

**REVERSE INTERLANGUAGE TRANSFER:
THE EFFECTS OF L3 ITALIAN & L3 FRENCH ON L2 ENGLISH
PRONOUN USE**

A MASTER'S THESIS

BY

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ABSTRACT

REVERSE INTERLANGUAGE TRANSFER:
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USE

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This study focuses on the reverse interlanguage transfer by examining the effects of the L3 Italian and L3 French on the L2 English subject pronoun use as well as the effects of referentiality. The participants were 60 tertiary level students studying at Ankara University English Preparation School, Italian Language and Literature Department and French Language and Literature Department. There was one control group that includes native speakers of Turkish with intermediate level L2 English and two experimental groups that includes native speakers of Turkish with intermediate level L2 English and advanced level Italian or French. Firstly, an English proficiency test was administered to make sure that all the participants have the same level of English proficiency. Secondly, a Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT), in which the participants were expected to read each sentence and judge its grammaticality in terms of subject pronoun use, was conducted in all the three groups. Lastly, the three groups' mean scores and scores in referentiality contexts were compared.

The findings of overall mean scores indicated that Italian language group, which is one of the experimental groups, scored lower than both the other experimental group (French) and the control group (English). This finding suggests that there is an L3 Italian influence on the participants' use of L2 English subject pronouns. However, the mean score difference within each language group is not statistically significant in terms of referentiality although there is a statistically significant difference between the language groups in the same and different subject pronoun contexts.

Considering that forward transfer is the norm in the language transfer area, this study has filled the gap in the literature on reverse interlanguage transfer, specifically focusing on transfer from L3 to L2. Lastly, the present study offers some pedagogical implications that can benefit especially EFL and any language teachers so that they can teach multilinguals accordingly.

Key Words: language transfer, reverse, L2, L3, effect, Italian, French, English

ÖZET

GERİYE DOĞRU ARA DİL AKTARIMI:
ÜÇÜNCÜ DİL İTALYANCA VE ÜÇÜNCÜ DİL FRANSIZCA’NIN İKİNCİ DİL
İNGİLİZCE’DE ÖZNE ZAMİRİ KULLANIMINA ETKİLERİ

Zeynep Aysan

Yüksek Lisans, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Julie Mathews-Aydınlı

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Bu çalışma, üçüncü dil İtalyanca ve üçüncü dil Fransızca’nın ikinci dil İngilizce özne zamiri kullanımı üzerindeki etkilerini ve göndergesellik etkilerini inceleyerek geriye doğru ara dil aktarımı konusuna odaklanmaktadır. Katılımcılar, Ankara Üniversitesi İngilizce Hazırlık Okulu, İtalyan Dili ve Edebiyatı Bölümü ve Fransız Dil ve Edebiyatı Bölümü’nde öğrenim görmekte olan üniversite düzeyindeki 60 öğrencidir. Çalışmada anadili Türkçe, ikinci dili orta seviyede İngilizce olan katılımcıları içeren bir kontrol grubu ile ana dili Türkçe, ikinci dili orta seviyede İngilizce ve üçüncü dili ileri seviyede ya İtalyanca ya da Fransızca olan katılımcılardan oluşan iki deney grubu bulunmaktadır. İlk olarak aynı seviyede İngilizce bilgisine sahip olan katılımcıları belirlemek için bir İngilizce yeterlilik sınavı yapılmıştır. Daha sonra, üç gruba da katılımcıların her cümleyi okuyup dilbilgisel olarak özne zamiri kullanımının doğruluğunu saptadığı bir Dilbilgisel Doğruluk Saptama Testi uygulanmıştır. Son olarak, üç grubun genel puan ortalamaları ve göndergesellik bağlamındaki puan ortalamaları karşılaştırılmıştır.

Genel puan ortalamaları, deney gruplarından biri olan İtalyanca grubunun hem diğer deney grubundan (Fransızca) hem de kontrol grubundan (İngilizce) daha düşük bir ortalama puanının olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu bulgular, katılımcıların ikinci dil İngilizce’de özne zamiri kullanımında üçüncü dil İtalyanca etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Göndergeselliğe gelince, gruplar arasında aynı ve farklı gönderge bağlamlarında istatistik olarak belirgin bir fark olsa da grup içi ortalama puan farkı istatistiksel olarak belirgin değildir.

İleri doğru dil aktarımının bu alanda standart olduğu göz önüne alınırsa, bu çalışma, özellikle üçüncü dilden ikinci dile aktarımına odaklandığı için literatürde geriye doğru ara dil aktarımı konusundaki boşluğu doldurmuştur. Son olarak, bu çalışma yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretilmelerine çok dilli öğrencilere dil öğretme konusunda fayda sağlayabilecek bazı pedagojik uygulamalar önermektedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: dil aktarımı, geri, ikinci dil, üçüncü dil, etki, İtalyanca, Fransızca, İngilizce

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The Tower of Babel

¹Now the whole earth had one language and one speech. ²And it came to pass, as they journeyed from the east, that they found a plain in the land of Shinar, and they dwelt there.³ Then they said to one another, "Come, let us make bricks and bake them thoroughly." They had brick for stone, and they had asphalt for mortar. ⁴And they said, "Come, let us build ourselves a city, and a tower whose top is in the heavens; let us make a name for ourselves, lest we be scattered abroad over the face of the whole earth." ⁵But the LORD came down to see the city and the tower which the sons of men had built. ⁶And the LORD said, "Indeed the people are one and they all have one language, and this is what they begin to do; now nothing that they propose to do will be withheld from them. ⁷Come, let Us go down and there confuse their language, that they may not understand one another's speech." ⁸So the LORD scattered them abroad from there over the face of all the earth, and they ceased building the city. ⁹Therefore its name is called Babel, because there the LORD confused the language of all the earth; and from there the LORD scattered them abroad over the face of all the earth.

Genesis 11: 1-9

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The terms *transfer* or *crosslinguistic influence* have been an important issue in the area of second language acquisition for nearly a century. The importance of the phenomenon has also been realized from a sociological perspective in recent decades with the increasing consciousness of the number of multilinguals all over the world. Considering the continuous interaction of all the languages in a multilingual's mind, it is inevitable that the languages may interfere and affect each other either in a positive or negative way. For instance, most language learners, regardless of their languages and proficiency levels, display non-target-like examples due to the transfer phenomenon. The case is the same for the *Null Subject Parameter* (NSP) (Chomsky, 1982), which is also known as the pro-drop parameter, determining the distribution of the phonetically null but syntactically present element, *pro*. In other words, the NSP regulates the variation between languages such as Turkish and Italian [+pro drop], in which subject omission is licensed; and languages such as English and French [-pro drop], in which subject pronouns are obligatorily overt (Chomsky, 1982). In the case of multilingual learners whose languages carry both [+pro drop] and [-pro drop] features, the NSP may be considered as a grammatical area where the learners may have difficulties leading to target-deviant use of null and overt pronouns in any of their languages.

This study's unit of analysis is the native speakers of Turkish who have learnt English as a second language and either Italian or French as a third language. The aim of this study is to investigate the possible reverse transfer effects from the

participants' L3 Italian and L3 French to their L2 English in terms of their knowledge and use of null and overt subject pronouns.

Background of the Study

Crosslinguistic influence, which refers to “the influence of any other tongue known to the learner on the target language” (Sharwood Smith, 1994, p. 198), has been an essential part of applied linguistics and has raised great interest among researchers. While second language researchers attached high importance to transfer in the 1950s, its importance faded away during the 1960s with the rise of *the creative construction process*, where the errors came to be considered as the creativity of the learners rather than samples of transfer errors (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008). Later on, with the increasing number of studies on bilinguals and multilinguals, the crosslinguistic effects of languages have become fundamentals of language studies (e.g., Cenoz, Hufeisen & Jessner, 2003; Gass & Selinker, 1983; Jarvis, 1998; Kellerman & Sharwood Smith, 1986; Odlin, 1989; Ringbom, 2007).

Apart from the attention it draws, the term *transfer* has also undergone changes because of different theoretical views. Fries (1945) and Lado (1957) supported the idea of Contrastive Analysis, in which they discussed the term *interference* together with *transfer*. Interference was defined as the result of interaction between two languages that have structurally different mechanisms. Similarly, transfer was defined as the extension of a known language into the target language consciously or unconsciously in either way, positively or negatively (Lado, 1964). However, these terms caused dissatisfaction considering that they imply behaviorist views. Therefore, the term *mother tongue influence* was proposed by Corder (1983) who tried to eliminate the term *transfer*. Sharwood Smith and

Kellerman (1986), on the other hand, proposed *crosslinguistic influence*, which is thought to be theory-neutral, since they were of the opinion that the term *transfer* was not comprehensive enough. With the new term, they also aimed to expand the number and directions of interactions referring to L3 influence on L2, and L2 influence on L1 as well. Regardless of this discussion on the term, both *transfer* and *crosslinguistic influence* are used interchangeably today.

Crosslinguistic influence or transfer is characterized according to some dimensions such as directionality and outcome (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008). *Forward transfer*, the norm in the field, happens when prior languages of the learner influence the target language. On the other hand, *reverse* or *backward transfer* occurs when an L2 influences the L1 (Cook, 2003). *Positive transfer* may occur if there is concordance among the languages while *negative transfer* is possible if there is dissonance among the languages (Ellis, 1994).

All the dimensions of the language transfer issue have closely-knit relationships with linguistics. Syntax, a branch of linguistics related to grammatical elements in a given language, is one of the areas in which a great number studies have been conducted. A part of syntax that has become a focus area for the researchers of crosslinguistic influence is the null subject parameter. In other words, the researchers have conducted numerous studies on the learners' use of null and overt pronominal subject from a syntactic perspective. Although much of the research on parametric transfer comes from the L2 acquisition area, with the increasing claims that L3 acquisition (L3A) is different from L2 acquisition (L2A), a new field of transfer research has also begun to emerge in L3A (Leung, 2009).

As far as forward transfer of null subject parameter research is concerned, there are a number of studies investigating pro-drop L1 effects on non-pro-drop L2 (Hilles, 1991; Vainikka & Young-Scholten, 1994; White, 1985; Yuan, 1997; Zobl, 1992). As for L3A studies, Rothman and Cabrelli Amaro (2010) did research on two groups whose L1 was English, L2 Spanish and L3 French and Italian. An L2 blocking effect of the transfer from the learners' L1 to their L3 has been revealed in the study, in which the L1 Transfer Hypothesis, L2 Status Factor (Williams & Hammarberg, 1998) and Cumulative Enhancement Model (Flynn, Foley & Vinnitskaya, 2004) have been tested. Additionally, the researchers have also proposed an alternative view, psychotypological transfer, for a better understanding of the research findings. Rothman (2011) concluded that the data he investigated were parallel with the Cumulative Enhancement Model, implying that any prior language can add to following language acquisition.

