**) our best friend Kim.

42. At home

John: What were you doing yesterday at 3 o'clock?

Judy: Not much. I was reading (**a / the / —**) my favourite book all afternoon.

43. At a restaurant

Lisa: I called you yesterday, but you didn't answer. Your phone was busy.

Sophie: Sorry, I was very busy! I was talking to (**a / the / —**) my mum.

44. At home

Mum: Where is your little sister?

Boy: She is in her room. She is playing with (**a / the / —**) her toys.

45. At home

Jack: I am so sorry?

Judy: What's wrong?

Jack: I broke (**a / the / —**) your favourite juice glass.

46. In the park

Peter: Where is your dog?

Clara: Look, over there! It's playing with (**a / the / —**) its ball.

47. At school

Cindy: Hey, Lucy! What did you do last night?

Lucy: Not much. I worked on (**a / the / —**) my German homework.

48. At the gym

Luke: Are you leaving?

Tim: Yes, I have to study for (a / the / —) my English exam tomorrow.

49. In the café

Rose: How was your trip to London?

Jim: It was wonderful. I saw (a / the / —) most beautiful place in my life.

50. In a house

Manager: How can I help you?

Client: I want to rent a flat here. I want to live on (a / the / —) first floor of this house.

51. In the line of the cinema

Gill: There are only two tickets for the new film.

Bob: Yeah, we are lucky. You know, I feel sorry for (a / the / —) third person in this line.

52. At home

Kate: Jack, honey? How was your exam?

Jack: I'm okay. I feel good. I think, I passed (a / the / —) my exam.

APPENDIX D
Oxford Placement Quick Test

**Oxford University Press
and
University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate**

Name:

Date:

quick placement test

Version 2

This test is divided into two parts:

Part One (Questions 1 – 40) – All students.

Part Two (Questions 41 – 60) – Do not start this part unless told to do so by your test supervisor.

**Time: 30 minutes
Part 1**

Questions 1 – 5

- Where can you see these notices?
- For questions 1 to 5, mark **one** letter **A**, **B** or **C** on your Answer Sheet.

1

You can look, but don't touch the pictures.

A	in an office
B	in a cinema
C	in a museum

2

Please give the right money to the driver.

A	in a bank
B	on a bus
C	in a cinema

3

NO PARKING PLEASE

A	in a street
B	on a book
C	on a table

4

CROSS BRIDGE FOR TRAINS TO EDINBURGH

A	in a bank
B	in a garage
C	in a station

5

KEEP IN A COLD PLACE

A	on clothes
B	on furniture
C	on food

Questions 6 – 10

- In this section you must choose the word which best fits each space in the text below.
- For questions 6 to 10, mark **one** letter **A**, **B** or **C** on your Answer Sheet.

THE STARS

There are millions of stars in the sky. If you look (6) the sky on a clear night, it is possible to see about 3000 stars. They look small, but they are really (7) big hot balls of burning gas. Some of them are huge, but others are much smaller, like our planet Earth. The biggest stars are very bright, but they only live for a short time. Every day new stars (8) born and old stars die. All the stars are very far away. The light from the nearest star takes more (9) four years to reach Earth. Hundreds of years ago, people (10) stars, like the North star, to know which direction to travel in. Today you can still see that star.

- | | | | |
|----|--------|--------|---------|
| 6 | A at | B up | C on |
| 7 | A very | B too | C much |
| 8 | A is | B be | C are |
| 9 | A that | B of | C than |
| 10 | A use | B used | C using |

Questions 11 – 20

- In this section you must choose the word which best fits each space in the texts.
- For questions 11 to 20, mark **one** letter **A, B, C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

Good smiles ahead for young teeth

Older Britons are the worst in Europe when it comes to keeping their teeth. But British youngsters

(11) more to smile about because (12) teeth are among the best. Almost

80% of Britons over 65 have lost all or some (13) their teeth according to a World

Health Organisation survey. Eating too (14) sugar is part of the problem. Among

(15), 12-year olds have on average only three missing, decayed or filled teeth.

- 11 A getting B gōt C have D having
- 12 A their B his C them D theirs
- 13 A from B of C among D between
- 14 A much B lot C many D deal
- 15 A person B people C children D family

Christopher Columbus and the New World

On August 3, 1492, Christopher Columbus set sail from Spain to find a new route to India, China and Japan. At this time most people thought you would fall off the edge of the world if you sailed too far. Yet sailors such as Columbus had seen how a ship appeared to get lower and lower on the horizon as it sailed away. For Columbus this (16) that the world was round. He (17) to his men about the distance travelled each day. He did not want them to think that he did not (18) exactly where they were going. (19), on October 12, 1492, Columbus and his men landed on a small island he named San Salvador. Columbus believed he was in Asia, (20) he was actually in the Caribbean.

