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**Cross-linguistic influence in L3 in Central Mexico:  
A qualitative approach.**

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for the degree of  
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by

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**Cross-linguistic influence in L3 in Central Mexico: A qualitative approach.**

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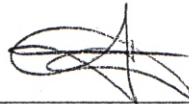
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## **Abstract**

Third language acquisition is considered a new trend in language research. As such, it has been developing several theories related to cross-linguistic influence throughout the last decades. This research project intends to explore and describe the cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition. The study focuses on the L3 acquisition of lexical collocations in writing productions of two adult Romanian speakers of Spanish. The language constellation from both of the participants is as follows: Romanian as native language (L1), English as second language (L2), and Spanish as third language (L3). The participants have been living in Mexico during the last 10 to 15 years. This research project intends to contribute to our knowledge of L3 acquisition and production by developing a better understanding of a broad variety of internal and external factors that can influence (positively or negatively) the language acquisition process. Furthermore, the study explores the typological proximity and psychotypology of languages based on a linguistic contrastive analysis according to semantical and syntactical properties in lexical collocations.

*Keywords:* third language acquisition, cross-linguistic influence, lexical collocations

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## **Dedications**

This thesis is dedicated to my relatives and friends who accompanied me through this journey, to my father and his loving memory, to my brother, Gerardo, who helped me analyze the data, and has always supported me, and to my mother, Maria de Jesus, for her master's degree example and encouragement.

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# Chapter I: Introduction

## 1.1 Introduction to the problem

In the year 2007, my husband and I had decided to move to Bucharest, Romania looking for better job opportunities. We had lived there one year and a half, and it was very difficult because I had to adjust to my husband's family; cultural differences can be so difficult to deal with (Ward, Bochner & Furnham, 1986). The language was another issue.

At the beginning, I used to speak English all the time, but sometimes, I had to speak Spanish to communicate because the Romanian language comes from Latin roots.

However, Romanian is also influenced by Turkish, Hungarian, Bulgarian and Russian languages and I did not understand sometimes. Of course, I had to learn the Romanian language and I have to say that my daughter made me do it. One day she asked me something she did not understand on the T.V. , and when I answered that I did not know the meaning she told me "*ay mama, tu nunca sabes*" (oh mom, you know nothing). I felt so bad because she was my translator on the street, on the buses and in the market.

Having experienced L3 acquisition (Romanian) led me to develop an interest in this topic because it is said that L1 does not influence L3 acquisition in any manner; moreover, L1 transfer in L3 sometimes is not considered in multilingualism. Nevertheless, I have experienced this precise situation. My L1 (Spanish) is related to my L3 (Romanian) because they both have a romance origin. Can this relation influence language acquisition in a manner that L2 (English) does not influence at all? It is known that the English language comes from Germanic roots; hence, is it possible to say that a cross-linguistic influence is directly related to the roots of the language(s) acquired? Weinreich (1953) describes a "*typological closeness of languages*" referring to language similarities. This



would indicate that cross-linguistic influence may be determined more strongly by language origin than the chronological order in which languages are acquired. All those questions have led me to explore the cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition, to try to describe it, and understand it more in depth.

Starting with its definition, cross-linguistic influence refers to a positive or a negative impact that a certain language can have over another language being acquired and/or used (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). Moreover, if this impact is positive, it helps language acquisition; in contrast, if this impact is negative, it obstructs language acquisition.

There are areas of research that investigate this phenomenon. Applied linguistics is an area of linguistics that focuses on language problems within a society; multilingualism is another area of linguistics that studies the condition in which a person or a community can communicate in several languages (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). Both areas of research study the cross-linguistic influence (CLI) framed within a social perspective, and are discussed in further detail below.

Some of the factors that applied linguistics considers when learning a language are cognitive development which according to Richards & Schmidt (et al., 2010, p. 91) refers to “developmental changes in cognitive abilities, processes, and structures”; it also considers metalinguistic knowledge that refers to “knowledge of the forms, structure and other aspects of a language, which a learner arrives at through reflecting on and analyzing the language” (Richards & Schmidt, et al., 2010,p. 362), and communicative competence which refers to “knowledge of not only if something is possible in a language, but also whether it is feasible, appropriate, or done in a particular speech community” (Richards & Schmidt, et al., 2010, p. 99). Communicative competence considers aspects such as

grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competence. However, this research focuses only on lexical collocations in writing translations.

Multilingualism considers distinct factors involved in language learning such as multilingual competence (also known as multicompetence) which consists of the knowledge of more than one language in the same mind (Cook, 1992). Additionally, the concept of the multilingual mind is part of multilingualism, which considers any level of language ability in more than one language (Sharwood & Truscott, 2014).

Furthermore, the notion of language transfer is relevant to this study. When a student has learnt more than one language, language transfer can occur. This phenomenon represents the carrying over of learned behavior from one situation (language) to another (language) (Richards & Schmidt, et al., 2010). Language transfer is divided into two general categories: positive transfer that helps learning, and negative transfer that interferes with learning.

Speaking about language learning, it is known that second language acquisition is influenced by lexical transfer phenomenon from L1 (native language) (Ellis, 1985). In other words, many factors influence (positive or negative influence) the subjects when learning a second language. But what happens with a third language acquisition? Do L1 (native language) and L2 (second language acquired) influence L3 on the same level? (Cenoz & Jessner, 2000). The purpose of this research is to explore and describe this positive or negative cross-linguistic influence in lexical collocations in writing translations.

This research is related to previous ones in which L1 and L2 condition a cross-linguistic influence in L3 acquisition and production. This research will focus in lexical collocations in writing translations. It is important to define first the term of collocation.

A collocation is a combination of words which are put together in a regular manner (Richards & Schmidt, et al., 2010). For lexical collocations we understand a fixed combination of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs (Bahns, et al., 1993).

The aim of this research is to explore and describe the cross-linguistic influence (CLI) that can impact a third language acquisition and production. For this study, I will focus on lexical collocations in writing translations of two adult immigrants. This chapter will describe briefly the subjects of the study, its significance, the context of the research, the background of the researcher, the location, aims and objectives of the research; finally, an overview of the thesis document.

## **1.2 Significance**

The study can contribute to our knowledge of this phenomenon in several ways. The research can help to develop a better understanding of how cross-linguistic influence in lexical collocations from L1 and L2 influence L3 acquisition and production. The lexical collocations will be studied in writing translations from two adult immigrants. There are several studies about such influence from L1 and L2 to L3 acquisition; however, they focus on different language constellations; for example, English (L1), Spanish (L2), Portuguese (L3) (Lammiman, 2010), or Dutch (L1), English (L2), French (L3) (Murphy, 2003), among others. At the moment of this research project, a similar language constellation with Romanian (L1), Spanish (L2), English (L3) has been studied (Mesaros, n.d.). Moreover, this research focuses on external (related to the learner's context such as culture and cross-cultural interaction, socio-economic factors, and geopolitical situation of the host country) and internal factors individuals can experience during the process of third language acquisition.

### **1.3 Aims**

The study has two principle aims. One is to explore the cross-linguistic influence in lexical collocations from L1 (native language) and L2 (second language) that influence L3 (third language) acquisition and production. Also to determine the type of cross-linguistic influence which can represent a positive or a negative influence; it can also be inexistent. Another aim is to develop a better understanding of multilingualism and the factors along these lines which can be associated with language learning.

### **1.4 Objectives**

The objective of the present thesis is to determine the existence of cross-linguistic influence on written translations by two Romanian adults who speak Spanish as a third language, and who have an advanced proficiency level in English. Furthermore, the adults have Russian as an additional language in a basic level.

### **1.5 Research question**

This investigation sets out the following research question:

1. How does cross-linguistic influence from L1- Romanian (native language) and L2 - English (second language) influence L3 - Spanish (third language) acquisition and production in lexical collocations?

### **1.6 Chapter summary and overview of thesis document**

The main points in this chapter are to explain why cross-linguistic influence will be researched, its significance, the research aims and objectives, and sets out the research question. Chapter Two provides some basic concepts related to this research project, the literature review describing multilingualism, as well as some second and third language

acquisition theories. Chapter Three explains the research methodology (qualitative approach), the instruments used (language translation, and language acceptability), and how they are applied. Chapter Four presents the data analysis. Chapter Five presents the conclusions of the study and its findings, including the study limitations and suggestions for further research.

## **Chapter II: Literature Review**

### **2.1 Introduction**

The acquisition of a third language is influenced by many factors. First and most likely, it is the willingness of the learner to learn the foreign language; without this internal and/or psychological factor it becomes very difficult to acquire any language. Second, the social context influences language acquisition, it can facilitate language acquisition. And finally, languages themselves influence one another. When learning a second language, it is logical to think that our first or native language may influence acquisition. It is natural to try to make connections between languages. Here is where cross-linguistic influence occurs. As a consequence, when learning a third language, some aspects must be considered, such as the role of the previous languages, and which one influences more the acquisition of a third language. Here is where typology of the language plays an important role and determines the range of influence. Similar language typologies may influence, positively, negatively or remain neutral, a wider variety of linguistic items. As such, L1 and/or L2 may influence L3 acquisition when they share a common typology.

This research focuses on cross-linguistic influence in lexical collocations in writing translations. This chapter provides the basic concepts related to this research project and language acquisition, a discussion of external and internal factors that may influence a third language acquisition, and theoretical models of second and third language acquisition.

## **2.2 Basic concepts**

It is important to define some basic concepts related to this research project. This section explains concepts for lexical semantics, lexicology, lexicography, phraseology, vocabulary acquisition, collocations and lexical collocations, cross-linguistic influence, interlanguage transfer, interlingual and intralingual errors.

### **2.2.1 Lexical semantics**

It is “the subfield of semantics concerned with the meaning of words” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 338). According to Cruse (1997, p 1), lexical semantics refers to “information about a word’s meaning from its relations with actual and potential linguistic contexts”; endorsing Cruse, it is important to consider context when meaning is studied. A different perspective of lexical semantics is given by Jackson (2013, p. 247), who defines it as the study of “meaning in relation to words, including both the meaning relations that words contract with each other and the meaning relations that words have with extra-linguistic reality”. It is possible to conclude that ‘extra-linguistic reality’ can be inferred as context; furthermore, Jackson considers lexical semantics as a subdivision of lexicology. After revising the previous set of definitions, it is possible to determine the relation that share in regards to the study of meanings, and the distinctive consideration of context that Jackson (2013) and Cruse (1997) share.

### **2.2.2 Lexicology**

The term lexicology comes from Greek *lexico* which means ‘word’ and *logos* which means ‘learning’ (Studentguide, 2009). As such, lexicology refers to the study of lexemes (words) that construct a language; this study analyzes their meanings, changes and relations

(Richards & Schmidt, 2010). Jackson (2013, p. 242) defines lexicology as the investigation of “the birth (and death) of words”; in other words, lexicology refers to the analysis on how words change through time, and how words are no longer in use. It is important to mention the similar perspective in regards to time; that is, words change, words have duration which is directly related to usage.

### **2.2.3 Lexicography**

Lexicography refers to “the art of dictionary making” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p.338). As a result, lexicography depends on lexicology for the elaboration of dictionaries for learners of a language. Another definition is given by Jackson (2013, p.247) who describes lexicography as “the principles that underlie the process of compiling and editing a dictionary”; Jackson’s perspective takes into consideration principles which refer to “the description of the vocabulary as a whole, and the description of lexemes individually”.

### **2.2.4 Phraseology**

Phraseology refers to “the way in which words and phrases are used in speech or writing” (The American Heritage, 2007, p. 635). Another definition is given by (Granger & Paquot, 2008, p. 32) as “the study of word combinations”; furthermore, Granger and Paquot consider non-compositionality as the general criterion to differentiate the wide diversity of word combinations. Non-compositionality defines a phenomenon in which the meaning of a phrase as a whole (combination of two or more words) contradicts the meaning of the individual elements. A different perspective is given by Altenberg ( 2002, p. 101) who defines phraseology as the study that “embraces the conventional rather than the productive or rule-governed side of language, involving various kinds of composite units and pre-



patterned expressions such as idioms, fixed phrases, and collocations”. It is noticeable that Altenberg’s perspective considers a wider range of factors, conventionalism and rule-governed language, that are related to the manner in which expressions are used in language.

