Abstract

The following is an English thesis study conducted on Norwegian, Polish and Canadian (control group) high school students. The study's aim is to contribute to research claiming our mother tongue plays a role in and affects the mistakes we make while acquiring a second language like English. In this case, the author will look at the extent to which mistakes occur in assessing word order by Polish and Norwegian learners of English. To accomplish that, the three groups were asked to make acceptability judgements where they had to decide a grade of acceptability for a list of English sentences. Some of them were acceptable English sentences, some of them had a word order which corresponded to Norwegian and some of them had a word order which corresponded to Polish. The study revealed that the Norwegian group generally did not accept unacceptable English sentences that corresponded to acceptable Polish or Norwegian word order. The Polish group on the other hand, generally did accept some of the unacceptable sentences and the sentences corresponding to Polish word order received the highest score. With these findings as support, this study argues that the Norwegian group has moved past the stage in second language acquisition that transfers word order from the L1 to L2, while the Polish group has still not passed that stage. The reason for this difference is argued to be the amount and type of free time activities Norwegians and Poles participate in, while using the English language. The Norwegian group watches films and television series in English with English or Norwegian subtitles or no subtitles at all. In contrast, the Polish group spends time watching the same type of media with Polish subtitles but also mostly with dubbing and voiceover options and therefore receiving less English audio input than the Norwegian group. In addition, the Norwegian group spends more time than the Polish group on reading books and magazines in English, playing computer games in English, using internet pages in English and speaking English with friends and family.

Dedication

I would like to thank my supervisor, Anne Dahl, for making this a great experience as well as being an excellent guide throughout the whole process. Thanks has to be given to the three high schools from which I received my research data. The incredibly interesting findings in this study have been an inspiration to complete this thesis.

I also want to express gratitude to my wonderful friends at work, fellow students and my dear family. Support was there whenever I needed it and for that, I am grateful. Special thanks goes to Rachel, Kinga, Camilla, Lene and Åshild for proofreading.

Recognition has to be given to Johan as well; thank you for the support, for believing in me and for putting up with all my moods; both good and bad.

Agnieszka Donal

14.11.2016

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List of Abbreviations

AdvP:	Adverbial phrase
Aux:	Auxiliary
CP:	Complementizer phrase
IP:	Inflection phrase
L1:	First language
L2:	Second language
Neg:	Negation
NP:	Noun phrase
PLD:	Primary linguistic data
PP:	Preposition phrase
P&P:	Principles and parameters
PRN:	Pronoun
SA:	Sentence adverbial
SD:	Standard deviation
SLA:	Second language acquisition
Spec:	Specifier
TP:	Tense phrase
UG:	Universal grammar
VP:	Verb phrase
V2:	Verb second

1 Introduction

Second Language acquisition (SLA) is a vast and much discussed topic throughout the years, also today. Researchers in this field want to find out what happens once a person starts to acquire a second language (L2) e.g., if preexisting knowledge about language has any influence on it and what kind of transfer happens; if there is transfer. Transfer theories discuss what kind of properties that language learners already know are being reused by them when starting to acquire a second language. For example, it is claimed and generally accepted that L2 learners start with their first language (L1) knowledge when entering the initial stage of SLA. This means that learners at first assume that the L2 bares the same properties as their mother tongue. Once they experience that this is not the case, the learners start to adjust what is called an interlanguage for the L2. Grammatical rules, word order etc., are being modified throughout the acquiring process until they resemble the second (target) language.

The acquisition of a second language seems to vary, among other things, due to the mother tongue the learner already possesses. If the L1 and L2 are similar in some way, those properties may be easier to acquire or require less effort to modify. On the other hand, explicit learning strategies that focus on the properties which are very different between the two languages may make learners even more aware of them. This can also result in more accurate and quicker acquisition of L2 properties.

Another factor that seems to play a role in SLA is the amount of time a learner is actually using the L2. Especially with the English language which is a global language. Culture, social status, export trade interests, politics, geographic placement and even population number can influence the amount of exposure and usage of English besides teaching at institutions. A high level of English usage and exposure in a learner's free time may improve the acquisition process and even speed it up. English usage and exposure in a person's free time may be for example, speaking English with friends and family, reading English magazines, websites and books, watching films in English, playing video games in English and many more.

This thesis will explore the topic of word order transfer from L1 to L2. Polish and Norwegian languages will be studied and these two languages differ in word order. The first has a free word order where many sentence constructions are acceptable, the latter has a strict rule where the verb has to always be in second place (V2 word order). This difference makes it very interesting to study when learners having those languages as a mother tongue are tested on their knowledge of English as a L2. By fixing English sentences to resemble word orders of

Polish and Norwegian, the author will try to find out if some of them appeal more to Norwegian participants and some to Polish participants. That way it will be possible to find out if Norwegian participants specifically transfer Norwegian word order to English or not and if Polish participants specifically transfer Polish word order to English or not. This thesis will also draw in a discussion of social aspects of language, as Poland and Norway are two countries that both share some cultural aspects and differ in others.

In chapter two, I present the theoretical background for this study. Some theories of first and second language acquisition are reviewed as well as theories of transfer to L2. Further on in this chapter, the word orders of English, Norwegian and Polish are discussed; their canonical word order as well as the order in the type of sentences I am using in the survey. I also cover some ground on the social differences and school systems between Norway and Poland. In chapter three, I describe the method used in this study as well as address the issues of it and arguing why it still is the best choice here. Chapter four is the results chapter where the results of the survey will be described as well as illustrated in diagrams. I will then discuss all these findings in chapter five and conclude my study in chapter six.

2 Theoretical Background

2.1 Second Language Acquisition Theories

I start with describing two major theories of L1 acquisition to show diversity and contrasts, even though this study follows only the generative grammar approach and the minimalist syntax. This will ease the reader into the next topic where L1 is mentioned as well. The next section discusses L2 acquisition theories and the theories of transfer relevant to this study. Further, the word orders of English, Polish and Norwegian are described. The focus is on the types of sentences used in the acceptability judgment test in this study. Differences and similarities between word orders of these languages are discussed as well. Finally, the chapter is concluded with a discussion of some social aspects in Norway and Poland, relevant to this study.

Let us first look at L1 acquisition. Generative grammar is a theory which supposes that grammar is a system by which every language in the world is constrained. What is crucial for this theory is that it also claims that humans are born with Universal Grammar (UG), which is a so-called innate knowledge of language. As seen with primates, there is evidence that animals communicate specific meanings like for example Vervet monkeys who use different sounds for every type of predator when warning each other (Karmiloff & Karmiloff-Smith, 2002, p. 213). Primates can even learn some of the sign language. For example, a chimpanzee brought up by scientists in a study managed to learn some of the American Sign Language but failed to acquire any syntax (Karmiloff & Karmiloff-Smith, 2002, pp. 215-216). Primates cannot acquire grammar and this is the aspect of language which is unique to humans. Based on that, if humans and animals are claimed to be born with a 'blank' brain without any language abilities, a question of why do only humans manage to develop such a sophisticated grammatical system arises. A possible explanation is that humans are born with an innate ability to acquire language (UG), more specifically a grammatical system (principles) which sorts out the grammar acquired through linguistic input. In addition, there is a concept called poverty of the stimulus. It focuses on the fact that while acquiring language, children are not exposed to any direct evidence of the real complexity of language. Yet, children are known to recognize grammatical errors and produce acceptable constructions on their own, which indicates that there has to be something more than just input to acquire a language. Lakshmanan (1994, p. 3) discusses an example of that. Tested children chose (1) below as a correct construction and not (2). The interesting thing is that (1) has a much more complicated syntax than (2) but somehow a child has never chosen (2) as a correct construction.

(1) Is the book which is on the table dull?

(2) *Is the book which on the table is dull?

(Lakshmanan, 1994, p. 3)

UG has been argued to include a set of principles and parameters (P&P) of grammar construction which account for cross-linguistic variation (Boeckx, 2006, p. 55). The parameters have to be acquired through linguistic input. That is the input which a child receives from parents, brothers, sisters, teachers, friends, the rest of society, etc. Boeckx (2006) concludes that 'a language-specific grammar, then, is simply a specification of the values that the principles of UG leave open' (Boeckx, 2006, p. 55). The P&P within the UG together form a child's L1. The innate principles are universal and set. They are used to form the grammar parameters which have to be reset based on the input. In L1 research, the input to which the child is exposed to is called Primary Linguistic data (PLD). Along with UG as well as a learning procedure, these are the points to be studied when it comes to language acquisition (Schwartz & Sprouse, 1994). Many researchers also agree that there is a final, steady state of L1 when the native speaker reaches adulthood (Schwartz & Sprouse, 1994). L2 research is even more complicated unfortunately, as there are many more factors to consider. For example, there is a wide variety of proficiency levels L2 learners acquire in contrast to L1 learners where the final state is often uniform between them. In addition, the fact that L2 learners already know at least one language means that L2 may be affected by this/these languages. This is discussed further later in this chapter.

A different approach to L1 acquisition are theories which claim that humans learn language only through input after they are born. There are claims that animals cannot develop a sophisticated language as humans do because they have smaller or less developed brains and that this is why only humans are able to acquire language through input even though they are born with a 'blank' brain. In addition, it is claimed that humans have more time to develop language than animals; animals grow up much faster, while human infants and toddlers are much more dependent on care and attention from the adults as it takes a longer time for human children to become independent. There is also a claim that babies listen to their parents' speech and learn that it is a communication system which is beneficial to acquire (Karmiloff & Karmiloff-Smith, 2002). These views gave rise to Cognitive theories, which see language as

just another process that humans obtain by receiving stimuli. They focus on the human brain and on which of its processes are used for language. So, instead of looking at the linguistic system like UG, cognitive approaches use cognitive psychology and neurology to find out how do we learn language, what the differences between learning L1 and L2 are and why some people are better at acquiring L2, L3, L4, etc. than others (Mitchell & Myles, 2004, p. 96).

When it comes to L2 acquisition, cognitive approaches like e.g., cognitive psychology focuses on how the brain is represented when acquiring/using aspects of L2 (DeKeyser, 2007, p. 2). Neuroimaging and neurological data (DeKeyser, 2007, p. 2) are studied to see the biological processes happening in the brain. To understand how a brain works while acquiring a L2 can help develop new and improved learning strategies for L2 learners. Some branches of cognitive science are also working together with SLA theories which focus on UG. Using cognitive approaches, aspects of L2 acquisition (the role of UG, transfer, learning strategies etc.) are being studied.

Going back to L2 acquisition and the role of UG in that aspect, there are three views on how UG is available for learners. The first one is called Direct Access to UG and says that L2 learners have full access to UG principles and parameters, just like child L1 learners. Indirect Access to UG claims that L2 learners transfer their L1 and UG is used in instances where L1 and L2 grammars do not match. Lastly, no access to UG view says that L2 learners have no access to UG and the acquisition process is based on problem solving procedures (Lakshmanan, 1994, p. 18). The following paragraphs will discuss research claiming no access to UG and research claiming the opposite.

There is research supporting the claim that UG parameters cannot be found in L2 acquisition. Neeleman and Weerman (1997) tested Dutch L2 learners of English and English L2 learners of Dutch on the knowledge of the following constructions: basic word order (VO in English, OV in Dutch), placement of particles and particle-like elements with respect to the verb and the object, scrambling/case adjacency, exceptional case marking and extraction from the object of a particle verb (or another complex predicate). Generally, what they found was that both groups mastered the basic word order pretty well in contrast to all the other constructions, where the acquisition level is much lower. What Neeleman and Weerman (1997) propose based on this finding is that L2 acquisition cannot involve parameter resetting. This would mean that UG is not available for the L2 learner. In addition, (Neeleman & Weerman, 1997, p. 159) claim that because there is such a difference in level of acquisition between basic word order and the other constructions, it must mean that they are all acquired independently

and if one knows basic word order, that does not mean that the knowledge about the other constructions is automatically implied. The authors claim that the data in their article cannot be used to establish UG's role in L2 acquisition, however they do claim that it has to involve 'positing of construction-specific rules, guided by general learning strategies' (p. 162), and therefore undermine the claim that parameters transfer to SLA.

Another research team found that adults managed to learn a made-up language without any resemblance to UG without any problems (Smith, Tsimpli, & Ouhalla, 1993). This contributes to the claim that humans do not use UG principles when acquiring L2. However, in a study by Hulk (1991), Dutch learners of French who showed a parameter usage that did not resemble Dutch nor French did resemble parameters in other languages and therefore the author claims this shows that UG is present in L2 acquisition.

Another set of research indicates that L2 learners do follow the principles of UG and if we assume that L1 acquisition is governed by UG, then L2 acquisition can be assumed to be governed by UG as well (Kweon and Bley-Vroman (2011), Flynn (1989), Felix (1988), White (1988)). Any ungrammatical language productions are then considered a result of incomplete/wrong hypotheses about the L2. For example, when a learner does not produce inflected verbs in the early acquisition process, it is because he/she has not yet acquired the features of the Inflection Phrase in the language system (Garcia Mayo, 2003). In other words, the Inflection Phrase in the learner's L1 is not being used and so he/she has not acquired that aspect of the language system yet and has to do so when learning the L2. However, there is also research showing other constraints which L2 learners are not able to acquire at all (Clahsen & Muysken, 1986), (see further discussion in Felix, 1995). Generally speaking, UG theory is mostly concerned with the system/mechanics of L2 acquisition and not the social and psychological aspect of it, which other cognitive theories value highly (Young-Scholten & Herschensohn, 2013, p. 56).

2.1.1 Theories of transfer in SLA

As mentioned above, there is strong evidence for UG being used by language learners when acquiring a L2. Many scholars have also suggested that the native language plays a role in acquisition of the L2, so that two native speakers of different languages will learn English, or any other language, in different ways. For example, Schwartz and Sprouse (1994, p. 318) claim that PLD in a learner's L2 is being supported by explanations about the

target language's (the L2 that is being acquired) grammar and negative data which together serve in the process of acquiring L2. In their research, Schwartz and Sprouse (1994, pp. 318-319) found that the development in acquisition of German for L2 learners differs from the development in acquisition of German as an L1. They compared the L2 development they found (their participant was a Turkish speaker) with research on native speakers of other languages and found that their development of L2 German differed from the development pattern of the Turkish participant. They explain these differences by claiming that L1 is the initial state of L2 learners (Schwartz & Sprouse, 1994, p. 319).

Lado (1957) proposed a Contrastive Analysis which assumes that language learners presuppose L1 properties to hold for the L2 as well (as cited in Young-Scholten & Herschensohn, 2013, p. 30). Whatever features are not the same as L1 needs to be taught and only those differences are to be paid attention to in class (Young-Scholten & Herschensohn, 2013). In addition, properties which are distinctively different between the L1 and L2 have to be paid more attention to. Weinreich (1953) introduced the term transfer which claims that L2 learners transfer properties of their L1 which are the same in L2, as well as the term interference which is used when learners transfer properties of their L1 which are not acceptable in the given L2.

According to Dulay and Burt (1974), children show evidence of transferring their L1's word order when constructing sentences in L2. They performed a study where they tested Spanish children who were learning English as an L2. The Spanish participants would construct English sentences like (1) which are correct constructions in Spanish (2).

(1) I not have a bike

(2) Yo no tengo bicicleta
I not have bike
'I don't have a bike' (Dulay & Burt, 1974, p. 131)

Klima and Bellugi (1966) however, record the same construction errors in children who learn English as an L1. Although the errors made by Spanish children seem to reflect Spanish word order, this cannot be accepted as evidence of L1 influence on L2 acquisition as native speakers of English make that same error in the acquisition process. Dulay and Burt's findings show that 4.7% of errors made in English by the Spanish children could be claimed as a result of influence

of their L1 (Spanish). But 87.1% of the errors were the same as for children learning English as a native language (Dulay & Burt, 1974, p. 132). There is no clear answer as to what kind of a role L1 plays in L2 acquisition. We do know however that there is cross-linguistic influence between those two.

Researchers who argue against L1 transfer (e.g. Kayne, 1994; Platzack, 1996) discuss how a word order like verb second (V2) could not be transferred from L1 to L2. Because V2 is not basic SVO that is uninverted, it would require more processing and effort to transfer an inverted XVS (X meaning any constituent that is not S or V) word order, even if it is acceptable in the L2 as well. Platzack (2001) claims that the C-domain where, among others, the V2 rule is situated is almost never target-like in adult L2 learners, no matter which L1 they have (Platzack, 2001, p. 371). This could be interpreted as follows: the V2 rule is difficult to learn for L2 learners even if their L1 contains that same word order. That is because when learning a second, third etc. language, the properties of L1 do not transfer and so the learner starts off with the simple, less processing effort properties, for example the SVO word order and not V2. Platzack (1996), claims that SVO is the underlying, basic word order in UG and when humans learn a language, SVO is the order they originally assume and afterwards adjust if necessary. So when Norwegians learn English, they are supposed to assume the SVO word order from the start.

Westergaard proves that claim to be wrong however, by claiming based on a study that Norwegian children do the opposite: they assume the word order to be V2 just like Norwegian and make therefore unacceptable judgements/productions of English. With the course of time, they eventually adjust to the target word order. Westergaard (2003) shows a major transfer of V2 word order in Norwegian learners of English. The author tested Norwegian children (aged between seven and twelve) with assessment of sentence pairs, grammaticality judgements and elicited production. She found that there was strong evidence of children transferring their L1's word order (V2) to English. Even in the test where both the grammatical and ungrammatical versions of a sentence were shown, many children still chose the ungrammatical V2 sentence (Westergaard, 2003, p. 85).

Bohnacker (2006) has conducted a study, which showed that Swedish children learning German as a L2 transfer the Swedish V2 word order to German. She used this evidence to counter the previous studies claiming that Swedish children learning German as a L3 did not transfer the V2 property. The problem with that study was that those children had English as their L2, a language with a SVO word order. The author claims that the knowledge of English

has influenced the acquisition of German, making the learners transfer SVO word order into German, even though their L1 has V2 order as well (Bohnacker, 2006, p. 478). This would indicate that not only does L1 influence L2 acquisition. Our L2's can also influence the acquisition of L3's and so on. And Bohnacker (2006) does indeed discuss that if a learner has a high proficiency in L2, it is more likely that the L2 will influence the learner's L3. In addition, if a learner himself/herself feels that the L2 and L3 are similar, the transfer will happen more likely. Lastly, if the L2 has recently been used, it is more likely that it will influence the L3 productions as it has just been active in the brain (Bohnacker, 2006, p. 480).

Bohnacker (2007) challenges Platzack (2001) on a claim that L2 learners struggle more with acquisition of grammatical operations in Complementizer Phrase (CP; for an explanation see next sub-chapter), than in other domains below it. CP is therefore called a vulnerable domain. Bohnacker (2007) tested L1 German speakers learning Swedish and L1 Swedish speakers learning German. She found that both groups of participants acquired the basic V2 word order in the CP quite early. Syntax produced in the lower domains however was non-target like. The author also argues that because of low input frequency and ambiguous and misleading PLD, lower domain syntax constructions like for example transitive verb particle constructions (VPC) in Swedish for the Germans and nonfinite verb placement in German for the Swedes[1], are harder to acquire than constructions in the CP domain (Bohnacker, 2007, pp. 67-68). Bohnacker also argues in this article for the full L1 transfer of syntax in L2 acquisition, meaning that L2 learners' starting point is with full L1 syntax parameters, which are systematically being modified to fit the target language. This also means that if for example, two L2 learners of English have different L1's, their acquisition challenges may differ.

Based on Bohnacker's and Westergaard's claims, one could conclude that also learners of English who have a free word order in their L1 like Polish, would transfer that when learning a L2. A study by Podboj (2014) counters that claim where the results show Polish learners of Croatian producing errors in word order, despite the two languages having free word order. The author does however also report that Poles made many errors due to negative transfer of other language features, which is a claim for transfer finding place nevertheless. Wach (2016) provides evidence for L1 Polish learners transferring L1 grammar strategies when acquiring English as an L2. Another interesting finding in this study is that the Polish participants reported

[1] See Bohnacker (2007) pp. 67-68 for a detailed description of the VPC and its challenges for German L2 learners, as well as Bohnacker (2007) pp. 47-48 for the Swedish L2 learners' development of the nonfinite verb placement acquisition.

a more frequent transfer of L1 grammar to Russian than English (p. 71). As Russian is quite similar to Polish in word order and grammar among other things, the participants stated in the interview-part of the study that they wanted to use that as an advantage when acquiring Russian grammar. Because English differs a lot more from Polish than Russian does, the L1 transfer to English was not as frequent.

A study of Russian[2] L2 learners of English by Tipkova (2014) showed that a big part of the participants were still transferring their L1 word order to English, which resulted in ungrammatical constructions in English that would have been acceptable in Russian. Studies may also suggest that the amount and types of transfer differ, depending on what kind of linguistic feature we are focusing on. Although Tipkova found that her Russian participants transferred L1 word order into English, White, Belikova, Hagstrom, Kupisch, and Özçelik (2012) found that their Russian participants did not accept English existential (there-insertion) constructions with the definite article present. Russian allows DPs in negative existentials but that function was not transferred by them to English, indicating that transfer of this linguistic feature from Russian to English may not be happening. This could mean that some language properties transfer easier than others do.

An idea of perceived distance (Kellerman, 1979) says that learners evaluate the typological relationship between their native language and the target language they are acquiring. The more alike they seem, the more transfer from L1 will occur (Kellerman, 1979). If the learner assumes that the native and target language are not similar in a given aspect however, the learner will not transfer that from the L1 because he/she assumes that the production will be incorrect in the target language (Kellerman, 1979). Therefore, the reason why some language properties are being transferred from the L1 to L2 and some not may be decided by the learner and his/her perception of the degree of similarity between the languages.

The above research on L1 transfer is from the late twentieth-century (including White, 1985) and is still a strong influence in Linguistics today. As already mentioned, Schwartz and Sprouse (1996) argue that the final state of L1 acquisition is the starting point for L2 acquisition and that any discrepancies between L1 and the input from L2 forces the learner to restructure his/her L2 properties, relying on the UG. To point out, this is called a Full Transfer/Full Access model where taking the final L1 stage as a starting point for L2 learning is called Full Transfer and taking from UG is called Full Access. This model assumes also full access to UG in L2

[2] Studies on Polish transfer to English are limited therefore examples from languages that share the same free word order are used.

learning in contrast to some other theories. Schwartz and Sprouse (1996) therefore argue that the L1 grammar initiates L2 acquisition. Through reconstructing differing properties between the two languages using UG, the learner eventually develops a L2 grammar (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten, p. 34).Montrul (2004) supports the Full Transfer/Full Access model as she concludes that adult learners of Spanish as an L2 do use their L1 as a starting point but they are also led by their UG, just as monolingual and bilingual children learning Spanish (Montrul, 2004, p. 362).

The question of why children tend to acquire an L2 in a more native-like level than adults do is related to the concept of the Critical Period within the Generative framework, where it has been claimed to be present until a certain age, for example 7 (Johnson & Newport, 1989). This will not be discussed further here due to lack of space (see Birdsong (1999); Penfield and Roberts (2014) and Lenneberg (1967) for further reading).

A lot of research has been done on the UG parameters and their existence/lack of in L2 acquisition. Some claim that L2 learners have access to parameters of UG and resetting them is a part of L2 acquisition (Solin, Travis, & White, 1987), some claim that the parameters are only available throughout the critical period and adult L2 acquisition happens through general learning strategies (Clahsen & Muysken, 1986).

As there are different views on the role of UG in SLA, there are also still different views on SLA transfer. One view is that the L2 learner only has full access to UG. Although there is some acknoweldgement of the role of L1 as well, UG is the main and most important part of the initial stage in SLA. UG plays the biggest part when trying to acquire a L2. Another view is the full access/full transfer model where it is claimed that the L2 learner's initial stage consists of a full access to UG principles as well as full transfer of the L1. There is also a view that UG is not accessible in the SLA initial stage but it may be accessed through the L1. Studies on morphosyntax, phonology and the lexicon (Young-Scholten & Herschensohn, 2013) have showed that L1 transfer may vary depending on language aspects (some aspects may be more transferred than others) and that the grade of similarity between L1 and L2 has an influence on transfer as well (more transfer can occur if the L1 is similar to L2 than the opposite). Although there are still different views on the role of transfer in SLA, most scholars agree that L1 transfer does occur. Further research is needed to account for all the types and degrees of transfer, taking in account the relation between L1 and L2 and the fact that learners differ in language acquisition skills among other factors.