As for reverse transfer, all existing studies seem to be in the direction of L2 to L1. Although there has been a few studies conducted to investigate reverse transfer (Cook, 2003; Pavlenko & Jarvis, 2002; Porte, 2003), only one study, done by Gürel (2002), focused on null subjects by investigating Turkish-English bilinguals' cases where Turkish native speakers violated Turkish pronoun constraints under the effect of their L2 English.

Statement of the Problem

Over the last few decades, there has been a considerable amount of research conducted on language transfer in the direction of L1 to L2 acquisition that investigates bilinguals (e.g., Hilles, 1991; Vainikka & Young-Scholten, 1994; White, 1985; Yuan, 1997; Zobl, 1992). Additionally, multilingualism has led to other

transfer studies where the influence of either the L1 or the L2 on an L3 has been examined (e.g. Rothman & Cabrelli Amaro, 2010; Rothman, 2011). In comparison to all those studies on forward transfer, there are a very limited number of studies on reverse transfer that have been conducted in the direction of L2 to L1 (e.g. Cook, 2003; Gürel, 2002; Porte, 2003). On the other hand, no study, to the researcher's knowledge, has investigated reverse transfer to L2 subject pronoun use from an L3 considering the pedagogical aspects as well. Therefore, the present study aims to examine whether there is any reverse transfer effect on the learners' use of L2 English pronouns from their L3 French or Italian.

Many university level programs in Turkey are held in English as a medium of instruction and most provide the students with English preparatory opportunities in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) even if they are not English-medium universities. Therefore, it can be concluded that almost in all cases English is given the utmost importance as a foreign language in Turkey. In addition to English-medium courses and EFL courses, most of the universities offer third language courses to their students. The reason is to provide the students with opportunities through which they can become competent multilinguals. However, achieving competency is not easy for these learners. Considering that their languages interact with each other and influence each other, this may lead to problems resulting in errors or target-deviant competency. The situation is that EFL teachers are in a struggle to eliminate the learner errors in their students' L2. The problem, however, is that the teachers do not have information about the sources of errors. The teachers are not likely to be successful in overcoming learner errors without knowing the reasons for those errors. Having fully acquired two different sets of overt and null subject pronouns in their L1, L2 and L3, the learners may still have problems of

pronoun use in their L2. Thus, it is apparent that even after the learners have learnt how to use the pronouns in English, some factors coming from their L3 may be a reason that influences their competency.

Research Questions:

1. Is there an L3 French or L3 Italian influence on the participants' use of L2 English subject pronouns?
 - 1.1. How do two experimental groups (the groups with L3 Italian and L3 French) differ from the control group (the group with L2 English and no L3) and from each other in terms of subject pronoun use in English?
 - 1.2. Does the accuracy of subject pronoun use in each group vary according to referential and non-referential subject pronouns?

Significance of the Study

The ongoing research interests in syntactic transfer chiefly investigate forward transfer effects from L1 to L2 production; however, reverse transfer has received less attention. The present study, therefore, has an aim of investigating reverse transfer in null and overt subject pronoun use in L2 English specifically looking at the learners whose L3s are either French or Italian and whose L1 is Turkish. Thus, the results of the research may contribute to both the L2 and L3 acquisition literature, which lacks related research showing possible influences of L3 on L2 in terms of syntax and transfer interface.

At the local level, the lack of interest and research offering pedagogical implications for teaching and learning null and overt subject pronoun use in terms of transfer effects from other languages known to the learner to L2 English is a problem.

The students may be under the influence of their L3s which may either positively or negatively affect their L2 English and the teachers may be unaware of or indifferent to the learners' problems. This study is expected to help especially EFL teachers in the sense that the findings may increase their awareness of the students' learning process and non-target like productions. EFL teachers, in line with the findings and suggestions, may explicitly model and teach their students the use of null and overt subject pronouns taking into consideration the effects of various L3s. Additionally, crosslinguistic comparisons of three languages may be beneficial for students to eliminate the negative effects and increase the positive effects of their L1 and L3s. Likewise, the teachers may have a better understanding of learner errors if they have an idea of the sources of transfer. Last but not least, L2 English learners may also make use of the findings to reflect on their learning since metalinguistic awareness may help them differentiate among the languages.

Conclusion

This chapter was an introduction to the study by presenting the statement of the problem, research questions, and the significance of the study. In the second chapter, the relevant literature will be reviewed. Chapter 3 will be basically about the methodology of the study, including the setting and participants, instruments, procedures, and data analysis. In Chapter 4, the results of the study will be reported, and lastly, in Chapter 5, the discussion of the findings, pedagogical implications, limitations of the study, and suggestions for further research will be presented.

CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter is composed of three main sections focusing on literature relevant to language transfer and overt and null subject pronouns. The first section mainly gives an account of the contrastive analysis hypothesis, error analysis and interlanguage; multilingualism and multicompetence; and factors affecting non-native language influence. The second section is related to the syntactic background of the study, and discusses the linguistic typology of Turkish, English, French and Italian within the framework of the null subject parameter. The third section brings together empirical studies in which subject pronoun transfer was investigated.

Historical Context of the Development of Transfer Studies

Language transfer as a long-standing area in applied linguistics has evolved throughout the century with the interest of theorists and researchers. In line with the developments of transfer studies, the contrastive analysis hypothesis, error analysis and interlanguage will be discussed in the first part of this chapter.

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

Students' errors that emerge in a similar pattern in their second language (L2) became the basis of the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH). The hypothesis arose in the middle of the 20th century through the works of Fries (1945) and Lado (1957). Contrastive Analysis, which was defined by James (1985) as a hypothesis based on native language influence on the learners' foreign language, was grounded on pedagogical and behaviorist views investigating transfer errors in the target language.

Lado (1957) stated that the difficulty or ease that learners experience in their L2 largely depends on the linguistic structures of the languages. This argument led to two different assumptions. The first one is that if the linguistic structures of the languages are similar, the learners learn the new language easily, thus displaying *positive transfer* instances. On the other hand, the learners' L2 production will result in target-deviant structures due to *negative transfer* if the languages do not share linguistically similar structures (Lado, 1957).

The discussion about CA accelerated due to a concern for pedagogical practices (Gass & Selinker, 1992). In other words, the fundamentals of CA became related to the application of foreign language teaching and to preparation of the most appropriate teaching materials, in consideration of learners' possible language transfers (Selinker, 1992). Similarly, Fries (1945) stated his purpose as developing teaching materials that would turn the target language system into unconscious and automatic habits. In light of Fries' thoughts, Selinker (1992) also concluded that a comparison of the languages that the learners know would guide teachers to the most effective teaching materials. Thus, CA aimed to serve foreign language teachers by helping them to predict the difficulties that the learners would experience and to prepare materials accordingly (Lado, 1957).

While CA was credited for a few decades, its importance began to fade away during the 1970s for several reasons. One criticism by Klein (1986) aimed to display the difference between structural linguistic similarities and L2 users' language production. Contrary to what Lado (1957) argued, Klein (1986) stated that acquisition may not be in line with contrastive linguistics and that linguistic similarities or differences may not necessarily predict transfer errors. Another criticism raised by Abbas (1995) was about the overemphasis on *interference* as the

only type of error in L2. This overemphasis prevents teachers from giving importance to other types of errors that appear in the L2 users' production. Today, it is obvious that CA does not receive the attention it did 40 years ago, however, it is also undeniable that languages influence each other in linguistic terms in complex ways.

Error Analysis

Error analysis (EA) gained importance during the 1970s as another approach in language acquisition studies. EA mainly focused on the performance of errors, as opposed to CA, which focused on linguistic systems in order to explain learner errors. EA studies aimed to give an account of learner errors and reveal the relationship between learning contexts and learning errors (Faerch, Haastrup & Phillipson, 1984). While CA mainly dealt with language transfer, EA proposed that some learners' errors result from other sources besides language transfer (Odlin, 1989). One of these sources is *transfer of training*, which is about the effects of teaching on the learners' language production. Other sources are *overgeneralization*, which is about overexpansion of a structure in the target language and *simplification*, which is related to omitting specific structures or forms in the target language (Odlin, 1989).

EA was criticized as well, although it was proposed to compensate for CA. One reason for the criticism has been that even the slightest deviations from the target language are seen as errors and this view fails to consider the process of building up a new language and how natural committing errors is (Hobson, 1999). Additionally, the focus of EA is on production errors, disregarding comprehension. Additionally, instead of investigating all of the learners' production, EA only gives importance to errors (Alexander, 1979).

Interlanguage

With the failure of both CA and EA to explain language users' errors in the target language, Corder (1967) first suggested the term *idiosyncratic dialect*. Corder (1971) argued that the learners have a unique dialect (language) which is regular, systematic, and meaningful. Similarly, having argued that the language used by learners has a system that belongs neither to the L1 nor the L2, Selinker proposed another term, *interlanguage* (IL), in 1972. Although the term has been used in relation with SLA, it has been extended for use in third language acquisition (L3A) studies as well.

Selinker (1972) stated that language learners go through various phases starting from the L1 through to the L2--although only almost 5% can achieve native-like proficiency. Considering it as a continuum, IL starts under the influence of L1 and it aims to arrive L2. Contrary to EA, which investigates only errors, IL deals with both errors and non-errors in the production of the language user (Hobson, 1999). Corder (1981) pointed out that each learner error should be considered *idiosyncratic* until it is disproved. Therefore, it may be inferred that IL is an individual concept. Kohn (1986), who supported Corder's (1981) claim, concluded that the investigation of IL processes in the group-base is of no use since individual learners' language use is more important. Although Selinker (1972) argued that IL moves towards the target language he did not hold the claim that the IL and the target language need to be compared, since he is a theorist who believed that IL is independent from the target language (Hobson, 1999).

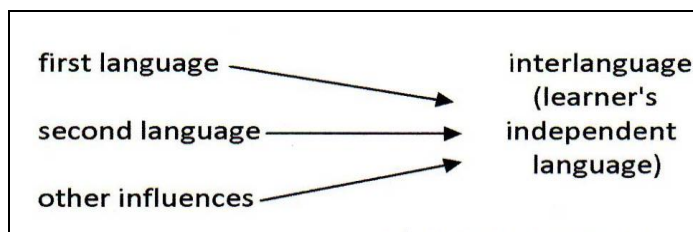


Figure 1. Interlanguage (Ellis, 1994)

Selinker (1972) maintains that ILs do not refute the principal of language universals since they are systematic. Still, the relationship between IL and Universal Grammar (UG) is unclear and inconclusive due to the fact that there is no consensus about whether IL draws on UG or not. If learners cannot access UG, IL may be considered independent from the L1 and L2. However, another view argues that IL is dependent on the L1 and L2 to some extent because of transfer, and this situation requires IL to be based on UG (Hobson, 1999).