### **2.2.5 Vocabulary acquisition**

Vocabulary acquisition is defined as the process of learning and developing a set of words related to one language (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). The set of words can represent single words, idioms and compound words. For words, we understand language units with its individual meaning as in table, speak and exactly; for idioms we understand a group of words with a particular meaning altogether which contrasts with the meaning of its parts individually as in not much between the ears; for compound words we understand words formed with two or more items as in many-sided, ice-breaker, housewife and biochemistry. According to Carroll (1971) the process of vocabulary acquisition starts in early years, but develops during schooling: “Although a considerable amount of vocabulary learning is associated with primary language learning in the early years, the acquisition of most of the vocabulary characteristic of an educated adult occurs during the years of schooling, and in fact one of the primary tasks of the school, as far as language learning is concerned, is to teach vocabulary.” (p. 121) Carroll’s perspective refers to vocabulary acquisition in a native language. However, it is known that first language acquisition differs from second language acquisition (Ellis, 1985), and the latter differs from third language acquisition (Sagin-Simsek, 2006). That is, the process of vocabulary acquisition in second language acquisition is directly related to vocabulary knowledge in the native language (L1-first

language). As a consequence, the process of vocabulary acquisition in third language acquisition is directly related to previous knowledge in both native and second languages.

### **2.2.5.1 Collocations**

The word collocation comes from Latin *collocatio* (n) which comes from *collocare* that means “place together” (Oxford Dictionaries, 2015). In Linguistics, collocation represents “the way in which words are used together regularly” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, 95). In other words, collocations refer to certain word combinations that can be placed together. Another definition of collocation is provided by Cruse (1997, et al., p. 40) as “sequences of lexical items which habitually co-occur, but which are nonetheless fully transparent in the sense that each lexical constituent is also a semantic constituent”; Cruse provides a wider definition because it considers co-occurrence and also individual meaning of the combinatory items; it also considers aspects such as “semantic cohesion” in the sense of the way that lexical items are “mutually selective”. A different perspective is provided when referring to collocations; according to Granger & Paquot (2008, p 33) collocations are “arbitrarily restricted combinations of lexical words”. Thornbury (2002) describes collocations as word combinations which subsist in a continuum with different levels of force. Sinclair (1991, p 170; 2000, p. 200) defines collocations as “the co-occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text”. Lewis (2008, p.12) cites collocations as “the readily observable phenomenon whereby certain words co-occur in natural text with greater than random frequency”. Endorsing Lewis, this research project will consider the term collocations as the combination of words which co-occur frequently.

Furthermore, besides the variety of definitions that can be found for defining collocations, it is also possible to find different perspectives in their classification. One perspective considers that English collocations can be divided into two categories: grammatical collocations and lexical collocations (Benson, 1986; Granger & Paquot, 2008).

Grammatical collocation is a type of combination in which an adjective or verb must combine with a particular preposition or a noun with a particular form of the verb (Englishclub, 2015), that is:

verb + preposition as in depend on,

adjective + preposition as in afraid of,

noun + particular form of verb as in strength to lift it.

Another definition of grammatical collocation (also known as colligation) is “linear co-occurrence preferences and restrictions holding between specific lexical items and the word-class of the items at precede or follow them” (Stefanowitsch & Gries, 2003, p. 210; Granger & Paquot, 2008). It is noticeable that co-occurrence and restrictions denote the characteristics of a grammatical collocation; also, it is important to keep in mind the surrounding context. Sinclair (2000, et al., p. 200) defines colligation as “the co-occurrence of words with grammatical choices”. It can be inferred that grammatical choices refer to prepositional structures; as such, this characteristic points out the difference between grammatical collocations and lexical collocations.

On the other hand, a lexical collocation is a type of combination in which a verb, adjective, noun or adverb combine in an expected manner (Englishclub, 2015), that is:

adverb + adjective as in richly decorated and fully aware,

adjective + noun as in regular exercise and maiden voyage,

noun + verb as in lion roars and dog barks,

verb + noun as in do homework and make money

According to Benson (1986; Granger & Paquot, 2008) lexical collocations are formed by two lexical words. In other words, it refers to adjectives, nouns, verbs and adverbs which combine to create a lexical collocation. This research project attaches to this perspective of collocations.

A different perspective is provided by Moon (1998) which consists on identifying collocation as “simple co-occurrence of items, and anomalous collocation to designate a class of fixed expressions, with subtypes ill-formed collocation, cranberry collocation, defective collocation, and phraseological collocation” (p.27). In other words, anomalous collocations refer to “aberrant” collocations in terms of their lexical elements and grammatical structure; ill-formed collocation refers to ungrammatical combinations such as thank you, at all and of course; cranberry collocation refers to rare combinations such as in retrospect and on behalf of someone or something; defective collocation refers to combinations in which one of its items has an atypical meaning such as a foregone conclusion, in effect and in time; phraseological collocation refers to combinations with a very peculiar criterion of use and meaning such as in action, into action and out of action.

Other perspective given by Aisenstadt (1979, 1981) refers to restricted collocations; this type of collocations demand specific characteristics in one of its items, i.e., rancid

collocates with butter and fat, or an item bears a peculiar meaning when it collocates with peculiar items, i.e., face collocates with the truth and problem (Moon, 1998).

Moreover, if we refer to a different perspective as predictability, collocations can combine in a different scale (Englishclub, 2015); that is, the combinations can have a strong collocation if the correspondent degree of predictability is very high (few combinations as in auspicious that collocates with occasion, moment and event) or a weak collocation if the correspondent degree of predictability is very low (many combinations as in circuit that collocates after short, integrated, racing, lecture, electronic, and before boar, breaker, training and judge).

#### **2.2.5.2 Cross-linguistic influence**

Cross-linguistic influence refers to the effect that native language has on second language acquisition (Ortega, 2009). Even though this definition relates to second language acquisition, it is possible to apply it in third language acquisition as well. The study of cross-linguistic influence in language acquisition may focus on error analysis (Ortega, 2009); such analysis is based on the comparison of linguistic items between L1 and L2, or L1, L2, and L3. As such, the comparison can provide evidence of a positive, or a negative influence in the language being acquired. When this influence is positive, it is said that enhances language acquisition (Richards & Schmidt, 2010); on the contrary, when such influence is negative, it is said that interferes language learning, and it is usually known as transfer or interlanguage transfer. This research project uses the term cross-linguistic influence to refer to positive and negative influences in language production.

The concept of interlanguage was first introduced by Selinker (1972) to indicate a stage of transition during the development of second language learning. This concept has evolved until what it is now known as interlanguage transfer which refers to a mixture of words from different languages. According to Gabrys-Barker (2012), it refers to earlier language knowledge that influences the current language learning process. Gabrys-Barker also relates such process with earlier experiences in language learning. That is, interlanguage transfer depends on knowledge and development of previous languages acquired (Ortega, 2009, et al.). Richards and Schmidt (2010) provide a wider definition: “(in learning theory) the carrying over of learned behavior from one situation to another. *Positive transfer* is learning in one situation which helps or facilitates learning in another later situation. *Negative transfer* is learning in one situation which interferes with learning in another later situation”. The term negative transfer is also found as interference (Ecke, 2014). Along these lines, Ellis (2001) considers language transfer as positive transfer when it facilitates language acquisition and negative transfer when interference exists. In other words, ‘positive evidence’ of transfer is related to ‘well-formed’ expressions and ‘negative evidence’ of transfer is related to ‘deviant’ expressions of the language being acquired (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

There is a variety of studies that show the cross-linguistic influence in lexical collocations. One notable study is Bahns (1993); he analyzes transfer in lexical collocations from German learners of English. In contrast, this research will explore Romanian (L1) as native language, English (L2) as second language, and Spanish (L3) as third language in regards to lexical collocations in writing translations.

### **2.2.5.3 Interlingual and intralingual errors**

Furthermore, a negative influence results in errors that can be divided into two categories: interlingual and intralingual errors (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Richards & Schmidt, 2010).

Interlingual errors are related to the native language; intralingual errors are related to the language being acquired. In other words, both L1 and L2 may influence language production.

There is a wide discussion among linguists about whether first language (L1) or second language (L2) influences third language (L3) acquisition. This discussion comes from the wide range of several aspects that need to be considered when analyzing such influence due to the complexity involved in two languages acquired previously. According to the focus of researchers, these aspects may vary; some of aspects are second language proficiency and exposure (Tremblay, 2006); language proficiency refers to the level of expertise or ability in the second language, and exposure refers to the learner's experience or real contact with the foreign language. With a different perspective, Hammarberg refers to 'the recency effect' (2001) which refers to recent or last time the learner was or has been exposed to the foreign language; According to Cenoz (2001), it is also important to consider age effects; this factor relates to the chronological age of the learner. Some other factor are typological proximity and psychotypology (which will be discussed).

## **2.3 Multilingualism**

The present section starts by defining the concept of multilingualism. It is "the use of three or more languages by an individual or by a group of speakers such as the inhabitants of a particular region or a nation" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 379). According to Pavlenko

(2007) multilinguals are “speakers who use two or more languages or dialects in their everyday lives”. In other words, it is possible to infer that multilingualism refers to the practice of speaking more than one language individually or regionally. In the same vein Cenoz (1998) defines multilingualism as a condition in which people “use more than two languages in their everyday life” (p. vii).

Also, it needs to be considered as a process performed in formal instruction and/or naturalistic settings. Moreover, multilingualism can be seen according to different perspectives: the social and cultural perspectives, and the economic perspective (Cenoz & Genesee, 1998). The social and cultural perspectives refer to the social benefit learners will get when acquiring a language; for example, to be able to communicate within their family and society, and to transmit their cultural heritage through language. The economic perspective refers to the economic advantage citizens can obtain when acquiring a language. This perspective is seen more as an economical strategy for encouraging international relations with other countries.

However, endorsing Kramsch’s (2003) statement, “the multilingual subject is not necessarily the person who speaks many languages with equal mastery or with native or near-native proficiency, but, rather, someone who resonates to each language relative to the other, and who has a more acute awareness than usual of the social, cultural, and emotional contexts in which his/her various languages have grown and of the life experiences they evoke” (p. 22). In other words, not only multilingualism relates to language proficiency, but also to cultural, social, and emotional situations in which a language was acquired; such considerations construct psychological and socio-cultural perspectives towards multilingualism.



In the contrary to what people may think, there are a lot of countries around the world that experience and live in a day-by-day multilingualism. Africa, Asia, Europe, America and Oceania have several countries where multilingualism occurs. But there is another aspect that should be considered when speaking about multilingualism, the multiculturalism factor.

Multiculturalism is a society “at ease with the rich tapestry of human life and the desire amongst people to express their own identity in the manner they see fit” (Bloor, 2010 pp. 272). In other words, multiculturalism refers to the cultural diversity of communities within a society and the policies that promote this diversity. Multiculturalism is perceived at organizational levels such as schools, businesses, neighborhoods, cities and/or nations. Next, it is important to examine external and internal factors that can facilitate and/or limit third language acquisition.

### **2.3.1 External factors**

There is a wide variety of external factors that can facilitate or interfere a third language acquisition in the student’s mind. Such factors surround the learner’s context, and can be socio-cultural factors, and geopolitical conditions of the host country.

#### **2.3.1.1 Learner context**

In order to better understand the relationship between language acquisition and culture, it is necessary to define first the meaning of the latter. According to Brown (2007, p. 188) culture is “the context within which we exist, think, feel and relate to others. It is the glue that binds a group of people together”. In other words, culture is the way people behave and feel. According to Bennett and Stewart (1991) culture can be defined as people’s

behavior, thinking, assumptions and values. But such aspects can lead to cross-cultural problems during the acquisition of a language. Cross-cultural can be defined as an interaction between people from different countries and cultures.