2.2 Phrase structures using S and CP

As mentioned before, this study uses a generative grammar and minimalist approach to describe Norwegian, Polish and English language on a syntactic level (tree structures). These structures are simplified a lot as the aim is to show the word orders of the sentences, not focusing in depth on the other features of the structures. This will portray the three languages on a common ground for the reader and easily show the differences in word orders. There are many theories and different approaches to a sentence structure analysis. In this study, I follow Radford (1997a); (1997b); (2004a); (2004b) for the English structures, Nordgård and Åfarli (1990) and Åfarli and Eide (2003) for the Norwegian structures, as well as Bobrowski (2005) for the Polish structures.

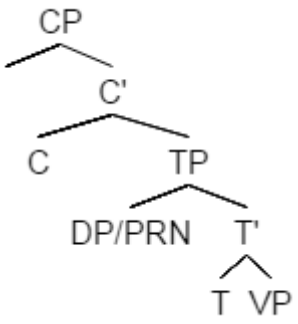
In many sentence structure analyses, CP is used as a starting point for each tree structure. CP stands for Complementizer Phrase which includes complementizers like *if, that* and *for* (Radford, 2004a, p. 124) but also adverbs like *what*, *who*, *yesterday* etc. What those complementizers and adverbs have in common is that they can stand in the initial position of a sentence, for example a declarative sentence *Yesterday, I bought a cat*, or an interrogative sentence *For what reason did you come here?*. Of course, *I bought a cat* is still a perfectly acceptable sentence without the adverb. However, the idea is that the highest possible constituent a sentence can start with is a CP. So in the first case, the CP branch would contain *yesterday*, but in the second case, it would stand empty. After that comes the IP (Inflection Phrase) or TP (Tense Phrase). Both phrases are being used today and they mainly represent the same aspect in the structures. There are many opinions as to which one is best to use however, discussing that is not relevant for the purposes of this thesis as both phrases are used in the same place in the structure and have relatively similar functions. As the CP structures are based on Radford (2004a), (2004b), (1997a) (1997b) the TP phrase for English sentence constructions are used because Radford uses that the most. The Norwegian structures are based on Nordgård and Åfarli (1990) as well as Åfarli and Eide (2003). The first book uses the IP phrase in the structures while the latter one uses the TP phrase, similar to Radford. Theory from both books is drawn in this chapter however, the structures for the Norwegian sentences are mostly based on Nordgård and Åfarli (1990) where the IP phrase is used. That is because particular sentence examples in the 1990 book are more fitting to this study.

Going back to the tree structures, the TP phrase contains further two branches where the leftmost one is the Determiner Phrase (DP) subject of the sentence and the right branch is a T' (tense) projection. As several works by Radford are used as a base for the structures shown in

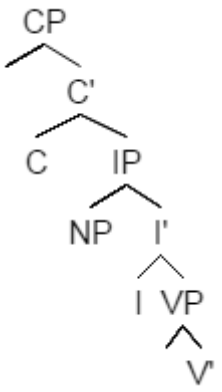
this chapter, labels vary and sometimes the DP is replaced by Pronoun (PRN). Specific source is indicated for every construction. The T' projection in the structures consists of another two branches, the rightmost being the VP of a sentence and the leftmost branch being a T which shows the tense of the verb (*will*, *-ed*, *-s* in English) (Haegeman & Guéron, 1999, p. 95). T includes also the finite auxiliaries discussed above. This initial structure is presented in (3a). Following Nordgård and Åfarli (1990) on the other hand, IP comes under C'. The rightmost branch of IP is I' and the leftmost is, in the structures used below, the subject NP. I' contains two branches where the leftmost is I (inflection) and the rightmost is a VP. Further, the structure generally resembles the ones used by Radford. The initial structure for the Norwegian sentences used in this study is shown in (3b).

There are other ways to represent a tree structure. One of them is a method which assumes that the starting point should be an S (sentence) as it is a sentence the tree structure usually represents. A sentence has to at least consist of a noun phrase (NP) and a finite verb phrase (VP) and so the initial structure of such tree structure will be as shown in (4).

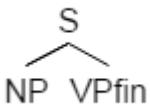
(3a)



(3b)



(4)



(Baker, 1995, p. 89)

I will be following the principles of Universal Grammar (UG) and assume that the CP analysis is the correct approach here. The S-analysis differs from the CP-analysis because it allows ternary branching which UG does not accept. The Binarity Principle allows only two branches per head word (Radford, 2004a, p. 71). However, I will still show S-analysis examples for Polish sentences for the sake of simplicity, as this is the most comprehensive analysis of Polish available (Bobrowski, 2005; Tajsner, 1990). I will also omit some branches, not name the heads not in use and use triangles for the sake of simplicity.

2.3 The word order of English, Norwegian and Polish

2.3.1 English word order

2.3.1.1 Basic English word order

English word order is first and foremost SVO, as in (5). It is the canonical word order and can be seen in declarative sentences as well as negative and question formations (discussed below). There are constructions where the order does change, for example in Wh- formations where the object (*what*, *who*, etc.) constituent moves to SpecCP. There are also declarative constructions which do not have SVO order. Consider (6b). The sentence has an OSV order but it is still acceptable. This type of sentence constructions are often used in literary works where the author uses topicalization (Radford, 1997b, p. 172) in order to emphasize other constituents than the subject. The topic of the sentence is changed from *I* to *the dog* hence the object DP moves to the front.

(5) Mary likes John.

(6) a. Jenny always walked her dog around the block in the evening.
b. The dog I did not like.

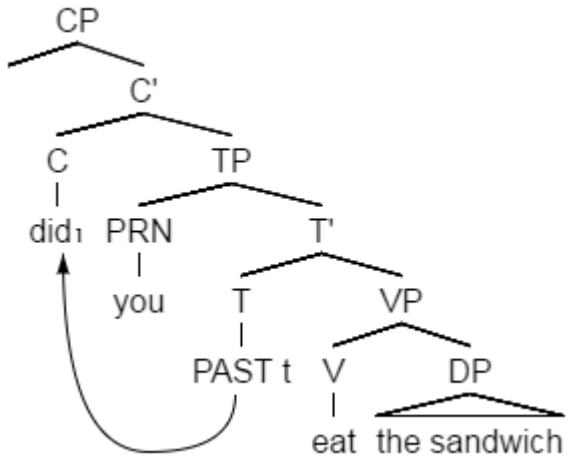
2.3.1.2 Question formation in English

Questions or interrogative constructions have more than just one form; there are for example, yes/no questions and *wh*-questions. A question as in (7) is a so-called yes/no question which can be answered by simply saying yes or no. Because the verb cannot move from V to T

in English (Radford, 2004b, p. 134), the structure of such a sentence requires the auxiliary *do* in the past form to fill in the C position[3] (see 8, based on Radford (2004b)). The past tense of *do* is generated in T and moves up to the C position resulting in *did*. The tree structure is based on the deep structure of the sentence and therefore it is necessary to show the movement with arrows so that the surface structure can be read out of the tree (Haegeman & Guéron, 1999, p. 84).

(7) Did you eat the sandwich?

(8)[4]



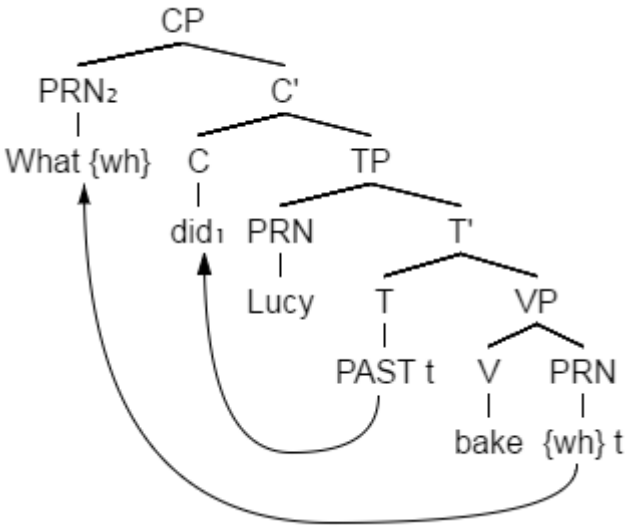
The deep structure of the question construction in (9) can be assumed to be *Lucy bake what* (SVO) in English, but in the surface structure *what* moves to the SpecCP (inversion (Radford, 2004a, p. 48)). This operation is called *wh*-movement (Radford, 2004a, p. 18). Following Radford (2004b), the inversion can be seen in (10), where the placement of these elements in deep structure is apparent as well as the surface structure and the movement of the *wh*-constituent is demonstrated with an arrow.[5] *Wh*-movement is a part of a more general term,

[3] There is a theory which claims that the verb can also be placed in the TP. However, it still cannot move past the subject and the auxiliary *do* is still needed in such constructions. See Collins (2001) for further discussion.
[4] The symbols 't' and '$_1$' represent the trace of the moving element and the target place. Unfortunately, the syntactic tree generator program used for this study only allows this type of symbols and therefore the trace markings in all structures will be somewhat untraditional, compared to other practices.
[5] There is a discussion about whether there is only one CP projection in sentence constructions or whether the CP splits into several projections. A split CP hypothesis is an analysis which proposes the CP to split into a ForceP with several projections, making the positioning of *what* or any other constituents moving to the CP more

movement of operator expressions (Radford, 1997b, p. 131). Constituents starting with *wh-* are so called interrogative operators and are to be found in interrogative expressions (Radford, 1997b, p. 130). Operator movement is different from head movement where there is a strict rule of minimal movement (a head has to move up to the nearest empty head position). Operators can move straight to CP in order to create interrogative or negative expressions (Radford, 1997a, pp. 268-269).

(9) What did Lucy bake?

(10)



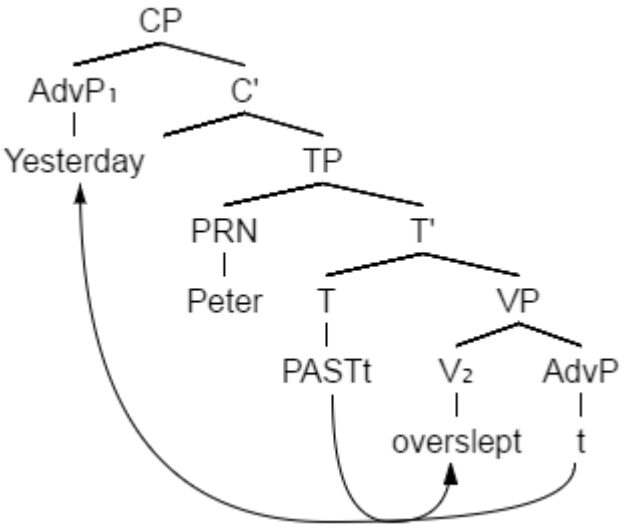
2.3.1.3 Non-subject-initial declaratives in English

As mentioned before, English declarative pattern is SVO. However, constituents like Adverbial Phrases (AdvP), Prepositional Phrases (PP), etc. can invert to the SpecCP position, making the sentence a non-subject-initial declarative. Consider (11), based on (Radford, 2004b). Following Radford (2004b), the English word order of *Yesterday Peter overslept* shows that the subject *Peter* is a PRN within the TP. The T' projection consists of the tense feature of the verb (past tense) and a VP with the verb itself. The AdvP's movement to the front of the construction is demonstrated with an arrow. Besides AdvP's movement to SpecCP, the sentence

specific. As this is not relevant to my study, I will keep the simple one CP projections in my tree structures and assume that the constituents move into the CP. (see Rizzi (1997) and Radford (2004a chapter 9) for a full discussion of this topic).

remains in a SVO word order. According to the Abstract T analysis, the tense affix of the main verb *oversleep* is generated in T and lowered onto the head VP immediately below it (Radford, 2004b, p. 98). This operation is called affix hopping where the unattached affix is lowered onto the head it belongs to.

(11)

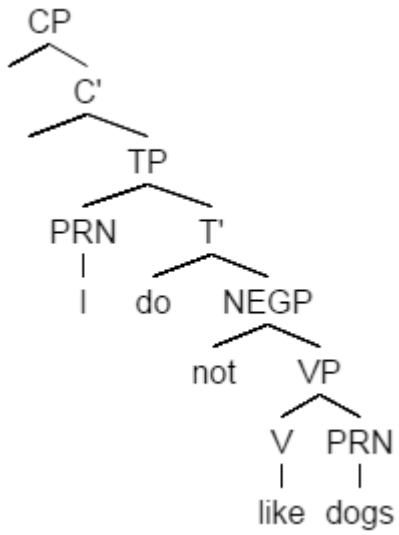


2.3.1.4 Negation and English word order

As mentioned before, the lexical verb in English cannot move from V to T according to Radford (2004b). Therefore, it needs do-support from the 'dummy' auxiliary *do* which can undergo inversion, meaning it can move to C position to form questions (Radford, 1997b, pp. 44-45). It is however important to note that in cases when there is an auxiliary like *have* or *be* etc. in the C position, the do-support is not needed (*Have you ever danced before?*). The auxiliary *do* is also used for negative sentences. That is because the VP cannot be directly negated as well (Radford, 1997b, p. 45), and so *do* is negated by the word *no* instead as in (12).

(12) I do not like dogs.

(13)



(13) Represents the tree structure of (12) as based on Radford (2004b). We can see that *do* remains in its original position T' here and *not* is in the SpecNeg position in the Negative Phrase. The main verb is as always fixed in the VP.

2.3.2 Norwegian word order

2.3.2.1 Basic Norwegian word order

In many cases, the Norwegian word order resembles the SVO order in English (Holmberg & Platzack, 1995, p. 7). However, the Norwegian word order is primarily V2, which is similar to German and Dutch (Holmberg & Platzack, 1995, p. 7). This means that whatever the structure is, the finite verb has to be always second in place in a sentence. The V2 rule may not be noticeable in regular declaratives like (14) but it will be so in the sentence structures discussed below.

(14) Han drakk vin.

He drink$_{3.SG.PAST}$ *wine.*

'He drank wine.'

(Åfarli & Eide, 2003, p. 80)

I will follow Nordgård and Åfarli (1990) to show the Norwegian sentence structure. This book uses IP instead of TP but as mentioned before their placement in the structures is the same so the structures will still resemble Radford's approach. The book also uses NP as a description of the subject, instead of DP.

2.3.2.2 Question formation in Norwegian

Norwegian *wh*-question pattern is as shown in (15) and the tree structure is presented in (16), following Nordgård and Åfarli (1990). As mentioned before, interrogative sentences like the one below have an interrogative operator starting with *wh-* or *hv-* (bokmål) and *kv-* (nynorsk) in Norwegian[6]. The C projection is motivated by one of the operators and the projection in turn forces the operator to move to SpecCP (Åfarli & Eide, 2003, pp. 74, 256). In the case below, *hva* is the operator moving up to SpecCP.

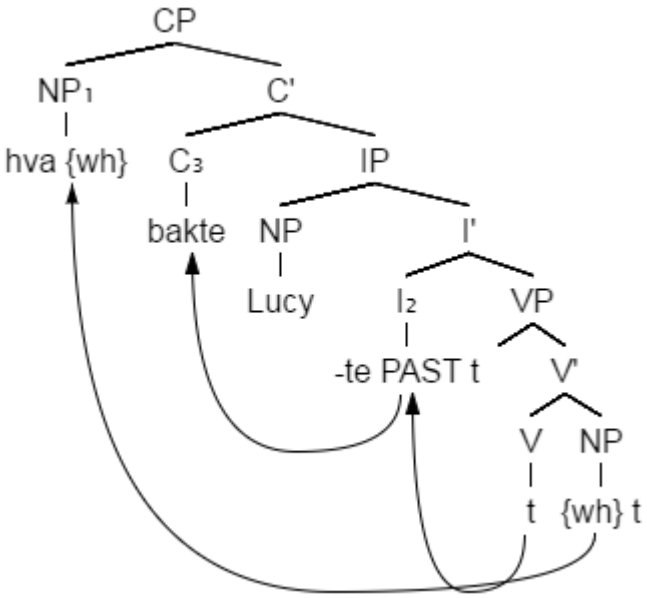
(15) Hva bakte Lucy?

What baked$_{3.SG.PAST}$ *Lucy*..

'What did Lucy bake?'

[6] Norwegian has two official written languages: bokmål and nynorsk, hence there are two ways to write *wh-* in Norwegian.

(16)



The verb *bake* is generated in the VP and moves first to I and then to C in order to fulfill the V2 requirement. According to Åfarli and Eide (2003, pp. 64, 74-75), the verb has to move to the I position in order to melt together with the tense. In addition, it moves further to the C position in main sentences in order to fulfill the V2 criterion. The reason for two movements instead of one is that only local head movement is allowed (Radford, 1997b, p. 117), which means that a head has to move up to the nearest head position at a time. The double movement of the head *bake* is called a successive cyclic fashion (Radford, 1997b, p. 118).

Norwegian Yes/no question word order is shown in (17). In Norwegian, a yes/no question word order starts with the verb, followed by the subject, resulting in a VSO word order. It is also possible to use the construction in (18). In (18), there is an auxiliary *har* in the initial position, however, as seen in (17), it does not mean that a lexical verb cannot fill that position in Norwegian. Therefore, unlike English, Norwegian question formations do not need an auxiliary because the verb moves out of the VP (Åfarli & Eide, 2003). Another difference between Norwegian and English here is that the verb in Norwegian is in the past tense while the English is not. This is because in English, the auxiliary *do* would normally carry the tense instead of the verb. In Norwegian, the verb can carry the tense.

(17) Bakte Lucy en kake?

Baked Lucy a cake?

Did Lucy bake a cake?

(18) Har Lucy bakt en kake?

Have$_{PRESENT}$ Lucy baked a cake?

Did Lucy bake a cake?

2.3.2.3 Non-subject-initial declaratives in Norwegian

Consider (17). This declarative sentence has an SVO order, similar to English. However, if the time adverbial *yesterday* were to be moved to the SpecCP position, the verb in the Norwegian sentence moves to a position right after the adverbial (C), in order to be second in place and fulfill the V2 criterion as seen in (18). The movement is represented in a syntactic tree in (19), based on Nordgård and Åfarli (1990).

(17) Peter forsov seg i går.

Peter overslept$_{3.SG.PAST}$ himself yesterday.

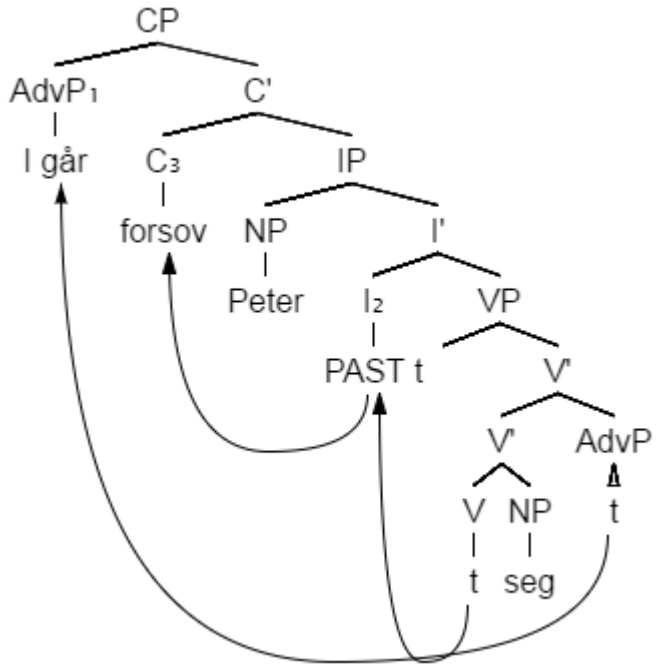
'Peter overslept yesterday.'

(18) I går forsov Peter seg.

Yesterday overslept$_{3.SG.PAST}$ Peter himself.

'Yesterday Peter overslept.

(19)



The finite verb moves to C in Norwegian because it has to fulfill the V2 criterion. Declarative sentences like the one in (19) are often constructed through the process of topicalization which is a process where constituents are moved to SpecCP in order to emphasize them instead of the subject (Åfarli, 1997, p. 47).

2.3.2.4 Negation and Norwegian word order

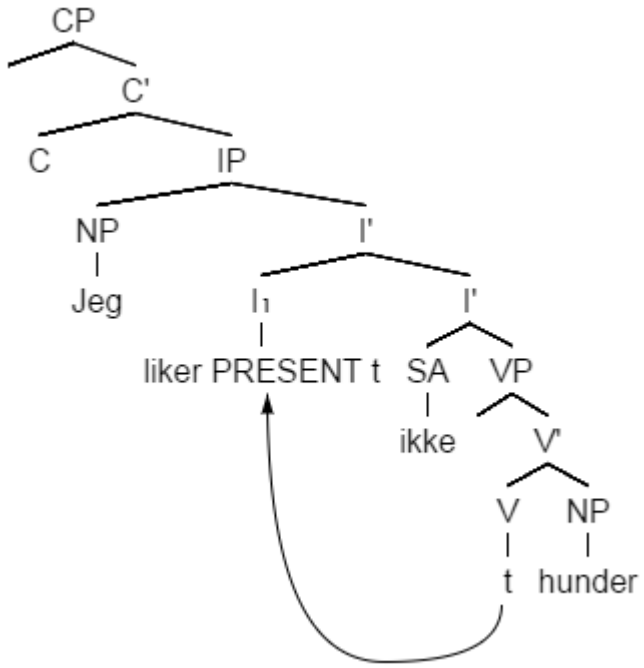
Consider (20). Similar to English, Norwegian uses a negative operator *ikke* to negate a sentence. However, the V2 rule forces the finite verb to a second place after the subject *jeg* and so the operator is placed after it and not before as it is in English. Following Åfarli and Eide (2003), (21) represents the tree structure.

(20) Jeg liker ikke hunder.

I like not dogs.

'I do not like dogs.'

(21)[7]



Åfarli and Eide (2003, p. 94) discuss the placement of the sentence adverbial (SA) in Norwegian structures. SA complement is also considered to include the negation operator *ikke* (*not*). The authors propose that SA can only be left attached to T' (or I'), with TP (or IP) as an exception (Åfarli & Eide, 2003, p. 98). This means that Norwegian does not get a separate negation phrase as in English because the negation operator is considered a SA constituent under I'. As seen in (21) in order for the verb to fulfill the V2 criterion, it moves out of the VP to I. An extra I' projection is therefore produced to place SA operator *ikke* on the left branch under I'.

[7] The discussion on negation in Norwegian as well as a good example of the structure can be found in Åfarli and Eide (2003, pp. 97-98). However, I chose to use the labels found in Nordgård and Åfarli (1990) (IP, NP and so on) for the sake of being consistent in my examples.

2.3.3 Polish Word Order

2.3.3.1 Basic Polish word order

The word order in Polish language is relatively free, with many possibilities of constructing a sentence. However, SVO is considered to be the canonical word order. Szwedek (1974) concludes that word orders VSO and SOV are considered less frequent than SVO (see 22).

(22) Dał piłkę chłopiec kotu (VSO, less frequent)

Gave ball ACCUSATIVE *boy cat* DATIVE

'The boy gave the ball to the cat'

Chłopiec piłkę kotu dał (SOV, less frequent)

Boy ball ACCUSATIVE *cat* DATIVE *gave*

'The boy gave the ball to the cat'

Chłopiec dał kotu piłkę (SVO, most frequent)

Boy gave cat DATIVE *ball* ACCUSATIVE

'The boy gave the cat the ball'

Other scholars support the claim that SVO is the most frequent order in Polish as well. Nagórko (2010) and (Fisiak, Lipińska-Grzegorek, & Zabrocki, 1978) call the SVO pattern in Polish a neutral order. It is possible to deviate from this order whenever it is required by communicative, rhythmic or stylistic reasons (Nagórko, 2010, p. 270). In other words, the Polish word order is initially SVO but it can easily be changed in order to give one of the words more attention or to fit into the context.

However, Szwedek (1974) claims in addition that the Polish word order is not as free as it would seem at first glance. He explains that when people utter sentences, the first part of the sentence will be information that is already known. The last part of the sentence will then hold new information that the speaker wants to communicate (p. 207). For example, if two persons had just been talking about the sister of one of them, a sentence like (23) could be uttered:

(23) Moja siostra bardzo dobrze gra w tenisa

My sister NOMINATIVE *very well plays in tennis* LOCATIVE

'My sister plays tennis very well'

My sister here is given/known information because the two persons have just been talking about it. *Tennis* is brand new information and therefore comes at the very end of the sentence. Now, if the two persons were talking about tennis instead of the sister, then the sentence would have a different word order like in (24):

(24) W tenisa gra bardzo dobrze moja siostra

In tennis LOCATIVE *plays very well my sister* NOMINATIVE

'My sister plays tennis very well'

Because *tennis* was the topic of conversation this time, it is now given information and comes first in the sentence. *My sister* is now new information which comes last. Szwedek uses some terms to explain this. He calls given information the identifying part and new information the differentiating part. No matter their syntactic function, words that are given information and identify the pragmatic subject/theme move to the front of the sentence. Words that are new information differentiate themselves from the given theme and are placed last, their syntactic function playing no role here (Szwedek, 1974, p. 207).