Multilingualism and Multicompetence

Transfer studies have been studied in terms of IL usually including L1. De Angelis and Selinker (2001) defined *interlanguage transfer* as “the influence of a non-native language on another non-native language” (p. 43). However, only when the underlying theoretical assumption is discussed, is it possible to understand the term, interlanguage transfer.

In order to study interlanguage transfer, there must be at least three languages in the learners' minds, a situation defined as multilingualism. It has long been widely accepted that multilingualism is different than bilingualism although L3A related research has started to develop recently, in the last decade. The fact that L3 learners are experienced and that multilinguals and bilinguals have different competencies than monolinguals, reveals that L3A and transfer studies have distinct traits within

the psycholinguistic framework (Cook, 1995; Jessner, 1999). As a result, extending Grosjean's (1985) views, De Angelis and Selinker (2001) stated that:

...a multilingual is neither the sum of three or more monolinguals, nor a bilingual with an additional language. Rather, in our view a multilingual is a speaker of three or more languages with unique linguistic configurations, often depending on individual history, and as such, the study of third or additional language acquisition cannot be regarded as an extension of second language acquisition or bilingualism. (p. 45)

Cook (2009), on the other hand, extended the discussion including current UG theory within the framework of SLA. He firstly stated that monolingual native speakers have the utmost importance in UG. UG theory focuses on monolinguals and considers multilingualism as an exception, and even UG theory from a multilingual perspective still draws too much on monolingualism or bilingualism. Thus, Cook (2003), who believed that language users' minds need to be studied considering all the languages known to the user, proposed an integration model (see Figure 2).

The integration model became a framework to work on interlanguage. Interlanguage which is a term proposed by Selinker (1972) actually referred to L2 knowledge that a language user has in mind. Dissatisfied with the lack of a term that was comprehensive enough to include all the languages and their interaction, Cook (1991) proposed another term, *multicompetence*, to refer to the knowledge of two or more languages that a language user has in mind. Multicompetence, which is related to multi languages in a mind, led to the investigation of the relationships among languages within the framework of the integration model.

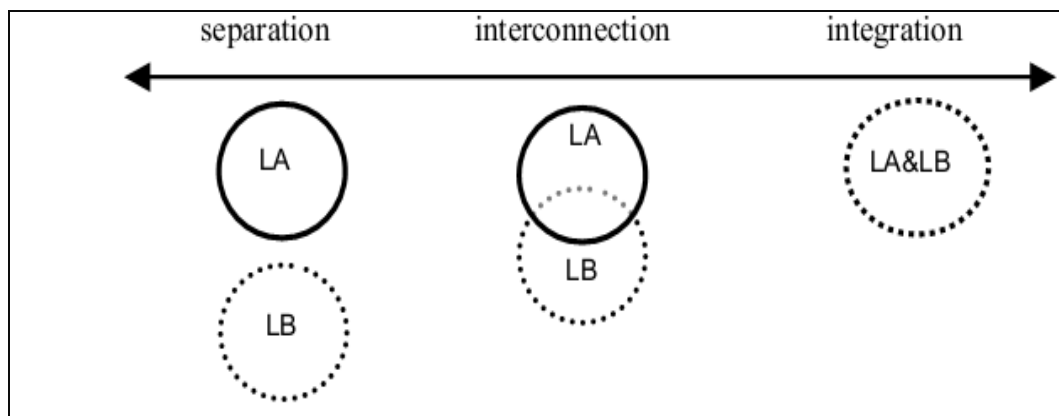


Figure 2. The integration continuum of possible relationships in multicompetence (Cook, 2003).

Considering both the separation and integration models as extremes on the continuum, Cook (2003) stated that interconnection models, either *linked languages* or *partial integration*, are the best to explain the multilingual situation. Transfer studies usually rely on an interconnection model in which the IL influences the L1 or one IL influences the other IL. Odlin (1989) suggested that the interaction of (inter)languages in the mind can yield positive and negative transfer instances.

Positive Transfer

The comparison of languages reveals that crosslinguistic similarities can lead to positive transfer in various areas of language acquisition and production. For instance, language users who have syntactically similar languages in mind are inclined to produce those syntactical features with less difficulty in the target language (Odlin, 1989).

Negative Transfer

Negative transfer basically causes target-deviant productions in the target language. There are four types of negative transfer:

Underproduction: A specific target language structure may be produced by the learner either very rarely or not at all. If the target structure is frequent in the recipient language but not in the source language, learners may fail to use it.

Avoidance is one type of underproduction strategy that language users resort to. If a specific structure in the target language is not similar to the source language, language users may avoid producing it (Odlin, 1989).

Overproduction: Overproduction might be the natural result of underproduction in the sense that learners overproduce some structures to avoid another structure in the target language. Or, language users simply carry some structures into the target language from the source language (Odlin, 1989).

Production errors: Similarities or dissimilarities between the languages may lead to three types of production errors. 1) *Substitution* refers to the use of a source language form in the target language. 2) *Calques* arise from the transfer of a source language structure to the target language. 3) *Alterations* mean structural changes in the target language usually without showing any direct influence from the source language (Odlin, 1989).

Misinterpretation: The structures in the source language may cause the misinterpretation of the information in the target language. Thus language users may understand something irrelevant in the target language because of misinterpretation. Phonology, word order and cultural entities may cause misinterpretation (Odlin, 1989).

Factors Affecting Non-Native Language Influence

There may be various types of transfer such as positive, negative forward, and reverse (backward). Thus, it is necessary to take into account the underlying factors that lead to transfer to examine all aspects of the issue.

Language Distance

Language distance is an important factor that may have an influence on transfer. It is related to languages and language families whose typological similarity or dissimilarity can be assessed linguistically (De Angelis, 2007). Apart from this concept, Kellerman (1977) suggested another concept, *perceived language distance* or *psychotypology* which means the distance that language learners interpret, independent from actual linguistic distance. Generally, typologically similar languages are believed to accelerate transfer. In other words, it was proved that language learners borrow more from the source language if it is typologically closer to the recipient language (Cenoz, 2001).

Proficiency Level

Early levels of target language acquisition have been argued by the majority of researchers to be more vulnerable to cross-linguistic influence (CLI) (Odlin, 1989; Ringbom, 1986; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998). Odlin (1989) also stated that transfer that appears at the early stages is mostly negative to compensate for the lack of knowledge in the target language by using the better known source language. Positive transfer, however, occurs at the later levels of target language proficiency. Thus, Ringbom (1987) argued that the type of transfer is established according to proficiency level in the source language. L3 transfer is more different and complex

than L2 transfer because of the fact that the levels of the other two languages need to be considered in addition to that of the recipient language (Cenoz, 2001).

Recency of Use

It is usually assumed that access to a language recently used as the source language is easier than access to an unused language (Williams & Hammarberg, 1998). On the other hand, some empirical studies have showed that it is possible to find transfer effects from languages unused for a long time (De Angelis & Selinker, 2001).

Formality of Context

De Angelis (2007) stated that formal situations (e.g., tests, exams, presentations, interviews) cause anxiety in learners and the anxiety influenced their performance in non-native language production. According to the research done by Dewaele (2001) on the formality of context, the language production of the learners in informal contexts showed more interference than that of the learners who had formal interviews. In other words, multilinguals self-monitored their own performances in formal contexts to avoid from interference.

Syntactic Background: The Null Subject Phenomena

Transfer is a phenomenon that may be based on various linguistic entities. One of these is null and overt subject pronouns or, in more linguistic terms, the null subject parameter (NSP). Perlmutter (1971) was originally the first theorist who framed the NSP in his book *Deep and Surface Constraints in Syntax*. Later, in 1981 and 1982 Chomsky started discussing the NSP extensively. Initially, the NSP was studied through Romance languages such as Italian (Rizzi, 1982) and Spanish (Jaeggli, 1982); however, other languages were included in the NSP studies soon

after. Apart from null subjects, the set of other principles such as subject-verb inversion, expletives and *that*-trace effect are studied within the NSP.

Languages differ from each other in the sense that they may or may not allow omission of subject pronouns in finite clauses, as can be seen in the examples below, which compare subject pronoun use in Turkish, English, French, and Italian respectively (adapted from Haegeman, 1997, p. 233)

(1) (a) (Ben) Gazete alırım.

(b) *(I) buy a newspaper.

(c) *(Je) achete un journal.

(d) (Io) Compro un giornale.

The null subject (pro-drop) parameter basically “determines whether the subject of a clause can be suppressed” (Chomsky, 1988, p.64). The null subjects in pro-drop languages systematically occur in contexts where they cause ungrammaticality in non-pro-drop sentences (Haegeman & Guéron, 1999). The null subject data regulates the distribution of *empty categories* which are phonetically null, syntactically present elements in tensed sentences (Jaeggli & Safir, 1989).

At this point, it is necessary to differentiate between *pro* and PRO. While the subjects of the empty categories available in tensed sentences are named *pro*, the empty subject in infinitives are named PRO (Jaeggli & Safir, 1989). Consider the following example in (2):

(2) (a) *pro* Başarmayı amaçladı.

(b) He aimed PRO to succeed.

Thus, it is accepted that PRO is universally available in all languages while *pro* is available only parametrically and it imitates overt pronouns (Jaeggli & Safir, 1989). Consequently, null subject languages (NSL) are divergent from non-null subject languages (non-NSL) in the sense that they license phonetically null but syntactically present element *pro*. It is usually accepted that verbal inflectional systems provide the licensing conditions with null subjects. Languages differ from each other depending on inflectional features (INF) of T(ense) and AGR(ement). Thus, Jaeggli (1982) proposed *the identification hypothesis* where he discussed that the subject pronouns in languages with rich inflectional systems may be omitted since AGR helps identification of the subject pronouns. Italian and Turkish are examples of languages with *rich* inflectional systems. On the other hand, in some other languages such as English, the subject pronouns cannot be omitted because of *poor* inflectional systems. Lastly, the subject pronouns in *mixed* inflectional languages such as French are present almost all the time. Consider the following example of present tense inflected verbs respectively in Turkish, English, French, and Italian in (3):

(3)	Çalışmak	To work	Travaillere	Lavorare
	1 sg çalışırım	I work	je travaille	lavoro
	2 sg çalışırsın	you work	tu travailles	lavori
	3 sg çalışır	s/he works	il/elle travaille	lavora
	1 pl çalışırız	we work	nous travaillons	lavoriamo
	2 pl çalışırsınız	you work	vous travaillez	lavorate
	3 pl çalışırlar	they work	ils/ells travaillent	lavorano

The examples above also show that AGR acts as a pronominal that controls the null subjects (Ayoun, 2003).