A major key concept to consider in the relationship between language acquisition and culture is that of nonverbal behavior (Stewart & Bennett, 1991). This concept refers to non-verbal communication that is usually identified in all the languages. As a result, there are non-verbal expressive emblems that should be considered for an effective interaction; for instance, tone of voice, gestures (body movement), facial expressions, interpersonal distance and touching are factors that can lead to intercultural misunderstanding.

Another concept to be considered is the way society can influence language acquisition. Society is “an organized group of people associated together for religious, benevolent, cultural, scientific, political, patriotic, or other purposes” (dictionary.com, 2014.). In other words, society is a group of people who share a defined territory, a culture, a social structure, and interact among their members. But particular characteristics of the host society may facilitate or condition language acquisition. Society can demonstrate support or rejection to the visitors; other social factors, such as other people’s timetables, the extent of withdrawal, and de availability of support (Coffman & Harris, 1984) can lead to experience, and perceive differences in the social environment resulting in a greater adjustment, complexity, and culture shock.

The geopolitical situation of the host country is another factor that can influence visitor’s adjustment and foreign language acquisition in a positive or negative manner. It is easy to realize the complexity and multifaceted nature of factors that can result in culture shock and

influence language acquisition. Culture shock “is the psychological and social disorientation caused by confrontation with a new or alien culture” (Byram & Hu, 2013, p. 187). They also review six facets related to culture shock:

“Strain due to the effort required to make psychological adaptations; sense of loss and feelings of deprivation in regard to friends, status, profession and possessions; being rejected by/and or rejecting members of the new culture; confusion in role, role expectations, values, feelings and self-identity; surprise, anxiety, even disgust and indignation after becoming aware of cultural differences; feeling of impotence due to not being able to cope with the new environment” (Byram & Hu, 2013, p. 189).

Pedersen (1995) considers five stages of culture shock: the honeymoon stage that relates to fascination for the new culture, the disintegration stage creates anxiety and the sense of disconnection from the surroundings, the reintegration stage is where individuals grow accustomed to the new culture and develop routines, the autonomy stage refers to developing problem-solving skills, and the interdependence stage is where individuals participate comfortably in the host culture maintaining their own culture and language.

It cannot be denied that the learner’s context and culture shock represent an important aspect in foreign language acquisition. It is learner’s abilities to manage such facets that will determine and shape his/her ability in learning the foreign language. However, these facets correspond to a specific learner’s context: when the learner locates physically in a different society and culture; in contrast, what happens when learners are not able to travel abroad? What happens when the pressure for learning a foreign language comes from the family members?

In a 10-year language experiment study, 18,000 primary school students from Great Britain showed the influence of socio-economic and attitudinal factors toward second language acquisition (Burstall, 1972). Her study points out the fact that social and cultural pressures reinforce foreign language acquisition, in this case French, because of the “pay-off value” that could result from the foreign language knowledge. At that time, Great Britain was about to enter into the European Economic Community; therefore, the student’s family, society and culture showed positive motivation towards achievement in L2 French language.

In a recent study (Gallagher, 2013) 104 Chinese university students studying in Central England demonstrated that the L2 willing to communicate together with environmental stressors (sociocultural and psychological adjustment), and daily hassles (social isolation, time and financial constraints) associated with acculturation process can lead to communication difficulties in the host country. In other words, there is a variety of external factors in the learners’ context, such as environmental stressors, which in conjunction to internal factors, the willing to communicate, can block language communication.

### **2.3.2 Internal factors**

In addition to the variety of external factor that influence the process of language acquisition, there are also internal factors that influence such process. According to Pavlenko (2005, 2006) there are different factors that can influence language acquisition: linguistic and cultural background, proficiency, familiarity of culture, level of anxiety, gender and type of emotion. Linguistic and cultural background refers to the previous experience of the learner about his/her culture and language (either native and/or second

language acquired); proficiency refers to the level of mastery in the language that learner is acquiring; familiarity of culture refers to the sense of closeness and understanding that a learner has towards the culture correspondent to the language being acquired; level of anxiety refers to subjective apprehension towards language learning and/or use; gender refers to sex in a biological or social constructed category; type of emotion refers to inner states of learners related to personal experience, and they are context dependent.

Another set of internal factors is related to affective factors, such as motivation, attitudes, personality, emotions, beliefs, and learning styles (Pavlenko, 2005, 2006). Motivation is related to the willingness or effort towards learning a foreign language; attitudes indicates a person's reaction on something; personality indicates distinctive individual aspects of the learner (self-esteem, risk-taking, extroversion/inhibition), emotions indicates feelings; beliefs indicates ideas that learners hold about themselves, the teaching/learning process itself and the foreign language; learning styles indicates the learner's preferred way of learning (Richards & Schmidt, 2010).

A different set of internal factors that influence third language acquisition is related to multilingualism. Linguists in this research area have shaped terms such as metalinguistic awareness (Ellis, 2004) which refers to the capacity of the employment of a language, and multicompetence which refers to the mixtures of grammars in an individual (Cook, 1992). Linguists also consider cognitive processes such as cognitive flexibility which refers to the individuals' capacity for resolving problems (Cook, et al., 1992), and diversified mental abilities related to cognitive skills derived from foreign language acquisition. Cognitive skills refer to "learning skills, the ability to process information, reason, remember, and relate. [...] to integrate new information as is taught" (Oxfordlearning.com, 2015).

It is common to hear people saying that once somebody has learnt a second language, it is easier to learn a third one. However, after analyzing the wide variety of internal factors that influence language acquisition, it is easy to determine that language acquisition, from an L2 and/or L3, is a very complex process dependent on learner's intrinsic and extrinsic variables. In addition to all the factors mentioned in this section, it should also be considered the willingness to communicate (Gallagher, 2013). As mentioned before, Gallagher's research shows a correlation among theories of stress and cross-cultural adaptation over the willingness to communicate of Chinese-speaking students in an L2 (English). Having examined a vast variety of external and internal factors that may facilitate or block language learning, it is important to define next second language acquisition.

#### **2.4 Second language acquisition**

Second language acquisition and bilingualism have been researched since early years (Saer, 1923); as such, second language acquisition research has provided a high existence of theoretical models and theories.

One theory related to second language acquisition is the markedness theory. This theory refers to "certain linguistic elements [that] can be seen as unmarked, i.e. simple, core, or prototypical, while others are seen as marked, i.e. complex, peripheral or exceptional" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 352). This notion was first introduced to second language acquisition research by Eckman (1977); according to his study, typological markedness is a phenomenon that exist by itself, and that helps to anticipate problematic and less problematic areas related to language learning. Markedness theory constitutes an influential

aspect related to language learning (Ortega, 2009); Ortega defines it as “a closed set of possibilities within a linguistic system, where the given possibilities rank from simplest and most frequent across languages of the world, or unmarked, to most complex and most rare, or marked” (p. 37). Ellis (2001) defines it as “the notion that some linguistic features are ‘special’ in relation to others, which are more ‘basic’” (p. 319). After reviewing the previous concepts, it is possible to realize that markedness theory plays an important role in second language learning. Furthermore, the notion of markedness theory is observed in language typology research as typological universals.

The concept of typological universals refers to “the study of different types of language carried out in order to identify those properties that are universal” (Ellis, 2001, p. 319). In other words, typological universals recognize language structures with such ‘properties’ that categorize them into marked structures, or unmarked structures.

In sum, markedness theory and typological universals guide second language acquisition research on identifying marked and unmarked structures suitable for transfer. As a consequence, the recognition of such structures can facilitate a language acquisition. In addition to the previous second language theory, the present research provides a brief explanation of three theoretical models related to second language acquisition.

#### **2.4.1 The separation model**

The separation model in second language acquisition explains that first and second languages coexist in the individual’s mind without any contact or combination between them (Cook, 2003). In other words, the separation model considers first (L1) and second (L2) languages as two different units. Such concept was first introduced by Weinreich

(1953). According to Weinreich, individuals with a second language are able to decide whether to use first or second language without any association between languages; such process received the name of ‘coordinate bilingualism’.

### **2.4.2 The integration model**

The integration model in second language acquisition is the antithetical version of the separation model. The integration model considers that bilingual individuals create a “single language system” that integrates both the first and second language (Cook, 2003). As such, the integration model does not consider any kind of influence between languages; on the contrary, it considers a new language system with ‘balance’ among its components.

### **2.4.3 The integration continuum model**

The integration continuum model emerges as a consequence of the weaknesses in both the separation and the integration models. Endorsing Cook (2003, p.7), “Clearly neither of these two models can be absolutely true: total separation is impossible since both languages are in the same mind; total integration is impossible since L2 users can keep the languages apart.” In other words, it is difficult to imagine an absolute separation or an absolute integration of languages because individual’s mind can create a combination of languages in different degrees of mixture. That is, the integration continuum model in second language acquisition refers to a gradual mixture of second and first languages (Cook & Singleton, 2014). The integration continuum model was introduced by Cook (et al., 2003).

## **2.5 Third language acquisition**



Third language acquisition refers to the process in which previous linguistic systems (L1-native language, L2-second language, and/or additional languages) behave in a way that can influence another language being acquired (Cabrelli Amaro, Flynn & Rothman, 2012). In a wider perspective, Cenoz and Jessner (2000) state that third language acquisition “(TLA) is a more complex phenomenon than second language acquisition (SLA) because, apart from all the individual and social factors that affect the latter, the process and product of acquiring a second language can themselves potentially influence the acquisition of a third” (p. ix) . In other words, the complexity of third language acquisition relies on the factors related to second language acquisition because such factors affect a third language being acquired. Furthermore, third language acquisition is associated to the term multilingual acquisition (Leung, 2009). Third language acquisition and multilingualism researches have resulted in the development of a variety of models which try to explain such process. The present research provides a brief explanation of three theoretical models.

### **2.5.1 The parasitic model**

The parasitic model was introduced by Hall (2002). This model refers to a learning process that involves short and long-term memories of lexical representations from L1, L2 and/or L3. The process is described in three general stages: form, concept and frame. Form refers to the first sense of a new word; after that, the individual develops the concept or meaning; finally, the last stage, frame, refers to the context of usage of the new word (Hall, Newbrand, Ecke, Sperr, Marchand & Hayes, 2009). Such stages develop in the next framework of vocabulary acquisition:

“A     Establishing a form representation.

A1 The L3 word is registered... and the closest matches (if ...any) in L3, L2 or L1 are activated...

A2 The L3 form is connected to a host representation... and is established...

A3 Difference(s) between L3 form and host representation are detected, new patterns are rehearsed and the representation is revised...

A4 If no matching form representation is activated sufficiently, the L3 form is connected to the frame of the nearest conceptual...equivalent...

B Building connections to frame and concept representations.

B1 The frame of the form-related host is adopted for deployment of the L3 form...

B2 If subsequent context contradicts information..., another perceived conceptual equivalent from L1 or L2 is activated and its frame adopted.

B3 If no translation equivalent can be identified, a provisional frame... is constructed and connected directly to a conceptual representation.

C Strengthening and automatization of representations and access routes

C1 Initially established connections with other L1, L2 or L3 representations are revised,... to establish a more autonomous triad responding to new cues in the input.

C2 Autonomous connections between L3 form, mediating frame and concept are strengthened and the representations themselves refined, with increased frequency of exposure and use.

C3 Access routes between elements of the L3 triad are automatized.” (Ecke, 2014, p. 5)

The parasitic model of vocabulary acquisition demonstrates the complexity involved in word representations, connections and equivalents in third language acquisition.

### **2.5.2 The typological primacy model**

Before presenting the definition of the Typological Primacy Model (TPM) (Rothman 2010, 2011), it is important to define the concept of typological proximity of languages that refers to the roots where languages come from and their similarities. The subfield of linguistics in charge of studying this phenomenon is the typology, also known as linguistic typology. It studies “the similarities and differences between languages, regardless of any genetic relation, and the resulting categorization of language into ‘types’ by classification of its grammatical features” (linguistlist.org, 2014). In other words, if a language shares the same root with another one, they will have similarities in grammar, vocabulary, etc. If such languages constitute the L1 and L3 of an adult learner, will it exist interlanguage transfer between them?