Szwedek also claims that word order in Polish is used to establish whether a word is definite or indefinite. Or rather, it is definiteness or indefiniteness of a word which decides its place in a sentence. In English, definiteness is projected through the articles *the* and *a*. *The* is used when talking about something specific (*the cat*) and *a* is used when no particular thing/person/place is on a speaker's mind (*a cat*). Therefore a pair of sentences like (25) are perfectly acceptable and the reader understands that both sentences are about the same cat (Hawkins, 2015).

(25) I found a cat on the street yesterday.

The cat was in good shape.

The familiarity hypothesis (Christophersen, 1939) would however argue that although a person utters *a cat*, a particular cat could still be on the speaker's mind. But because the recipient (hearer) of the utterance may/does not know which particular cat it is, the article *a* is used (Lyons, 1998, p. 3). Definiteness is therefore a tool to successfully communicate with another person, taking into account what the hearer already knows and does not know and adjust an utterance accordingly.

A similar concept can be found in the term information structure. Information structure focuses on how the speaker utters/forms a sentence so that the hearer will understand it in a particular way (Lambrecht, 1996). The concept is therefore also concerned with the speaker actually thinking about what the hearer knows and does not know and constructing the information in a sentence according to that. It is important to note however, that information structure is exclusively concerned with the grammatical structuring of sentences and not the psychological and conversational explanations (Lambrecht, 1996, p. 4).

Polish is therefore very interesting as it is a type of language which does not have any articles and so uses the structure/order of words in a sentence to convey definiteness. The word order in a sentence tells the hearer what is definite and indefinite. Indefinite nouns have always the last place in a sentence and definite nouns can be placed almost anywhere besides last (Szwedek, 1974, 219). Consider (26):

(26) Na drzewie LOCATIVE siedzi kot NOMINATIVE

On tree sits cat

'A cat sits in the tree'

If the cat were to be a definite noun, a sentence *the cat sits on the tree* would be as shown in (27):

(27) Kot NOMINATIVE siedzi na drzewie LOCATIVE

Cat sits on tree

'The cat sits in the tree'

This shows that a noun has to be placed in a fixed spot in the sentence in order to express indefinitness or definitness. This supports what Szwedek said about new information and old information placement in a sentence. Usually, talking about an unknown cat would be new information, like with the one sitting on the tree and therefore has to be placed last in a sentence. If the cat is known to the persons communicating, then the noun becomes *the cat* and is placed in the front of the sentence because it is given information. The fact that the cat is sitting somewhere (on a tree) is new information now. This claim is further supported syntactically by Czardybon, Hellwig, and Petersen (2014). They examine their findings and conclude that the NPs can be both definite or indefinite when they are placed in a postverbal position, but only definite NPs are placed in a preverbal position (p. 148).

Polish words can also easily move in a sentence because their function is determined by their endings and not their placement. Polish language is therefore called an inflection language (Jadacka, 2005, p. 167). Inflection (in other words case), adds different endings to nouns, determiners and verbs in order to give them different grammatical meanings. Consider (28):

(28) Dziewczyna zjadła kanapkę

Girl NOMINATIVE *ate sandwich* ACCUSATIVE

'The girl ate the sandwich'

Kanapkę zjadła dziewczyna

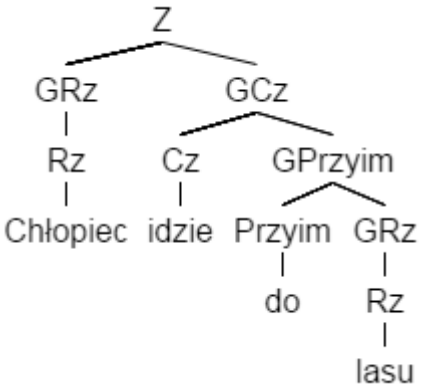
Sandwich ACCUSATIVE *ate girl* NOMINATIVE

'The sandwich ate the girl'

Looking at the English translations of the two constructions, the second one is nonsense. It is however not the case in Polish, where *kanapkę* (*the sandwich*) has a suffix *–ę* which rules out the possibility of it eating *dziewczyna* (*the girl*) instead. If this was the desired meaning, *kanapkę* would have to gain a different suffix *–a*, (*kanapka*) and *dziewczyna* would gain the suffix *–ę* (*dziewczynę*). In order to show these relations in English, case types have to be identified. In the case of the examples above, *girl* has the nominative case (most often the subject of the sentence) and *sandwich* has the accusative case (direct object). The Polish language indicates case in the suffixes of NPs and therefore does not need word order rules to establish subjects and objects in a sentence.

Considering Polish phrase structure, it resembles that of English and Norwegian. Bobrowski (2005) demonstrates a phrase structure of a Polish sentence *Chłopiec idzie do lasu* (in English: *The boy goes to the forest*), as seen in (29).

(29)

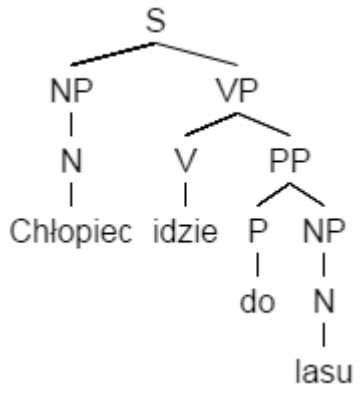


(Bobrowski, 2005, p. 130)

Bobrowski does not use the CP→TP structure in a tree, which is used in this study. Instead, he marks the whole structure as being a complete sentence S (in Polish: Z, meaning *zdanie*). This is the same structure as described in Baker (1995). The main constituent Z divides into two heads GRz (=NP) and GCz (=VP) which are obligatory minimum in order to form a sentence. However, Fisiak et al. (1978) claim that the subject is not always obligatory in Polish main clauses. The authors claim that a pronoun subject can be deleted by Pronominal Subject Deletion transformation (Fisiak et al., 1978, p. 22). This means that a sentence *On poszedł do lasu* (he went to the forest), can also be an acceptable sentence without the subject *On*. *Poszedł*, contains number and gender information needed to understand what/who is the subject.

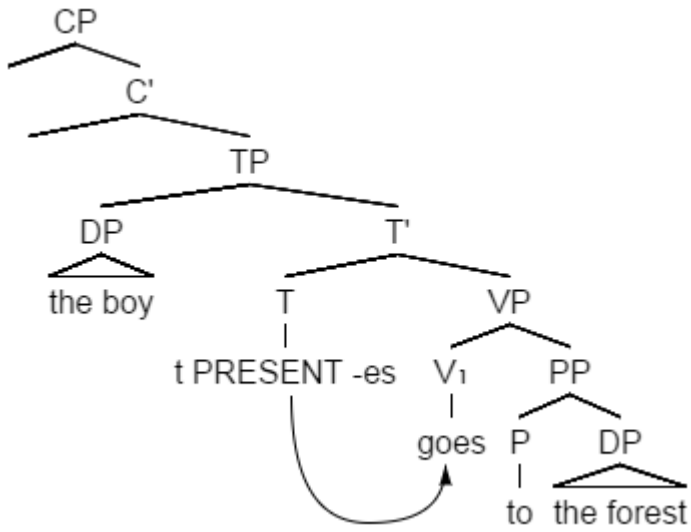
(30) shows the structure presented in (29) with the English equivalences for the head names.

(30)



It is clearer to see now that the branches of the phrase structure are divided into an NP which contains the subject here and a VP which contains the lexical verb. This behavior resembles English and Norwegian structures of the same sentence (see 31 and 32, based on Radford (2004b) and Nordgård and Åfarli (1990)). NP (DP in the English structure) and VP are the heads where VP divides further to account for the verb *idzie* and the PP *do lasu*.

(31)



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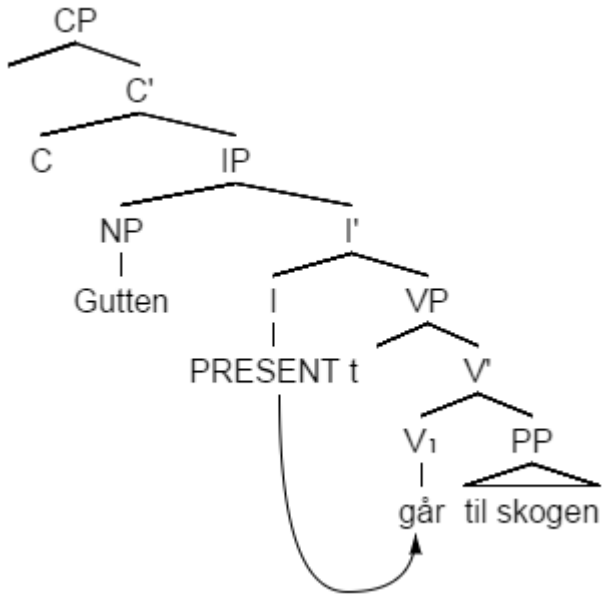


2.3.3.2 Question formation in Polish

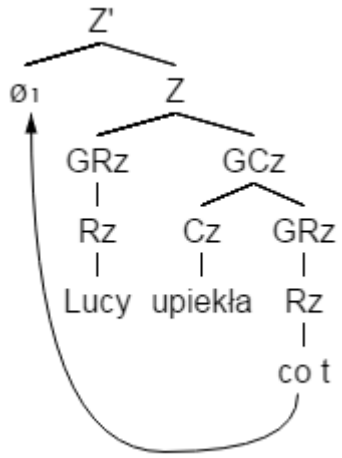
Consider (33). Polish wh-questions mostly have an SVO word order, where the interrogative operator indicates a question and the main verb is inflected. The deep structure resembles English and Norwegian in some aspects. Consider (34), based on (Bobrowski, 2005). The interrogative operator *co* (*what*) for example, originally appears after the main verb in the deep structure, but according to Bobrowski (2005, p. 154), it moves to SpecZ' (Z= sentence) in the surface structure. In addition, the lexical verb *upiekła* (*baked*) is generated in the VP like in the other two languages.

(33) Co Lucy upiekła wczoraj?

What Lucy bake$_{3.SG.PAST.FEMININE}$ *yesterday?*

'What did Lucy bake yesterday?'

(34)



Polish yes/no question word order has a question word *czy* in the initial Z' position which expects a yes/no answer (Bielec, 2012, appendix 4). However, the question word is not obligatory (Fisiak et al., 1978), as seen in (35). A word order like (36) can also be used as a yes/no question. Actually, almost any acceptable word order in Polish with appropriate intonation can become a yes/no question so the syntactical rules are much more free in Polish, compared to English and Norwegian. Whether the object *tort* or adverbial *yesterday* is placed last in the examples below depend on definiteness (whether the question is about when or what Lucy baked).

(35) Lucy upiekła tort wczoraj?

Lucy bake$_{3.SG.PAST.FEMININE}$ *cake yesterday?*

'Did Lucy bake a cake yesterday?'

(36) Lucy upiekła wczoraj tort?

Lucy bake$_{3.SG.PAST.FEMININE}$ *yesterday cake?*

'Lucy baked a cake yesterday?'

2.3.3.3 Non-subject-initial declaratives in Polish

As mentioned before, topicalization is a term for a process when a non-subject constituent is placed as sentence initial. Consider (37). Sentence a. is a perfectly ordinary Polish sentence. In b., *kucyka* is topicalized so that it is moved to the front of the sentence and is now the center of attention for the reader (main topic). The subject in b. is now considered the second topic of the sentence (Lambrecht, 1996, p. 147). So although *kucyka* is just an object, it can be emphasized by the speaker/writer by topicalizing it so that it gains more focus than the subject *Ja*. All three languages discussed in this study (English, Norwegian and Polish) can topicalize non-subject constituents but it happens more frequently in Polish as it is also used to establish definiteness (as discussed above). In English and Norwegian, topicalization is mostly used in literary works and such sentence structure is not considered every-day-language.

(37) a. Ja lubię kucyka bardzo.

I like$_{1.SG.PRESENT}$ *pony*$_{ACCUSATIVE}$ *much.*

'I like the pony a lot.'

b. Kucyka lubię bardzo.

Pony$_{ACCUSATIVE}$ *like*$_{1.SG.PRESENT}$ *much.*

'The pony I like a lot.'

Non-subject-initial declaratives in Polish have an SVO word order, similar to English (as in 38). The AdvP *wczoraj* can be the initial constituent in a sentence without changing the canonical SVO order, similar to English. As topicalization is more frequent in Polish, such constructions may be often produced in Polish, compared to English and Norwegian.

(38) Wczoraj Peter zaspał.

Yesterday Peter overslept.

'Yesterday Peter overslept'.

2.3.3.4 Negation and Polish word order

Negation in Polish is constructed by using a negation word *nie* (*no*). Consider (39). The word order is SnegVO. On the syntactic level, the negative operator has its own head in a tree, similar to the English system, according to Bobrowski (2005, p. 395) and it is cliticized to the verb with syntactic evidence showing that the negative operator cannot be detached from the verb (Willim, 1990, p. 212).

Bobrowski also differentiates the deep and surface structure of negation, saying that the negative operator is placed after the verb in the deep structure and moves before the verb in the surface structure (as in 40). The negative operator *nie* is generated in a VP with a head Neg positioned after the verb. It moves up to a VP position before the verb when negating the main verb (Bobrowski, 2005, pp. 395-396).

(39) Ja nie lubię psów.

I no like dogs.

'I do not like dogs.'

(40) Deep structure: Ja lubię nie psów.

I like no dogs.

Surface structure: Ja nie lubię psów.

I no like dogs.

2.4 Differences and similarities

Polish, English and Norwegian word orders are similar in basic declaratives where all three languages have an SVO pattern. However, they differ when it comes to other sentence structures like wh-questions, yes/no questions and negation. For example, Polish and English share the same SV pattern in declaratives, yes/no and negation constructions, whereas the Norwegian pattern is V2. The same pattern occurs in wh-questions, where Polish has a SV order and Norwegian has a VS order. English has an SV order in wh-questions as well, however it also requires an auxiliary *do* which none of the other two languages use.

Polish distinguishes itself from Norwegian and English because its free word order allows many different combinations, although its canonical and most used order is SVO. The latter two are more syntactically bound (English has usually an SVO pattern and Norwegian a V2 pattern). This means that English sentences usually are ordered with subject as the first constituent, then verb and lastly object. Norwegian has an overriding rule that the verb has to stand always as number two with subject, object or any other constituent in the initial position.

There are bigger differences between the three languages in wh-constructions for example. In Norwegian, the main verb moves upwards to C in order to account for the V2 order. Polish requires no verb movement however, it also requires the gender and person distinction but that is not relevant in this study. The English order requires an auxiliary *do* which moves to C, and the main verb does not acquire tense as in the other two languages. English and Polish are similar here in verb placement, but only Norwegian and Polish mark tense on the main verb.

The two most significant differences between English, Norwegian and Polish relevant to this thesis are firstly, that English uses the dummy auxiliary *do* in question and negation formations because the finite verb cannot move from VP to TP. Secondly, English and Polish have a canonical SVO word order and Norwegian has V2. Norwegian and Polish do not have to use *do* as English does because their syntax allows verb movement. In contrast to English, both Norwegian and Polish languages apply the negative operator and past tense to the main verb to indicate negation in a sentence, without any auxiliaries (as in 41 for Norwegian, 42 for Polish and 43 for English). English applies the negative operator as well but it also has the auxiliary *do* to indicate tense because the verb does not.

Word orders in wh- questions in Norwegian (44), Polish (45) and English (46) can be seen below. There is a clear difference between Norwegian and the two other languages; the verb is in the second place in the Norwegian construction and the other two languages have a SVO word order. Again, here, English needs an auxiliary *do* while Norwegian and Polish do not.

(41) Jeg likte det ikke.
I like$_{(past)}$ *it not.*
'I did not like it.'

(42) Ja nie lubiłam tego.
I not like$_{(past,\ 1st\ p.\ sg.\ feminine)}$ *it.*
'I did not like it.'

(43) I did not like it.

(44) Hva kjøpte Peter i går?

What bought Peter yesterday?

'What did Peter buy yesterday?'

(45) Co Peter kupił wczoraj?

What Peter bought yesterday?

'What did Peter buy yesterday?'

(46) What did Peter buy yesterday?

2.5 Social Aspects

In Norway, children start learning English at the age of six, which is the time they start first grade. The Norwegian Ministry of Church, Education and Research has enforced this in 1997, calling English the primary foreign language in Norway (KUF, 1996). English is also a language which is geographically, culturally and language historically closest to Norway (KUF, 1996, p. 223). A new teaching plan has been enforced in Norway in 2006, where it is claimed that English is vastly spreading through movies, literature, songs, sports, trade, products and entertainment (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2006, p. 93). English expressions are also claimed to be used in Norwegian and English in general is more used in education and at work (p. 93). In Norway, foreign language films and television series are usually subtitled in Norwegian (Lindgren & Muñoz, 2013, p. 107). Streaming, downloading services as well as popular online platforms (Facebook, Youtube etc.) are used many times a day by Norwegians, especially youngsters. These services do not always provide an option in Norwegian so Norwegians often watch these media without any subtitles, dubbing or voiceover (Dahl, 2014, p. 28).

Polish children started first grade at the age of seven until the new System of Education in Poland was published in 2015. From fall 2014, it was possible to send children to first grade from the age of six and from fall 2015 it became mandatory for all Polish children to start elementary school at the age of six (Eurydice, 2015, p. 6). Only in recent years (since 2006) has it become mandatory to teach a modern foreign language from first grade. The two most popular languages that are being taught are German and English where English is dominating because it is easiest to find appropriate personnel (GUS, 2010, p. 91). The choice of which obligatory

foreign language children start with is the parents', according to the available choices the local school is providing. The students can choose to switch to a different language when they are older and can decide for themselves, e.g. from fourth grade.

Poland is, like Norway, influenced by the American and British culture today. British and American songs are played on the radio and British/American movies as well as TV-series are on the television and in cinemas (Zięba, 2008, p. 253). Polish television networks mostly use voiceover as an option to translate foreign language films and television series into Polish (Szarkowska, 2009). This technique involves a person reading the dialogues of every character in the film/program, overlapping with the original audio. Today, there are several television networks providing an option for the viewer to be able to switch from the voiceover version to a version with Polish subtitles and two government networks who use Polish subtitles almost exclusively (Szarkowska, 2009). Despite that, a series of studies showed that the Polish viewers still prefer the voiceover (mostly) or dubbing versions instead of subtitles (Bogucki, 2004; Subbotko, 2008). Therefore, whereas Norwegians do not have much of a choice because Norwegian television networks mostly use subtitling, Poles still prefer the voiceover option instead of subtitling. They prefer voiceover probably because of habit (Szarkowska, 2009, p. 187), as this has long been the most common translation option. With the new translation options being introduced by more and more television networks, this trend can change in the future.

3 Method

High School students from Poland, Norway and Canada were given an acceptability judgement test in paper form (see appendix 2). The survey's aim was to make the participants do acceptability judgements on 80 different English sentences. The sentence types used were declaratives, wh- and yes/no questions as well as negations. The sentences were randomized in the survey. In each group of sentence types, five sentences had English word order, five had Polish word order and another five had Norwegian word order. Sometimes the Polish and Norwegian word orders were the same so only five sentences were made up to account for word orders in both languages. The test also included 15 filler sentences (ten grammatically acceptable English sentences, and five unacceptable). The filler sentences included would make it possible to see if the participants are able to recognize grammatical/ungrammatical English sentences and rate them acceptable/unacceptable. This could help say something about the participants' English proficiency. Every sentence had to be graded on a scale from one to six, one meaning totally unacceptable and six meaning totally acceptable.

A survey with acceptability judgments pushes the participants to use their language intuition so that it is possible to tap into their mental grammar and see how comprehensive their intuition of the English language is. The aim was to see whether Polish participants would accept English sentences with a word order which corresponds to that of Polish more often than the Norwegian and English participants would. Another aim was to see if Norwegians would accept English sentences with a word order which corresponds to that of Norwegian more often than the other two groups.

The native English speaking group from Canada was a control group. The control group was used to prove that some English sentences in the survey that are claimed grammatical actually are grammatical and to confirm the ungrammaticality of other constructions. Research questions for this study are as follows:

1. Will Norwegians accept more of the V2 constructions than the other groups?

2. Will Poles accept more of the XSV constructions without the auxiliary 'do' than the other groups?

3. Will Norwegians give the highest score to the V2 constructions compared to the other ungrammatical constructions?

4. Will Poles give the highest score to the XSV constructions without the auxiliary 'do' compared to the other ungrammatical constructions?

5. Does length and complexity of the sentences influence the acceptability judgement of Norwegians and Poles?

While 30 participants from a high school completed the survey for the Norwegian group, only 27 participants actually represent the group. Two of the three excluded participants did not fit the target group in this study (discussed in detail further below) and one participant gave reasons to believe the answers were random and not given any thought to (the majority of judgements of the sentences were 1). Seven participants of the representing group are from a vocational class and the rest (20) are from a general studies class. 59 high school participants represent the Polish group. All 59 participants are from advanced English classes in general studies program. The control group consists of 35 Canadian participants, all high school students. All the participants were handed a paper copy of the survey by their teachers in class. The participants were asked to read the instructions in the survey and follow them accordingly. The teachers were instructed not to aid the participants and the participants were asked to fill out the survey individually. There was no time limit for completing the survey.

Prior to the acceptability judgement task in the survey, Polish and Norwegian subjects were asked to provide some background information about themselves; gender, age, their own and their parents' native languages and how long they have had English in school. In addition, the participants were asked to self-report vacation in English speaking countries, if they ever lived in an English speaking country, a list of activities where they might use English and any other languages they acquired. The Canadian group had to provide background information only, as their use of English does not matter in this study. The aim of collecting information about English use in and outside of school for Norwegian and Polish groups was to try to establish an overview of how much English input do the two groups receive every day and to point to any differences between them. No personal information was asked for which could identify individuals. The Norwegian and Polish groups had to do a short English proficiency test as well, at the end of the survey. The test consisted of five different tasks which covered the basic areas of English grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension. The tasks were extracted from the Transparent Language, Inc. webpage and the URL can be found in the reference list.

Information about the participants' native language helped exclude participants who were not relevant for this study. Only native speakers of English in the Canadian group, Polish in the Polish group and Norwegian in the Norwegian group could be used as participants. A Polish native speaker in the Norwegian group for example, would interfere with the results as he/she could have used Polish language intuition when judging the acceptability of sentences. Due to this criterion, two Norwegian participants were excluded; the first one had Polish as a mother tongue and the second had Dari as a mother tongue. In addition, in order to account for social and society differences between Poland and Norway, advanced English classes were picked as subjects in Poland and a vocational class was picked for Norway. This is because there may have been a proficiency gap between Poles and Norwegians (Poles could be less proficient in English) for environmental reasons (see subchapter 2.5). Unfortunately, only seven Norwegian subjects in this study were attending a vocational high-school program. The remaining twenty were from a general studies program.

The data from the surveys were gathered in an Excel work-sheet, one for each group. The subjects were named N1, N2, N3, etc. for the Norwegian group, C1, C2, C3, etc. for the Canadian group and P1, P2, P3 etc. for the Polish group. Every sentence received a line-up of numbers (grades from one to six) from all the subjects of a group and an average score as well as standard deviation (SD) was calculated.

3.1 Addressing the issues of the method

As mentioned above, I chose to use acceptability judgements for this study. This is because the method is widely accepted in the language research society and many scholars have used it before me (Neeleman & Weerman, 1997; Westergaard, 2003; White et al., 2012). The aim was to test the participants' intuition of the English language by presenting acceptable and unacceptable English sentences to them. The unacceptable sentences had word orders which corresponded to Norwegian and Polish word orders. They were constructed in such a way in order to see if that has any influence on the participants. Some fillers were also included in the test that consisted of scrambled words without any pattern in word order, to test if the participants would discard them which would show that they do not accept just any kind of unacceptable English sentences.