Hyams (1987) proposed another distinguishing feature for null subject languages. She stated that modals and auxiliaries can be distinctive for null subject languages. For instance, Italian modals *potere* (can) and *dovere* (must); auxiliaries *avere* (have) and *essere* (be) act as main verbs in the sense that they are inflected. However, non-null subject languages such as English do not have verbal morphology and modals and auxiliaries in English do not act similarly as main verbs (Hyams, 1987).

Despite the fact that the identification hypothesis by Jaeggli (1982) seemed to regulate the differences between null and non-null subject languages in a systematic way, languages such as Korean, Chinese and Japanese, radical pro-drop languages, disproved the hypothesis since they allow null subjects even if they have no/poor inflectional systems (Ayoun, 2003). Therefore, the rich AGR idea was dropped and *the morphological uniformity principle* was proposed by Jaeggli and Safir (1989) to license the null subjects considering that [+pro-drop] languages have regular verbal paradigms and [-pro-drop] languages have inconsistent verbal paradigms. Jaeggli and Safir (1989) stated that “null subjects are permitted in all and only languages with morphologically uniform inflectional paradigms” (p. 29).

Subject Pronouns in Turkish

Turkish is known to be a pro-drop language since its verbal morphology is rich. Null and overt subject pronouns occur both in matrix and embedded clauses in Turkish and they are inflected in terms of person and number although gender is not noticeable (Turan, 1995). Consider the examples (4) below :

(4) (a) Ali ile Ayşe eve gittiler.

‘Ali and Ayşe went home.’

(b) Ø Eve gittiler.

‘(They) went home.’

In order to form embedded clauses, some inflectional morphemes such as *-Dik*, *-EcEk*, *-mE*, *-mEk*, *-Is* are attached to the verbs (the capitalized letters indicate that the vowels may undergo Vowel Harmony) (Turan, 1995). Coindexed with the subject of the embedded clause, the subject of the matrix clause becomes null; however, if the subject of the embedded clause is overt it signals that they are not coindexed with the matrix sentence subject (Erguvanlı-Taylan, 1986). Consider the examples in (5):

(5) (a) Ali_i [Ø_i eve gideceğini] soyledi.

‘Ali said that he was going home.’

(b) Ali_i [onun*_{i/k} eve gideceğini] soyledi.

‘Ali said that he was going home.’

Subject Pronouns in English

Tensed clauses in English are required to take overt pronouns. However, an empty pronoun may be used only in the subject position of a non-tensed clause, but generally nowhere else (Huang-James, 1984). This is shown by the following examples (6), (7), and (8) (Huang-James, 1984):

(6) (a) John promised Bill that he would see Mary.

(b) John promised Bill that Mary would see him.

(7) (a) John promised Bill [\emptyset to see Mary.]

(b) John preferred [\emptyset seeing Mary.]

(8) (a) *John promised Bill that [\emptyset would see Mary.]

This restriction is not related to semantic or pragmatic conditions either. In the example (9) below, it is not possible to omit the pronoun although the reference of the pronoun is obvious (Huang-James, 1984):

(9) Speaker A: Did John see Bill yesterday?

Speaker B: a) Yes, he saw him.

b) *Yes, \emptyset saw him.

c) *Yes, I guess \emptyset saw him.

Subject Pronouns in French

Unlike other European Romance languages, French has a different status as a non-pro-drop language. There are two types of pronouns in French: weak (clitics) and strong (tonic) pronouns and the only entity that shows overt case in French are pronouns (Prévost, 2009). Thus, French sentences require an overt subject pronoun both in matrix and embedded clauses. Consider the examples in (10) (Ayoun, 2003):

(10) (a) Elle / * \emptyset dansait avec Jean.

She danced with Jean.

(b) Je crois qu'elle / * \emptyset est partie.

I believe that she has left.

If the subject clitic is strong enough to substitute null subject *pro*, a tonic pronoun is not necessary (11a). However, the sentences becomes ungrammatical if both the overt subject and clitic is absent (11b). Consider the examples (Prévost, 2009):

(11) (a) [*pro*_i [il+donne] beaucoup de travail.]]

‘He assigns a lot of work.’

(b) *[*pro* [donne] beaucoup de travail.]]

*‘(*pro*) Assigns a lot of work.’

Additionally, embedded clauses are not grammatical without an overt subject; however, the pronouns may refer to either the subject of the matrix clause or someone else. Consider the example in (12) (Prévost, 2009):

(12) (a) Jean_i pense qu’il_{i/j} est intelligent.

‘Jean thinks that he is intelligent.’

Subject Pronouns in Italian

The matrix clauses in Italian are licensed to omit the overt subjects as in example (13).

(13) (a) ∅ Ho trovato la mia borsa.

‘I have found my bag.’

The examples below (14) display that the subject of an embedded clause may be a lexical Noun Phrase (NP) as in (14a), or a pronoun as in (14b) if it is necessary

to emphasize *lui*, or the pronoun may be moved into the matrix clause as in (14c) (Rizzi, 1982).

(14) (a) Abbiamo sentito [Mario parlare di sè].

‘We heard Mario speak of himself.’

(b) Abbiamo sentito [lui parlare di sè].

‘We heard him speak of himself.’

(c) Lo abbiamo sentito [\emptyset parlare di sè].

We him_i heard \emptyset_i speak of himself.

There are several contexts in which null subjects may occur in Italian such as embedded clauses (15a), root interrogatives (15b), embedded interrogatives (15c), topicalized arguments and topicalized predicates (Haegeman & Guéron, 1999):

(15) (a) Credo che \emptyset sia già partito.

‘I think that she is already gone.’

(b) \emptyset Sei contento?

‘Are you happy?’

(c) Sai se \emptyset è contento?

‘Do you know if he is happy?’

Consequently, although Turkish and Italian seem distant in terms of language families, they share the same typological feature with respect to null subjects, as they are both pro-drop languages. Similarly, French and English share a typologically

similar feature of overt subjects, although they do not come from the same language family. Lastly, French and Italian differ in terms of being non-pro-drop and pro-drop languages respectively, although they are both Romance languages.

Referentiality

Chomsky's (1981) *Avoid Pronoun* principle as well as Economy Principle give rise to the fact that in pro-drop languages such as Turkish and Italian overt pronouns are only used to emphasize or contrast or ensure recoverability in the discourse. In other words, if *pro* is licensed, it has to appear in the subject position. Moreover, Fernando-Soriano (1989) states that the use of null pronoun is preferred in subordinate clauses. However, Cardinaletti (2004) suggests the use of strong pronouns if the subject of a sentence does not match with a *familiar antecedent* in the previous discourse. Rizzi (1997) also highlights the requirements of the discourse as in the case of focal or contrastive pronouns that carry stress. As for languages such as English and French, *pro* is never licensed and, thus overt pronouns are required in any context.

Studies on the use of personal pronouns in both pro drop and non-pro drop languages have revealed that there are a number of linguistic factors, among them, switch in reference, that affect the language users' choice of overt or null pronouns (Flores-Ferrán, 2004). Cameron (1992) defined switch in reference, one of those factors, as "two related reference relations that may hold between two NPs. When these two NPs have different referents, they *switch* in reference and when they share the same referent, they are the *same* in reference" (p.117).

Research done in the pro-drop languages Turkish and Spanish demonstrates the influence of *switch in reference* (e.g., Turan, 1995; Ruhi, 1992; Sağın-Simşek,

2010; Cameron, 1995; Flores-Ferrán, 2004). Null subject pronouns are used more than overt subject pronouns if they have a familiar antecedent, namely, the referent is known to the language user or can be predicted from the context. As for disjoint subject reference, the case is not the same for pro-drop and non-pro-drop languages. For instance, in Italian where referential null subjects are licensed, the main clause subject and the overt subject pronoun embedded to a matrix clause cannot be referential (Roberts, 2007):

8. Il professore_i ha parlato dopo che (lui*_{i/j}) è arrivato.

The professor has spoken after that (he) is arrived

'The professor spoke after he arrived.'

On the other hand, *he* in the same position in non-pro-drop languages such as English and French is ambiguous. Namely, it may refer to either the subject of the matrix clause or another person not available in the context.

Studies on Language Transfer

There have been several empirical studies that were based on the transfer and syntactic background that is reviewed in this chapter. One of them is Gürel's 2002 study. As a reverse transfer study basically on L1 attrition, she investigated the use of overt and null subject pronouns in L2 acquisition and L1 attrition of Turkish. In other words, she aimed to find bidirectional transfer effects within the Subset Condition framework. Two groups were used as participants; native English-speakers living in Turkey and native Turkish-speakers living in North America. A written interpretation task, a truth value judgment task, a picture identification task, and a cloze test were used to test the participants' knowledge. The results showed the cross-linguistic

transfer effects as expected by the author. The properties related to English overt pronouns were transferred to the overt Turkish pronoun *o* in L2 acquisition and in attrition. However, properties related to Turkish null pronouns and the reflexive *kendisi* were not influenced by English.

It is obvious that reverse transfer compared to forward transfer has not aroused much interest among the researchers. Considering that there is no research available on pronoun transfer from L3 to L2 interlanguages, to my knowledge, the research by Bronson (2010) is worth mentioning in this part although it is about the production of relative clauses. Bronson's study is a unique one in the sense that he investigated backward interlanguage transfer from L3 French to L2 English by tertiary level Cantonese speakers. A written picture elicitation task, in which the participants produced different kinds of relative clauses was used. The findings were examined both qualitatively for in-depth analysis of errors and quantitatively for transfer effects. The findings revealed that L2 English syntactic formulation of subject-extracted and object-extracted relative clauses was influenced by L3 French.

As a study having investigated forward transfer from L2/L3 to L3/L4, De Angelis in 2005 looked at interlanguage transfer of function words such as conjunctions, determiners, prepositions, or pronouns. Her aim was to investigate the use of nonnative function words by analyzing the written productions of learners of Italian. The participants basically consisted of four groups. The first group was native speakers of English with L2 French and L3 Italian; the second was native speakers of English with L2 Spanish and L3 Italian; the third was native speakers of Spanish with L2 English and L3 Italian; and the last group was native speakers of Spanish with L2 English and L3 French and L4 Italian. All participants in the four groups were asked to write a summary in the target language Italian by reading the

same text in their native languages (either English or Spanish). Having analyzed 108 summaries, the researcher counted all overt subjects (nouns or pronouns) and rated the frequency of subject insertion or omission. She found that there was a high rate of subject insertion in the first group's summaries. This result was an expected one since both English and French require overt subjects. The participants transferred the subject insertion they did in their L1 and L2 into the target language Italian. The results of the second group showed a high rate of subject omission. These results revealed that the participants in the second group were aware of the similarity between L2 Spanish and L3 Italian and thus they omitted subjects in the target language. The participants in the third group also transferred subject omission into L3 Italian since they may have realized that their native language Spanish and L3 Italian are similar. However, the fourth group showed a high rate of subject insertion transfer into L4 Italian. Since the learners realized that L3 French and L4 Italian are similar they may have transferred subject insertion. Overall the results revealed that the different rates of subject inversion and omission result from nonnative language influence instead of native language influence. It seemed that the typological similarities of the ILs have an impact on the type of the transfers. In other words, typological closeness may foster both positive and negative transfer in ILs.