A trend of linguists studying cross-linguistic influence (CLI) in third language acquisition argue that L1 does not influence or show evidence of interlanguage transfer in L3 acquisition; as such, only L2 has influence over L3 acquisition. Leung’s (2009) study shows evidence of such trend. However, she analyzes Chinese native speakers with advanced level of English as a second language, and acquiring Norwegian as a third language. It is simple to realize the typological proximity of L2 and L3 due to their Germanic origin, on the contrary to L1 Chinese which has a Sino-Tibetan origin.

Dewaele's contribution to third language acquisition research (2010) shows a positive effect in the learner's communicative competence and communicative anxiety when the knowledge of typologically related languages is strong or very strong.

According to de Bot (1992), when an individual has knowledge of two connected or related languages, it is certain that lexical and grammatical similarities are used; in contrast, if languages are not connected or related, the individual will use specific and personal knowledge of that language. He refers to the language-specific lexical items and the language-specific routines the speaker chooses to perform when using a second language which is typologically similar to his/her native language.

Cabrelli Amaro's (2013) research shows evidence of transfer from the language that has typological relation to the L3 disregarding their L1 or L2 condition. That is, such research did not show any transfer from typologically unrelated languages. The language constellation in this research was L1 Spanish/ L2 English, L1 English/L2 Spanish, and L3 Portuguese. Furthermore, the findings were consistent with the Typological Primacy Model (TPM) developed by Rothman (*et al.*, 2010, 2011), and psychotypological transfer theory.

The Typological Primacy Model (Rothman, *et al.*, 2010, 2011) suggests that cross-linguistic influence in the form of facilitative and non-facilitative transfer can occur from both L1 (native language) and L2 (second language); furthermore, this model considers individual's unconscious perception about the similarity between languages based on "the lexicon, syntactic structure, functional morphology and its semantic import, and phonological/phonotactic cues" (Garcia Mayo & Rothman, 2012, p. 20). In other words, a set of specific factors are clearly related to and can determine the typological proximity of

languages in an individual. Such unconscious perceptions, also relate to the term psychotypology which is described next.

### **2.5.3 Psychotypology**

The term psychotypology (also known as transferability- Ortega, 2009) refers to the sense of proximity an individual can have about similarities in languages. According to Gabrys-Barker (2012), this expression describes the learners' subjective perception about the structural closeness of the foreign language being acquired and the native language. Therefore, psychologically speaking, an adult learner can make connections between languages according to his/her own subjective perception.

Another definition of psychotypology is "the perceived linguistic distance between languages" (Knapp, Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2009, p. 117). Such perceived linguistic distance can facilitate second and third language acquisition when learners detect similarities among languages (Hammarberg, 2001).

This term was first designed for second language acquisition (L2) by Kellerman (1983), but it has been adapted and applied to third language acquisition as well (Cenoz, et al., 2001; De Angelis, 2005). Kellerman's psychotypology perspective considers three factors that interact among each other and result in interlanguage transfer; the first two factors share common ground which is individuals' perception in regards to: L1 (first language) structure, and similarities between L3 (third language) and L1 (first language), the third factor relates to the range of knowledge in L3 (third language) that an individual possesses. After analyzing Kellerman's factors, it is clear that second and third language acquisition are a very complex phenomena due to psychological characteristics that learners

possess. Learners' psychological subjective perceptions can facilitate (or not) the acquisition of a foreign language that may be (or not) related to a previous acquired language.

Rast (2010) examines Kellerman's psychotypology theory in third language acquisition. In her study, the subjects were native speakers of French with L2 English (other L2s varied), and the additional language was Polish. Her results show evidence of transfer according to the learners' perceptions in regards to the proximity or similarities of their first and second languages.

## **2.6 Conclusion**

In Chapter Two I provided a discussion about the literature related to second and third language acquisition and cross-linguistic influence. It started with a brief description of basic concepts related to language acquisition, such as lexical semantics, lexicology, lexicography, phraseology, vocabulary acquisition, collocations, types of collocations, cross-linguistic influence, interlingual and intralingual errors. It continued describing the concept of multilingualism, and some aspects that influence it. Then, it described a wide variety of external and internal factors that influence a foreign language acquisition. Finally, it described some theoretical models related to second and third language acquisition, the latter focused on typological proximity of languages and psychotypology explaining some previous research about these topics.

## **Chapter III: Research Methodology**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This research project intends to analyze and describe the cross linguistic influence (CLI) in lexical collocations in writing translations from L1 (native language-Romanian) and L2 (second language-English) in L3 (third language-Spanish) acquisition and production. This chapter presents the location, the description of the participants, the research methodology and the instruments, the data collection procedure, the data collection analysis, and the conclusion of this chapter.

### **3.2 Location**

Data collection for this study was carried out in Central Mexico. This research was done in this place because the male participants are adult immigrants with the next language constellation: L1 (native language) Romanian, L2 (second languages) English and Russian, and L3 (third language) Spanish. Participants' learning background is related to socialist education; for this reason, English and Russian were taught as additional languages. This research was carried out within a qualitative approach because of the nature of the study. It aimed to explore the cross-linguistic influence from L1 and L2 to L3 acquisition and production in lexical collocations in writing translations.

### **3.3 Participants**

The two participants in the present research project are adult male immigrants who have been living in Mexico during the last seven to ten years approximately. The first participant

is 36 years old, and he has been living in Central Mexico since the year 2005; the second participant is 37 years old, and he has been living in Central Mexico since the year 2008. Because of participants' immersion in the working world, it was necessary to acquire the Spanish language. The participants' socio-economic level corresponds to a medium level.

They were born in Bucharest, Romania, when this country was communist. Because of this, the participants were taught Russian and English since 5<sup>th</sup> grade. At the age of 21, the first participant had his first contact with Spanish language, and at the age of 25, the participant moved his residence to central Mexico. As for the second participant, at the age of 23, he had his first contact with Spanish language, and at the age of 30, the participant moved his residence to central Mexico. As a result, the male immigrants had to acquire Spanish language in order to fit into the socio-economic community.

The participants have the next language constellation: Romanian as native language (L1), English and Russian as second languages (L2) with an advanced and basic levels respectively, and Spanish as a third language (L3) with a high level of proficiency.

### **3.4 Research methodology and instruments**

The present research project followed a qualitative approach. The word “qualitative” comes from the latin term *qualitas* which also comes from another latin term *qualis* (which, what). For a better understanding, a qualitative approach intends to identify the nature of a specific



reality, its dynamic structure, its behavior, and its manifestations (Martinez, 2006). The methodology used was a case study. A case study is “a form of qualitative descriptive research that is used to look at individuals, a small group of participants, or a group as a whole. Researchers collect data about participants using direct observations, interviews, protocols, tests, examinations of records, and collections of writing samples” (The writing studio, 2015).

A case study presents the compilation of specific information about a reduced group or a particular participant, and draws conclusions applicable to that group or participant in that specific context (Creswell, 2013). This particular qualitative descriptive research fits to the main interest of this research project because it tries to explore and describe a situation (cross-linguistic influence in lexical collocations) in a particular reduced group (two adult male immigrants). Then, case study provides the tools needed for investigating in this matter.

#### **3.4.1. The language translation instrument**

Since this research project followed a qualitative research method, one of the instruments used for the data collection on this case study was a language translation instrument. The language translation instrument was designed to capture the words that the participants used for translating sentences with lexical collocations in L2-English to L3-Spanish and L1-Romanian. The principal aim of this instrument was to translate daily-life expressions and common vocabulary.

The instrument consisted of twenty three sentences in English language with diverse types of lexical collocations (Benson, et al., 1986; Granger & Paquot, et al., 2008). Such types of lexical collocations form the next groups:

GROUP 1: Type Adjective + Noun group with 14 sentences:

1. A slow accumulation of facts about the motor industry.
2. His English teacher has a strong accent.
3. Students have easy access to internet these days.
4. Hotel guests have to use the shared bathroom.
5. That dog has thick hair.
6. Never has she tried a strong tea.
7. She downloaded the program because of her powerful computer
8. I hope you had a good journey.
9. My brother is a good driver.
10. While we were standing there, Sandy had a bright idea.
11. I will go to buy black coffee.
12. Teenage pregnancy is becoming a worldwide problem.
13. The mechanic is checking the steering wheel.
14. The silence of the lambs is a best-selling thriller.

GROUP 2: Type Verb + Noun group with 4 sentences:

1. My children are blowing bubbles.
2. The doctor performed the operation.
3. Liza is having a drink at the bar.
4. The dentist suggests keeping calm.

GROUP 3: Type Adverb + Verb with 2 sentences:

1. She gladly accepted his invitation.
2. One of his legs was badly broken.

GROUP 4: Type Verb + Adjective with 2 sentences:

1. The meat got frosty very quickly.
2. Lots of ships have gone missing in the Bermuda's Triangle.

GROUP 5: Type Adverb + Adjective with 1 sentence:

1. She was an extremely frequent visitor to the house

The lexical collocations in the instrument were taken from the Oxford Collocations Dictionary (n.d.) (free on-line pdf version), and from the Free Online Collocations Dictionary (2015). Some sentences were taken from those dictionaries, while others were conceived for the purposes of the instrument. As mentioned before, the subjects were requested to translate the sentences to Spanish (L3) and Romanian (L1), in that order; this because the purpose of the instrument was to analyze and describe cross-linguistic influences in lexical collocations in translations (See Appendix 1). The language translation instrument was helpful because it provided information about cross-linguistic influence in lexical collocations.

### **3.4.2 The language acceptability instrument**

The principal purpose of the second instrument was to obtain more information about a cross-linguistic influence in L3-Spanish (third language). The first version of the instrument consisted on 14 lexical collocation items in Spanish in which the participant had to decide

whether they considered them as correct or incorrect, and to propose a correct option. This error correction type of instrument was based on Wlosowicz (2012), and on Barrios Rodríguez (2005). The instrument was piloted but it showed a variety of different answers. For this reason, the instrument was revised and changed. The final version consisted on 11 items with lexical collocations in Spanish. Each item had two choices of combinatory words (verbs, nouns, or adjectives) to match with another word. The participant had to underline which combination was correct. This instrument was designed in L3 Spanish in order to analyze and describe possible cross-linguistic influence from L1 Romanian and/or L2 English (See Appendix 2).

Some of the items in the second instrument are as follows:

1. querer/desear ardientemente
2. negar/contradecir categóricamente
3. limar/suavizar asperezas

Finally, it is worth mentioning that both instruments were designed according to the language level of the participants in their L2 English and L3 Spanish, and were chosen due to the necessity of analyzing CLI (Cross Linguistic Influence) in lexical collocations.

### **3.5 Data collection procedure**

First, it was necessary to explain the purpose of the research project to the adult participants. After that, it was important to set the date for the application of the language translation instrument. Next, it was necessary to set another date for the application of the

language acceptability instrument. Both steps took longer than expected because of participants' schedule.

The language translation instrument was used one time only, it lasted one hour to be accomplished, and it was applied in the participant's home (first subject), and via e-mail (second subject). The instrument included instructions, and the participants were requested to avoid the use of a dictionary.

The language acceptability instrument was shorter than the first instrument; as a result, it took less time to be accomplished. Similar to the first instrument, it was applied in the participant's home (first subject), and via e-mail (second subject). The instrument also included instructions, and the participants were requested to avoid the use of dictionary as well.

The procedure of applying both instruments, the language translation and the language acceptability instruments, took longer than originally planned. Especially with the second participant, data collection depended on the participant's availability for answering both instruments. As for the first participant, data was collected in the evenings at the participant's home. This procedure did not show any unusual situation.

### **3.6 Data analysis**

Once the data was collected, it was necessary to analyze in depth the lexical collocations found in the L1 and L3 translations. It was important to analyze and classify the meaning of the linguistic choices made by the participant because it led to establish either a positive or a negative cross-linguistic influence in lexical collocations.

