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**CROSSLINGUISTIC INFLUENCE OF AN L2 ON AN L3
IN THE ORAL PRODUCTION**

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PRODUCTION”

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“Not just the outer layer but the inner substance, a butterfly inside a cocoon”

(Ha:tfelt & Hyerim, 2014).

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

In the sections that follow, the background of the research topic as well as the rationale, its purpose, the research questions and its significance will be presented.

1.1 Background

Cross-linguistic Influence (CLI) in a third language is one of the most recent topics to investigate in the field of Linguistics. Multilingual learners usually tend to mix the languages they are learning during their oral performance. Most of the times it is a consequence of learning more than one at the same time, in other words, they are in constant contact with both (L2 and L3) and it opens a place for the cross-linguistic influence. According to Angelis (2007), the research of this phenomenon “seeks to explain how and under what conditions prior linguistic knowledge influences the production, comprehension and development of a target language”. As Odlin (1989) states, transfer is the effect that one language has during the process of acquisition of another language, without taking into account the previous ones.

It is well-known that students can help themselves with their mother tongue in order to comprehend and perform a speech in the second language they acquire. Nevertheless, this happens similarly when they have already achieved at least a minimum level required for the L2 course and start learning an L3. Third language acquisition is defined as those systems of communication which are being learnt after a second language (Safont, 2005). When someone is able to produce a basic content of this system, it is said that the learner can consider that language as the L3. However, a mixture of the three language systems may occur, but particularly between the most recent acquired one.

At the very beginning of this third language acquisition, students are more susceptible to make use of their L2 in the L3, especially when both are typologically close. Griehaber, Rehbein & Şimşek (2006) state that if the last language which has been learnt shares some similarities with the other acquired languages, the speaker can produce those characteristics in the base language (whether L2 or the mother tongue). Languages such as English and German can play a role in the cross-linguistic patterns that students might show while performing either, and this is possible due to their language closeness. Besters-Dilger, Dermarkar, Pfänder & Rabus (2014, p.94) claim that “closeness is strong enough to allow

for semi-communication and gradual conversational approximation between the codes”. This combination is likely to occur from the L2 to L3 rather than the L1 to the third language.

Since languages share some similarities in vocabulary, syntax, grammar or pronunciation, multilinguals tend to transfer some specific patterns which they believe can be shared in both languages. Related to pronunciation, students might transfer phonological aspects unconsciously or might get confused at the moment of producing the language. Murphy (2003) establishes that there is partial or complete evidence of the L2 sounds when learners perform the language unwittingly. Hence, this research paper is mainly focused on the crosslinguistic influence of an L2 in an L3, its role in pronunciation (conscious and unconscious speaking) and the importance of language closeness in this cross-linguistic transfer.

1.2 Rationale

As the consideration of L2 to L3 in the field of cross-linguistic transfer has not been so investigated as the L1 to L2, it has been showed that this topic needs to be more scoped. For example, Beghoul (2008, p.65) claims that there is “an unexplored aspect of an intricate phenomenon which is cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition. This aspect is the influence of the spelling of a second language on the pronunciation of a third one”. Consequently, the Cross-linguistic Influence (CLI) in oral production needs to be studied in order to fill some research gaps.

Investigations carried out by Bardel & Lindqvist (2006), Wrembel (2010,2011), Feindt (2018), Díaz & Pascual (2011), Tremblay (2006) and Kopečková (2018) had the aim to look for the general causes and manifestations of this cross-linguistic influence, but just one of these had L2 German and L3 English learners as participants, who will be the subjects to study on this research. Moreover, research conducted by Gut (2010), Onishi (2016), Ven et al. (2018), Kopečková (2018), Dadbakhsh & Jabbari (2016), Mirza, Gottardo & Chen (2016), Kambanaros, Michaelides & Grohmann (2017), Lipińska (2015) and Díaz & Pascual (2011) have focused on the transfer of vocabulary through the use of word flashcards and reading aloud tasks, but not specifically on the pronunciation of these words (except on the

last one mentioned), rather on the transfer of cognates or their use on speech when the L3 vocabulary did not come to the mind of the speakers.