In a similar study, Sađın-Şimşek (2010) worked with four monolingual Turkish speakers and four bilingual Turkish-German speakers whose ages ranged from four to eight and investigated the use of overt and null pronouns. As a result of the study, it was found that overt pronoun use was higher in rate in bilingual children compared to monolingual children because of the influence of German.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the related literature was reviewed in three main parts. The first part presented brief historical evolution of language transfer starting from CA to EA and to IL in addition to multilingualism and multicompetence, all of which constitutes the theoretical basis of this research. Additionally, the factors affecting non-native language transfer were discussed. The second part presented information about the syntactic background of the research topic by comparatively analyzing null and overt subject pronouns in Turkish, English, French, and Italian. The third and the last part briefly reviewed the related studies on subject pronoun transfer. The next chapter will describe the methodology that consists of the participants, the settings, instruments and the data collection procedure in addition to data analysis.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate reverse interlanguage transfer. Native speakers of Turkish who have learnt English as a second language and Italian or French as a third language were used to collect data. The study intended to analyze the use of subject pronouns in L2 English under the influence of L3 Italian and L3 French subject pronoun use within the framework of referentiality. The findings of this study may contribute to the research especially on reverse and also forward language transfer of subject pronoun use. Additionally, the findings of the study may be beneficial to display the interrelation and connection between/among the languages in a speaker's mind. In a narrow sense, instructors of English, Italian, and French teaching to Turkish students, and in a broad sense any foreign language instructors and material developers may utilize the findings to adapt their instructions and materials according to their students' needs.

The following research questions were investigated in the study:

1. Is there an L3 French or L3 Italian influence on the participants' use of L2 English subject pronouns?
 - 1.1. How do two experimental groups (the groups with L3 Italian and L3 French) differ from the control group (the group with L2 English and no L3) and from each other in terms of subject pronoun use in English?
 - 1.2. Does the accuracy of subject pronoun use in each group vary according to referential and non-referential subject pronouns?

This chapter giving information about the methodology of the study proceeds to other sections such as setting, participants, instruments, procedure and data analysis to provide detailed information.

Setting and Participants

The study was conducted at Ankara University, which was established in 1946 in Ankara, Turkey. Ankara University is not an English medium university; however, students take general English courses in their first years. The university conducts an English proficiency test as the first semester begins, and the students who score lower than 70 are enrolled in the Ankara University School of Foreign Languages. However, the students who will major in French and Italian Language and Literature departments take French and Italian proficiency tests instead of English and they study at French and Italian preparatory classes for two semesters if they cannot score above 70 in the related proficiency test. On the other hand, students who score above 70 are allowed to enroll in classes at their departments.

In total, 60 students studying at Ankara University participated in the study. The first group was the control group that comprised 20 native speakers of Turkish who were at the time of the study, intermediate level English learners at the university's English Preparatory School. The second group was one of the experimental groups and comprised 20 students from the Italian Language and Literature Department. They were native speakers of Turkish who had intermediate level English and advanced level Italian. The third group was the other experimental group comprised of 20 students from the French Language and Literature Department. They were native speakers of Turkish who know intermediate level English and advanced level French. The reason behind the choice of language levels

was that it would be easier and more obvious to investigate language transfer if the source language level was as advanced as possible while the target language level was as low as possible (Pavlenko, 2000). The constraints suggested by Ellis (1994) and Pavlenko (2000) for L1 influence and L2 influence respectively may be generalized for L3 influence, and one of those constraints is related to participant choice in this study. Learners' goals and language attitudes are an important factor determining the degree of target language influence, in this case L3. Therefore, students majoring in French and Italian Language and Literature Departments were chosen intentionally considering that L3 influence will be most visible in the participants who are not only linguistically but also culturally affiliated with target language (Pavlenko, 2000). Moreover, Table 1 shows that all the participants started learning L2 English in primary school and L3 French or Italian at university. In other words, although their length of exposure to L2 was longer, their L3 education was more intensive. Therefore, participants in the experimental groups had more advanced levels of L3s compared to their L2s as well as the fact that they use their L3s actively compared to their L2s. Moreover, the participants' Italian and French in the experimental groups were accepted as their L3s even though they were actually more advanced in them compared with their L2 English. The reason behind this is that the languages were classified according to the order of acquisition by the participants. In other words, the languages known to the participants were classified as L2 or L3 chronologically ignoring the proficiency levels.

Table 1

Detailed Information about participants

Department	Proficiency	Number of Students	Average Age and Range	Range of Years of/ Place of First Exposure to English	Range of Years of/ and Place of First Exposure to Italian	Range of Years of/ and Place of First Exposure to French
English Preparatory	Intermediate English	20	19 18-20	9-12 Primary School	—	—
The Italian Language and Literature	Intermediate English	20	22 21-25	9-12 Primary School	4-5 University	—
	Advanced Italian					
The French Language and Literature	Intermediate English	20	23 21-27	9-12 Primary School	—	4-5 University
	Advanced French					

Italian and French proficiency tests could not be administered because of permission limitations. Therefore, only the L2 English proficiency levels of the three groups were tested. For the two experimental groups, 3rd year and 4th year students were chosen to guarantee that their Italian and French levels were advanced.

Attendance to English proficiency test was voluntary. Totally, there were 160 students available from all the three groups. They were asked to volunteer for the English proficiency test and 91 agreed. 40 students from English Preparatory classes, 27 students from French Language and Literature Department, and 24 students from Italian Language and Literature Department took the test. 20 students whose scores in the proficiency test are similar to each other in each group were chosen to be the actual participants. In order to determine the levels of the students one way ANOVA was run and the three groups' scores were not statistically significant from each other ($p < .05$).

Instruments

Two sets of instruments were used in this study. The first instrument set was the proficiency tests of English to determine the participants' language levels and categorize them accordingly, the second instrument set was the grammaticality judgment test used to investigate the participants' knowledge and use of L2 English subject pronouns.

English Proficiency Test

The English proficiency test was comprised of five reading passages and 25 reading comprehension questions prepared by using the 2006-2007-2008-2009 KPDS (The Foreign Language Examination for Civil Servants) English reading comprehension questions. The KPDS is administered by ÖSYM (Student Selection and Placement Center) in Turkey for the evaluation of foreign-language skills of especially governmental employees including language instructors and tertiary level students. The reason for the choice of the KPDS exam was that students are familiar with this type of a test. Out of 20 reading comprehension passages taken from the KPDS exams, five were chosen randomly to test the participants' language levels. Instead of a discrete-item grammar test, a reading comprehension test was preferred since reading comprehension tests also require grammatical knowledge. Thus, the proficiency tests used in this study served the purpose of determining participants' language levels.

The Grammaticality Judgment Test

The grammaticality judgment test (GJT) prepared by the researcher consisted of 50 sentences. In order to prepare the test, empirical studies by Lozano (2002),

Rothman and Cabrelli Amaro (2010), and Sabet and Youhanaee (2007); and two other theoretical studies by Gass and Mackey (2007) and Mandell (1999) were used as models although the actual target sentences in the test were written by the researcher herself. After preparation of the test, the target sentences and the structure of the test were examined in detail by the thesis advisor as well, and minor revisions were made for grammatical accuracy and clarity of meaning.

In the test, the participants were expected to read each target sentence and judge its grammaticality. The participants were also provided with three options under each sentence: 'grammatical', 'not sure' and 'ungrammatical'. When the participants chose 'grammatical' or 'not sure' options, they continued with the next question. However, when they chose the 'ungrammatical' option, they were required to correct the sentence and write the correct version. As for the scoring system, the participants got one point for the correct judgment, zero points for the 'not sure' option, zero points for an incorrect judgment, and one point for the correction of an incorrect sentence.

The sentences were categorized under three titles: same-referential sentences, different-referential sentences and distractors. Distractors served not to reveal the aim of the test. Thus, distractor sentences tested various grammatical topics to divert the participants' attention from subject pronoun sentences while the rest of the sentences tested only subject pronouns. Same-referential sentences and different-referential sentences held 20 sentences for each and 40 sentences in total: 10 same-referential grammatical, 10 same-referential ungrammatical, 10 different-referential grammatical, and 10 different-referential ungrammatical sentences. In addition, there were five grammatical and five ungrammatical sentences under the distractors category.

The numbers of sentences were intentionally limited to 50, with an equal number of grammatical and ungrammatical sentences in order to limit the participants' fatigue. It is usually advised to prepare 50-60 sentences for a GJT if it will be conducted at one time, without breaks (Gass & Mackey, 2007). The order of the sentences were mixed and random. Considering that judging 50 sentences in terms of grammaticality might be tiring and the participants may experience fatigue, different participants were given the same test with different orders of sentence presentation. Thus, ordering was aimed to have no influence on the participants' performance. This application also helped to increase the internal validity of the test. Another important issue was timing. The participants were not set a specific time limit. On the other hand, they were required to read each sentence only once and judge its grammaticality as soon as possible. Considering that the preceding questions may affect the previous responses each participant was given a pen so that they could not go back and change the answers.

Procedure

In order to conduct the study, applications were made to the Ankara University Ethics Board and the Rector of the university; the study started after written permission was obtained. Later, the heads of the School of Foreign Languages, the French Language and Literature Department and the Italian Language and Literature Department were informed about the purpose and procedure of the study. Dates were arranged to conduct the proficiency test to recruit possible participants. Firstly, the English language proficiency test was administered in all three settings. Attendance to the test was voluntary and in total 91 students from the three departments took the test. According to their test results, 20 students whose test

results were similar to each other were chosen to participate in the next part of the study, the GJT.

For the GJT, fifty sentences were prepared and the test was piloted with two native speakers of English and two native speakers of Turkish in order to detect the weaknesses before conducting it with the target participants. After piloting, a couple of grammar mistakes were detected and corrected. The GJT was conducted first at the French Language and Literature Department, and then the Italian Language and Literature Department and School of Foreign Languages according to availability and schedules of the respective departments. When the data collection procedure was completed, the results of the GJTs were entered into the Statistics Package for Social Sciences 11.5 (SPSS) in order to analyze.

Data Analysis

The study investigated the use of pronoun in L2 English, specifically analyzing the effect of L3 French and Italian on L2 English pronoun use. Additionally, the use of referential and non-referential pronouns and the accuracy of pronoun use in main and matrix clauses were investigated. The data were gathered via a GJT and were then analyzed by means of SPSS. Ignoring the ten distractor sentences, forty sentences were scored for each participant first in total, and then according to referentiality. For each participant, his/her total score in the whole test, and score in the same-referential and different-referential sentence groups were calculated and entered separately into SPSS. In other words, the number of correct and incorrect uses of pronouns in total, in referential and non-referential contexts were counted. Firstly, a one way ANOVA was used to compare the three language groups according to their means. Then, a two way ANOVA was used to reveal

whether language type has an effect on the scores of the participants in the same-referential and different-referential item types. The results of the statistics were presented in Chapter 4.