First, it was necessary to locate the lexical collocations in the language translation instrument. This was important because through their analysis, the lexical collocations could lead to positive or negative cross-linguistic influence CLI from L1-Romanian and/or L2 -English to L3-Spanish production. As previously mentioned, this instrument consisted on five groups with different types of lexical collocations.

GROUP 1: Type Adjective + Noun group with 14 sentences

GROUP 2: Type Verb + Noun group with 4 sentences

GROUP 3: Type Adverb + Verb with 2 sentences

GROUP 4: Type Verb + Adjective with 2 sentences

GROUP 5: Type Adverb + Adjective with 1 sentence:

The data analysis was mainly based on meaning of the lexical collocations. Other criteria consisted of word order, and blendings (mixture of words from different languages). After the data analysis, it was possible to determine the existence or absence of cross-linguistic influence among the language constellation.

After the application of the language acceptability instrument, it was possible to analyze a different set of lexical collocations in Spanish. The main focus on the language acceptability instrument was to show any possible cross-linguistic influence in such selection of the lexical collocations.

Data results were formed into three categories: positive cross-linguistic influence, negative cross-linguistic influence, and neutral influence. Both the language translation and the

language acceptability instruments threw information about positive and negative transfer in lexical collocations from L1 and L2 to L3 writing translations and acceptability.

### **3.7 Conclusion**

This chapter presented a description of the participants' background and context, the research methodology and instruments, the data collection procedure and analysis intended to answer the research question stated in chapter one. Chapter four will present the results obtained from such analysis.

## **Chapter IV: Results**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the findings of the study obtained from the language translation instrument and the language acceptability instrument. This section is divided into two parts which are concerned with the analysis of these two instruments. Results are presented in two different sections according to the instruments used for this research project.

### **4.2 Cross linguistic influence in lexical collocations: syntactic analysis**

Linguistic contrastive analysis of the languages involved was needed in order to assure the source of cross linguistic influence in grammatical properties and to account for the activation of L1 and/or L2 in L3. As expected, the language translation instrument shows cross-linguistic influence from L1 (Romanian) and L2 (English) to L3 (Spanish) in the translations made by both participants. It is important to mention that for the first instrument, the participants were requested to translate into Spanish and Romanian the sentences provided; that is, to translate first to Spanish and then to Romanian. However, the first participant translated first to Romanian, and then to Spanish (examples of which are presented in Table 1); while the second participant translated first to Spanish (examples are shown in Table 3), and then to Romanian as requested. This situation is worth mentioning because at the moment of the analysis is possible to determine that the first participant consulted the Romanian translations as a reference for the Spanish translations. On the other hand, the second participant translated to L3-Spanish and L1-Romanian simultaneously from L2-English.



**Table 1** Spanish translation from the first participant with item number according to the instrument, observations and corresponding examples.

<b>Item and type</b>	<b>Observations</b>	<b>Examples</b>
<b>1 Adjective + Noun</b>	English noun inclusion	‘acumulation lenta’
<b>2 Adjective + Noun</b>	Word order and blending	‘fuerte acento’ instead of ‘acento marcado’
<b>3 Adverb + Verb</b>	Misinterpretation/pronominal function.	‘se puso feliz’ instead of ‘aceptó con gusto’
<b>4 Adjective + Noun</b>	Adverb inclusion	‘acceso mas facil’ instead of ‘facil acceso’
<b>5 Adjective + Noun</b>	Same meaning/different translation	‘compartir los baños’ instead of ‘baño comunal’
<b>6 Adverb + Verb</b>	Pronominal function	‘se rompio gravemente’
<b>7 Verb + Noun</b>	Less acceptable translation/misinterpretation	‘inflando globos’ instead of ‘haciendo burbujas’
<b>8 Adverb + Adjective</b>	Incomplete translation	‘frecuente’
<b>9 Adjective + Noun</b>	Word order	‘grueso pelo’ instead of ‘pelo grueso’
<b>10 Verb + Adjective</b>	Pronominal function	‘se congelo rapido’
<b>11 Adjective + Noun</b>	First translation corrected	‘te fuerte’ instead of ‘te concentrado’
<b>12 Adjective + Noun</b>	Word order/English noun inclusion Less acceptable translation	‘veloz computer’ instead of ‘computadora rapida’
<b>13 Adjective + Noun</b>	Syntactic adjustment/acceptable translation	‘viajaste placentero’ instead of ‘buen viaje’
<b>14 Adjective + Noun</b>	no influence	‘buen chofer’
<b>15 Verb + Noun</b>	no influence	‘hizo la cirugia’
<b>16 Verb + Noun</b>	no influence	‘tomando’
<b>17 Verb + Noun</b>	Acceptable translation	‘calma’ instead of ‘mantener la calma’
<b>18 Verb + Adjective</b>	Pronominal function	‘se han perdido’ instead of ‘han desaparecido’
<b>19 Adjective + Noun</b>	Incomplete translation/lexical collocation omitted	Incomplete translation/lexical collocation omitted
<b>20 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘café negro’
<b>21 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘problema mundial’
<b>22 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘volante’
<b>23 Adjective + Noun</b>	English adjective inclusion/acceptable translation with an anglicism	‘best seller’

As a consequence, the lexical collocations were analyzed according to the respective order in which they were translated. The analysis of the translations from the first participant is identified as follows: P1. As for the second participant, is identified as follows: P2. The

sentences were divided into groups according to their syntactic pattern. These groups were described in chapter two.

#### 4.2.1 Adjective + Noun

This group consists of an adjective that collocates with a noun. In this case, the base of the collocation is provided by the noun; in other words, the adjective used is directly related to the noun. This group consists of fourteen sentences.

1. English: A slow accumulation of facts about the motor industry.

Romanian: O (inceata) acumulare inceata de date despre industria de motoare. (P1)

Spanish: Una acumulación lenta de datos (*despre*) sobre la industria automotriz. (P1)

Spanish: Una lenta acumulación de datos sobre la industria automotriz. (P2)

Romanian: O lenta acumulare de date despre industria automovovilistica. (P2)

As can be seen in the example 1, Romanian translation from the first participant was corrected in relation to word order: *inceata acumulare* was corrected to *acumulare inceata*.

This correction is related to L2 English word order. Spanish translation was *acumulación lenta*; this translation shows evidence of positive influence from L2 English because the word *acumulación* is used in the translation to L3 Spanish. Such inclusion still allows us to understand the general meaning of the sentence, and the lexical collocation. Also, although corrected and non-related to lexical collocations in this research project, it is worth mentioning the inclusion of L1 Romanian in L3 Spanish sentence with the word *despre* which is equivalent in meaning to *sobre* in Spanish. With respect to the second participant, it was found that Spanish translation was *lenta acumulacion* which is similar in meaning to the original sentence; this translation does not show evidence of influence. Romanian translation was *acumulare lenta* but it was corrected with arrows changing the word order. This correction is related to word order in English (slow accumulation) and the previous

Spanish translation (*lenta acumulacion*). It can be said that Romanian translation shows evidence of influence from both L2-English and L3-Spanish.

2. English: His English teacher has a strong accent.

Romanian: Profesorul lui de Engleza are un accent puternic. (P1)

Spanish: Su maestro de Ingles tiene un fuerte acento. (P1)

Spanish: Su maestro de Ingles tiene un acento muy fuerte. (P2)

Romanian: Invatatorul de Engleza al lui are un accent foarte puternic. (P2)

Example 2 from the first participant shows that Romanian translation was *accent puternic*.

The word *puternic* is similar in meaning to the word strong in English. This shows a semantic translation. Spanish translations shows positive influence from L2 English because the translation was *fuerte acento* in L3. This translation shows word order similar to English language and a blending (*accent* and *acento*) from English and Spanish. Also, the participant made a semantic translation because *fuerte* came from the word *puternic* in Romanian (*accent puternic*). For this reason, the Spanish translation shows evidence of positive influence also from Romanian. As for the second participant, it can be seen that Spanish translation was *acento muy fuerte*. This translation shows the inclusion of the Spanish adverb *muy*. This inclusion represents a minor change in the meaning of the lexical collocation. The word *fuerte* is related to strong in English, but the Spanish noun *acento* combines better with the Spanish adjective *marcado*. This translation shows evidence of influence from L2-English. Romanian translation was *accent foarte puternic*. This translation also shows the inclusion of the adjective *foarte* (very in English).

**Table 2** Romanian translation from the first participant with item number according to the instrument, observations and corresponding examples.

Item and type	Observations	Examples
1 Adjective + Noun	Word order correction	First translation ‘inceata acumulare’ was corrected as ‘acumulare inceata’
2 Adjective + Noun	Semantic translation	‘accent puternic’ from the word strong
3 Adverb + Verb	No influence	‘acceptat bucuroasa’

<b>4 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘acces usor’
<b>5 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘baile in comun’
<b>6 Adverb + Verb</b>	No influence	‘foarte rupt
<b>7 Verb + Noun</b>	First translation corrected/misinterpretation/less acceptable translation	‘sufla baloane’ corrected for ‘umfla baloane’ that relates to inflate balloons
<b>8 Adverb + Adjective</b>	No influence	‘foarte des’
<b>9 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘blana groasa’
<b>10 Verb + Adjective</b>	No influence	‘a inghetat’
<b>11 Adjective + Noun</b>	Semantic translation	‘ceai puternic’ from the word strong
<b>12 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘calculatorului rapid’
<b>13 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘voiaj placut’
<b>14 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘sofer bun’
<b>15 Verb + Noun</b>	No influence	‘facut operatia’
<b>16 Verb + Noun</b>	No influence	‘bea’
<b>17 Verb + Noun</b>	Pronominal function/no influence	‘sa fi linistit’
<b>18 Verb + Adjective</b>	No influence	‘disparut’
<b>19 Adjective + Noun</b>	Incomplete translation/lexical collocation omitted	Incomplete translation/lexical collocation omitted
<b>20 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘cafea neagra’
<b>21 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘problema mondiala’
<b>22 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘volanul’
<b>23 Adjective + Noun</b>	Anglicism inclusion	‘thriller foarte vandut’

3. English: Students have easy access to internet these days.

Romanian: Azi, elevii au acces usor la internet (azi). (P1)

Spanish: Los alumnos tienen acceso a internet mas fácil en estos días. (P1)

Spanish: (Los estudiantes) En estos días, los estudiantes tienen un facil acceso al internet. (P2)

Romanian: In zilele de astazi studenti au acces usor la internet. (P2)

Example 3 from the first participant shows that Romanian translation was *acces usor*. The Spanish translation was as follows: *acceso mas facil*; such translation shows the inclusion of an adverb (*mas*) which was not included in the original sentence. Such inclusion represents a minor change in the general meaning of the sentence, and also in the lexical collocation. Both translations do not show any evidence of influence. As can be seen in Table 2, the second participant used the Spanish translation *facil acceso*. As for the Romanian translation, the words used were *acces usor*. Both translations do not show evidence of influence.

4. English: Hotel guests have to use the shared bathroom.

Romanian: Oaspetii hotelului trebuie sa foloseasca baile in comun. (P1)  
 Spanish: Los huespedes tienen que compartir los baños. (P1)  
 Spanish: Los huespedes del hotel tienen que usar el baño compartido. (P2)  
 Romanian: Oaspeti hotelului trebuie sa foloseasca baia in comun. (P2)

Example 4 from the first participant shows that Romanian translation was *baile in comun*.

This expression is similar in meaning to the lexical collocation in English. On the other hand, the Spanish translation was adapted but it still kept the same meaning than the original and the Romanian sentence. The collocation shared bathroom was translated as *compartir los baños*. The adjective shared was translated as a verb (*compartir*). It is possible to determine that this influence came from L2-English. Spanish translation from the second participant was *baño compartido*. Table 3 shows that the word *compartido* is clearly related to the word *shared*, although in Spanish language is more adequate to use the word *comunal*. This would be *baño comunal*. This translation shows influence from L2-English. Romanian translation was *baia in comun* which is related to the expression in Spanish *baño comunal*. This translation does not show any evidence of influence.