Related to typological issues, just researches such as Lloyd-Smith, Gyllstad & Kupisch (2017) and Arratibel-Irazusta & Martínez (2017) were found to be concentrated on this topic but also in the transfers of the L1, which is going to be skipped on this academic paper. On the other hand, there are investigations which have been merely focused on some phonological patterns such as voice onset time, strong/weak vowels and its reduction, intonation or/and stressed, voiceless stops, laterals and diphthongs. Some examples are Gut (2010), Wrembel (2011), Beghoul (2008), Nikolaev, Parfenov & Artemiev (2015), Mayans (2015), Díaz & Pascual (2011), Llama & Cardoso (2018)

From all the previous researches from 2006 to 2018, there has not been one concentrated on Spanish mother tongue speakers with English as L2 and German as L3, neither any investigation of this linguistic problem focused on pronunciation has been scoped in Mexico but on countries like Poland, Canada, Germany, United States of America, the Netherlands, Algeria, Russia, Spain and Iran. Furthermore, common but unconscious conversation has not been implemented in the data collections.

1.3 Objective

The main objective for this research is to identify an L2 cross-linguistic influence (English) in the pronunciation of L3 learners (German) of different proficiency levels (A1.1, A2.1, B1.1) in a controlled and an uncontrolled speaking task in order to determine whether language closeness is a factor for this interference.

1.3.1 Specific Objectives.

- To analyze a pronunciation crosslinguistic influence in L3 German learners at different proficiency levels.
- To determine whether it is more likely to occur a crosslinguistic influence from the L2 into the L3 in a controlled and an uncontrolled oral production of languages which share a typological closeness.

1.4 Research questions

1. To what extent do German learners (L3) at different proficiency levels transfer phonological patterns of their L2 (English)? Which participant group transferred less phonological patterns when they used their L3?
2. When do German learners transfer L2 patterns the most in the L3 controlled or uncontrolled tasks?
3. What are the main causes of this oral production transfer from English to German?

1.5 Significance of the study

The results of this paper will contribute to detect the role of pronunciation crosslinguistic influence on learners who have an intermediate level of the L2 and a basic, elementary and intermediate level of the L3. This will be helpful for students in order to be aware and avoid L2 interferences and make an improvement on their L3 pronunciation. Also, this could provide information to teachers of how to help students to reduce transfers and sound more like a native speaker of their third language.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

The relevant literature related to the main object of this study is outlined in this section. The first part lays out with the definition of Cross-linguistic Influence as the construct. Later on, the historical background of this topic as well as concepts related to it are presented. Lastly, some recent researches conducted on the field of Cross-linguistic Influence of an L2 in an L3 in the oral production are summarized.

2.1 Definition of Cross-linguistic Influence

If an individual is learning two or more languages at the same time, a mixture of both can occur at the moment to produce something in the L2 or L3. Angelovska and Hahn (2012) point out that Cross-linguistic Influence (CLI) is “about the roles of the different languages coming into play during the third or additional language acquisition process” (p.24). As a result of this, the activation of general patterns (pronunciation, grammar, etc.) of previous languages in the following ones can be observed while learning a new system.

As this is a recent topic to research, there are not many specific definitions of it, but there are researchers who have stated different meanings of CLI. Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) define this phenomenon as “the influence of a person’s knowledge of one language on that person’s knowledge or use of another language” (p.1). It is considered a phenomenon because it causes a problem, which has to be solved, in the use of a speaker’s acquired languages. Thus, properties of one of learners’ target languages can appear in the improvement or acquisition of a new language and provoke errors due to the similar spelling these languages share (Genesee, Geva, Dressler & Kamil, 2006).

Moreover, Weinreich (1953, cited in Forsyth, 2014) refers to this phenomenon as an event where the language is branched off from its general rules and adapted to the ones of the language that is being learned. Consequently, this phenomenon appears “when one language influences another, and the already influenced language in turn influences another language in the process of being acquired” (Angelis, 2007, p. 21). All this confusion can be reflected in the way the student expresses some ideas in written or spoken speech or the variation of pronunciation or the type of speech (formal or informal) that is being produced.

2.2 Historical Framework

As it was stated before, the concept of CLI is a recent topic in the area of Applied Linguistics. Indeed, this phenomenon was not called or presented with this name at the very beginning and it was considered as a mental condition which limits the proper use of a language, but this changed thanks to globalization and different researches (Moattarian, 2013). Due to some samples of influence of a known language in a target one, the term interference was introduced in the decade of 1950 in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research, merely observed in grammar and syntax, then phonology, and later in other language levels and aspects such as spelling and gestures (Alonso, 2016).