The number of Norwegian participants is much lower than Polish and Canadian participants. This could have an effect on the results in that the group is not representative enough in number of participants to make any kind of generalizations about their knowledge of English. In addition, the aim was to test Norwegians from a vocational class only in order to try to match the levels of proficiency between Norwegians and Poles. This could account for the social aspects discussed before. However, the school in which the participants were found did not have enough students in such a class. As a result, the majority of the Norwegian group is represented by students from a general studies program. With that being said, the Polish group is represented by Polish students from a general studies program only, and the classes are advanced (students can choose whether they want a regular or advanced class in a language of their choice). This factor should account for the English proficiency level gap between the Norwegian and Polish group.

It is impossible to account for all social aspects and the amount of English teaching actually received by the participants in this small study. I have made an attempt to address these differences, focusing on the Norwegian and Polish groups only, as the control group is not relevant in this study. My focus has been on the time participants spend on watching Anglophone films and television series with or without subtitles, with voiceover, etc. They also had to estimate the amount of time they spend on English websites, reading books and magazines in English, communicating in English with friends and family, etc. In addition, a blank space was included where they could inform about other activities in which they use the English language that was not specifically asked for.

4 Results

In this chapter, I will present the data collected from the surveys in Norway, Canada and Poland. Sentences will be divided into groups of the same type, with Norwegian, Polish and Canadian data in one diagram. Each sentence will be presented with an average score as well as the standard deviation (SD) for the average score. Average and SD scores for each group has been paired up in each diagram with appropriate color codes. Nor. = Norwegian, Pol. = Polish, Can.= Canadian, Mean= Average, SD= Standard Deviation.

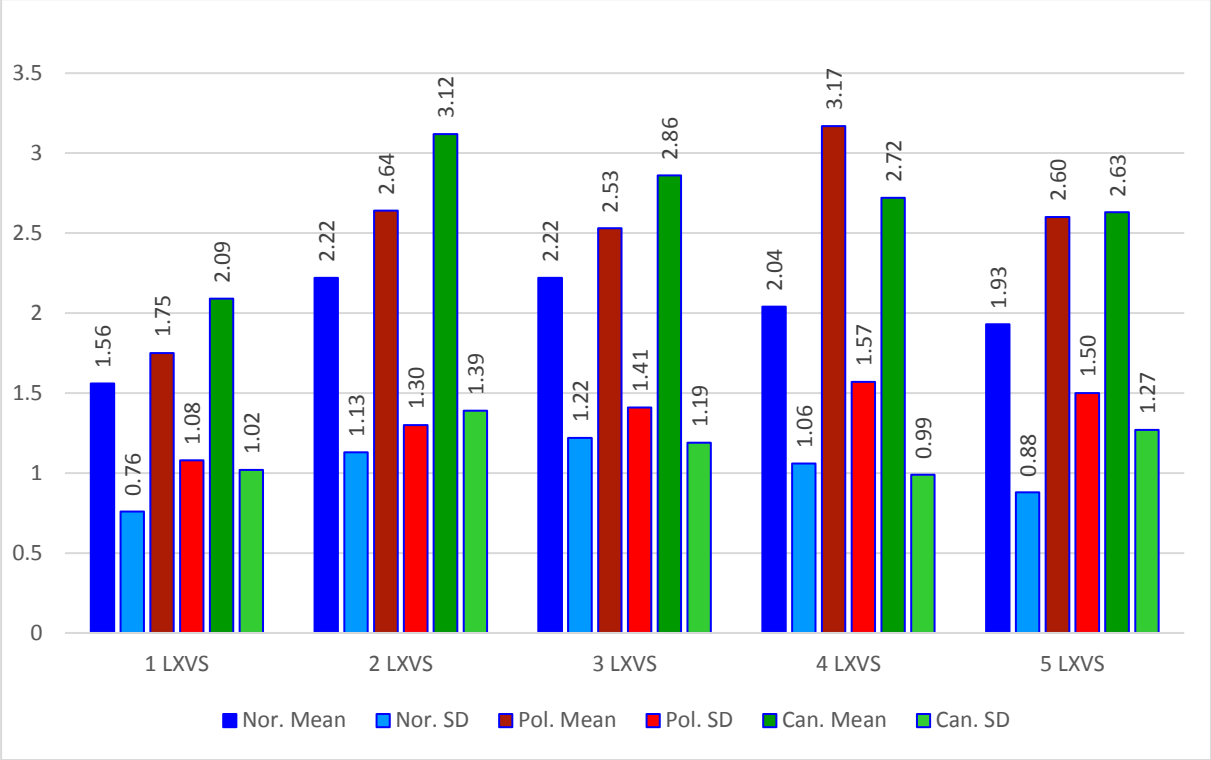
4.1 Declarative XVS and XSV sentences

4.1.1 Long XVS sentences

Figure 4.1 displays average scores on declarative sentences with a VS pattern and a constituent in the front (see 1-5 below). The sentences are constructed to be long and a little complicated as well e.g. *Every time there is a Harry Potter marathon at the local movie club, comes Eric for a visit.* These sentences are unacceptable constructions in English. The constructions would however be accepted in Norwegian, as this is a V2 word order. This word order can also be applied to Polish however this is not a canonical order in Polish and is therefore rarely used.

The average score for the five sentences combined within each group is as follows; Norwegian group: 2, Polish group: 2.54, control group: 2.69. Generally, the Norwegian group scores a lower average than the other groups and Canadians the highest. The Polish group score just above the Norwegians. The Norwegian group's scores are highest on average on sentences no. 2, 3 and 4 but all five sentences receive a low score which indicates little acceptance. The Polish group scores a few decimals higher on average than the Norwegians on sentences no. 1, 2 and 3. Their score on sentences no. 4 and 5 is significantly higher with almost a whole point. Nevertheless, The Polish participants generally do not accept any of the sentences as well. The control group scores low too (average between 2 and 3); however the scores are higher compared the other two groups, except sentence no. 3 where the Polish group scores higher than Canadian and Norwegian groups. Despite that, the control group generally does not accept the sentences. The SD of judgement scores on these sentences is highest for the Polish group. This means that the Polish group had the most instances where participants scored very high or low which cannot be seen in the average score.

Figure 4.1



Sentences from left to right:

1. *Every day when nobody is at home, sings Mary.*

2. *Whenever there is a storm which prevents him from going outside, reads Tom a book.*

3. *Every time the girls have to run through the forest in gym class at school, runs Judy the fastest.*

4. *In the spring when the snow melts and the temperatures rise, sing the birds.*

5. *Every week when 'Dr. House' is on TV, makes John popcorn.*

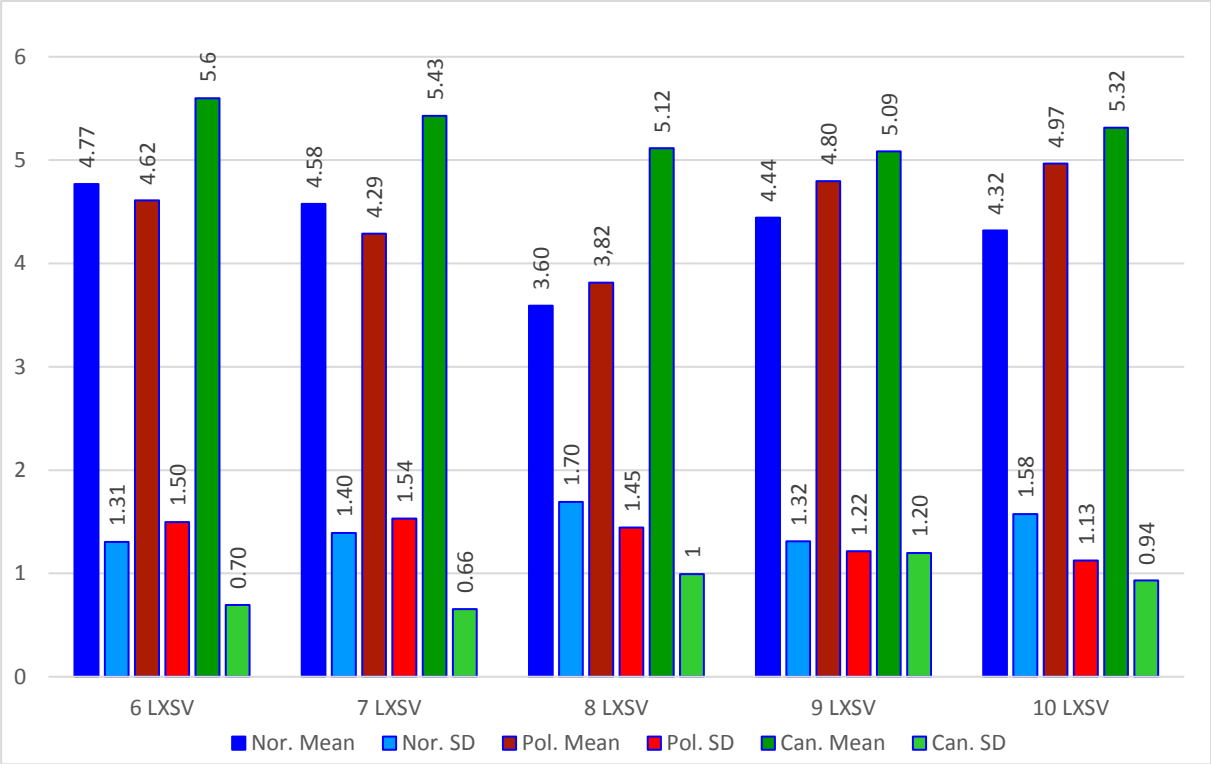
4.1.2 Long XSV sentences

Long declarative sentences with a SV word order and an initial constituent (see 6-10 below) scores are presented in figure 4.2. Such sentences are for example, *After a long and very pleasurable nap on the sofa in the new apartment, the cat got up.* This word order is acceptable in English and Polish. It is not acceptable in Norwegian however, where the verb would have to be second after X which is the long constituent before the subject.

The average score for the five sentences combined within each group is; Norwegian group: 4.35, Polish group: 4.5, control group: 5.32. The control group scores higher than the

other groups here with an average of above 5 on every sentence, confirming them to be acceptable English constructions. Norwegian and Polish groups score above 4 on average where the first group scores a little bit higher on sentences no. 6 and 7 than the latter and the latter scoring a little higher on sentences no. 9 and no. 10 than the first. Exception is sentence no. 8 where Polish and Norwegian participants give an average score of 3.8 and 3.5. This means that the sentences are almost judged a little unacceptable. Both groups generally accept every sentence. Compared to the other groups, the Polish group has the highest SDs on sentences 6 and 7. The Norwegian group has higher SDs than the other groups on sentences 8, 9 and 10.

Figure 4.2



Sentences from left to right:

6. *Every day when class starts, Peter smiles.*

7. *Whenever there is a break which lasts more than 15 minutes, Brian buys a soda.*

8. *Every time the boys from the other class are watching the volleyball match, the girls play very well.*

9. *In the daytime when nobody is at home and the house is quiet, our cat sleeps.*

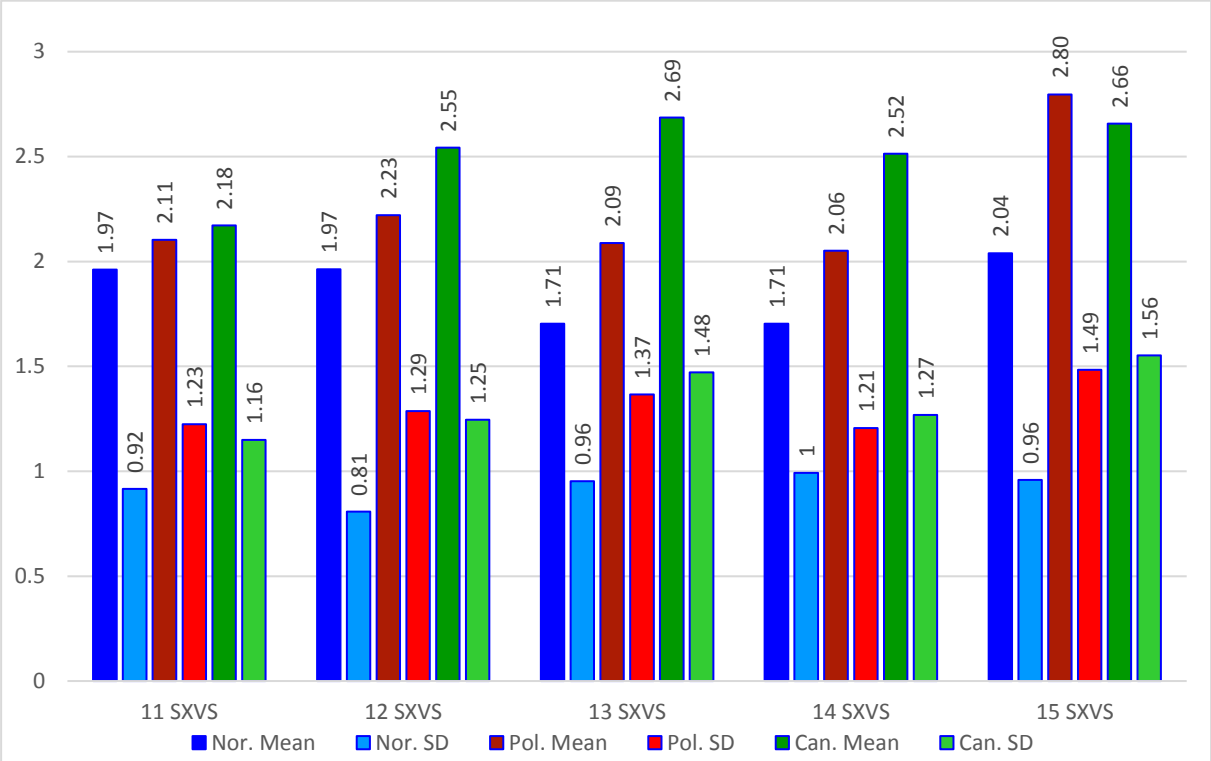
10. *Every day when his parents watch the news, Andy plays board games.*

4.1.3 Short XVS sentences

Figure 4.3 shows the score on short declarative sentences with a VS pattern and an initial constituent (see 11-15 below). These sentences have the same structure as long XVS sentences discussed above. They resemble the word order of Norwegian because the verb is put in second place, making the sentences unacceptable in English and somewhat acceptable in Polish. The difference here is that these sentences are shorter and less complicated than the previous ones e.g. *Last night slept Charlie well.*

The average score for the five sentences combined within each group is; Norwegian group: 1.88, Polish group: 2.26, control group: 2.52. Generally, the Norwegian group scores lowest on average than the other groups and the control group scores the highest, except sentence no. 15 where the Polish group scores just a bit more than the Canadian group on average. With Norwegian participants scoring between 1 and 2 on average and Polish participants scoring between 2 and 3 on average, the participants display quite low acceptability for short VS sentences. The control group scores between 2 and 3 on average, confirming low acceptability of this word order in English. Compared to the other groups, the Polish group has the highest SD scores on sentences 11 and 12, while the Norwegian group has the lowest SD scores where almost every sentence is under 1.

Figure 4.3



Sentences from left to right:

11. *Yesterday overslept Peter.*

12. *Suddenly saw Jessie a lion.*

13. *Last week played Mary on the trampoline.*

14. *At night sleep children.*

15. *Every Christmas eats Jane too much candy.*

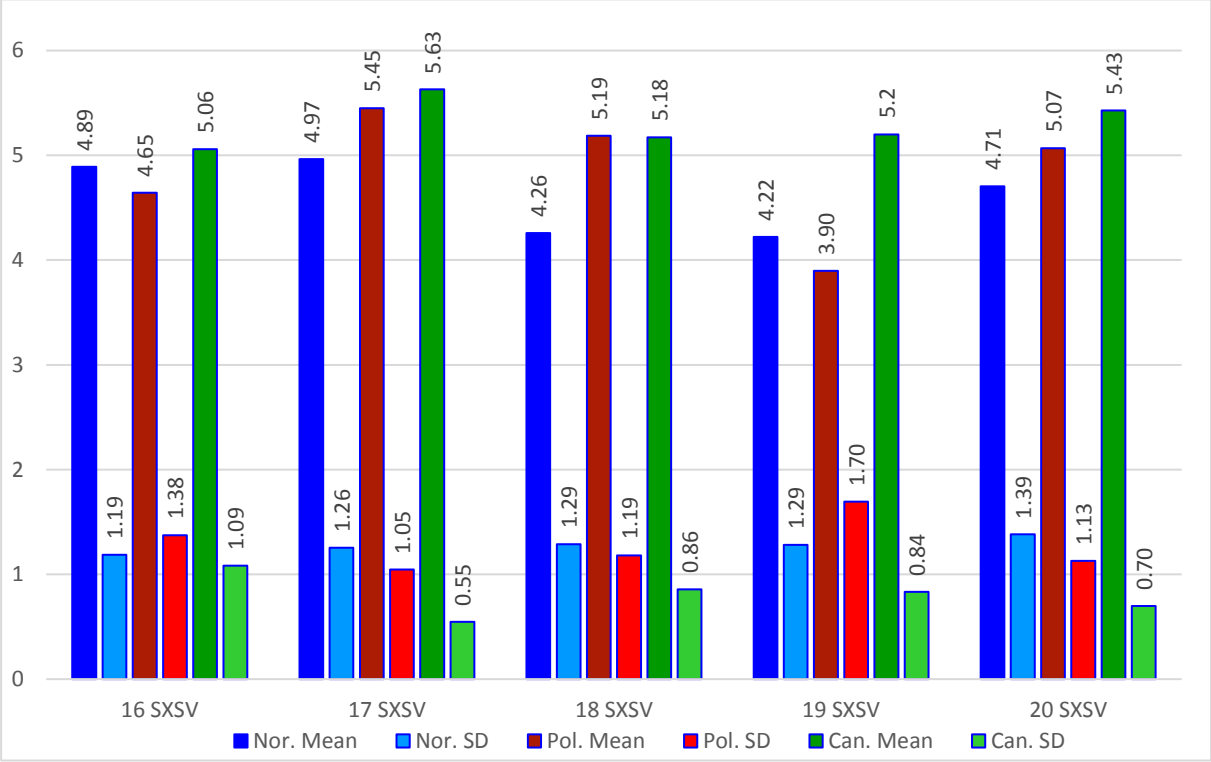
4.1.3 Short XSV sentences

Scores on short declarative sentences with a SV word order and an initial adverbial (see 16-20 below) are displayed in figure 4.4. These constructions are the same as in the long XSV sentences discussed above but shorter. The word order here is acceptable in English and Polish but not in Norwegian where the verb would have to move to second place. The difference here is that these sentences are shorter and less complicated than the ones above e.g. *Suddenly, Jessie jumped.*

The average score for the five sentences combined within each group is; Norwegian group: 4.61, Polish group: 4.86, control group: 5.3. The control group scores higher than the other groups here (except a slightly lower score than the Polish group on sentence no. 18) with

average scores over 5, confirming high acceptance of the sentences. Polish participants score higher than Norwegian participants on average on sentences no. 17, 18 and 20, and lower than Norwegian participants on sentences no. 16 and 19. Both groups indicate quite high acceptance of the sentences as English appropriate, like the control group. Sentence 19 receives the lowest average score from the Norwegian and Polish groups, compared to the other ones in this category. The Norwegian group average score on this sentence (4.22) indicates good acceptance while the Polish group's average score (3.90) is near the middle score and indicates therefore only a little acceptance. The Polish group's SD score is however quite high on this sentence (1.70), compared to the other SD scores in this category. This shows that Polish participants were quite torn as to whether this sentence is acceptable or not.

Figure 4.4



Sentences from left to right:

16. *Suddenly Terry sneezed.*
17. *Yesterday Tom bought a dog.*
18. *Last Easter Johnny found seven candy eggs.*
19. *At night the lion hunts.*
20. *Once a month Ben eats pizza for breakfast.*

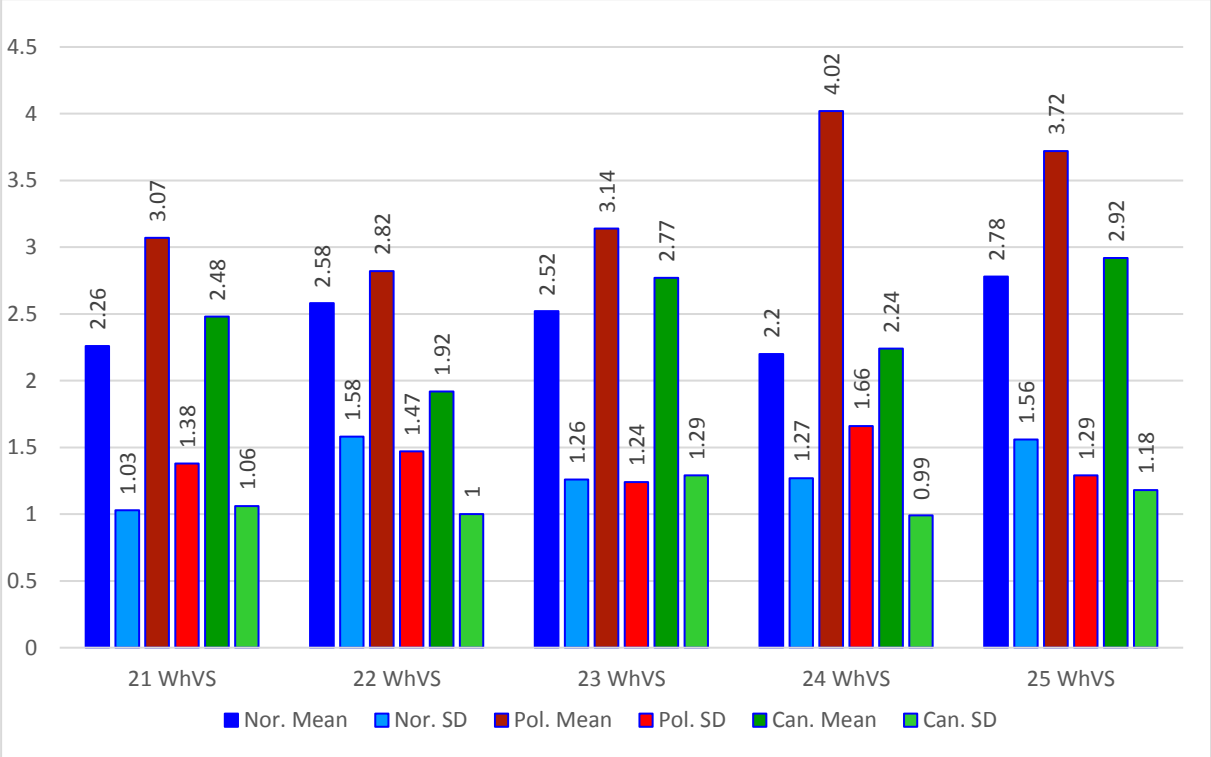
4.2 Interrogative WhVS, WhAuxSV and WhSV sentences

4.2.1 WhVS sentences

Figure 4.5 shows scores on Wh-interrogative sentences with a VS word order (see 21-25 below). Those are sentences that ask a question, with an obligatory wh- word (*what, where, who*) e.g. *What said Jonas?*. Because there is no auxiliary, in this case *do*, and the verb is in the wrong place this sentence is unacceptable in English. This word order would be acceptable in Polish although it is not the canonical, most preferred one. The order would on the other hand be acceptable in Norwegian, where the verb would be correctly placed as second in the main constituent.

The average score for the five sentences combined within each group is; Norwegian group: 2.47, Polish group: 3.36, control group: 2.47. On average, the Polish group scores highest on every sentence and the Norwegian group scores lowest compared to the other groups (except sentence no. 22). Norwegian and the control group score between 1 and 3 on average, indicating that they generally judge the sentences quite unacceptable. The Polish group mostly scores between 2 and 3 on average approximately (sentences 21-23), showing that they also generally judge them a little unacceptable. Sentences 24 and 25 however, receive a score of 4.02 and 3.72 on average from the Polish group, indicating that they are judged to be somewhat acceptable. The SD for all groups in this category is almost every time above 1. Norwegian and Polish groups generally have a higher SD than the control group here.