Conclusion

This chapter presented information about the setting and the participants of the study, instruments for data collection, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques. In the following chapter, the findings of the study will be presented.

CHAPTER IV: DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The aim of this study was basically to investigate reverse interlanguage transfer from L3 to L2. Native speakers of Turkish whose L2 is English and L3 is either Italian or French were employed to collect data. The study aimed to analyze the use of subject pronouns in L2 English in order to investigate the possible influence of L3 Italian and L3 French. The other focal points of this study were to determine whether the accuracy of subject pronoun use varies according to continuity of reference as well as identifying what types of errors participants commit in the use of subject pronouns in L2 English.

The following research questions were investigated in the study:

1. Is there an L3 French or L3 Italian influence on the participants' use of L2 English subject pronouns?
 - 1.1. How do two experimental groups (the groups with L3 Italian and L3 French) differ from the control group (the group with L2 English and no L3) and from each other in terms of subject pronoun use in English?
 - 1.2. Does the accuracy of subject pronoun use in each group vary according to referential and non-referential subject pronouns?

The research was conducted at the School of Foreign Languages (English Preparatory Classes), the French Language and Literature Department, and the Italian Language and Literature Department in Ankara University, Ankara, Turkey. The participants were selected according to the results of the proficiency test. In total, 60 participants out of 91 from three groups who met the conditions, namely, having intermediate level L2 English and advanced level L3 Italian or French, took the

Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT) (see Appendix 1). As a result, 20 participants in each group took the GJT. While all the participants had intermediate level L2 English, only the participants in the experimental groups had advanced level L3 French or Italian as well. The participants were given 40 minutes for the GJT that included 50 questions. The data collected through the GJT were analyzed by quantitative procedures using SPSS.

Data Analysis Procedures

The grammatical and ungrammatical sentences and the same-referential and different-referential sentences in the GJT were identified before the test was administered. For instance, “Although studied for a week for the biology exam, Jane couldn’t pass it.” is the fourth question of the GJT. The participants were expected to decide whether this sentence is grammatical or not and correct the sentence if it is ungrammatical. According to the answer key, this sentence is an ungrammatical sentence since it lacks a subject pronoun. Additionally, the missing subject pronoun is referential with the pronoun of the main clause. After identifying all the sentences in the test according to grammaticality and referentiality, participants’ papers were scored. As the following step, the data were entered into SPSS. The participants’ total scores out of 40 questions, their scores in the same-referential sentences out of 20 questions, and scores in different-referential sentences out of 20 questions were entered separately for each language group, French, English and Italian. In order to answer the research questions 1.1 and 1.2, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed. For the research question 1.1, the three language groups’ means were compared by means of a one-way ANOVA test to investigate whether there was a statistically significant difference between the two experimental groups and between the control group and the experimental groups. For the research question 1.2, a two-

way ANOVA was used to reveal the interaction, if any, between the language groups and item formats (same-referential and different-referential).

Results

Accurate Use of L2 English Subject Pronouns in the GJT

This section presents detailed information about the results of the research question 1.1. which is about the difference among the three groups according to the results of the GJT (see Table 2).

Table 2

Variation of participants' total scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	227.033	2	113.517	4.337	.018*
Within Groups	1491.900	57	26.174		
Total	1718.933	59			

Note. df= degree of freedom; F=found variation of the group averages; Sig=significance; *p< .05

A one-way ANOVA test was run to identify the differences among the control (English) and experimental (French and Italian) language groups in terms of subject pronoun use in L2 English. As shown in Table 2, there is a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level among the groups in terms of L2 English subject pronoun use ($F(2, 57) = 4.337, p = .018$). In other words, participants' L3s have an effect on the accuracy of their L2 English subject pronoun use. On the other hand, the difference is not significant for both of the experimental groups. According to the descriptive statistics, the means of the total scores of French, English, and Italian language groups are 27.95, 29.00, and 24.45 respectively. Table 3 gives

information about the multiple comparisons of the groups' and demonstrates the difference between the means of the groups and statistically significant results.

Table 3

Multiple comparisons of the three Groups' total scores

(I) Lang	(J) Lang	Mean (I)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
French	English	27.95	-1.05	1.61	.794
	Italian		3.50	1.61	.086
English	French	29.00	1.05	1.61	.794
	Italian		4.55*	1.61	.018*
Italian	French	24.45	-3.50	1.61	.086
	English		-4.55*	1.61	.018*

Note. Lang= language group; * $p < .05$

Table 2 indicates that the English language group scored highest, $\bar{x} = 29.00$ while the Italian language group scored lowest, $\bar{x} = 24.45$. The results of a Tukey HSD post-hoc analysis shows that the difference in the means of language groups is statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level only in the comparison of the English language and Italian language group. However, the mean difference between the English language group and the French language group is not statistically significant. Apart from the comparison of the experimental groups to the control group, the two experimental groups were also compared to each other and the results show that the mean difference between the two experimental groups is not significant, either. Consequently, the overall results show that the Italian language group which is one of the experimental groups, scored lower than both the other experimental group (French) and the control group (English). This suggests that there is an L3 Italian influence on the participants' use of L2 English subject pronouns. This is an

expected result considering that English and French are non-pro drop languages and Italian is not.

Referentiality

In order to answer research question 1.2, the three groups' scores in the L2 English context of referential and non-referential pronouns were compared in terms of language type (see Table 4).

Table 4

Variation of participants' scores according to language and item type

Dependent Variable: Scores						
Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Language	111.95	2	55.97	6.76	.002*	.106
ItemType	30.00	1	30.00	3.62	.059	.031
Language * ItemType	18.35	2	9.17	1.10	.334	.019
Error	943.40	114	8.27			
Total	23136.00	120				
Corrected Total	1103.70	119				

a. R Squared = .145 (Adjusted R Squared = .108)

Note. ItemType= sentences with referential or non-referential subject pronouns; * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4, a two-way ANOVA test was run to reveal whether language type has an effect on the scores of the participants in referential and non-referential item types. As Table 4 reveals language type (French, English, or Italian) has a statistically significant effect at the $p < .01$ level on the participants' scores in terms of the use of same referential and different-referential item types. This means

that participants in certain language groups score better compared to others ($F(2, 114) = 6.764, p = .002, \eta^2 = .106$).

On the other hand, item type does not have statistically significant effect on the participants' scores in different language groups although it should be noted that the level is $p < .059$, or nearing significance. In other words, the use of same-referential or different-referential pronoun contexts cannot be said to influence the participants' scores in terms of accurate use of subject pronouns in L2 English.

Lastly, the table shows whether there is an interaction between the language types and item types and whether this interaction has an influence on the participants' scores. The result reveals that the interaction between the language types and item types does not have a statistically significant influence on the scores. Although language type itself has a significant effect and item type has an effect close to being significant, their interaction does not show significant influence on the participants' scores. Thus, the eta squared statistic ($\eta^2 = .019$) of the interaction effect between language type and item type shows a small effect size while the language type having the main effect ($\eta^2 = .106$), which is statistically significant tells more about the difference between groups' scores. The interaction between language groups and item types is presented in Figure 3, as well.

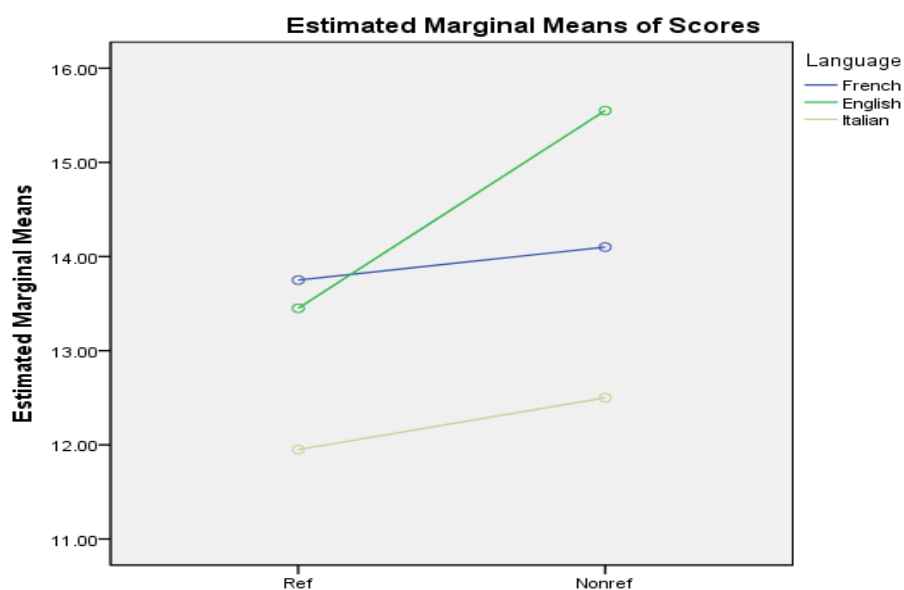


Figure 3. Language and Item Types

As Figure 3 also indicates, all groups performed better in non-referential pronoun context, however, the difference of means between same-referential and different-referential item sets in each language group is not statistically significant. On the other hand, languages appear to have the main effect on the participants' scores in term of item types (see Figure 4).

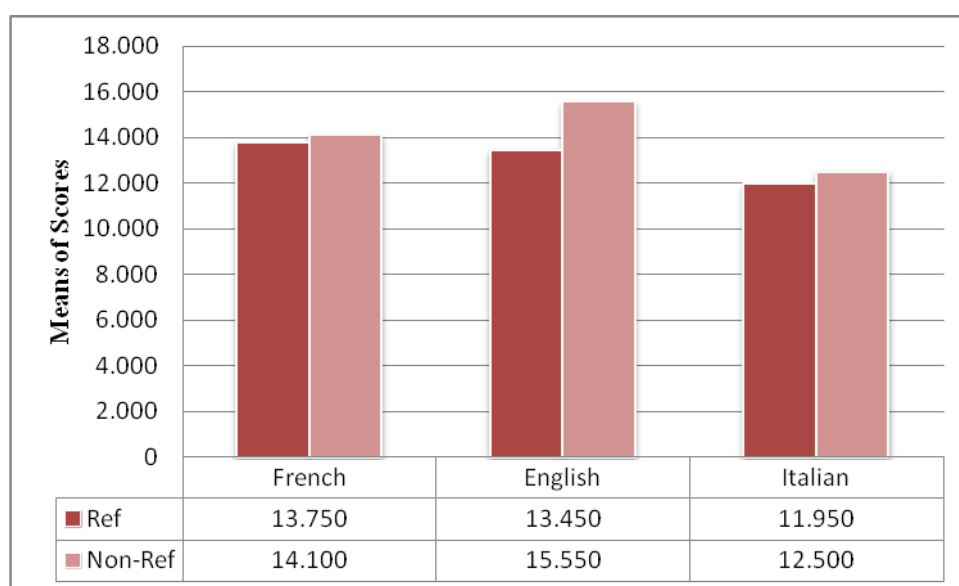


Figure 4. Variance of Scores According to Referentiality

As can be seen from Figure 4, the accuracy of subject pronoun use in referential subject pronoun contexts varies with respect to language groups. The participants in the French language group performed better than both the English group and the Italian group in the referential subject pronoun context. The participants in the English language group, however, performed the best of all three groups overall. On the other hand, the Italian language group scored the lowest of all in both referential and non-referential subject pronoun contexts.