- 16 A made B pointed C was D proved
- 17 A lied B told C cheated D asked
- 18 A find B know C think D expect
- 19 A Next B Secondly C Finally D Once
- 20 A as B but C because D if

Questions 21 – 40

- In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best completes each sentence.
- For questions 21 to 40, mark **one** letter **A, B, C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

- 21 The children won't go to sleep we leave a light on outside their bedroom.
A except B otherwise C unless D but
- 22 I'll give you my spare keys in case you home before me.
A would get B got C will get D get
- 23 My holiday in Paris gave me a great to improve my French accent.
A occasion B chance C hope D possibility
- 24 The singer ended the concert her most popular song.
A by B with C in D as
- 25 Because it had not rained for several months, there was a of water.
A shortage B drop C scarce D waste
- 26 I've always you as my best friend.
A regarded B thought C meant D supposed
- 27 She came to live here a month ago.
A quite B beyond C already D almost
- 28 Don't make such a! The dentist is only going to look at your teeth.
A fuss B trouble C worry D reaction
- 29 He spent a long time looking for a tie which with his new shirt.
A fixed B made C went D wore
- 30 Fortunately, from a bump on the head, she suffered no serious injuries from her fall.
A other B except C besides D apart

Questions 21 – 40

- In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best completes each sentence.
- For questions 21 to 40, mark **one** letter **A, B, C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

- 21 The children won't go to sleep we leave a light on outside their bedroom.
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A other B except C besides D apart

Alte level	Paper and pen test score		Council of Europe Level
	Part 1 score out of 40	Part 1 score out of 60	
0 beginner	0-15	0-17	A1
1 elementary	16-23	18-29	A2
2 lower intermediate	24-30	30-39	B1
3 upper intermediate	31-40	40-47	B2
4 advanced		48-54	C1
5 very advanced		54-60	C2

Tez Özeti

Yabancı Dil Öğrenen Türk Çocukların İngilizcedeki Tanımlıkları Edinimi

Almanca'nın İngilizceyle tanımlıklar açısından benzer yapılara sahip olması ve tanımlıkların anlamsal ayrımları belirlilik konumuna (definiteness setting) göre gerçekleşmesi nedeni ile bu çalışmada amacımız ana dili (D1) Türkçe, ikinci dili (D2) Almanca olan çocukların üçüncü dil (D3) İngilizcedeki tanımlıkları (a, the) öğrenirken edinimin ilk aşamasında D2 Almancadan olumlu aktarımın olup olmadığını araştırmaktır. Buna ek olarak bir başka hedefimiz ise Türkçe ve İngilizcedeki tanımlıklar arasındaki farklılıkların İngilizceyi D2 olarak öğrenen Türk (D1) çocukların özgüllük konumu (specificity settings) ve belirlilik konumu (definiteness settings) arasında ortaya çıkan karasızlığı tanımlıklar arasında ikilemde kalma görüşüne bağlı olarak (Fluctuation Hypothesis) (Ionin et al, 2004) nasıl etkilediği incelemektedir.

Bu amaçlar doğrultusunda, çalışmaya Almancayı D2 olarak öğrenen 36 Türk (D1) çocukları ve İngilizceyi ikinci dil (D2) olarak öğrenen 41 Türk (D1) çocukları deney gurupları ve İngilizceyi ana dil (D1) olarak konuşan 10 çocuktan oluşan bir kontrol grubu dahil edilmiştir. Veriler Ionin et al. 'dan (2004) adapte edilen çoktan seçmeli (forced-choice elicitation task) ve kısa paragraph yazma (written production task) testler kullanılarak toplanmıştır. Doğru tanımlıklar (a/ the) kullanımını ölçen çoktan seçmeli test (forced-choice elicitation task) [+belirli,-özgül] ([definite-non-specific]), [+belirli,+özgül] ([definite-specific]), [-belirli,+özgül] ([indefinite-specific]) ve [-belirli,-özgül] ([indefinite-non-specific]) bağlamlarını içermektedir.Yine doğru tanımlıkların (a/ the) kullanımını ölçen yazı test (written production task) ise 4 farklı görevlere kısa paragraf yazma içermektedir. Deney grup öğrencilerin İngilizce dil seviyelerini Oxford Placement Quick Testi kullanılarak; Almanca dil seviyelerini Goethe Enstitüsü tarafından verilen yeterlilik testiyle ölçüldü. Veriler ANOVA kullanılarak analiz edildi. Yazılı test tanımlıkların kullanımları kategorize edilip sayılarak analiz edildi ve sonuçları yüzdelerle sunuldu.