Figure 4.5



Sentences from left to right:

21. *After mowing the lawn, what saw Peter in front of the house?*

22. *What trick learned the dog that was so horrible?*

23. *After seeing Ronaldo on the street, what shouted Mike that was so weird?*

24. *Which cake baked Lucy for the party?*

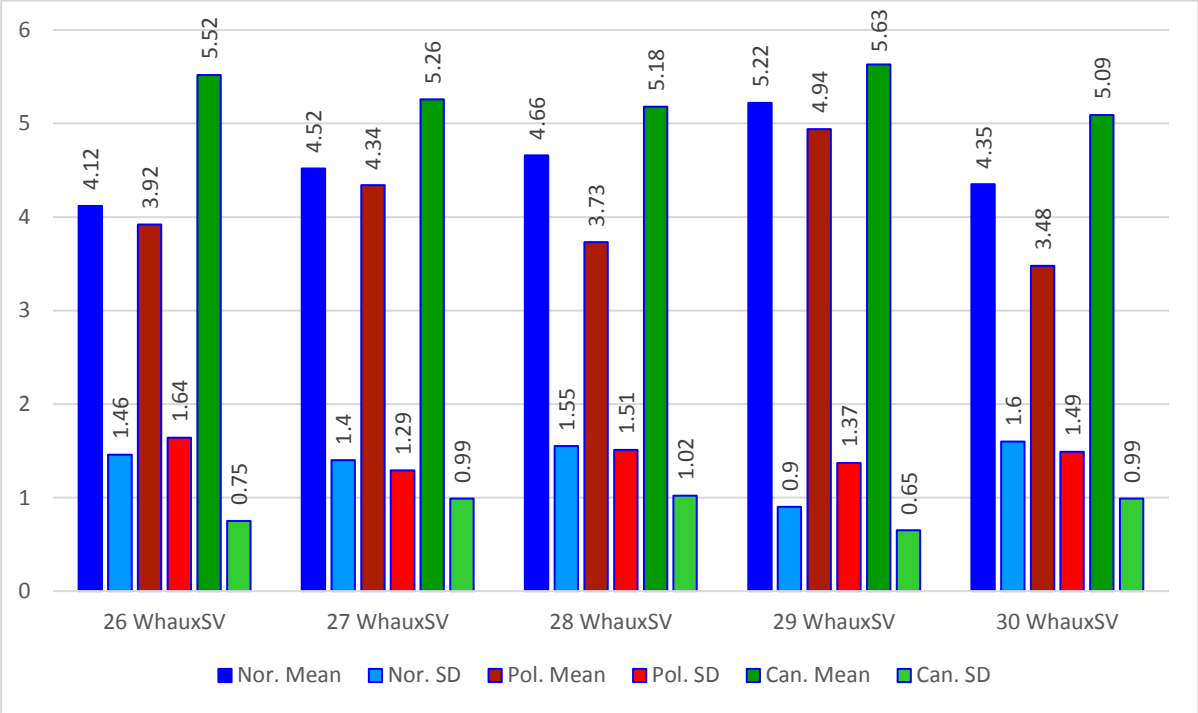
25. *After walking into the ladies' room, what said John to explain his mistake?*

4.2.2 WhAuxSV sentences

The next figure (figure 4.6) shows scores on Wh- interrogative sentences with AuxSV word order (see 26-30 below). These sentences are questions constructed with a wh- constituent e.g. *Where did you go?*. Such constructions are acceptable in English. Norwegian and Polish on the other hand do not use an auxiliary here and the languages use the verb in a past form. Therefore, these constructions would not be acceptable in Polish. Norwegian allows a sentence form with the auxiliary as well, however it is not forced to be present like in English because the verb can move from VP to TP in Norwegian. In addition, wh- questions with an auxiliary are used in Norwegian to express perfective meaning which makes this quite distinct from the auxiliary function in English.

The average score for the five sentences combined within each group is; Norwegian group: 4.58, Polish group: 4.09, control group: 5.34. Norwegian and the control group score high on average on all sentences, generally judging them acceptable. Norwegian participants score a bit lower than the control group, with a lowest average score on sentence no. 26 (4.12), however, these scores still indicate general acceptance of the sentences. The Polish group scores just above 3.5 on sentences no. 26 and 28 on average, which shows that they are judged only a bit acceptable. Polish participants give an average above 4 on sentences 27 and 29, which makes them more acceptable for the group than the other two (26 and 28). Sentence no. 30 receives a score of 3.48, showing that the Polish participants judge this particular sentence a little unacceptable. Compared to the control group here, the Polish and Norwegian groups have the highest SD scores.

Figure 4.6



Sentences from left to right:

26. *After the One Direction concert, what did Amy sing at the park?*

27. *What sound did the cat make that was so funny?*

28. *During that very boring class, what did Jessica say that was so funny?*

29. *Which town did John visit yesterday?*

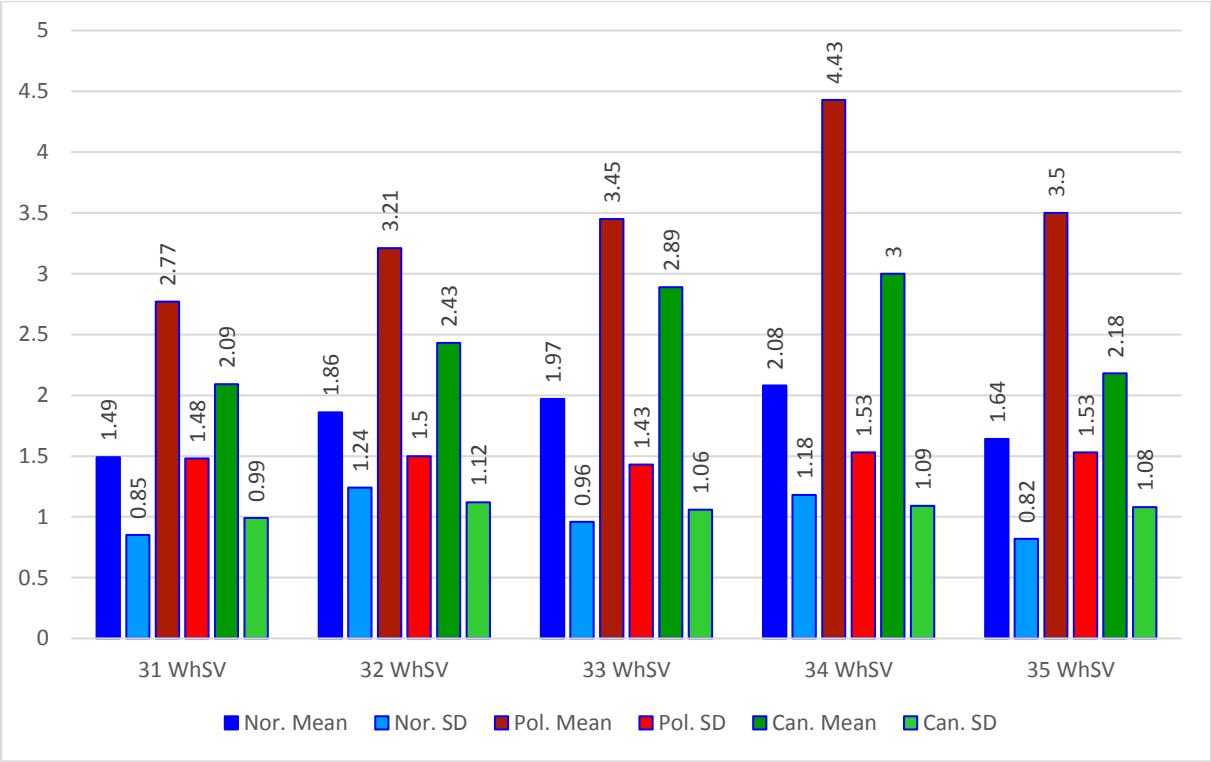
30. *Last night when everyone was sleeping, what did the cat eat that was so expensive?*

4.2.3 WhSV sentences

Average scores on Wh-interrogative sentences with a SV word order (see 31-35 below) are presented in figure 4.7. These sentences are, like the other two discussed above, questions constructed with a wh- word e.g. *What you said?*. This type of word order is not acceptable in English and Norwegian, however, it is acceptable in Polish. It is not acceptable in English because it e.g. lacks the auxiliary *do*. It is not acceptable in Norwegian because the verb does not fulfill the V2 rule.

The average score for the five sentences combined within each group is; Norwegian group: 1.81, Polish group: 3.48, control group: 2.52. The control and Norwegian groups score low on average here, Norwegian group the lowest out of the three groups. This indicates that the control and Norwegian groups generally judge the sentences quite unacceptable. Out of these five sentences, the Polish group scores lowest on average on sentence no. 31 (2.77) and a little bit higher on average on sentences 32 (3.21) and 33 (3.45). This still indicates that the sentences are generally judged somewhat unacceptable by Polish participants. Sentence no. 34 however, receives an average score of 4.43 showing that the Polish group generally judged this one quite acceptable. Sentence no. 35 receives an exact average score of 3.5 (middle score), making it neither acceptable nor unacceptable. Compared to the other sentences in this category, the Polish group has the highest SD score on sentences 34 and 35, indicating that the group has the highest variation in individual scores.

Figure 4.7



Sentences from left to right:

31. *After the trip yesterday, what James ate at McDonald's?*

32. *What the hamster ate that was so good?*

33. *In the big supermarket, what Lisa said to John that was so embarrassing?*

34. *What soup Thomas made last night?*

35. *During the football match, what Fred shouted when his team lost the ball?*

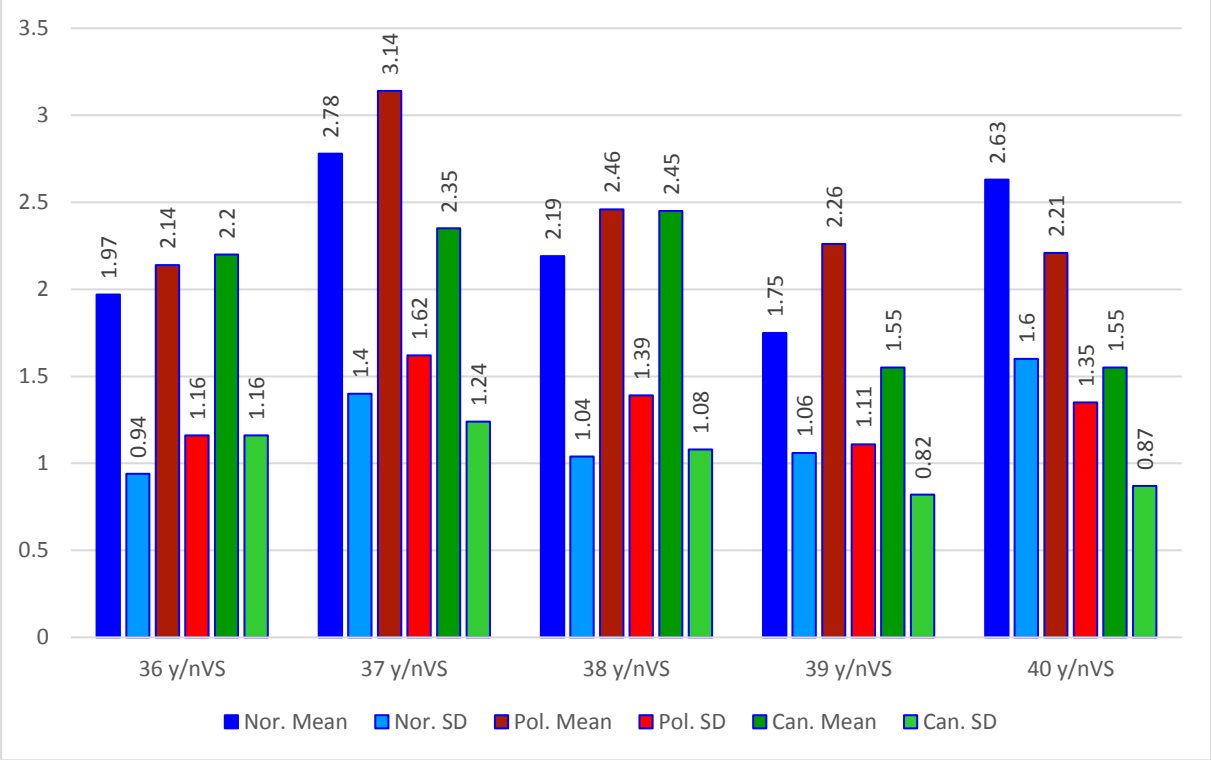
4.3 Yes/No VS, AuxSV and SV sentences

4.3.1 Yes/No VS sentences

Figure 4.8 shows the average score on yes/no-interrogative sentences with a VS word order (see 36-40 below). This type of a sentence is a question which one can answer *yes* or *no* to e.g. *Bought you a dog?*. Since the word order in this category is VS, the verb is in the second place and therefore this would be acceptable in Norwegian. This word order is also acceptable in Polish however it is not the usual, preferred choice. The word order is unacceptable in English.

The average score for the five sentences combined within each group is; Norwegian group: 2.27, Polish group: 2.45, control group: 2.02. All groups score low on average on the five sentences, indicating that they are generally judged quite unacceptable. Compared to the control group, Polish and Norwegian groups give the highest average score (3.14 and 2.78) to sentence no. 37, indicating that it is generally judged less unacceptable than the other four. Compared to the other groups, Polish participants score highest on every sentence on average except sentence no. 5 where Norwegian participants score the highest on average. Polish participants have SD scores above 1 on every sentence here. Except sentence 36, Norwegian participants have also SD scores over 1. Compared to the other sentences in this category, the Polish group has the highest SD score on sentence 37 and the Norwegian group on sentence 40.

Figure 4.8



Sentences from left to right:

36. *Last night after Mom and Dad said absolutely no, went Amy to the party?*

37. *Went Tom on a trip to California?*

38. *Fell Jimmy out of his boat?*

39. *Peed the dog on mom's beautiful flowers?*

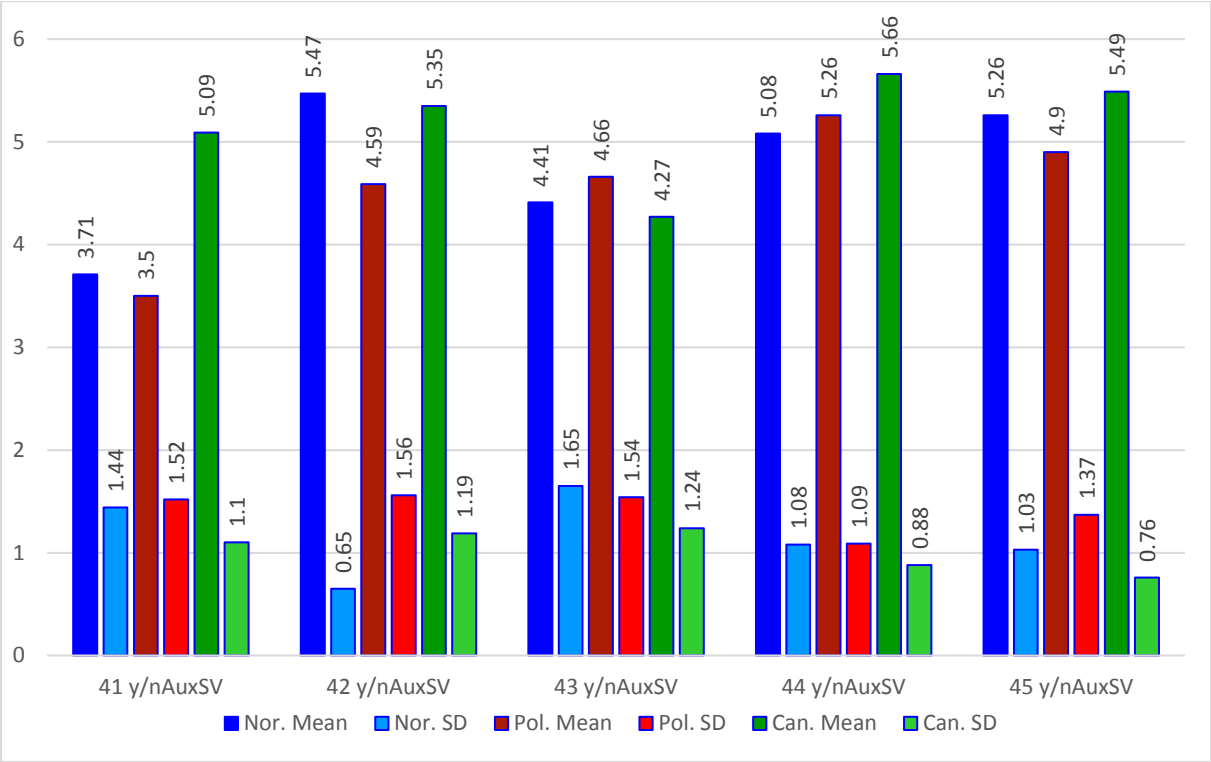
40. *Ate the cat a mouse?*

4.3.2 Yes/No AuxSV sentences

The scores on yes/no-interrogative sentences with a AuxSV word order (see 41-45 below) are displayed in figure 4.9. As already mentioned in the previous section, this type of sentence is a question which a person can only answer yes or no to e.g. *Did you water my plants?* The construction in this section has an auxiliary *do* in past form and the word order is SV. This is acceptable in English. The construction would not be acceptable in Polish and Norwegian.

The average score for the five sentences combined within each group is; Norwegian group: 4.79, Polish group: 4.59, control group: 5.18. In general, all three groups score quite high (between 4 and 6 on average) on sentences 42-45, showing that the sentences are judged quite or even highly acceptable. The Norwegian and Polish groups score quite a bit lower on sentence no. 41 (3.71 and 3.5 on average) than the control group. This means that in general, Norwegian participants judge this sentence almost unacceptable while Polish participants judge it neither acceptable nor unacceptable. The control group judges this sentence highly acceptable with a score of 5.09 on average. Compared to the other groups, the Polish group has the highest SD score on almost every sentence here, except sentence 43. The most noticeable difference here is between SD scores Norwegian and Polish groups have on sentence 42. Norwegian participants give it a high average score (5.47) with a low SD (0.65) meaning that the individual scores are quite uniform. Polish participants however, gave it a bit lower average score (4.59) with a much higher SD score than the Norwegian group (1.56). This means that the individual scores for Polish participants on this sentence vary more.

Figure 4.9



Sentences from left to right:

41. *After doing chores all year and being very good, did Mark go to Disneyland?*

42. *Did the cat eat from the bowl?*

43. *Did Mary and Matthew marry in church?*

44. *Did James hide Fred's book under the sofa?*

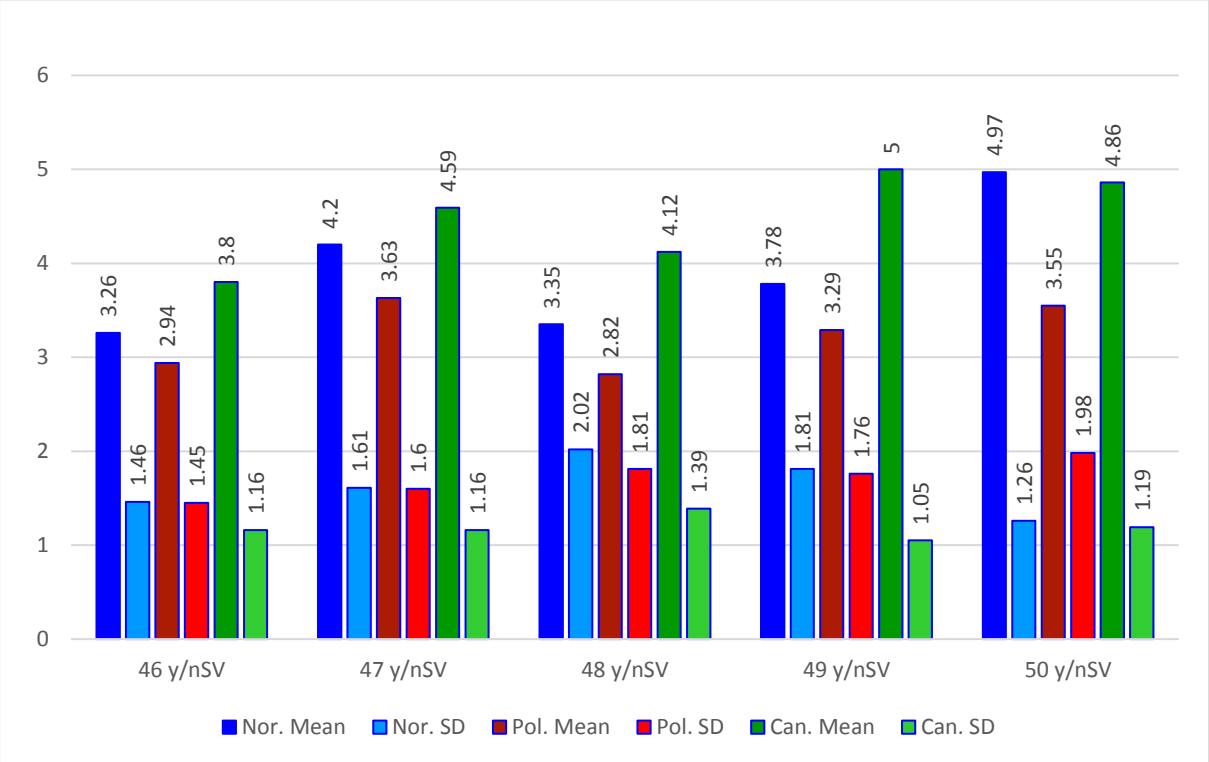
45. *Did Amy watch TV?*

4.3.3 Yes/No SV sentences

Figure 4.10 shows average scores on yes/no-interrogative sentences with a SV word order (see 46-50 below). These are also constructions that are questions which require a yes or no answer e.g. *Amy watered the plants?*. This word order is acceptable and the most canonical for questions in Polish. English accept these constructions as well when a proper intonation is used. As the main clauses start with a subject which is immediately followed by the verb, the verb is placed in the second position meaning that this word order would be acceptable in Norwegian however, the construction types in this section would be rarely used in Norwegian as they highly depend on context.

The average score for the five sentences combined within each group is; Norwegian group: 3.92, Polish group: 3.25, control group: 4.48. Out of the three groups, the control group scores highest here on average and therefore judges the sentences generally quite acceptable. The group does give a low average score to sentence 46 (3.8), which indicates that they judge it to be almost a little unacceptable. On average, Norwegian participants score between 3 and 4 on all sentences here, except sentence no. 47 (4.2) and 50 (4.97). They judge sentences no. 47, 49 and 50 a little and quite acceptable in general. Sentences no. 46 and 48 are generally judged a little unacceptable by the Norwegian group. The Polish group scores lowest of the three groups in this category with a lowest score of 2.82 on average on sentence no. 48 and a highest score of 3.63 on average on sentence no. 47. Polish participants judge sentences no. 46, 48 and 49 quite unacceptable in general, while sentences 47 and 50 are just above the middle ground, which makes them almost a little unacceptable. Compared to the control group, Polish and Norwegian groups have quite similar SD scores on the sentences here, except sentence 50 where Norwegian participants have a much lower SD score (1.26) than Polish participants (1.98). The control group scores lowest on SD out of the three groups here.

Figure 4.10



Sentences from left to right:

46. *After buying everything for the surprise party, Peter went home?*

47. *The little boy spilled Coca-Cola on himself?*

48. *James continued to watch Game of Thrones?*

49. *Jeremy asked Kate on a date yesterday?*

50. *Peter bought flowers?*

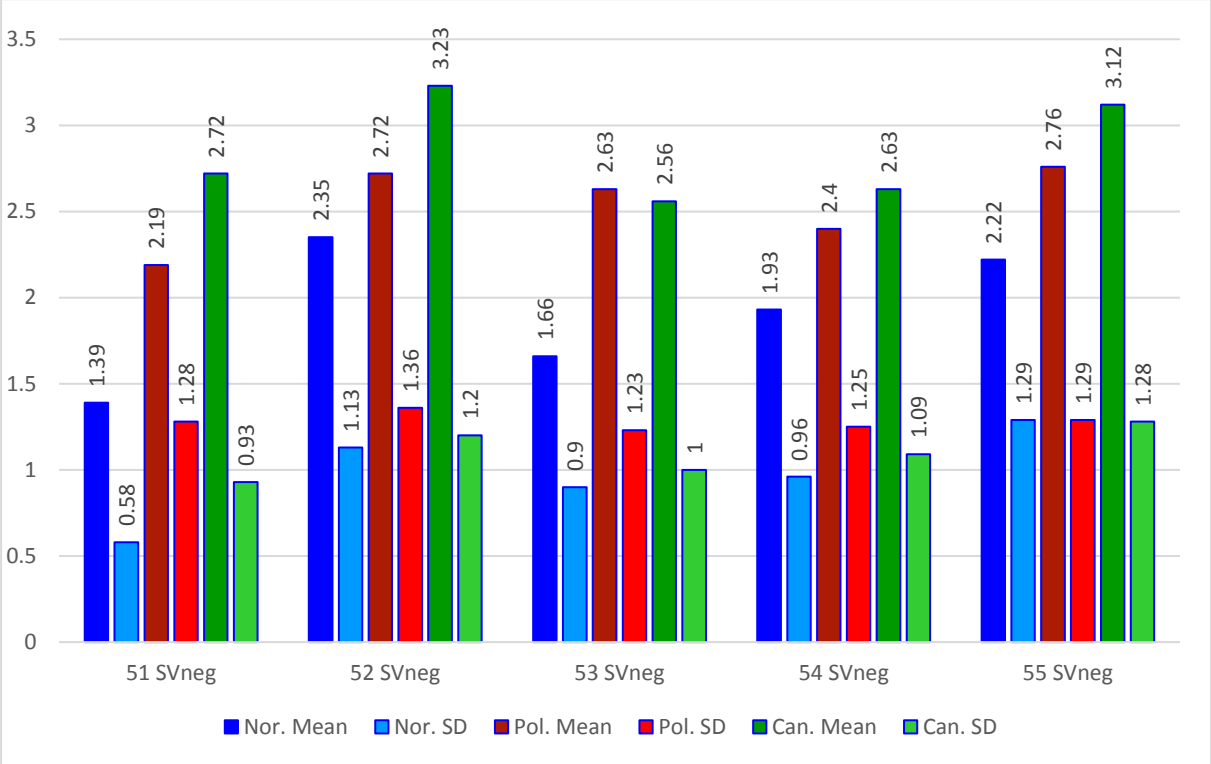
4.4 Negative SVneg, SAuxnegV and SnegV sentences

4.4.1 Negative SVneg sentences

Average scores on negative sentences with a SVneg word order (see 51-55 below) are shown in figure 4.11. These sentences resemble declaratives but they also negate the content with a negative operator like *not*, e.g. *I bought not the car.* The word order here would not be acceptable in English and Polish. The sentences would also have to include the auxiliary *do* in order to be acceptable in English. The word order is however acceptable in Norwegian.