Lastly, Table 5 below presents the results of language comparisons in terms of their means in referential and non-referential subject pronoun contexts

Table 5
Multiple comparisons of the language groups' scores in terms of item type

(I) Language	(J) Language	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
French	English	-.5750	.64325	.645
	Italian	1.7000*	.64325	.025*
English	French	.5750	.64325	.645
	Italian	2.2750*	.64325	.002*
Italian	French	-1.7000*	.64325	.025*
	English	-2.2750*	.64325	.002*

* $p < .05$

There is a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level between the English language group and the French language group when their mean scores of referential and non-referential subject pronoun contexts are compared. Moreover, the difference between the English language group and the Italian language group is statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level.

Consequently, the results show that the mean score difference within each language group is not statistically significant in terms of referentiality although it is

apparent that there is a statistically significant difference between the groups both at the level of $p < .01$ and $p < .05$. Additionally, there is not an interaction effect between language type and item type.

Last but not least, there is another unexpected result when the participants' performances in the GJT are analyzed. A number of participants from all the three groups committed a similar mistake, which is about the use of *that*. In other words, if the target sentences in the GJT did not include *that* between the main and embedded clauses, some of the participants tended to mark those sentences as ungrammatical and insert *that* to correct the sentence. Moreover, if the target sentence lacked a subject pronoun in the embedded clause, they sometimes preferred to add *that* instead of inserting the missing subject pronoun. Since the use of *that* is optional in the target contexts, it is an unexpected result to see the instances where some of the participants from all the three groups focused on the use of *that*, even as they ignored the use of subject pronouns.

Conclusion

In this section, the data of the three groups obtained from the GJT were analyzed through SPSS and presented under two subsections in line with the research questions. In the first subsection, overall scores of the three groups were compared and findings of transfer effects from L3 Italian to L2 English language pronoun use were presented. In the second subsection, the results related to referentiality context were presented. Lastly, an unexpected result was also reported.

In the next chapter, an overview of the study, the discussion of findings, pedagogical implications, limitations of the study, implications for further research, and conclusion will be presented.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION

Introduction

This study was intended to investigate the use of subject pronouns by three different groups of L2 English language users. In other words, it examined whether the accuracy of L2 English subject pronoun use varied under the effect of the participants' L3 Italian and L3 French. Additionally, the scores were examined and compared within and between the groups in order to investigate whether the accuracy of subject pronoun use varies according to continuity of reference. Thus, the study was conducted to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there an L3 French or L3 Italian influence on the participants' use of L2 English subject pronouns?
 - 1.1. How do two experimental groups (the groups with L3 Italian and L3 French) differ from the control group (the group with L2 English and no L3) and from each other in terms of subject pronoun use in English?
 - 1.2. Does the accuracy of subject pronoun use in each group vary according to referential and non-referential subject pronouns?

The study was conducted at Ankara University with 60 participants in total from the School of Foreign Languages (English Preparatory Classes), the French Language and Literature Department and Italian Language and Literature Department. The English language proficiency test was used to determine the participants who had the same level of English from the three groups. Based on the proficiency test results, 20 students from each group were chosen as participants and they were given the GJT. The participants' scores in total and according to referentiality in the GJT were analyzed through SPSS.

This chapter presents the results of the study by discussing the relevant literature in order to answer each research question. After discussing the results of the study, the pedagogical implications, limitations of the study and suggestions for further study will also be presented.

Findings and Discussion

The findings and discussion of the results of the present study will be presented under two sub-sections representing the two research questions.

Variation of subject pronoun use between the groups

The results of the study revealed that there is a statistically significant difference between groups in terms of L2 English subject pronoun (French $\bar{x}=27.95$, English $\bar{x}=29.00$, and Italian $\bar{x}=24.45$, $p < .05$). However, this difference is valid only for the comparison of the English and Italian language groups. Apart from this, neither the comparison of the English and French language groups nor the comparison of French and Italian groups resulted in a statistically significant difference. This was an expected result for the study considering the nature of all three languages. More specifically, the significant difference between English and Italian language groups may be attributed to the influence of L3 Italian which is a pro-drop language, on L2 English, which is a non-pro-drop language. Participants in the L3 Italian language group have an advanced level of L3 Italian and their tendency to omit subject pronouns in their L3 presumably influenced their use of subject pronouns in L2 English. In other words, participants showed instances where they accepted ungrammatical English sentences that lacked subject pronouns as grammatical, arguably because of the L3 Italian effect. As expected, the L3 French language group, which is the other experimental group, did not accept ungrammatical

English sentences that lacked subject pronouns as grammatical, presumably because French and English are both non-pro drop languages. Thus, there was nothing to transfer from L3 to L2 in terms of subject pronoun use for the participants in the L3 French language group. As a result, these two groups scored quite similar to each other in contrast to the results of the Italian language group. These results verified Pavlenko (2000) who claims that L3 influence is most visible in participants who are not only linguistically but also culturally affiliated with target language. Although French group is also linguistically and culturally affiliated with their L3, this influence is not visible in that group since French subject pronoun use is the same with English subject pronoun use.

As indicated in the literature, the only study on reverse interlanguage transfer from L3 to L2, Bronson (2010) revealed the influence of the L3 on the L2. Bronson's (2010) study also indicated that if a specific feature of the L2 and L3 is not common for both languages, the L2 may be changed to reflect patterns in the L3, which is a valid interpretation for the present study as well. Similarly, the results of the present study are similar to De Angelis' (2005) study which showed the effects of pro-drop L2 Spanish and non-pro drop L2 French on pro-drop L3 Italian subject pronoun use. Participants in the first group inserted subject pronouns in their Italian summaries at a high rate because of L1 English and L2 French effect. Although her study was on forward transfer, its findings are in line with those of the present study. Lastly, Sağın-Şimşek's (2010) research is important to interpret the results of the present study. In Sağın-Şimşek's (2010) study, German-Turkish bilinguals tend to transfer specific linguistic features to the target language Turkish. The study showed that German-Turkish bilinguals tend to use more overt subjects in their Turkish because of non-pro drop German effect. The situation is adversely similar in the present study.

The participants were more in contact with L3 Italian compared to L2 English and therefore they were inclined to omit subject pronouns in L2 English because of the dominance of the Italian language.

Variation of subject pronoun use according to referentiality context

As stated above, a statistically significant difference was found between the overall GJT scores of the English language group and those of the Italian language group, resulting from the transfer of L3 Italian subject pronoun omission. In addition to this, the three groups' scores were compared in terms of item types (sentences requiring either the same and different-referential subject pronouns) and their interaction with language types. The results indicated that language type itself has a significant effect and item type has an effect close to being significant; however, the interaction between the language types and item types does not have a statistically significant influence on the scores. Lastly, all groups scored better in the different-referential pronoun context.

The participants' in all three groups scoring higher in different-referential subject pronoun context means that either they did not accept sentences without subject pronouns as grammatical or they accepted sentences with overt subject pronouns as grammatical in non-referential contexts. This was an expected result as well. When the subject pronouns of a main clause and its embedded clause are referential, it may be easier for the participants to infer the missing subject pronoun and compensate for it. On the other hand, it may not be that easy to infer the missing subject when the subject pronouns of the main and embedded clauses are non-referential. Especially, in pro-drop languages, it is compulsory to avoid using overt subject pronouns in either the main or embedded clauses unless the aim is to put

extra stress on those pronouns. In other words, it is required to use null pronouns in Italian whenever possible. Considering that Italian language users tend to omit subject pronouns whenever possible since this situation can be recovered with the use of rich verbal inflection, in the present study, participants in the Italian language group were inclined to accept English sentences grammatical even if they lacked subjects. Therefore, the Italian group scored the lowest of all three groups in both referential and non-referential subject pronoun contexts.

The higher accuracy of subject pronoun use in different-referential context in the present study is also in line with the findings in Koban's (2011) study. All the participants in her study used overt pronouns significantly at a higher rate in different-referential contexts compared to the same-referential contexts. As expected, there is a statistically significant difference between the English and Italian groups and the French and Italian groups. This situation also shows the effect of L3 Italian on L2 English subject pronoun use since their nature is not similar especially in the same-referential context as well. For instance, since the Italian learners do not use overt subject pronouns especially in the embedded clauses, they tend to continue doing this in English as well, which leads to ungrammatical English sentences.

Last but not least, in the present study, there is a common instance of using *that* which functions as a linker between the main clause and the embedded one. There was a general tendency to insert *that* between the main and embedded clauses. More interestingly, the participants sometimes did not even insert the lacking subject pronoun but only added *that* into the sentence. However, this situation was not favored by only one of the language groups. Instead, it was possible to see similar instances in all the three groups. Similar to the use of *that* in English, Italian requires *che* and French requires *que* in the same position. Additionally, all the three are

optional to use. However, the participants marked the sentences without *that* as ungrammatical although they are grammatical and it is not compulsory to use *that*. Since this linguistic feature, the use of *that*, *che*, and *que*, is common and optional in all the three languages, it is not possible to attribute this finding to negative transfer.

The reason behind the excessive and erroneous use of *that* in the GJTs in the present study may stem from the way these L2 English learners were taught. If this was just a simple habit, the participants in the study would not mark the grammatical sentences that do not include *that* as ungrammatical and would instead try to correct them by inserting *that*. It seems that the participants attribute a more important meaning to the use of *that* than it actually has. The reason behind that may be their EFL teachers themselves, who may be misleading the learners by excessively using *that* when they were teaching clause types and reported speech in English. Therefore, when the learners make such type of sentences they may feel that there is something missing in the sentence if they do not insert *that* all the time.

Overall, it can be inferred from the results that the languages of multilinguals may influence each other. Especially if the source language is linguistically, culturally or sociolinguistically an active language in the learners' mind, it may be more influential on the learners' other language(s).