**Table 3** Spanish translation from the second participant with item number according to the instrument, observations and corresponding examples.

Item and type	Observations	Examples
<b>1 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘lenta acumulacion’
<b>2 Adjective + Noun</b>	adverb inclusion/semantic translation from English	‘acento muy fuerte’ instead of ‘acento marcado’
<b>3 Adverb + Verb</b>	Inclusion of preposition	‘acepto su invitación con alegría’
<b>4 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘facil acceso’
<b>5 Adjective + Noun</b>	Semantic translation	‘baño compartido’ instead of ‘baño comunal’
<b>6 Adverb + Verb</b>	Acceptable translation/pronominal function	‘se rompió de manera exagerada’
<b>7 Verb + Noun</b>	No influence	‘haciendo burbujas’
<b>8 Adverb + Adjective</b>	Semantic translation from English	‘extremadamente frecuente’
<b>9 Adjective + Noun</b>	Misinterpretation	‘pelo delgado’ instead of ‘pelo grueso’
<b>10 Verb + Adjective</b>	Pronominal function	‘se congelo’
<b>11 Adjective + Noun</b>	Semantic translation	‘te fuerte’ instead of ‘te concentrado’

<b>12 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘computadora rapida’
<b>13 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘buen viaje’
<b>14 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘buen chofer’
<b>15 Verb + Noun</b>	No influence	‘llevo a cabo la operación’
<b>16 Verb + Noun</b>	No influence	‘tomando una bebida’
<b>17 Verb + Noun</b>	Pronominal function/same meaning	‘que se mantenga la calma’
<b>18 Verb + Adjective</b>	No influence	‘desaparecido’
<b>19 Adjective + Noun</b>	Word order/acceptable translation	‘brillante idea’
<b>20 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘café negro’
<b>21 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘problema mundial’
<b>22 Adjective + Noun</b>	No influence	‘volante’
<b>23 Adjective + Noun</b>	Misinterpretation	‘película de horror mas vendida’

5. English: That dog has thick hair.

Romanian: Cainele ala are blana groasa. (P1)

Spanish: Ese perro tiene grueso pelo. (P1)

Spanish: Ese perro tiene pelo delgado. (P2)

Romanian: Acel ciine are parul firare. (P2)

Example 5 shows that Romanian translation from the first participant was *blana groasa*.

This translation is similar in meaning to the original lexical collocation. Spanish translation shows influence from L2 English because the translation *grueso pelo* instead of *pelo grueso* was used. This evidence shows influence in L3-Spanish from L2-English in regards to word order. As for the second participant, Spanish translation was *pelo delgado*. This translation is a misinterpretation from the original meaning of the lexical collocation. The correct translation of the word thick in Spanish is *grueso*; instead, the word *delgado* represents the contrary meaning (thin); this situation indicates confusion in regards to knowledge of English language (thick vs thin). Romanian translation was *parul firare*. The word *parul* in Romanian is used to refer to human hair. The right Romanian word for dog hair is *blana*. On the other hand, the word *firare* shares meaning with the English adjective thin. That is, the most adequate translation to Romanian language would be *blana groasa* instead of *parul firare*. It can be said that such translation shows a negative influence from

L2-English and L3-Spanish, and represents a less acceptable translation because it changes the original meaning of the original sentence.

6. English: Never has she tried a strong tea.  
Romanian: Ea niciodata nu a baut un ceai (puternic) concentrat. (P1)  
Spanish: Nunca habia probado un te fuerte. (P1)  
Spanish: Ella nunca probo un te fuerte. (P2)  
Romanian: Ea nu a incercat un ceai tare niciodata.

Example 6 from the first participant shows an influence from L2 English in the Romanian translation because, although corrected, the first translation was *ceai puternic* which is a semantic translation from strong tea. Then, it was corrected for *concentrat* which is more acceptable with *ceai* (tea). The Spanish translation also shows influence from L2 English because of the translation *te fuerte* which is also related to strong tea (semantic translation). It can be said that both translations were influenced by L2-English. As for the second participant, Spanish translation was *te fuerte*. The word *fuerte* is related in meaning to strong, although the adjective *concentrado* combines better with *te* in Spanish language. This shows evidence of a semantic translation influenced by L2 English. Romanian translation was *ceai tare*. This combination is equivalent in meaning to strong tea; as such, it does not show evidence of influence.

7. English: She downloaded the program because of her powerful computer.  
Romanian: A descarcat programul datorita calculatorului rapid. (P1)  
Spanish: Ella bajo el programa gracias a su veloz computer. (P1)  
Spanish: Ella bajo el programa por la causa de su computadora rapida. (P2)  
Romanian: Ea a descarcat programul din cauza computerului puternic. (P2)

Example 7 from the first participant shows that Romanian translation was *calculatorului rapid*. This expression is similar in meaning to the lexical collocation in English, and shows no evidence of influence. On the other hand, the Spanish translation shows influence from L2 English because the combination *veloz computer* follows the English pattern of word

order; it also includes the English noun computer instead of the Spanish word *computadora*. With respect to the second participant, it shows that Spanish translation was *computadora rapida*. As shown in Table 4, this translation shows no evidence of influence. On the contrary, Romanian translation was *computerului puternic*. The word *computerului* represents a blending from the word computer in English and the particle *ului* represents possession from a subject, in this case her. The right Romanian word would be *calculatorului*. This blending shows influence from L2-English.

**Table 4** Romanian translation from the second participant with item number according to the instrument, observations and corresponding examples.

Item and type	Observations	Examples
1 Adjective + Noun	First translation corrected/Word order from English	‘acumulare lenta’
2 Adjective + Noun	adverb inclusión/semantic translation	‘accent foarte puternic’
3 Adverb + Verb	Inclusion of preposition	‘acceptat invitatia cu drag’
4 Adjective + Noun	No influence	‘acces usor’
5 Adjective + Noun	No influence	‘baia in comun’
6 Adverb + Verb	Pronominal function/acceptable translation	‘si-a rupt foarte rau’
7 Verb + Noun	No influence	‘fac baloane’
8 Adverb + Adjective	Semantic translation from English	‘extrem de frecvent’
9 Adjective + Noun	Misinterpretation	‘parul firare’ instead of ‘blana groasa’
10 Verb + Adjective	Neutral/pronominal function	‘s-a congelat’
11 Adjective + Noun	No influence	‘ceai tare’
12 Adjective + Noun	Blending from English and Romanian	‘computerului puternic’ instead of ‘calculatorului rapid’
13 Adjective + Noun	No influence	‘calatorie placuta’
14 Adjective + Noun	No influence	‘sofer bun’
15 Verb + Noun	No influence	‘a condus operatia’
16 Verb + Noun	Semantic translation	‘bea o bautura’ redundant as to drink a drink
17 Verb + Noun	Pronominal function	‘sa se mentina linistea’
18 Verb + Adjective	No influence	‘disparut’
19 Adjective + Noun	No influence	‘idee stralucitoare’
20 Adjective + Noun	No influence	‘cafea neagra’
21 Adjective + Noun	Translation missing	Translation missing
22 Adjective + Noun	No influence	‘volanul’
23 Adjective + Noun	Misinterpretation	‘cel mai vandut film de groaza’

8. English: I hope you had a good journey.  
Romanian: Sper ca ai avut un voiaj placut. (P1)  
Spanish: Espero que viajaste placentero. (P1)



Spanish: Espero has tenido un buen viaje. (P2)

Romanian: Sper ca ai avut (drum bun) o calatorie placuta. (P2)

Example 8 shows that Romanian translation *voiaj placut* does not provide evidence of any influence. On the contrary, Spanish translation shows avoidance because the structure had a good journey was translated as *viajaste placentero*, instead of *hayas tenido un buen viaje*. That is, the participant made an adjustment (syntactic adjustment) which results in an acceptable interpretation with similar meaning. In regards to the second participant, it can be seen that Spanish translation was *buen viaje*, and first Romanian translation was *drum bun* which was corrected for *calatorie placuta*. The difference between these two expressions is related to tense; in Romanian language, when somebody is departing people wish a *drum bun* (safe journey); on the contrary, when somebody comes back from a trip or vacation, people refer to it as a *calatorie placuta*. In Spanish language *buen viaje* can refer to both situations, and for this reason, it can be said that Romanian translation was influenced by L3 Spanish.

9. English: My brother is a good driver.

Romanian: Fratele meu e un sofer bun. (P1)

Spanish: Mi hermano es un buen chofer. (P1)

Spanish: Mi hermano es un buen chofer. (P2)

Romanian: Fratele meu este un sofer bun. (P2)

Example 9 from the first participant shows that Romanian translation was *sofer bun*, and Spanish translation was *buen chofer*; both translations do not show any evidence of influence because they represent the same meaning as the original lexical collocation. This is the same case with respect to the second participant, it can be seen that Spanish translation was *buen chofer*, and Romanian translation *sofer bun*. Both translations do not show evidence of any influence.

10. English: While we were standing there, Sandy had a bright idea.  
Romanian: In timp ce asteptam, (Sandi) Sandei i-a venit o idee. (P1)  
Spanish: Mientras estabamos parados alla Sandy tubo una idea. (P1)  
Spanish: Mientras estabamos parados alla, Sandy tuvo una (idea) brillante idea. (P2)  
Romanian: In timp ce stateam acolo, Sandy a avut o idee stralucitoare.

Example 10 from the first participant could not be analyzed because in both Spanish and Romanian translations the adjective from the collocation was omitted. With respect to the second participant, this example shows that first Spanish translation was *idea*, and then *brillante idea*. This translation shows influence from L2-English in regards to word order; *brillante* is similar in meaning to bright, but it should be located after the noun *idea*. Romanian translation was *idee stralucitoare* which is similar to the original meaning. This translation does not show any evidence of influence.

11 . English: I will go to buy black coffee.  
Romanian: Ma duc sa cumpar cafea neagra. (P1)  
Spanish: Voy a comprar café negro. (P1)  
Spanish: (Voy) Ire a comprar café negro. (P2)  
Romanian: O sa ma duc sa cumpar cafea neagra. (P2)

Example 11 from the first participant shows that translation to Romanian (*cafea neagra*) and to Spanish (*café negro*) provide no evidence of influence. This is the same case with the second participant, Spanish translation was *café negro*, and Romanian translation was *cafea neagra*. Both translations are equivalent in meaning to the original sentence, and do not show any evidence of influence.

12. English: Teenage pregnancy is becoming a worldwide problem.  
Romanian: Adolescente insarcinate o sa fie o problema mondiala. (P1)  
Spanish: El embarazo de adolescents se esta convirtiendo en un problema mundial. (P1)  
Spanish: El embarazo (es) en los adolescentes esta llegando a ser un(a) problema mundial. (P2)  
Romanian: Translation omitted.

Example 12 from the first participant shows that both translation to Romanian (*problema mondiala*), and to Spanish (*problema mundial*) show no evidence of influence. They share the same meaning with the original sentence. As for the second participant, it can be seen that, Spanish translation was *problema mundial* which is similar to the meaning in the original sentence. However, there was a correction related to the Spanish article *un*. It was first translated as *una*. The noun *problema* in Romanian is feminine; contrary to the equivalent noun in Spanish which is masculine. It is worth mentioning that it shows evidence of influence from L1 Romanian in L3 Spanish, even though this influence is not related to the structure of analysis in this research project. The translation of the lexical collocation shows no evidence of influence. Romanian translation was omitted.

13. English: The mechanic is checking the steering wheel.

Romanian: Mecanicul verifica volanul. (P1)

Spanish: El mecanico esta checando el volante. (P1)

Spanish: El mecanico esta checando el volante. (P2)

Romanian: Mecanicul verifica volanul.

Example 13 from the first participant shows that both the translation to Romanian (*volanul*), and to Spanish (*volante*) provide no evidence of influence because they represent the same meaning as the original lexical collocation. This is the same case with the second participant whose Spanish translation was *volante*, and Romanian translation was *volanul*. Both translations are similar in meaning to the original lexical collocation, and do not show any evidence of influence.