The average score for the five sentences combined within each group is; Norwegian group: 1.91, Polish group: 2.54, control group: 2.86. Generally, all groups score relatively low on average on every sentence and therefore judge the sentences quite unacceptable. Compared to the other groups, the control group has the highest average score on almost every sentence. The control group gives an average score of 3.23 to sentence 52 and an average score of 3.12 on sentence 55 meaning that these particular sentences are judged almost a little acceptable. The Norwegian group's average scores on the sentences show the highest grade of unacceptability in general, compared to the other groups. The Polish group has the highest SD scores here compared to the other groups.

Figure 4.11



Sentences from left to right:

51. *My friend Tom likes not to play football.*

52. *My uncle who works at the fish store likes not to eat fish.*

53. *The boy who is standing in the corner said that Lucy owns not a car.*

54. *Unless it is summer, Stacy likes not rain.*

55. *Because her parents grounded her, Kate went not to the party last night.*

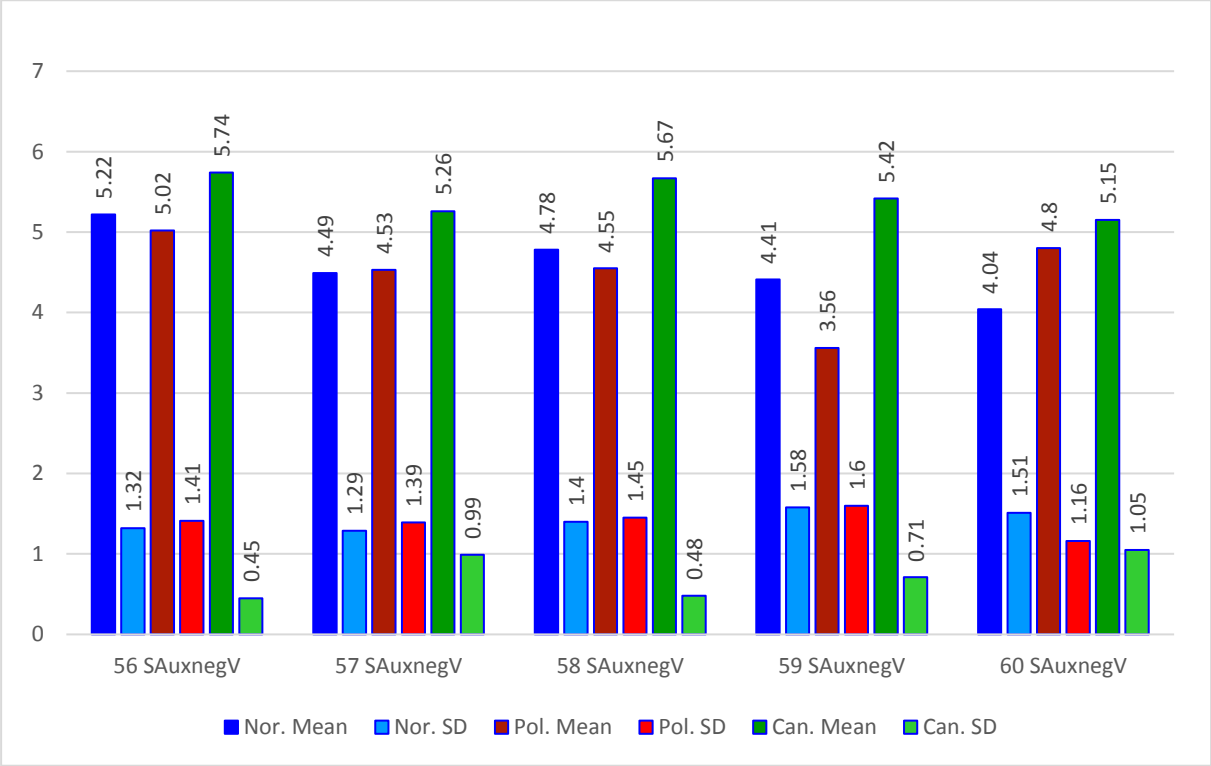
4.4.2 SAuxnegV sentences

Figure 4.12 shows average scores on negative sentences with a SAuxnegV word order (see 56-60 below). As already mentioned, these are sentences which negate a claim by using a negative operator e.g. *I did not buy a dog.* The word order and the auxiliary *do* usage here makes these sentences acceptable in English. These constructions would not be acceptable in Polish and Norwegian as these languages do not use an auxiliary. The word order itself here would also not be acceptable in Norwegian.

The average score for the five sentences combined within each group is; Norwegian group: 4.59, Polish group: 4.50, control group: 5.45. In general, with an average score above 4

on every sentence (except sentence no. 59 where the Polish group scored 3.56), all three groups judge the sentences quite acceptable. Out of all sentences here, the Polish group gives the lowest average score to sentence 59 (3.56). The score is just above the middle and indicates that Polish participants almost judge that one a little unacceptable. Compared to the other groups, the Polish group gives the lowest average score on almost every sentence, except sentence 60 where Norwegian participants give the lowest average score. While the control group has relatively low SD scores here, the Norwegian and Polish groups generally score quite higher. The two groups have pretty similar SD scores here, although the Polish group has almost always a little higher score.

Figure 4.12



Sentences from left to right:

56. *My sister Sue does not like to watch TV.*

57. *My cousin who lives next to the mall does not like to spend money.*

58. *The mean girl who was sitting beside us did not smile during the show.*

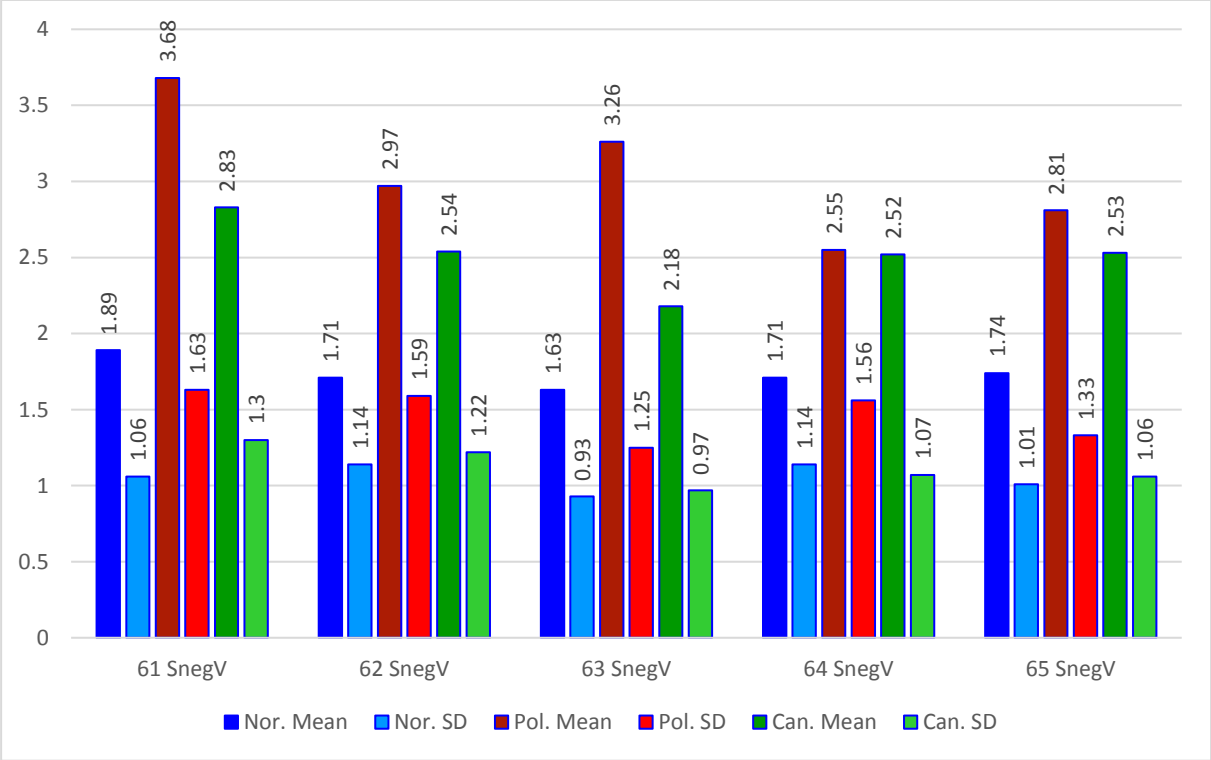
59. *Unless it is chocolate flavoured, Mary does not like ice cream.*

60. *Because there was an important football game on TV, Jeremy did not go on a date with Amy.*

4.4.3 SnegV sentences

Average scores on negative sentences with a SnegV word order (see 61-65 below) are shown in figure 4.13. These are also sentences that resemble declaratives but use a negative operator to negate the sentence, e.g. *I not drove your car*. This type of constructions would be acceptable in Polish however not in English and Norwegian. The average score for the five sentences combined within each group is; Norwegian group: 1.74, Polish group: 3.06, control group: 2.52. Compared to the other groups, the Polish group gives the highest average score on all sentences. Generally, the Polish group judges the sentences a little unacceptable however, sentence 61 is slightly over the middle score which shows almost some acceptance for that one. In comparison to the other two groups, the Norwegian group gives the lowest average score on every sentence, judging them quite highly unacceptable in general. The control group gives higher average scores than Norwegian participants however, the scores still indicate that the sentences are generally judged quite unacceptable. Out of the three groups, the Polish group has quite higher SD scores.

Figure 4.13



Sentences from left to right:

61. *My cat Bob not like to be touched on his paws.*

62. *My friend who got into Hogwarts not likes magic.*

63. *The old man who is standing on the right not runs so well.*

64. *Unless they are on TV, James not likes spiders.*

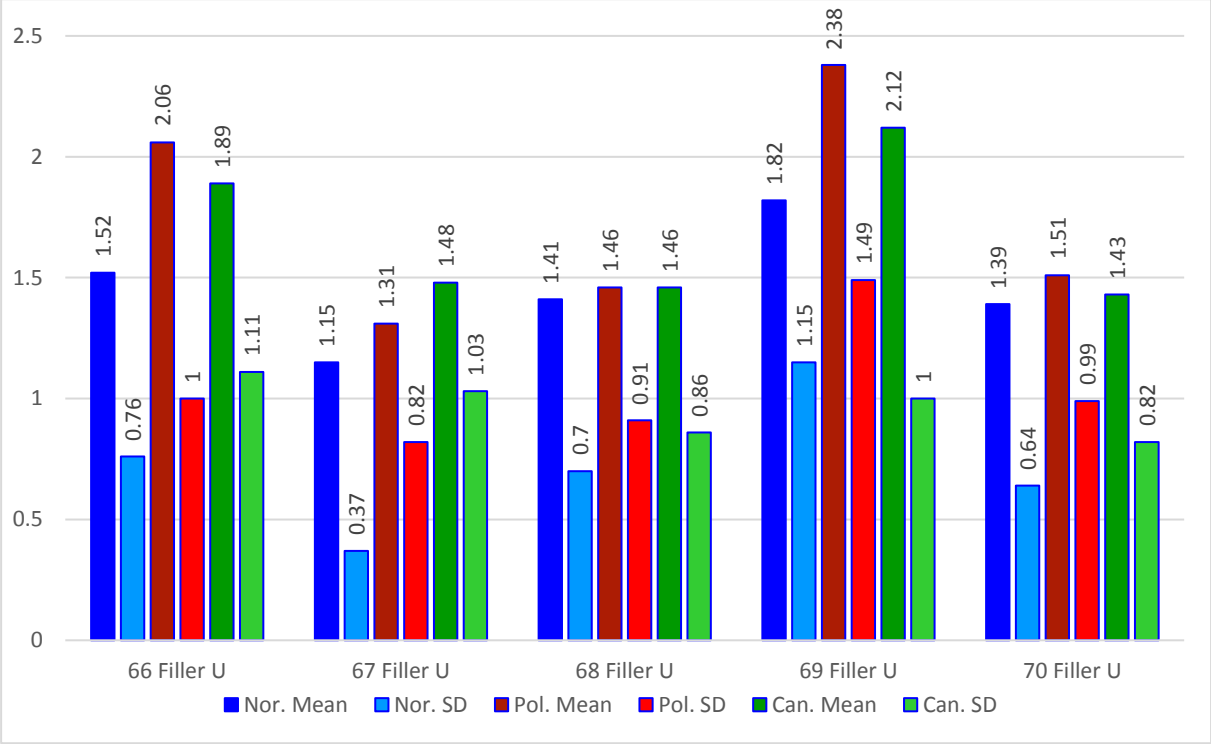
65. *Because she was angry with him, Amy not sat beside Jeremy during class yesterday.*

4.5 Filler sentences

4.5.1 Ungrammatical filler sentences

Figure 4.14 shows average scores on ungrammatical sentences serving as fillers in the survey (see 66-70 below). These sentences are unacceptable in English and the constructions would also be unacceptable in Norwegian and Polish, e.g. *Bought yesterday I a dog.* The average score for the five sentences combined within each group is; Norwegian group: 1.46, Polish group: 1.75, control group: 1.68. All groups give an average score below the middle (3.5), judging the sentences to be quite unacceptable in general. In this section, the Polish group scores higher than the Norwegian group on every sentence giving the highest average score to sentences 66 (2.06) and 69 (2.38). Compared to the other two groups, the Norwegian group gives the lowest average score on every sentence. In addition, the Norwegian group has the lowest SD scores compared to the Polish and control groups.

Figure 4.14



Sentences from left to right:

66. *The students was amused very when the teacher late came in because forgot he had class.*

67. *Wendy her dog pink painted one day when alone home she was.*

68. *In biology class fainted Tom of the dead frog because.*

69. *We all go for ice cream after the Avengers watching yesterday evening at the cinema.*

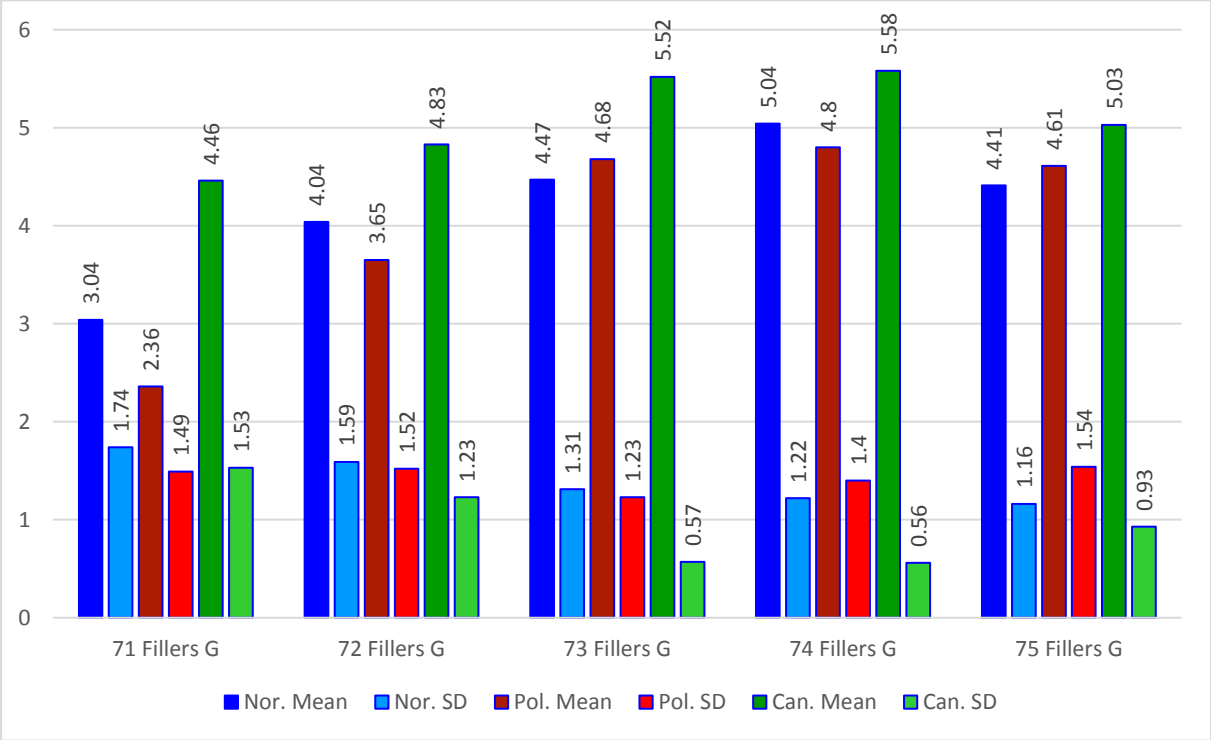
70. *Always something embarrassing shopping clothes say moms while.*

4.5.2 Grammatical filler sentences

Figures 4.15 and 4.16 display the score given by participants on 10 grammatical English sentences (see 71-80 below). The sentences are divided into two graphs, to make them easier to read. These sentences are acceptable constructions of any kind in English. They are also deliberately long and a little complicated. The average score for the ten sentences combined within each group is; Norwegian group: 4.50, Polish group: 4.46, control group: 5.31. Generally, the control group highly accepts all sentences with average scores above 5.0 on almost every one. The Norwegian group generally quite accepts the sentences as well but with a lower average score on each one than the control group. Norwegian participants score 3.04

on sentence 71, which means that they judge it a little unacceptable. The Polish group generally judges the sentences to be some or quite acceptable, except sentence 71 (2.36), which is judged to be quite unacceptable. Sentence 72 receives an average score just above the middle (3.65) from Polish participants, which shows that they judge it almost a little unacceptable. The Norwegian group has a somewhat high SD score on sentences 71 and 72, compared to the other sentences here. The Polish group has a lower SD score on sentence 71 than the Norwegian and control groups. Generally, the SD scores of all groups here are below 2, however the control group has distinctively lower scores than the other two groups.

Figure 4.15



Sentences from left to right:

71. *Birthdays are good for you and statistics show that people that have the most live the longest.*

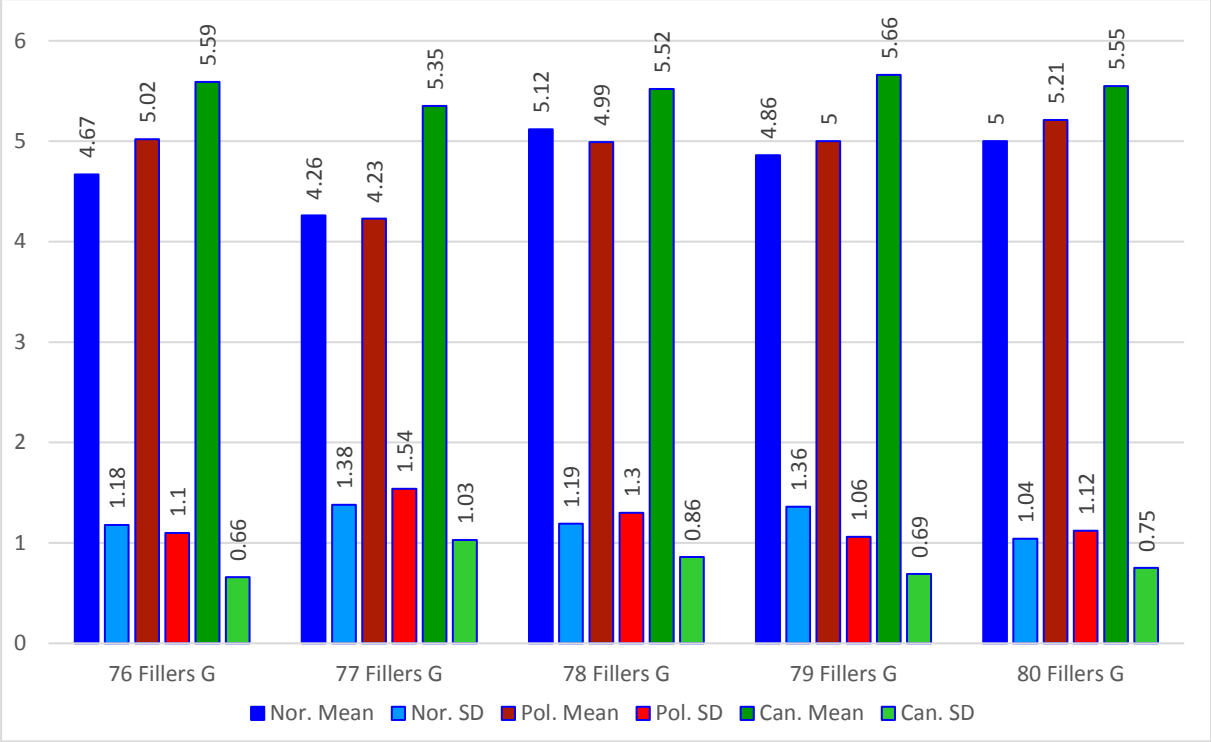
72. *The graduation party was ruined for Wendy whose date never showed up.*

73. *She finally managed to score a point for her team yesterday evening.*

74. *He always wears flip flops outside, no matter what the weather is like.*

75. *It was very cold this year so Ben had to wear a jacket in the summer.*

Figure 4.16



Sentences from left to right:

76. *The cat jumped up on the roof after seeing a big dog.*

77. *Lisa's worst day ever was when she did not wear any pants to school.*

78. *Bob, who does not like fish, is going to try sushi for the first time.*

79. *Sue drives downtown every day to buy fresh flowers.*

80. *Mark's best day ever was when he bought a brand new car.*

4.6 Time spent on English usage outside the classroom

In addition to the now presented results of the survey, I will sum up a part of the information about English usage the Norwegian and Polish participants provided. First, the participants were asked to provide information about living in an English speaking country and vacation/s in an English speaking country. None of the Polish participants reported that they ever lived in an English speaking country. As for the Norwegian participants, one person reported living in an English speaking country. 41% of the Polish participants reported being on a vacation in an English speaking country and 37% of the Norwegian participants reported the same.

The following tables (table 4.1 and 4.2 below) show how big a percent of the participants spend on each activity. They were instructed to predict approximately how much time (under and hour, 1-4 hours, 4-8 hours or over 8 hours) they spend on watching Anglophone films or television series with Polish (for Poles) or Norwegian (for Norwegians) subtitles, with English subtitles, without any subtitles, with Polish or Norwegian dubbing and Polish or Norwegian voiceover. Dubbing is here defined as muting the original voices of the film/television series and instead using individual voices for every character in a different language, e.g. Polish for Poles and Norwegian for Norwegians. Voiceover is defined here as a translation option in a film/television series where one person reads all the lines of every character in a different language, e.g. Polish for Poles, Norwegian for Norwegians.