Çoktan seçmeli test(forced-choice elicitation task) bulguları, D3 İngilizcede aynı düzeye (A1) sahip öğrencilerden, ileri düzey Almancası (B1) olan öğrencilerin, Almancası düşük (A1) olan öğrencilerden 4 farklı bağlamda doğru tanımlık (a/ the) seçiminde daha başarılı oldukları ortaya çıkmıştır. Aynı testte İngilizce yi ikinci dil olarak öğrenen ve A1 düzeyine sahip olan grubun diğer iki gruba göre 4 farklı bağlamda doğru tanımlıkların seçimlerinde daha az başarılı olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu bulgular D3 İngilizcedeki tanımlık sisteminin edinimin başlangıç aşamasında D2 Almancadan D3 İngilizceye olumlu aktarım olduğunu göstermektedir. Ayrıca, sonuçlar İngilizceyi D2 olarak öğrenen grubun diğer bağlamlara göre [-belirli,+özgül] (indefinite-specific) bağlamda zorlandıklarını göstermektedir. Bu bulgu ise ana dili Türkçe olan çocukların ACP (Ionin et al, 2004) iki konumu, özgüllük konumu (specificity setting) ve belirlilik konumu (definiteness setting), arasında ikilemde kalma görüşüne bağlı olarak (FH)

(Ionin et al, 2004) edinimin ilk aşamasında gidip geldiklerini göstermektedir. Yazılı test (written production task) sonuçları çoktan seçmeli test (forced – choice elicitation task) sonuçlarını desteklemektedir.

Thesis Abstract

Acquisition of English articles by Turkish Child Foreign Language Learners

This study examines the acquisition of the article system in the third language (L3) English by (L1) Turkish child learners of L2 German to explore whether similarities in realizing an overt article system and sharing the same semantic conceptualizing (of definiteness setting) (Jaensch, 2008; Lyons, 1999) in German and English result in positive transfer in the initial stage of acquisition. In addition, the study tests whether the difference in the realization of the article system in Turkish and English (Kornfilt, 1997) leads to Turkish child learners of L2 English fluctuating between the two settings of the Article Choice Parameter (ACP),- the specificity and definiteness setting (Ionin et al, 2004).

For this purpose, 36 Turkish child learners of L2 German and 41 Turkish child learners of L2 English and a control group of 10 native English children were tested through a forced – choice elicitation task and a written production task adapted from Ionin et al (2004). The forced- choice elicitation task involved [definite-non-specific], [definite-specific], [indefinite-specific] and [indefinite-non-specific] article contexts to examine appropriate article use. The written production task involved four English tasks to be responded to in short paragraph form to test the supply of the appropriate articles. To measure proficiency levels of the experimental groups, namely Turkish child learners of L2 German with L3 English and Turkish child learners of L2 English, in English the Oxford Placement Quick Test was used. The proficiency level in German was measured by standardized tests FIT1 and ZDJ1 from the Goethe Institute. The data were statistically analyzed with SPSS using repeated measure of ANOVA. For the written production task, the use of the appropriate article was analyzed by marking, categorizing and counting each context individually and is presented in percentages.

Results from the forced –choice elicitation task indicated that the learners of L2 German having low proficiency in English (A1 level) but higher proficiency in German (B1 level) outperformed those L2 German learners with equal (A1 level) proficiency in both languages, German and English. Learners of L2 English with A1 proficiency were less successful than the other two groups. These findings can be interpreted as evidence for positive transfer from L2 German to L3 English at the initial stage of the acquisition of the article system in L3 English. Also, we found that the L2 English learners were less accurate on indefinite – specific contexts than the other three remaining contexts which indicates that L1 Turkish children fluctuate between the two settings of the ACP (Ionin et al, 2004) in the initial state of acquisition which is consistent with the FH(Ionin et al, 2004). Results from the written-production task confirmed the results from the forced – choice elicitation task.