14. English: The silence of the lambs is a best-selling thriller.

Romanian: “Tacerea mieilor” este un thriller foarte vandut. (P1)

Spanish: El silencio de los carneros es un best seller. (P1)

Spanish: “El silencio de los inocentes” es la película de horror mas vendida. (P2)

Romanian: “Tacerea mieilor” este (fil) cel mai vandut film de groaza. (P2)

Example 14 from the first participant shows that translation to Romanian *thriller foarte vandut* includes the use of the English adjective *thriller*, which is also used in Romanian language. As for the Spanish translation, this lexical collocation was translated as *best seller*, which is also an English term. Both translations show inclusion of L2 English adjectives. With respect to the second participant, it can be seen that Spanish translation was *pelicula de horror mas vendida*; this translation shows the inclusion of the word *pelicula* (movie in English), and represents a change in the general meaning of the original sentence. Also, the word *horror* in Spanish is related to horror in English; instead, the word *suspense* is more associated to the word *thriller* in English, although the word *thriller* itself is also used. It can be stated that Spanish translation was misinterpreted, and had a negative influence from L2 English. On the other hand, Romanian translation was corrected; it started as *fil* (film) that is similar in meaning to the word *pelicula* in Spanish. This indicates that the participant read the original English sentence, then translated to Spanish, and finally translated to Romanian based on Spanish translation. It can be stated that L3 Spanish influenced L3 Romanian, although it was corrected afterwards. The final translation was *cel mai vandut film de groaza*; this translation also shows the inclusion of the word *film* (movie in English), and also represents a change in the general meaning from the original. *Film de groaza* is related to horror, terror, and fear in Romanian language. *Cel mai vandut* is similar in meaning to best-selling. It is possible to determine that L2 English influenced L3 Spanish, and as a consequence both languages had an influence in L1 Romanian language.

#### 4.2.2 Verb + Noun

This group consists of lexical collocations conformed by a verb and a noun. In this case, the noun indicates the variety of verbs that can collocate with. This group consists of four sentences:

1. English: My children are blowing bubbles.  
Romanian: Copiii mei (sufla) umfla baloane. (P1)  
Spanish: Mis hijos estan inflando globos. (P1)  
Spanish: Mis niños estan hacienda burbujas. (P2)  
Romanian: Copiii mei fac baloane. (P2)

Example 1 from the first participant shows that translation to Romanian was corrected; the first option was *sufla* which shares meaning with the verb blow; after the correction, the verb was *umfla* which shares meaning with the verb inflate. This lexical collocation was translated as *umfla baloane*, but this expression is related to inflate balloons. *Baloane* in Romanian is plural from *balon*, and used whether for bubbles, or balloons. The Spanish translation shows a misinterpretation because the lexical collocation was translated as *inflando globos*. Such translation is less acceptable because it changes the meaning of the original sentence. It is possible to determine that such misinterpretation comes from the Romanian translation. As for the second participant, it can be seen that Spanish translation was *haciendo burbujas*. This translation is similar in meaning to the original sentence. Romanian translation was *fac baloane*, which is equivalent in meaning to both the Spanish translation, and the original sentence. There is no evidence of influence.

2. English: The doctor *performed the operation*.  
Romanian: Doctorul a facut operatia. (P1)  
Spanish: El Dr. hizo la cirugia. (P1)  
Spanish: El doctor llevo acabo la operacion. (P2)  
Romanian: Doctorul a condus operatia. (P2)

Example 2 from the first participant shows that translation to Romanian was *facut operatia*. The Spanish translation was *hizo la cirugia*. Both translations do not show cross-linguistic influence. As for the second participant, it can be seen that Spanish translation was *llevo acabo la operacion*. Romanian translation was *a condus operatia*. Both translations have similar meaning to the original sentence. There is no evidence of influence.

3. Liza is *having a drink* at the bar.  
Romanian: Liza e in bar si bea. (P1)  
Spanish: Liza esta tomando en el bar. (P1)  
Spanish: Liza esta tomando una bebida en el bar. (P2)  
Romanian: Liza bea o bautura in bar. (P2)

Example 3 from the first participant shows that Romanian translation was *bea*, as for the Spanish translation was *tomando*. *A bea* shares meaning with the verb to drink in English, as well as *tomar* in Spanish to refer to take in liquid. This translation does not show any evidence of influence. As for the second participant, it can be seen that Spanish translation was *tomando una bebida*. The verb *tomando* relates to the verb to drink in English.

Romanian translation was *bea o bautura*. As mentioned before, the verb *a bea* is similar in meaning to the verb to drink in English. As such, it is redundant to express to drink a drink. This shows a semantic and literal translation from the Spanish sentence, even though both translations share the same acceptable meaning. As such, it is possible to determine that Romanian translation was influenced by L3 Spanish.

4. English: The dentist suggests keeping calm.  
Romanian: Dentistul a zis sa fi linistit. (P1)  
Spanish: El dentist sugirio calma. (P1)  
Spanish: El dentist sugiere que se mantenga la calma. (P2)  
Romanian: Dentistul sugereaza sa se mentina linistea. (P2)

Example 4 from the first participant shows that translation to Romanian of this lexical collocation was *sa fi linistit*. This structure shows a pronominal function which is

acceptable in Romanian language. The Spanish translation was *calma*. This translation maintains a similar meaning with the original sentence. Both translations do not show any evidence of influence. As for the second participant, it can be seen that Spanish translation was *que se mantenga la calma*. This structure shows a pronominal function (links the verb to a subject), and maintains the same meaning with the original sentence. Romanian translation was *sa se mentina linistea* which also shows a pronominal function. The verbs keeping, *mantenga*, and *mentina* share the same meaning. These translations show no evidence of influence.

#### 4.2.3 Adverb + Verb

This group consists of lexical collocations conformed by an adverb and a verb. In this case the verb functions as the base of the collocation. This group consists of two sentences:

1. English: She gladly accepted his invitation.  
Romanian: Ea a acceptat bucuroasa invitatia lui. (P1)  
Spanish: Ella se puso feliz porque la invito. (P1)  
Spanish: Ella acepto su invitación con alegría. (P2)  
Romanian: Ea a acceptat invitatia cu drag. (P2)

Example 1 from the first participant shows that Romanian translation was *acceptat bucuroasa*; this translation does not show any evidence of influence because it is similar in meaning with the original sentence, and the lexical collocation. On the contrary, Spanish translation was *se puso feliz*; this translation is a misinterpretation from the original sentence and changes its general meaning. As such, Spanish translation is less acceptable than Romanian translation from the first participant. As for the second participant, it can be seen that Spanish translation was *acepto su invitacion con alegria*. This translation has an inclusion of the preposition *con*, but Spanish language admits this structure. Romanian

translation was *acceptat invitatia cu drag*, which also shows the inclusion of the same preposition *cu* (*con*, with). Both translations do not show any evidence of influence.

2. English: One of his legs was badly broken.  
Romanian: Unul dintre picioarele lui e foarte rupt. (P1)  
Spanish: Se rompio gravemente una de sus piernas. (P1)  
Spanish: Una de sus piernas se rompio de manera exagerada. (P2)  
Romanian: Si-a rupt un picior foarte rau. (P2)

Example 2 from the first participant shows that Romanian translation was *foarte rupt*, which is similar in meaning to the lexical collocation. Spanish translation was as follows: *se rompio gravemente*. This structure represents a pronominal function of the verb *se rompio* (links the verb to a subject). The general meaning of the sentence and the lexical collocation persisted. As for the second participant, it can be seen that Spanish translation was *se rompio de manera exagerada*; this structure (*se rompio*) also shows a pronominal function. Romanian translation was *si-a rupt foarte rau*, which shows a pronominal function as well (*si-a rupt*). In addition, the expressions *de manera exagerada*, and *foarte rau* intensify the general meaning of the original sentence, and the lexical collocation.

#### 4.2.4 Verb +Adjective

This group consists of lexical collocations conformed by a verb and an adjective. In this case, the base of the collocation is provided by the verb. That is, the verb indicates which adjectives can collocate with itself. This group consists of two sentences:

1. English: The meat got frosty very quickly.  
Romanian: Carnea a inghetat repede. (P1)  
Spanish: La carne se congelo rapido. (P1)  
Spanish: La carne se congelo muy rapido. (P2)  
Romanian: Carnea s-a congelat foarte repede. (P2)



Example 1 from the first participant shows that Romanian translation to the lexical collocation was *a inghetat*; this structure is similar to has frozen in English. This translation shows a tense change. Spanish translation was *se congelo rapido*; this translation kept the same tense and represents a pronominal function. It does not show any evidence of influence. As for the second participant, it can be seen that Spanish translation was *se congelo*, and Romanian translation was *s-a congelat*. Both structures show a pronominal function which maintains the same meaning with the original sentence, and are used in both languages. There is no evidence of influence.

2. English: Lots of ships have gone missing in the Bermuda's Triangle.  
Romanian: Multe nave au disparut in triunghiul bermudelor. (P1)  
Spanish: Muchos barcos se han perdido en el triangulo de las bermudas. (P1)  
Spanish: Muchos barcos han desaparecido en el triangulo de las bermudas. (P2)  
Romanian: Au disparut multe vapoare in triunghiul Bermudelor. (P2)

Example 2 from the first participant shows that Romanian translation was *disparut* which is similar in meaning to the lexical collocation. Spanish translation was *se han perdido*; this structure represents a pronominal function, and keeps the same meaning with the original sentence. Although this meaning is acceptable, the best translation is *han desaparecido*. It is possible to determine that Spanish translation was influenced by L2-English word missing. As for the second participant, it can be seen that Spanish translation was *desaparecido*, and Romanian translation was *disparut*. Both translations do not show any evidence of influence.

#### 4.2.5 Adverb + Adjective

This section consists of lexical collocations conformed by an adverb and an adjective. In this case, the base of the lexical collocation is the adjective. This section consists of one sentence:

1. English: She was an extremely frequent visitor to the house.

Romanian: Ea se ducea la ei foarte des. (P1)

Spanish: Ella era una visitante frecuente a la casa. (P1)

Spanish: Ella era una visitante extremadamente frecuen a la casa. (P2)

Romanian: Ea a fost un musafir extreme de frecvent in casa. (P2)

Example 1 from the first participant shows that Romanian translation was *foarte des*; this expression is similar to very often in English. The general meaning of the sentence was kept in this translation. Spanish translation was *frecuente*. Both translations do not show any evidence of influence. As for the second participant, it can be seen that Spanish translation was *extremadamente frecuen*; this structure shows a semantic and literal translation from the word extremely, and maintains the meaning with the original sentence; however, the word *frecuen* was not completed (*frecuente*). The expression *muy frecuente* combines better with *visitante* (visitor). Romanian translation was *extreme de frecvent* which is similar in meaning to the Spanish literal translation. It can be stated that L2-English influenced L3-Spanish, and as a consequence L1-Romanian.

#### 4.3 The language acceptability instrument

The analysis of this instrument focuses on describing which language, either L1 Romanian or L2 English, had a higher influence when the participant selected the combinatory item that collocated better. The language acceptability instrument shows more evidence of cross-linguistic influence in L3-Spanish. This instrument also reflects a cross-linguistic influence

in Spanish lexical collocations. For the analysis of this instrument, lexical collocations were grouped according to their syntactic structure.

#### **4.3.1 Verb + Adverb**

This group consists of lexical collocations conformed by a verb and an adverb, and it is conformed of two lexical collocations.

##### 1. querer/desear ardientemente

Example 1 from both the first and the second participant was *desear*. This choice may have been influenced by the Romanian equivalent in meaning *a dori*, which is used with the same purpose (to feel sexual longing for somebody). This choice combines better with the adverb *ardientemente*.

##### 2. negar/contradecir categóricamente

Example 2 from both of the participants was the verb *negar*, which combines better with the adverb *categóricamente*. This item may have been influenced by L1 Romanian language because the verb equivalent in meaning is *a nega*; it is possible to identify the identical syntax and meaning both verbs share.

#### **4.3.2 Verb + Noun**

This group consists of lexical collocations conformed by a verb and a noun, and is formed by five lexical collocations.