	Polish subtitles	English Subtitles	Without subtitles	Polish dubbing	Polish voiceover
Over 8 hours a week	10 %	2 %	3 %	2 %	2 %
4-8 hours a week	8 %	3 %	8 %	14 %	14 %
1-4 hours a week	39 %	12 %	14 %	29 %	44 %
Under an hour a week	39 %	78 %	69 %	49 %	31 %

Table 4.1: Percentage of Polish participants' time usage on watching Anglophone films/television series with or without a form of language aid.

	Norwegian subtitles	English Subtitles	Without subtitles	Norwegian dubbing	Norwegian voiceover
Over 8 hours a week	11 %	4 %	33 %	0 %	0 %
4-8 hours a week	11 %	37 %	11 %	0 %	0 %
1-4 hours a week	41 %	15 %	37 %	0 %	4 %
Under an hour a week	37 %	44 %	19 %	96 %	93 %

Table 4.2: Percentage of Norwegian participants' time usage on watching Anglophone films/television series with or without a form of language aid.

At first glance, there is a distinct difference between Norwegian and Polish participants in time spent on Anglophone films/television series with their native languages' dubbing or voiceover. 49% of the Polish participants spend under an hour a week on watching films and television series with Polish dubbing. 29% do the same for 1-4 hours a week, 14% 4-8 hours a week and 2% over 8 hours a week. In the case of Norwegian participants on the other hand, 96% of them spend under an hour on watching films and television series with Norwegian dubbing (one participant provided no answer to this part). Actually, 0% of them claimed they spend any amount of time on that at all (this part of the survey was constructed as a one choice per activity table and therefore *under an hour* can be understood as *no time spent at all*). 60% of the Polish participants spend 1-4, 4-8 or over 8 hours a week on watching Anglophone films/television series with their native language's (Polish) voiceover. 1 Norwegian participant does the same with Norwegian voiceover. The Norwegian group spends most time on watching Anglophone films and television series with their native tongue's (Norwegian) subtitles, with English subtitles and without subtitles. They actually often choose the last alternative. 81% of the Norwegian participants spend 1-4, 4-8 or over 8 hours a week on watching Anglophone films and television series without subtitles. 25% of Polish participants do the same. To sum up, there are percentage differences between Polish and Norwegian participants in watching Anglophone films and television series with their native language's subtitles: 57% (Poles) vs. 63% (Norwegians) and with English subtitles: 17% (Poles) vs. 56% (Norwegians).

The Norwegian and Polish groups were also asked to report time spent on other common free-time activities where they use the English language. Those include reading books and magazines, playing computer games, using internet sites and speaking English with friends and family. The groups reported time usage on these activities in the same manner as on the film and television series watching. I will sum up the results on these activities to create a general overview. 36% of the Polish participants spend between an hour and eight hours a week on reading books and magazines in English and 52% of the Norwegian participants do the same. 38% of the Polish participants spend between one and eight hours a week on playing computer games in English as well as 64% of the Norwegian participants. 78% of the Polish participants spend between an hour and eight hours a week on using internet sites in English and 93% of the Norwegian participants do the same. 24% of the Polish participants spend between one and eight hours a week on speaking English with friends, family etc. as well as 41% of the Norwegian participants.

4.7 English in the classroom

Norwegian and Polish participants were asked to report how many hours of English teaching they are receiving in school every week. They got four alternatives to choose from: *under an hour a week, 1-4 hours a week, 4-8 hours a week* and *over 8 hours a week*, just as the alternatives used to establish time usage of English outside of the classroom. In addition, the participants had to provide the percentage of how much time they spend on speaking and writing in English, in English class and how much time they spend on speaking and writing in their native tongue in English class. Combining the two percentage amounts would then make a 100% of time spent in English class.

In the Norwegian group, 33% of the participants reported having 1-4 hours of English teaching a week. 63% reported 4-8 hours of English teaching a week. One person reported under an hour of English teaching a week. 15% of the Norwegian participants reported that they speak and write English in English class 80% to 100% of the time. 52% reported the same but for 60% to 80% of the time. And 30% claim that they use English between 0% and 60% of the time in English class. In the Polish group, 66% of the participants reported 1-4 hours of English teaching a week. 34% has 4-8 hours of English teaching a week. 71% of the Polish participants reported that they speak and write English in class 80% to 100% of the time. 20% reported the same but for 60% to 80% of the time. One person claims that English is used only between 0% and 60% of the time in English class. To sum up, these results indicate that the Norwegian group receives more hours of English teaching in school than the Polish group and that the Norwegian group uses the English language to communicate in English class less than the Polish group.

It has to be noted here that 78% of the Polish participants reported basic knowledge of German. However, all the participants self-reported a higher proficiency in English than in German, indicating that German may not be of a great influence when the Polish participants acquire a foreign language. This is discussed further in chapter five.

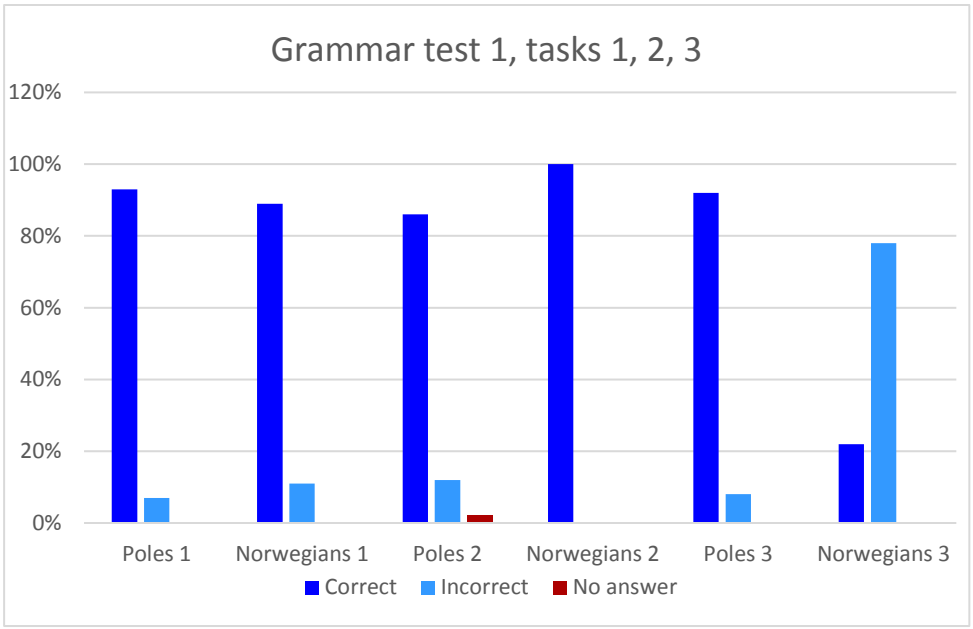
4.8 English proficiency test

Polish and Norwegian participants were also asked to fill out a short English proficiency test. The test consisted of two grammar tests consisting of three tasks each, a vocabulary test consisting of three tasks and two reading comprehension tests consisting of two questions in

the first test and three questions in the second test. The full test is available for the reader in appendix no. 3.

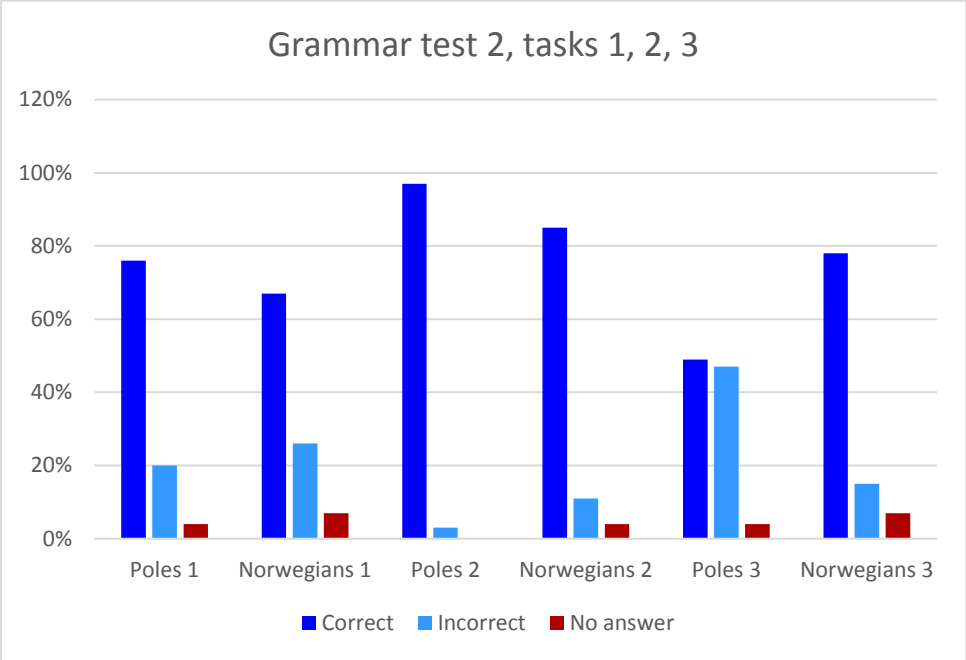
Figure 4.17 sums up the results of the first part of the proficiency test; the grammar test 1. In the first task, the Polish participants score slightly higher. In the second task, all of the Norwegian participants provide a correct answer. 86% of the Polish participants do the same. The Polish group has a much higher percentage of correct answers in the third task (92%) than the Norwegian group (22%). Overall, the Polish group scores higher in this test than the Norwegian group.

Figure 4.17



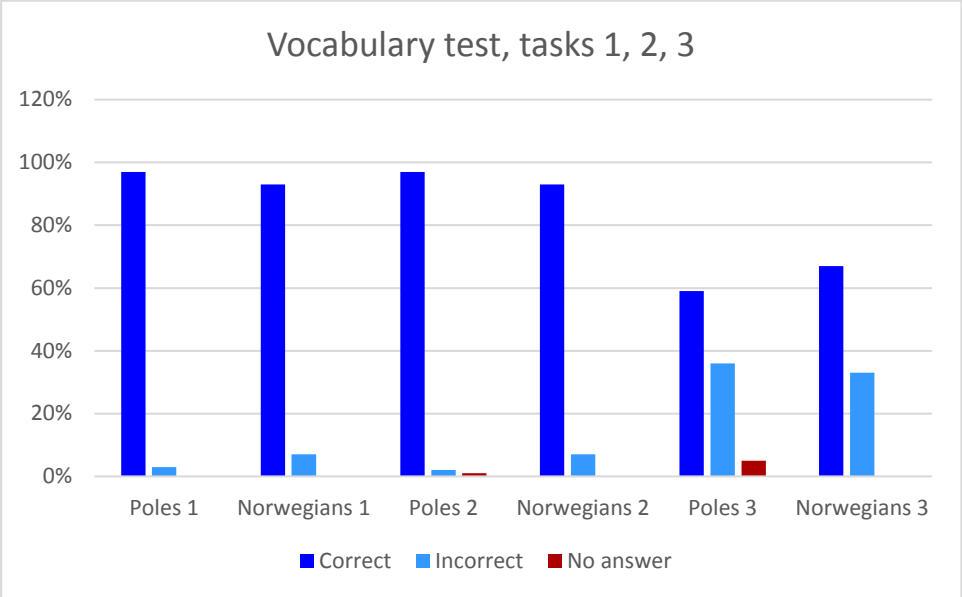
The next figure (4.18) shows the summed up results of the three tasks in grammar test 2. The Polish group has a slightly higher percentage of participants answering correctly than the Norwegian group in task 1. The same can be seen in task 2. A much higher percentage of Norwegian participants did task 3 correctly, compared to the Polish participants. Generally, the Polish group scores higher on the first two tasks in this test. However, the Norwegian group is superior in the third task.

Figure 4.18



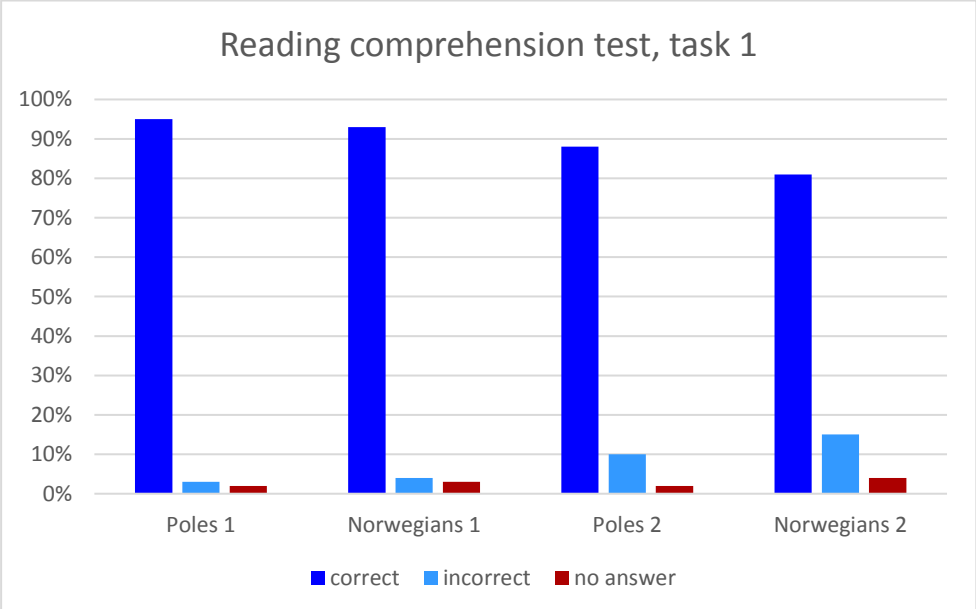
Results of the three tasks in the vocabulary test are shown in igure 4.19. The Polish group has a slightly higher percentage of correct answers than the Norwegian group on tasks one and two. In the third task, both groups have a much higher percentage of incorrect answers than in the other two tasks. The Norwegian group has a little higher percentage of correct answers than the Polish group in task three. Summing up, almost every participant in the two groups do task one and two correctly, however, the Polish group has a slightly higher percentage of correct answers. Both groups had a problem with task three where many participants answered incorrectly. A higher percentage of Norwegians answered correctly here.

Figure 4.19



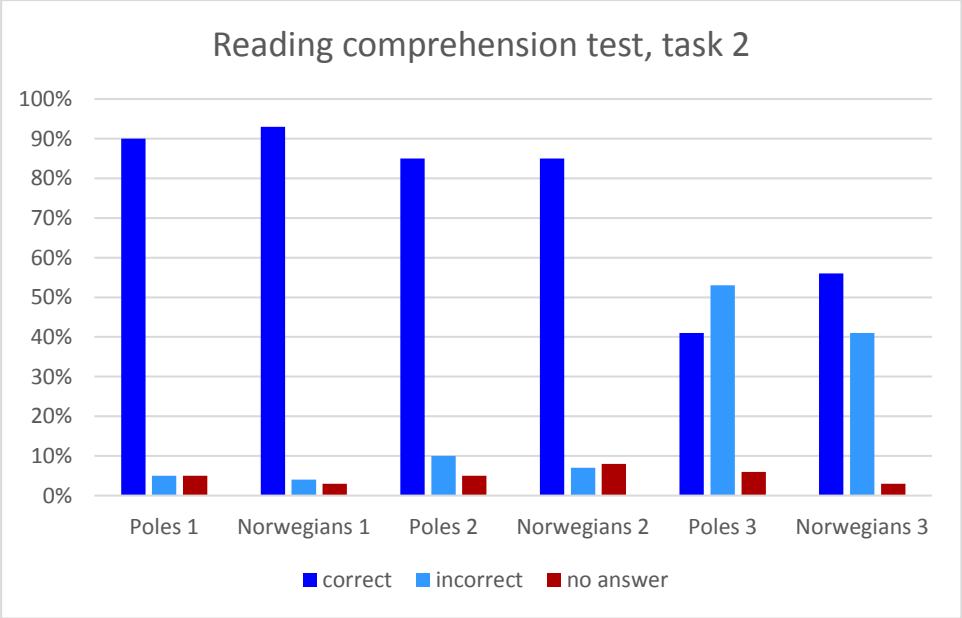
In the next test, the participants were asked to read a short text and answer two questions in relation to that text. Figure 4.20 shows the results for the two questions for both groups. The Polish group has a slightly higher percentage of correct answers than the Norwegian group on both questions.

Figure 4.20



In the last part of the reading comprehension test, the participants were asked to read another text and answer three questions related to that text. The results are shown in figure 4.21 below. In the first task, the Norwegian group has a slightly higher percentage of correct answers. In the second task, both groups have the same percentage of correct answers, however the Polish group has a slightly higher percentage of incorrect answers. The Norwegian group has a much higher percentage of correct answers than the Polish group in task three. Overall, the Norwegian group scores higher here than the Polish group.

Figure 4.21



To sum up, these are the average scores of the correct answers for the whole proficiency test for the Norwegian group (0.79) and the Polish group (0.82). Although the differences are mostly small, the Polish group has a higher overall average score in the proficiency test than the Norwegian group. This evidence could conclude that the Polish group is a bit more proficient in English than the Norwegian group. However, the proficiency test used in this study has some limitations. These limitations could indicate that the Norwegian group actually is as proficient as or even more proficient than the Polish group. This issue is discussed in the next chapter.

5 Discussion

This chapter consists of the research questions that were listed in the method chapter, which I attempt to answer. The standard deviation (SD) scores are discussed as well, in order to establish whether some groups were more uniform in their answers than the others were. Then, the results showing the groups' English usage outside of the classroom are discussed. Lastly, the English proficiency test is discussed.

While answering each research question, I also discuss the reasons for such outcomes. First, generally speaking, the Norwegian participants present a higher English proficiency than the Polish participants do, based on the acceptability judgment test. This can be seen in the results where Norwegians do not give any scores above the middle (3.5) to any unacceptable English sentence and almost all acceptable English sentences receive a score above 3.5. In contrast, the Polish group is not as consistent, providing scores above the middle for some unacceptable English sentences and even under the middle for an acceptable English sentence.

The reasons for the difference between Norwegian and Polish responses are discussed throughout this chapter, however two main assumptions stand out in this study. Firstly, the Norwegian group has more exposure to English, receives more English teaching at school in general and is more naturally proficient in English. Secondly, the Norwegian language has a fixed word order and as English also has that, it may make it easier for Norwegian L1 speakers to acquire word order in English than L1 Polish speakers who are used to free word order as it is in Polish.

5.1 Research questions

1. Will Norwegians accept more of the V2 constructions than the other groups?

The findings in this study revealed that the Norwegian group generally did not accept more of the V2 constructions than the other groups. Based on the average scores, the Norwegian group did not accept sentences with a V2 word order (e.g. *Which cake baked Lucy for the party?*), even though V2 word order is the canonical order in the Norwegian language. The Norwegian participants seem to have surpassed a certain stage where they no longer have problems with recognizing the appropriate word order in English sentences if we assume that transfer was the initial stage. They did give a quite acceptable score to some Yes/No SV sentences which resemble Norwegian word order (e.g. *The little boy spilled Coca-Cola on himself?*). However, as previously mentioned, these constructions are rarely preferred in Norwegian and they are acceptable in English although they are not the most usual English

question constructions. That the Norwegians in this group accepted these sentences may indicate that they have a high English proficiency as they still manage to see these uncommon sentences may be acceptable in English. On the other hand, the group did give an average score a little below the middle to two other sentences of the Yes/No SV construction type. This may indicate that the group is still a little unsure about such constructions. This may be due to the fact that they are not as familiar with this question formation as with the other, mostly common formations.

Referring to the transfer theories discussed in chapter two, findings in this study show that the Norwegian group does not show evidence of transfer of Norwegian word order to English, while the Polish group show evidence of transfer of Polish word order to English in some instances. However, this finding does not indicate indubitably that the Norwegian group never previously showed transfer from Norwegian. Rather, it could indicate that they simply do not have to transfer anymore. Consider the earlier discussed study by Westergaard (2002). This study indicated that the Norwegian participants (young children) did transfer the V2 word order into English. The author writes about the importance of putting extra focus on the differences between the L1 and L2 in teaching at school. Especially when it comes to word order, the author claims that children should be exposed from an early age to cues showing them that English is not a V2 language. For example, questions with *do*-support (*do you like me?*) show a distinct difference between English and Norwegian, making the learner understand much faster that English is not V2 (Westergaard, 2002, pp. 202-203).

I propose that Westergaard's participants transferred V2 into English because of the small amount of English exposure and the low proficiency stage those young children must have still had. The participants in my study are high school students aged between 17-20 years. It is likely that they have fully acquired the English word order principals due to the amount of English teaching they have received in school as well as the usage of the language in their free time. Therefore, I argue for the full transfer/full access model in the initial stage of a learner who is acquiring a L2 but with time, the learner adjusts the interlanguage to resemble the L2 better. To have a L1 with a fixed word order like Norwegian may make it easier for the learner to assume that English has fixed word order as well. This in turn could result in quicker word order acquisition in English as the learner will automatically assume that there is one word order and any other word orders should be rejected. Westergaard's proposal described above may speed up that acquisition process even more because the cues expose explicit differences between English and Norwegian word orders.

In addition, Kellerman (1979) (as discussed in chapter 2) suggested that the language learner could be perceiving distance between his/her native language and the target language. In case of word order for example, this means that Norwegian learners of English would eventually become aware that there is not a lot resemblance between the structure in Norwegian and in English. Following Kellermans claim, the Norwegian learners would then perceive the distance between English and Norwegian to be quite big and may therefore not transfer Norwegian word order to English. In the case of Poles, they would see that there are a lot more similarities in word order between Polish and English. Therefore, Poles would maybe be more likely to perceive little distance and transfer Polish word order to English.

2. Will Poles accept more of the XSV constructions without the auxiliary 'do' than the other groups?

Indeed, the Polish group has given a quite high average score to some of the XSV constructions without the auxiliary *do* (e.g. *What soup Thomas made last night?*, *My cat Bob not like to be touched on his* paws), in contrast to the other groups that scored quite low on average on them. A word order without the auxiliary *do* and the subject before the verb resembles a typical Polish word order. This could be an explanation for why only the Polish group gave a quite high acceptability score in general to this order. The Polish participants gave quite or high acceptability judgment average scores only to some sentences with a non-English word order and mostly rejected the ungrammatical English constructions. This could indicate that the Polish group is on the verge of acquiring the English proficiency level Norwegians already possess.

3. Will Norwegians give the highest score to the V2 constructions compared to the other ungrammatical constructions?

Generally, the Norwegian group did not give any degree of acceptance to any sentences with a V2 construction. As already discussed in relation to research question one, the reason for that may be because the Norwegian participants are English proficient enough to know that this word order is unacceptable in English. In other words, it may be that the Norwegian group no longer transfers that aspect of L1 to the L2 (English). In addition, this outfall could also be due to Norwegian participants being especially aware of the V2 word order because that is the

canonical word order in Norwegian. Once the Norwegian learners acquire the fact that English does not have a V2 word order, it may be easier for Norwegians to detect and disregard V2 word order in English.

4. Will Poles give the highest score to the XSV constructions without the auxiliary 'do' compared to the other ungrammatical constructions?

The Polish participants generally gave a higher average score to the ungrammatical English sentences that corresponded to the Polish XSV word order (e.g.*What soup Thomas made last night?*). Compared to the other ungrammatical constructions they accepted to some degree, for example the ones resembling the Norwegian V2 word order 24 (e.g. *Which cake baked Lucy for the party?*), the ones corresponding to Polish word order were rated highest. Due to the free word order of the Polish language, this could be the explanation for why the participants accepted constructions with SVO as well as V2 word order. However, most of the Polish participants reported basic knowledge of German and that could also be an explanation why they gave an average score of some acceptance to V2 constructions. Nevertheless, the Polish participants generally reported higher proficiency in English than German, indicating that knowledge of German may not be the biggest and most likely explanation here.

It may be more difficult for learners who have a free-word-order-L1 like Polish to assume that English has a fixed word order; they will probably assume the opposite in the initial stage because that is what they are accustomed to. With the transfer theories in mind, I argue here that the Polish group may transfer their L1 word order to English just like the Norwegian group probably originally did. Unlike the Norwegian group however, the Polish group still has not fully adjusted their interlanguage to the English word order, which results in errors from time to time.