Pedagogical Implications

The influence of both negative and positive language transfer cannot be ignored in the process of foreign language learning and especially in an EFL context. Although it may be inevitable to prevent negative transfer completely, its effects may be controlled by EFL teachers. First of all, the awareness of L2 English learners about a specific linguistic feature may have already decreased or been lost totally

because of the interaction of the various other languages in the learner's mind, which is quite a natural process. Therefore, EFL teachers should be more careful and aware of the learners' possible language transfer errors. Thus, the teachers may develop an insightful manner to detect, criticize and correct the language productions of the learners. In other words, teachers firstly need to perceive especially negative language transfer as a natural process and take into consideration the interconnection of languages in the learners' minds.

Another implication resulting from the findings may be that the EFL teachers and also L3 language teachers can put emphasis on the similarities and differences between the languages their learners try to learn. Thus, the teachers may help their learners facilitate the learning of multiple languages. Especially when the learners' linguistic awareness is low because of the interaction of languages in the mind, the teachers may help the learners by focusing on both common points and differences among the languages so that the learners can be competent in each language.

As stated before, committing errors in target language or a previously learnt language is natural for the learners. In other words, it is obvious that language transfer is a natural process for language learners especially when they are at the lower levels of the target language. Therefore, teachers need to be careful about the timing of *error detection* and *error correction*. It is important when to intervene in the learners' errors. While the first stages of learning a new language may be demotivating for the learners, later stages may bring the danger of fossilization. In order to prevent the learners from ending up with erroneous forms in the target language, teachers should be careful and on the alert to help the learners improve their interlanguage.

Limitations

There are several limitations to the present study that may have influenced the results. To begin with, the study was conducted with only 60 students, 20 students in each language group, because of limited permission given by the host university to conduct the study. The sample size is small and, therefore, it is not entirely reliable to make generalizations about the use of L2 English subject pronouns by L2 English and L3 Italian and French group.

Additionally, although English language proficiency test was administered to all the participants to ensure that all have the same level of English, Italian and French proficiency tests could not be administered to the two experimental groups because of time and permission limitations. Taking into account that the participants studied preparatory Italian/French classes and they were currently in their 3rd and 4th years of their programs, their L3 Italian and French levels were assumed to be advanced by their departments as well.

Lastly, the only data collection method used was the GJT in which the participants are expected to decide on whether the sentences are grammatical or not. In other words, the test used in this study only required subject pronoun knowledge at the recognition level and also production level to a very limited extent. However, there was not any actual productive task in the study in which the participants were expected to write or talk about a specific topic. Therefore, the results of the GJT could demonstrate only one facet of the transfer issue since written and spoken data were not collected. Those type of data could have provided results different from or supporting the present findings. Therefore, it is difficult to generalize the findings of the study.

Suggestions for Further Research

In future research, the number of participants should be increased to generalize the results with confidence. In addition, other types of instruments may be used to obtain written and/or spoken data as well considering that GJT provided only limited data. Think-aloud method and stimulated recall may also be used as other techniques that can provide further insights into L2 subject pronoun use. For instance, participants may be asked to write a summary of or essay on a specific topic to obtain written data. Also, participants may be interviewed for a couple of minutes or their conversations in a natural environment can be recorded in order to get spoken data. Spoken and written data may reveal different results than the GJT provided.

Additionally, the levels of the groups may be changed to see if the degree of transfer will change. In this study, the participants in all the three groups had intermediate level English. However, the results may change if the L2 level of the participants is elementary while L3 level is still advanced. Lastly, the order of languages may be changed in future study. Instead of the arrangement in the present study, participants with a pro-drop language as an L2 and non-pro-drop language as an L3 may be used. Thus, the effect of L3 overt pronouns on the L2 null subject pronouns may be analyzed.

Conclusion

This study investigated the issue of reverse interlanguage transfer from L3 to L2. There were three groups: one control L2 English group and two experimental groups of L3 Italian and L3 French speakers. The results of the study revealed that there is an influence of L3 Italian on the learners' use of L2 English subject pronoun use, namely, reverse interlanguage transfer occurs from L3 Italian to L2 English. The

other focal point of this study was to determine whether the accuracy of subject pronoun use varies according to continuity of reference. Although the difference within each group is not statistically significant, the results showed that English-Italian and French-Italian groups differed from each other significantly since Italian group scored the lowest both in the same-referential and different-referential contexts.

The results of the study are in line with the literature in general. Although there is not a specific empirical study that has the same focus with the present study, similar research studies (Bronson, 2011; De Angelis, 2005; Koban, 2011; Sağın-Şimşek, 2010) supported the findings of the present study. Obviously, there were several limitations to the study; however, it provided especially the EFL teacher with some pedagogical implications. Firstly, the EFL teachers should be careful about the sources of learner errors in L2 English. If they detect that those errors result from negative language transfer, they may try to teach by focusing on the similarities and differences between the target and source languages. Lastly, the teachers should prevent the fossilization by helping the learners increase their metalinguistic awareness. As a result, if the teachers can make use of this study, they can understand the sources of learner errors and arrange their teaching accordingly.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Grammaticality Judgment Test

-Aşağıda 50 cümleden oluşan bir test bulunmaktadır. Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyunuz.

-Cümleyi okuduktan sonra, gramer açısından doğru buluyorsanız 'Grammatical', gramer açısından bir hata olup olmadığından emin değilseniz 'Not Sure', gramer açısından bir hata bulduysanız 'Ungrammatical' seçeneğini yuvarlak içine alınız.

-Eğer bir cümle için 'Grammatical' ya da 'Not Sure' seçeneğini işaretlediyseniz, başka bir şey yapmadan bir sonraki soruya geçebilirsiniz.

-Eğer bir cümle için 'Ungrammatical' seçeneğini işaretlediyseniz, mutlaka bu cümleyi düzelterek alttaki boşluğa sizce doğru halini yazınız. Daha sonra, bir sonraki soruya geçebilirsiniz.

-Bazı sorular birden fazla cümle içermektedir. Bu durumda, tüm soruyu okuduktan sonra sadece koyu renkli yazılmış olan cümleyi gramer açısından değerlendiriniz.

Altaki örneği inceledikten sonra teste başlayabilirsiniz.

Örnek Soru: **1. Brenda: Do you know that girl?**

Tina: Yes. **She is the girl which buys expensive clothes.**

Grammatical

Not Sure

Ungrammatical

(Düzeltilmiş hali) She is the girl who buys expensive clothes.

TEST

1. Mrs. Jones bought a new car although she doesn't know how to drive!

Grammatical

Not Sure

Ungrammatical

2. You can call me when finish your homework. We may go out to have a cup of coffee.

Grammatical

Not Sure

Ungrammatical

3. **All students need more money because they have a lot of books and materials to buy.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

4. **Although studied for a week for the biology exam, she couldn't pass it.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

5. Today, there is my favorite series on TV. **I look forward to watch it.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

6. My wife is pregnant. **We expected the baby to come two days ago.** However, she still hasn't given birth.

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

7. Jen: Did you come to my party?

Johnny: No, did not come to your party because I wasn't invited!

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

8. **She was shopping when phoned her.** This is why I didn't speak to her very much.

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

9. I have failed in my music course. **The teacher says do not have any talent for music.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

10. **The rain hasn't stopped for two days and feel very depressed because of it.**

Grammatical

Not Sure

Ungrammatical

11. **When I came home, was having a shower.** So, I waited for her.

Grammatical

Not Sure

Ungrammatical

12. **Yesterday, I waited at the bus stop for 45 minutes!** Why didn't you come?

Grammatical

Not Sure

Ungrammatical

13. **He gave me a birthday present but don't like it.**

Grammatical

Not Sure

Ungrammatical

14. **Sally won't be able to walk any more even if she has a series of operations.**

Grammatical

Not Sure

Ungrammatical

15. I wanted to go to World Championship two years ago. **I couldn't go there because I couldn't get visa.**

Grammatical

Not Sure

Ungrammatical

16. **My sister expects to earn a high salary but she has been working for only three months.** It's too early!

Grammatical

Not Sure

Ungrammatical

17. **I was still eating my breakfast when you arrived.** Why did you come too early?

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

18. **You may not know this, but I am a lazy student.** I repeated the class twice!

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

19. **The small turtle was walking slow.** Suddenly, a man drove over the animal.

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

20. Zelda: Sir, is there a way to get a free concert ticket?

The officer: OK, I won't take any money from you though normally you would have to pay.

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

21. My friend bought an opera ticket for me. **I don't like opera but he wanted to surprise me.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

22. **Everybody are ready to run!** The marathon will start in a minute.

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

23. **The president of the Philippines has announced wouldn't stand for the election once more.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

24. **Sam and Melissa claim don't love each other.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

25. **The boy thinks is the best player on the team.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

26. Tom: Did Brian see us yesterday?

Tim: **Yes, I guess saw us!**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

27. I do not like going out with Jane. **I think is a boring girl.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

28. Last night Vanessa and her boyfriend went out for dinner. **She thought would pay for her as well but he only paid for his own dinner!**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

29. **Sarah and William got divorced two years ago and they married again this year.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

30. **Beth says is very busy nowadays so don't disturb her!**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

31. **I believe I won't be able to finish the school because this is already my eighth year!**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

32. Adam: **Professor, all the girls in the world believe they are more intelligent than men.** Is it true?

Professor: Yes or no.. In fact, I don't know.

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

33. This young couple has just married. **We do not think love each other because they have arguments every night.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

34. **My parents said they have to move to Italy because of my father's new job.**

However, I decided to stay in Turkey.

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

35. Tom: Did Brian see us yesterday?

Tim: Yes, he did. **While he was closing the door, saw us.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

36. Edward always tells lies. **However, his wife doesn't know he is a liar.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

37. Alice met her best friends at university. **At first, she thought they were arrogant.** Later, she loved them.

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

38. Kim wants to take Spanish lessons from you. **She says you are a good teacher.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

39. **We think you will be a great artist one day.** You have great poems and stories!

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

40. **This is my favorite restaurant where you can eat delicious food.** Shall we eat something?

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

41. April: **My boyfriend claims he wants to marry me.**

Ann: Really! Do you believe him?

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

42. I watched the children from the window. **They crossed the road carefully.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

43. **She knows I am rich and beautiful.** Therefore, she is jealous of me!

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

44. My plane is at 18.45. I hope I can catch it. **I shouldn't be late.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

45. **If I had 100 dollars, I will buy a new pair of boots.** What a pity, I don't have any money.

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

46. **Ali said was going to go to the States to attend university.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

47. **Even if work hard, my classmates will never beat me at science courses.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

48. **Have heard that Mr. Adams bought a flat in our building.**

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

49. **She has to renews her passport since it has expired.** Otherwise, she can't go abroad.

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

50. **I need to take a week off as soon as she lets me.** I feel really tired.

Grammatical Not Sure Ungrammatical

Test Bitmiştir. Katılımınız için Teşekkürler.