##### 1. limar/suavizar asperezas

Example 1 from both of the participants was the verb *limar*, which combines better with the plural noun *asperezas*. The Romanian equivalent in meaning of this verb is *a slefui*, while in English language is to smooth. This item does not show any evidence of influence.

## 2. enmendar/arreglar errores

Example 2 from the first participant was the verb *arreglar*. This verb is similar in meaning to the verb to repair or to fix in English language, and to the verb *a repara* in Romanian language. It can be said that such selection of combinatory items was influenced by L1 Romanian language because the verb *a repara* is used for relationships and problems; however this choice is not the best combinatory item for the noun *errores* (mistakes) in L3 Spanish. As for the second participant, the selection was the verb *enmendar* which combines better with the noun *errores*. This selection shows no evidence of influence.

## 3. realizar/celebrar un contrato

In this example, both of the participants selected the verb *celebrar* which combines better with the noun *contrato*. The Romanian equivalent is *a incheia un contract*, and the English equivalent is to execute a contract. This item does not show evidence of any influence.

## 4. hacer/cometer un error

Example 4 from this group shows that both of the participants selected the verb *cometer* which combines better with the noun *error*. The English equivalent is to make a mistake, and the Romanian equivalent is *a face o greseala*. Both verbs to make and *a face* share the same meaning. It possible to determine that language knowledge led to the selection of the most appropriate option. This item does not show evidence of any influence.

#### 5. dar/tomar un paseo

In this example, the first participant selected the verb *tomar* which is similar in meaning to the English collocation to take a walk. It can be determined that this item shows influence from L2-English. With respect to the second participant, the selection was the verb *dar* which combines better with the noun *paseo*; the Romanian equivalent is *a merge la plimbare*. The verb *a merge* is equivalent in meaning to the English verb to go (as in go for a walk). It can be seen that this selection may have been influenced by L2 English language too, but it is the knowledge of the language what determines the selection of the best combinatory item.

### 4.3.3 Noun + Adjective

This group consists of lexical collocations conformed by a noun and an adjective. This group consists of four lexical collocations.

#### 1. competencia desleal/infiel

In this example, both of the participants selected the adjective *desleal* which combines better with the noun *competencia*. This item does not show evidence of any influence.

#### 2. sueño leve/ligero

In this example, both of the participants selected the adjective *ligero* which combines better with the noun *sueño*. The Romanian equivalent is *somn usor*, and the English equivalent is light sleep. It is possible to determine that participants' selection (*ligero* similar to *usor*-light) was influenced by both L2 English language, and L1 Romanian language.

#### 3. lluvia furiosa/torrencial

In this example, both of the participants selected the adjective *torrencial* which combines better with the noun *lluvia*. The Romanian equivalent is *plouie torrenciala*, and the English equivalent is heavy rain. It is possible to determine that participants' selection in this item was influenced by L1 Romanian language.

#### 4. viento huracanado/fuerte

In this example, the first participant selected the adjective *fuerte* which is similar in meaning to the word *puternic* in Romanian language, and to the word *strong* in English language. This combination is also possible in Spanish language; it can be said that this selection is related to Romanian language (*vant puternic*), and to English language (*strong wind*). In regards to the second participant, the selected adjective was *huracanado* which also combines with the noun *viento*. This item does not show evidence of any influence.

#### **4.4 Conclusion**

This chapter presented the data analysis obtained from the instruments used in this research project. The significance of the study will be mentioned in chapter 5.

## **Chapter V: Conclusions**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the general conclusions of this research project. It starts with the conclusions. It continues with the study contributions, the limitations of the research, and suggestions for further research.

### **5.2 Conclusions**

Regarding the research question posed at the beginning of this thesis, the data results obtained from the instruments used in this research project shows the following:

The results obtained from this research project show the existence of a cross-linguistic influence of L2 English (second language), and L1 Romanian (native language) in L3 Spanish acquisition and production. However, this cross-linguistic influence cannot be generalized because some translations did not show any influence at all. This situation is consistent with evidence that describes cross-linguistic influences as a complex phenomenon in which several factors are associated (Ortega, 2009).

The data provided evidence that third language acquisition and production can be influenced by first (L1) and/or second languages (L2) according to proficiency levels in the language constellation (Ortega, 2009; Odlin, 2003), and learner's perception of language similarities (Ortega, 2009) known as psychotypology (Kellerman, 1983).

In regards to proficiency levels in the language constellation, there is one example that illustrates this point. The second participant translated the lexical collocation best-selling

thriller as *pelicula de horror mas vendida* in Spanish language. This shows the confusion or lack of knowledge in the use of the word thriller in Spanish, which is more associated to *suspense*. As a consequence, Romanian translation was related to this misunderstanding, and ended up as *film de groaza*; this expression is related to horror, terror, and fear in Romanian language.

In relation to learner's perception of language similarities, the first participant provided an example. The inclusion of a Romanian word (*despre*) instead of the word *sobre* in the Spanish translation shows unconscious perception of similarity between languages. This word inclusion receives the name of code-shifting, and it represents a different type of a cross-linguistic influence (Ellis, 2001)

Other aspect obtained from data analysis is the evidence of literal translations when the participant lacks of knowledge in a certain language. Such lack of knowledge may be related to the different contexts of the lexical collocations, and their lack of use. One example that illustrates this point is provided by the second participant. The lexical collocation extremely frequent was translated as *extremadamente frecuen* in Spanish language, and then as *extreme de frecvent* in Romanian language. Such translations do not sound natural in their respective languages. This literal translation can be influenced by the 'source language' (Wlosowicz, 2012, p. 146), in this case L2 English. In other words, the instrument designed in L2 English language can influence the translation choices made by the participants in L3 Spanish and L1 Romanian languages.

Other interesting aspect obtained from the data analysis was the inclusion of blendings in two translations. With respect to the first participant who translated the lexical collocation



strong accent as *fuerte acento* in Spanish language, it is possible to see the mixture of English language with Spanish language in the word *accento* (accent + acento). With respect to the second participant who translated the lexical collocation powerful computer as *computerului puternic* in Romanian language, it is also possible to notice the mixture of English language with a Romanian inflection that shows possession of an object in the word *computerului* (computer + ului).

In some cases, it could be observed some less acceptable translations because the original meaning of the sentence provided was changed. One example of this situation was provided by the first participant. The original collocation was blowing bubbles; the first Romanian translation was *sufila*, and then corrected to *umfla baloane*; the Spanish translation was *inflando globos*; as mentioned before, this misinterpretation comes from the Romanian translation. A different example of this situation was provided by the second participant. The original collocation was thick hair; Spanish translation was *pelo delgado* (thin hair), and Romanian translation was *parul firare* (thin hair); as mentioned before, the correct translations could have been *pelo grueso* in Spanish language, and *blana groasa* in Romanian language (both referring to dog's hair). Such translations have the opposite meaning to the original lexical collocation, and the original sentence.

Even though the examples above show evidence of less acceptable translations in regards to meaning, a negative cross-linguistic influence does not always result in ungrammatical structures or sentences (Ortega, 2009). Such errors can be reflected on avoidance (Ortega, 2009; Ellis, 1985; Ellis, 2001), and adjustments. One example of this situation is the Spanish translation provided by the first participant; the lexical collocation was good

journey translated as *viajaste placentero*. This shows evidence of a syntactic adjustment that keeps a similar meaning to the original.

An interesting aspect of the data obtained is the evidence of cross-linguistic influence from L3 Spanish in L1 Romanian. This situation has been explained as a ‘transfer in both directions’ (Kramsch, 2007, p. 912). In other words, situations in which a second (L2) and/or a third (L3) language have an influence back in a first (L1) language. One example of this circumstance was provided by the second participant; the Romanian translation of the English lexical collocation good journey was influenced by L3 Spanish (*buen viaje*); this collocation was translated first as *drum bun* (safe journey), and then corrected for *calatorie placuta* (good journey). As mentioned before, both expressions are used in different situations related to tense; the first relates to future, and the latter to past.

Although not the main focus of this research project, it is worth mentioning some structures that show a cross-linguistic influence from L1 Romanian in L3 Spanish, and vice versa.

The first example comes from the first instrument. With respect to the first participant, the inclusion of a Romanian word (*despre*) instead of the word *sobre* in the Spanish translation shows unconscious perception of similarity between languages. The second example also comes from the first instrument, and was provided by the second participant. Spanish translation *un(a) problema mundial* instead of *un problema mundial* is related to the feminine characteristic of the same word *problema* in Romanian language. This circumstance is opposite to Spanish language that gives this word a masculine characteristic. Even though this situation was corrected, it shows confusion and/or perception of similarity between languages.

Having considered the aspects mentioned above, it can be concluded that the answer to the research question is a very complex phenomenon because it involves different aspects. These aspects are internal and external factors related to participant's environment, the participant's psychological perceptions of language similarities, as well as level of proficiency or language knowledge in different contexts.

The significance of this research project is related to the development of a better understanding of how cross-linguistic influence in lexical collocations from L1, and L2 can influence L3 acquisition and production.

### **5.3 Study contributions**

The present study contributes to our knowledge of cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition and production. As mentioned before, there is a variety of studies focused on almost the same types of language constellations. The language constellation proposed for this research project, L1 Romanian- L2 English- L3 Spanish, presents a different combination of languages on the study of third language acquisition and cross-linguistic influence. Also, psychotypology proved to be an important part of the variety of aspects that can influence third language acquisition and production.

### **5.4 Limitations of the research and suggestions for further research**

The main limitation this research project presents is the fact of the inclusion of only two participants. As a first suggestion for further research, it would be very interesting to develop a similar study with a greater number of participants with similar characteristics. More data could show different results in cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition and production.

Other limitation of this research project is the fact that there was not an adequate control in the application of the first instrument. Such circumstance may have affected the results because the first participant translated first into Romanian language, and then into Spanish language; meanwhile, the second participant translated first into Spanish language, and then into Romanian language.

Also, it is important to mention that the first instrument was designed in L2 English. This situation itself may influence participants' perception of the lexical collocations, and as a consequence may influence participants' translations.

Other interesting suggestion for further research can be to develop a similar research study focused on some other type of linguistic items; this could demonstrate cross-linguistic influence in different aspects of language use.

In addition, it could be interesting to consider a different type of language constellation for researching about third language acquisition; for example, to consider a third language (L3) without any relation to Indo-European family languages, such as a Sino-Tibetan language (Thai, Mandarin, Cantonese, etc.).

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## **Appendix 1**

### **Language translation instrument**

Translate to Spanish and Romanian the next sentences:

1. A slow accumulation of facts about the motor industry.
2. His English teacher has a strong accent.
3. She gladly accepted his invitation.
4. Students have easy access to internet these days.
5. Hotel guests have to use the shared bathroom.
6. One of his legs was badly broken.
7. My children are blowing bubbles.
8. She was an extremely frequent visitor to the house
9. That dog has thick hair.
10. The meat got frosty very quickly.
11. Never has she tried a strong tea.
12. She downloaded the program because of her powerful computer
13. I hope you had a good journey.
14. My brother is a good driver.
15. The doctor performed the operation.
16. Liza is having a drink at the bar.
17. The dentist suggests keeping calm.
18. Lots of ships have gone missing in the Bermuda's Triangle.
19. While we were standing there, Sandy had a bright idea.
20. I will go to buy black coffee.
21. Teenage pregnancy is becoming a worldwide problem.
22. The mechanic is checking the steering wheel.
23. The silence of the lambs is a best-selling thriller.

## Appendix 2

### Language acceptability instrument

A continuación leerá combinaciones de palabras en español con dos opciones. Subraye la opción que combine mejor.

1. querer/desear ardientemente
2. negar/contradecir categóricamente
3. limar/suavizar asperezas
4. competencia desleal/infiel
5. enmendar/arreglar errores
6. realizar/celebrar un contrato
7. sueño leve/ligero
8. lluvia furiosa/torrencial
9. viento huracanado/fuerte
10. hacer/cometer un error
11. dar/tomar un paseo