Another example of Polish particpants giving some acceptance to a construction which would only be acceptable in Polish are negative sentences with a SnegV word order. These types of sentences are unacceptable constructions in English, which is also confirmed by the control group in this study; all those sentences are judged quite unacceptable on average. The word order in these constructions is unacceptable in Norwegian as well, but it is acceptable and canonical in Polish. Norwegian participants give those constructions even lower average scores than the control group, judging them highly unacceptable. Some Polish participants however (26 of them), give an average score of some acceptability to sentence no. 61 (*My cat Bob not*

like to be touched on his paws.). Again, this word order is acceptable in Polish so this is probably why the Polish group gave some general acceptance to sentence 61. Polish participants score highest of the three groups on sentences in this category, however they still do not quite accept them except sentence 61 a little. It could be argued that the Polish participants are in the process of learning that this word order is not acceptable in English, while the Norwegian participants have already acquired that knowledge. This could be because of Polish language's much more free word order in contrast to Norwegian, but it could also be other factors like the amount of English exposure outside of the classroom, amount of hours spent on English in class and the quality as well as progress speed in teaching.

5. Does length and complexity of the sentences influence the acceptability judgment of Norwegians and Poles?

Both groups indicate some influence on the acceptability judgment by length and complexity of the sentences. The Polish group gave quite acceptable average scores to some unacceptable English sentences that were long and complex. The group even gave an average score which indicated some unacceptance to one English sentence that is actually acceptable, most probably because it was long, complex and hard to evaluate. The discussed sentence is sentence no. 30 (*Last night when everyone was sleeping, what did the cat eat that was so expensive?*). This however does not necessarily mean that Polish participants do not accept WhAuxSV word order. A probable prediction is that because of its length, the sentence may have been hard to understand and be confusing. This is a likely explanation, as even the control group scored lowest on that particular sentence compared to the other sentences in that group. However, some unacceptable sentences that were somewhat accepted by the Polish participants were short and simple to understand. Therefore, while in some instances the length and complexity of a sentence played a role in how it was judged by the Polish group, in others it did not.

This can also be seen when looking at the scores for the declarative sentences. The Polish group gave some average scores for the long, ungrammatical, declarative sentences that indicated more acceptance than for the short, ungrammatical, declarative sentences. On the other hand, some average scores indicated the opposite. Compared to the Norwegian and control group, the Polish group is less consistent in their answers in general in this example. This could be evidence for the uncertainty and significant differences in English proficiency

among the Polish participants. When it comes to the acceptable long and short declarative sentences, the Polish group generally gave a higher average score to the short ones. This means that the Polish group found it easier to judge the acceptable short sentences than the longer, more complicated ones.

The Norwegian group judged the longer and more complex unacceptable declarative sentences to be a little less unacceptable than the shorter ones, meaning that they may also have been more confused with the long sentences. This confusion and uncertainty may have led them to think the long sentences could be more acceptable and therefore rated them a little higher. Another cause may be that because of the length of the sentences, it was easier for the participants to make a mistake and read the sentence as if it was correct. They were all still relatively below the acceptable score barrier. In addition, the long and complex acceptable declarative sentences compared to the short ones received a slightly lower score. Again, this seems as though the participants became more uncertain about their capacity of correct judgment when faced with long and complex sentences. The judgment on the short acceptable sentences seems more confident.

To sum up, both groups' judgment seems to have been influenced by the length and complexity of some sentences. Yet, while the Norwegian group still manages to judge the English sentences in the appropriate direction, the Polish group did judge one acceptable English sentence to be a little unacceptable.

5.2 SD's and grade of uncertainty

In this section I discuss the Standard Deviation scores (SD) and analyze which group is the most confident in their judgments as well as what type of sentence constructions the groups are most uncertain about. In general, the control group has the lowest SD scores on all sentences compared to the Polish and Norwegian groups. The Norwegian group has somewhat higher SD scores than the control group. The Polish group generally has the highest SD scores compared to the other two. This means that the control group is quite uniform in their answers and they may be more confident about their judgements. The Norwegian group may be somewhat more insecure about their judgements, compared to the control group. In some cases, the individual judgements by the Norwegian group on one sentence vary a lot. The Polish group could be the most unsecure based on the SD scores they have. However, it seems often that the group is split in two as to whether a sentence is acceptable or not. This could therefore mean that the Polish participants in this study have different grades of English proficiency and that they may not be

as insecure as the SD scores show them to be; it could be that they are confident in their answers, however, they are split into two groups of different English proficiency and therefore rate the sentences differently.

The Norwegian group seems to be more critical to the sentences than the Polish and control groups. The Norwegian participants often gave lower average scores on acceptable sentences than the control group. This means that they generally still judged them quite acceptable but for some reason not highly acceptable. This could be because the group is more unsecure about their judgement whereas the control group is not. However, the Norwegian group has also judged unacceptable English sentences generally more unacceptable than the control group did. This could indicate that the Norwegian participants are very critical and generally set low scores while the control group is more accepting. The Polish group's tendencies are more difficult to describe as there are many variations in the individual answers. Nevertheless, it can be seen here as well that the Polish group tends to generally give slightly higher average scores than the Norwegian group, whether the sentence is acceptable or not. This indicates that the Polish group is less critical than the Norwegian group, perhaps because they are less confident in their English proficiency.

5.3 English usage outside the classroom

The results showing how much time the Norwegian and Polish groups spend on watching Anglophone films and television series is interesting. Their time usage is quite similar when it comes to media consumption subtitled in their native tongue. That similarity fades completely as we move on to look at their time spent consuming Anglophone media with English subtitles. Only 17% of the Polish participants reported consuming Anglophone media with English subtitles, in comparison to a whole of 56% of the Norwegian participants who reported doing the same.

An even bigger difference between the two groups was revealed in response to the question of consuming Anglophone media without any subtitles, whereby 25% of the Polish participants responded positively compared to 81% of the Norwegian group. However, the biggest difference between these two groups came in response to the question of consuming Anglophone media with their native tongue's dubbing or voiceover. 0% of Norwegian participants reported watching dubbed Anglophone films/television series and only one Norwegian participant reported watching Anglophone films/television series with a voiceover.

In contrast, 35% of Polish participants reported watching dubbed Anglophone films/television series and 60% reported watching Anglophone films/television series with a voiceover.

This means that Poles use much more time on watching Anglophone films and television series where one cannot hear the English language at all (dubbing) or one can hear just small parts of it (voiceover). They do also spend time on watching Anglophone media with Polish subtitles where the English language can be heard, however studies show that there is much more L2 learning involved when watching without subtitles or especially with English subtitles (Hayati & Mohmedi, 2011; Kruger & Steyn, 2014). With that being said, watching with native language subtitles may be better fitted for learners with a lower proficiency level who would not understand most of the film's plot without them (Hayati & Mohmedi, 2011).

As for the Norwegian group, they do also spend a lot of time on watching Anglophone media with Norwegian subtitles however, they also use significantly more time on watching Anglophone media with English subtitles and without any subtitles as well. I argue therefore that this could be one of the factors explaining why the Norwegian participants did not give some acceptance to any sentences with the unacceptable English word order and why the Polish participants gave quite or high acceptance average scores to some of them. It seems that apart from the teaching in class, exposure to English outside of the classroom (hobbies, like watching your favorite film) is crucial for a fuller and quicker acquisition of the language. Maybe, by being exposed to English input without any dubbing/voiceover disturbances for a long time, L2 learners could improve their language system for English and may reduce the amount of mistakes they make while producing/assessing the language themselves. In addition, because these are private time activities, L2 learners probably spend much more time on that than revising English class notes and that could therefore be an efficient way to introduce English learners to more input.

5.4 English proficiency test

The results of the English proficiency test are not as might be expected from the above discussion. The Polish group has much better results than might be expected and in many tasks performs better than the Norwegian group. Overall, the Polish participants have a high percent of correct answers. The exceptions are tasks three in grammar test 2, task three in the vocabulary test and question three in the second task in the reading comprehension test. In eight tasks, they have a higher percentage of correct answers than Norwegian participants. The Norwegian group

has also passed the test however, their percentages are more uneven. For example, 100% of the Norwegian participants did task two in the grammar test 1 correctly, but only 22% did the same in task three in the same test. They do however mostly answer correctly and in five tasks, they have a higher percentage of correct answers than Polish participants.

Apart from task three in Grammar test 1 where there is a major difference in the percentage of correct answers between Polish and Norwegian participants (92% vs 22%), both groups show a good English proficiency level, based on this particular test. Due to this outcome, a question of why the Polish participants rated some sentences with correspondence to Norwegian and Polish word order with a degree of acceptability on average and Norwegian participants did not, arises. I argue that there are issues with the proficiency test used in this study and that the Polish group may be less proficient in English than the Norwegian group. The first issue with the proficiency test is that its tasks represent only a few aspects of the language. The aspects are mostly academic, quite basic grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension tasks. They do not test aspects of language which are more implicit and require more than just academic rules and guidelines. Such aspects are using language intuition to assess whether a sentence is acceptable or not or producing English text and speech. The Polish group may be a little better at the academic tasks in the proficiency test while the Norwegian group has a more intuitive or naturalistic proficiency in English. This would mean that the Norwegian group is more proficient when it comes to assessing the English language. This is evident in the results of the filler sentences scores in this study (see chapter four above).

Although the Polish group does not exactly accept the ungrammatical filler sentences, the group does give them scores around two and sometimes even around three on average. This is quite a bit higher than the Norwegian group that scores quite low on these sentences showing that the Norwegian group is more confident that these sentences are unacceptable in English. In addition, the Polish group may be showing lower English proficiency than the Norwegian group in the grammatical filler sentences results. The first sentence (*Birthdays are good for you and statistics show that people that have the most live the longest*) is somewhat tricky and it can be seen that both the Norwegian and Polish groups struggle to accept it. The Polish group has a quite lower score than the Norwegian group on that one, indicating that the Polish group accept it less than the Norwegian group and therefore may be indicating lesser knowledge of English than the Norwegian group.

Another issue with the proficiency test is that it may be too easy. Other studies have used more comprehensive tests, e.g., Bonnet (2002) tests the participants' English proficiency

with linguistic knowledge tasks, written comprehension tasks and oral comprehension tasks (Bonnet, 2002, p. 15). Therefore, it is argued that the proficiency test in this study covers only a small part of English and does not fully show the potential of the participants. If the type of proficiency test used in Bonnet (2002) were to be used in this study, it is likely that the results would be different.

5.5 Polish vs. Norwegian participants

When considering the average scores for every sentence of the survey in each group of participants, only the Polish group accepted some of the unacceptable English sentences to some degree. Although Polish participants gave some degree of acceptance to some XSV word order sentences without the auxiliary *do* as well as V2 word order constructions, the XSV ones received quite acceptable scores by the highest number of participants. Therefore, the canonical Polish word order was more accepted than the V2 order by Polish participants. This could be due to the participants' English proficiency still being on a low enough level for their mother tongue (Polish), to play a role. Since Polish has a free word order, it seems likely and is evident in the results in this study that the Polish participants accept (to some degree) SVO as well as V2 constructions in English sentences in the survey. Since the canonical and most preferred word order in Polish is SVO however, the XSV constructions without the auxiliary *do* receive a higher acceptability score on average than the V2 constructions which are also acceptable in Polish but less preferred. This could really indicate that the outcome is due to the influence of their mother tongue (Polish) and that the transfer from L1 to L2 still occurs in the Polish group. The Norwegian group generally did not accept the V2 order sentences. That could be because their English proficiency is on a level where they no longer transfer their L1 to L2.

Considering the differences between the groups discussed above, it seems reasonable to conclude that the reason why the Norwegian participants generally score better on the acceptability judgment test than the Polish group is that they are exposed to the English language earlier and more often than the Polish participants. This is because, as discussed in chapter two, the majority of Norwegian television channels show Anglophone films and television series with Norwegian subtitles. In contrast to the culture in Poland where television channels mostly use voiceover or dubbing as a translation option for Anglophone films and television series, Norwegians are able to listen to the English language while watching television whereas Poles often cannot or choose not to switch to subtitled versions. In addition, The Norwegian group has reported time spent on other activities where they use the English

language that is higher than what the Polish group reported. Such exposure may have contributed to the more natural English acquisition for the Norwegian group.

With English not being as incorporated in every-day-life as it is in Norway, the Polish participants' areas for English acquisition may be more restricted. It may also be that because the V2 word order is not acceptable in English and is the canonical word order in Norwegian, Norwegians pay more attention to avoiding it when using English. Polish on the other hand, has a canonical SVO word order but also allows constructions corresponding to Norwegian word order. In result, the Polish students may pay less attention to English word order when acquiring the language, because there is no obvious difference between the English and Polish constructions. What is different between the two languages is that e.g., English needs auxiliaries like *do* in some sentence constructions, however the word order of English itself would be often acceptable in Polish as well.

Lastly, Norway has had English teaching from primary school, which is a longer period of English teaching than Poland has had and only in recent years has this changed (see chapter two). In addition, English is the only obligatory foreign language on the curriculum in primary school in Norway while in Poland there is often an opportunity to choose between English and German. As a result, the amount of years of English teaching in school for Poles can vary a lot. Also, the majority of Norwegian participants reported 4-8 hours of English teaching a week while a majority of Polish participants reported only 1-4 hours. What is interesting and worth mentioning though is that the majority of Polish participants reported talking and writing English in English class 80%-100% of the time. The majority of the Norwegian participants on the other hand reported only 60%-80%.

6 Conclusion

This study has tested three groups of high school students from Norway, Poland and Canada (the last one is a control group). The participants were asked to fill out a survey where the main task was to assess 80 English sentences from a scale of 1 (totally unacceptable) to 6 (totally acceptable) where some of the sentences were acceptable English constructions and some were not. What was found in this study is that the Polish participants were the only group that gave an average score indicating some degree of acceptance for some of the unacceptable English sentences. Some of those sentences had a word order which corresponded to that of Norwegian. However, the sentences with the highest acceptance average score and the highest number of participants giving such a score were sentences which corresponded to Polish word order. Two major assumed reasons for this outcome have been discussed: Firstly, The Norwegian group has more exposure to English, receives more English teaching at school in general and is more naturally proficient in English. Secondly, the Norwegian language has a fixed word order and as English also has that, it may make it easier for Norwegian L1 speakers to acquire word order in English than L1 Polish speakers who are used to free word order as it is in Polish.

The survey included also a background information part, a chart to establish the amount of time spent on English outside of school and a short proficiency test. The background information part helped rule out participants not relevant for this study. The amount of time spent on English outside of school showed a particularly distinct difference between Polish and Norwegian participants. The biggest difference was that Polish participants spent most time on watching Anglophone films and television series with dubbing, voiceover and Polish subtitles, while Norwegian participants spent time almost exclusively on watching the same type of media with Norwegian subtitles, English subtitles or no subtitles at all.

The proficiency test showed that the Polish and Norwegian groups are about on the same level in terms of grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension. The Polish group seems to be a little more proficient in the academic aspects of English (the proficiency test), however, the Norwegian group shows better competence at assessing the English language (better judgement of acceptable and unacceptable English sentences in the acceptability judgement test). This has mostly been argued to be due to the higher level of exposure to English in every-day-life for Norwegians (television networks providing only subtitled versions of films and television series, higher focus on English in the school system). In addition, it has been argued

that the Norwegian group may have stopped transferring their L1 to L2 English, while the Polish group still has not abandoned word order transfer.

6.1 Limitations and suggestions for further research

A study which can include more participants from Norway and Poland is needed first and foremost. Preferably high school students from several parts of both countries to be able to see if there are differences between communities and geographical positions. A more comprehensive measure of English proficiency is needed as well, in order to test the participants more accurately and to test them on several aspects of the English language than what has been tested in this study. It could be an advantage to test one group of Polish participants who have had only English as an obligatory foreign language in school and another group where participants have switched from English to German or from German to English at some point. This could be used to see if there still would be high SD scores among Poles and if there would be a higher English proficiency score for the participants studying only English. This study has used Polish participants with varying amount of years of English teaching in school and it would therefore be interesting to see if these amounts of years had something to do with the high SD scores found. It would also benefit to study differences in English teaching in schools in Poland and Norway to find out if that could be a factor explaining why Norwegians did it better in the acceptability judgement survey.

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Appendix 1: Instructions for acceptability judgements

English

Survey: Below is a list of English sentences. For each sentence, indicate how acceptable you think it is. 1 means that a sentence is completely unacceptable, while 6 means the sentence is completely acceptable in English. Use the numbers between 1 and 6 if you think the sentence is somewhat acceptable or somewhat unacceptable.

Norwegian

Undersøkelse: Under er en liste med engelske setninger. For hver setning, merk hvor akseptabel du synes den er. 1 betyr at setningen absolutt ikke er akseptabel på engelsk, 6 betyr at setningen er absolutt akseptabel på engelsk. Bruk tallene mellom 1 og 6 hvis du mener setningen er litt akseptabel eller litt uakseptabel.

Polish

Ankieta: Poniżej znajduje się lista Angielskich zdań. Dla każdego zdania, zaznacz jak akceptowalne jest ono według ciebie. 1 znaczy że zdanie jest absolutnie nie akceptowalne, a 6 znaczy że zdanie jest absolutnie akceptowalne w języku Angielskim. Użyj liczby między 1 i 6 jeżeli uważasz że zdanie jest trochę akceptowalne lub trochę nie akceptowalne.

Appendix 2: Sentences for acceptability judgements

	Absolutely not acceptable[8]					Absolutely acceptable
Every day when nobody is at home, sings Mary.	1	2	3	4	5	6
James continued to watch Game of Thrones?	1	2	3	4	5	6
My friend Tom likes not to play football.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Birthdays are good for you and statistics show that people that have the most live the longest.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Yesterday Tom bought a dog.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Did Mary and Matthew marry in church?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Every week when 'Dr. House' is on TV, makes John popcorn.	1	2	3	4	5	6
After the trip yesterday, what James ate at McDonald's?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Peed the dog on mom's beautiful flowers?	1	2	3	4	5	6
During the football match, what Fred shouted when his team lost the ball?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Every day when class starts, Peter smiles.	1	2	3	4	5	6
In the big supermarket, what Lisa said to John that was so embarrassing?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Last week played Mary on the trampoline.	1	2	3	4	5	6

[8] These were in Norwegian and Polish languages in the surveys handed out to the Norwegian and Polish groups.

The boy who is standing in the corner said that Lucy owns not a car.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Last night after Mom and Dad said absolutely no, went Amy to the party?	1	2	3	4	5	6
The students was amused very when the teacher late came in because forgot he had class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
At night the lion hunts.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Because her parents grounded her, Kate went not to the party last night.	1	2	3	4	5	6
What trick learned the dog that was so horrible?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Wendy her dog pink painted one day when alone home she was.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My sister Sue does not like to watch TV.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Every time the girls have to run through the forest in gym class at school, runs Judy the fastest.	1	2	3	4	5	6
The little boy spilled Coca-Cola on himself?	1	2	3	4	5	6
In the daytime when nobody is at home and the house is quiet, our cat sleeps.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Whenever there is a storm which prevents him from going outside, reads Tom a book.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Did James hide Fred's book under the sofa?	1	2	3	4	5	6
The mean girl who was sitting beside us did not smile during the show.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Fell Jimmy out of his boat?	1	2	3	4	5	6
What sound did the cat make that was so funny?	1	2	3	4	5	6
After the One Direction concert, what did Amy sing at the park?	1	2	3	4	5	6
After doing chores all year and being very good, did Mark go to Disneyland?	1	2	3	4	5	6

Last night when everyone was sleeping, what did the cat eat that was so expensive?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Whenever there is a break which lasts more than 15 minutes, Brian buys a soda.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Peter bought flowers?	1	2	3	4	5	6
My friend who got into Hogwarts not likes magic.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Suddenly Terry sneezed.	1	2	3	4	5	6
The graduation party was ruined for Wendy whose date never showed up.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Which cake baked Lucy for the party?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Unless they are on TV, James not likes spiders.	1	2	3	4	5	6
In the spring when the snow melts and the temperatures rise, sing the birds.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Because there was an important football game on TV, Jeremy did not go on a date with Amy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My cousin who lives next to the mall does not like to spend money.	1	2	3	4	5	6
In biology class fainted Tom of the dead frog because.	1	2	3	4	5	6
At night sleep children.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Because she was angry with him, Amy not sat beside Jeremy during class yesterday.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Did Amy watch TV?	1	2	3	4	5	6
My cat Bob not like to be touched on his paws.	1	2	3	4	5	6
During that very boring class, what did Jessica say that was so funny?	1	2	3	4	5	6

She finally managed to score a point for her team yesterday evening.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Every day when his parents watch the news, Andy plays board games.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Did the cat eat from the bowl?	1	2	3	4	5	6
After walking into the ladies' room, what said John to explain his mistake?	1	2	3	4	5	6
We all go for ice cream after the Avengers watching yesterday evening at the cinema.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Every time the boys from the other class are watching the volleyball match, the girls play very well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Jeremy asked Kate on a date yesterday?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Unless it is chocolate flavoured, Mary does not like ice cream.	1	2	3	4	5	6
What soup Thomas made last night?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Every Christmas eats Jane too much candy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
After buying everything for the surprise party, Peter went home?	1	2	3	4	5	6
What the hamster ate that was so good?	1	2	3	4	5	6
After mowing the lawn, what saw Peter in front of the house?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Last Easter Johnny found seven candy eggs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Always something embarrassing shopping clothes say moms while.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My uncle who works at the fish store likes not to eat fish.	1	2	3	4	5	6

He always wears flip flops outside, no matter what the weather is like.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Unless it is summer, Stacy likes not rain.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Yesterday overslept Peter.	1	2	3	4	5	6
After seeing Ronaldo on the street, what shouted Mike that was so weird?	1	2	3	4	5	6
It was very cold this year so Ben had to wear a jacket in the summer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Went Tom on a trip to California?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Which town did John visit yesterday?	1	2	3	4	5	6
Suddenly saw Jessie a lion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ate the cat a mouse?	1	2	3	4	5	6
The old man who is standing on the right not runs so well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Once a month Ben eats pizza for breakfast.	1	2	3	4	5	6
The cat jumped up on the roof after seeing a big dog.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Lisa’s worst day ever was when she did not wear any pants to school.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Bob, who does not like fish, is going to try sushi for the first time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sue drives downtown every day to buy fresh flowers.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Mark’s best day ever was when he bought a brand new car.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix 3: English proficiency test

Fill in the correct alternative:

1. Juan_____in the library this morning.
   a. is study
   b. studying
   c. is studying
   d. are studying

2. Alicia,_____the windows please. It's too hot in here.
   a. opens
   b. open
   c. opened
   d. will opened

3. Who is_____, Marina or Sachiko?
   a. tallest
   b. tall
   c. taller
   d. the tallest

Select the underlined word or phrase that is *incorrect*:

1. The majority to the news is about violence or scandal.
   a. The
   b. to

c. news
d. violence

2. Mr. Olsen is telephoning a American Red Cross for help.
   a. is
   b. a
   c. Red
   d. for

3. I told the salesman that I was not interesting in buying the latest model.
   a. told
   b. that
   c. interesting
   d. buying

Select the best answer:

1. The bus_____arrives late during bad weather.
   a. every week
   b. later
   c. yesterday
   d. always

2. The critics had to admit that the ballet_____was superb.
   a. procrastinate
   b. performance

c. pathology
d. psychosomatic

3. The hurricane caused_____damage to the city.
   a. extend
   b. extended
   c. extensive
   d. extension

Select the best answer:

Directions to Erik's house

Leave the interstate 25 at exit 7S. Follow that road (Elm Street) for two miles. After one mile, you will pass a small shopping center on your left. At the next set of traffic lights, turn right onto Maple Drive. Erik's house is the third house on your left. It's number 33, and it's white with green trim.

1. What is Erik's address?
   a. Interstate 25
   b. 2 Elm Street
   c. 13 Erika Street
   d. 33 Maple Drive

2. Which is closest to Erik's house?
   a. the traffic lights
   b. the shopping center
   c. exit 7S

d. a greenhouse

Select the best answer:

The B&B Tour

Spend ten romantic days enjoying the lush countryside of southern England. The counties of Devon, Dorset, Hampshire, and Essex invite you to enjoy their castles and coastline, their charming bed and breakfast inns, their museums and their cathedrals. Spend lazy days watching the clouds drift by or spend active days hiking the glorious hills. These fields were home to Thomas Hardy, and the ports launched ships that shaped world history. Bed and breakfasts abound, ranging from quiet farmhouses to lofty castles. Our tour begins August 15. Call or fax us today for more information 1-800-222-XXXX. Enrollment is limited, so please call soon.

1. Which of the following counties is not included in the tour?
   a. Devon
   b. Cornwall
   c. Essex
   d. Hampshire

2. How many people can go on this tour?
   a. 10
   b. an unlimited number
   c. 2-8
   d. a limited number

3. What can we infer about this area of southern England?

a. The region has lots of vegetation.
b. The coast often has harsh weather.
c. The sun is hot and the air is dry.
d. The land is flat.