With the appearance of the behaviorism theory, the concept of interference was replaced by transfer, which started to be used in the 1960s and was described “as the extension of a known language into the target language consciously or unconsciously in either way, positively or negatively” (Lado, 1964, cited in Aysan, 2012, p.2). Due to its behavioristic origin and the criticism to this theory, the word transfer started to be less used (some researchers continue making use of this name in the 21st century) and the term cross-linguistic influence was introduced by Kellerman and Sharwood-Smith in 1986 and later by Odlin in 1989. This concept was well accepted and considered as a phenomenon by SLA investigators because it encloses all the ways in which a language system, which has been already acquired by someone, might affect the input and output of another target language (Jessner, 2003; Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008; Alonso, 2016).

Since its beginnings, the concepts previously presented were just related to the L1 to L2, but the interest of the influence of an L_n (any number of language) to another acquired language (e.g an L2 to an L3) increased in the early 2000s. Some researches made by “Cenoz, Hufheisen, and Jessner (2001) offer many perspectives on such cases, as do studies by Gabrys-Barker (2004), Odlin and Jarvis (2004), and Odlin, Alonso Alonso, and Alonso-Vázquez (2004)” (as cited in Odlin, 2005, p.4).

2.3.1 Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

Before getting into the causes of CLI, it is important to make a comparison between the languages which are influencing the knowledge and performance of a target language. As stated by Geeraerts and Cuyckens (2007, p. 1115), “the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis broadly claims that the difficulties in second language learning derive from the differences between the target language and the learner’s first language and are mainly caused by interference from the first language”. Due to Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) came up in 1957 by Lado, any other Ln was not included in this statement. Nevertheless, this hypothesis can be observed from any previous language to a new acquired one.

In order to understand the new language which is being acquired, multilinguals help themselves with the language patterns they have already learnt. Consequently, they think that these systems can be similar and correct in the target language too. This hypothesis is “the belief that difficulties in learning a language can be predicted on the basis of systematic comparison of the system of the learner’s first language [...] with the system of a second language” (Malmkjær, 2010, p. 98). Even when this area is cared for the L1 to L2 at the beginning, it can be applied from any pair of systems which share linguistic similarities.

Due to this is a hypothesis, there are two types of CAH which consider these transfers as strong and weak. The strong one establishes a system which stated that there are enough linguistic elements between two languages to predict easily the transfer from an Ln to the target one (Khalifa, 2017). On the other hand, the weak hypothesis is just a guide to analyze a pair of languages which have been already observed and the possible patterns (phonological, syntactic, grammar, etc.) which might be transferred due to their similarities (Wardhaugh, 1970, cited in Ping, 2018). Indeed, this version of the hypothesis do not take this as an interference but more as technique in which learners make use of a previous language into another one when they do not know a certain word, grammar rule or the way to pronounce something in the language which is being acquired (Tajareh, 2015).

2.3.1.1 Error Analysis

Transfers from one language to another may be considered as errors and these can be classified due to different factors. In order to determine what kind of transfer they are, the error analysis comes up. Error Analysis (EA) can be defined as a process to settle and regulate the frequency, origin, factors and effects related to the wrong perform and use of a language (James, 2013). Bussman (2006) states that this approach provides a way to classify errors. This can be related to modality (according to learner's level of the four main language skills), levels of linguistic description (branches of linguistics or language characteristics), form (replacement, absence or addition of some patterns), type (due to similarities in languages, proficiency of students, etc.) and causes (interlanguage transfer, cross-linguistic influence and so on). In the learning-teaching field, this analysis does not have to be seen as negative. Actually, it is a way to help students to correct those mistakes in the early stage of the acquisition process. Corder (1974, cited in Heydari & Bagheri, 2012, p. 1584) considers that this approach focuses on:

what the learner knows and does not know" and to " ultimately enable the teacher to supply him not just with the information that his hypothesis is wrong, but also, importantly, with the right sort of information or data for him to form a more adequate concept of a rule in the target language.

2.3.2 Interlingual transfer

Multilinguals usually make use of their previous languages in order to facilitate their process of acquisition of a new language and to communicate ideas or statements in that system, even when this strategy might be used positively or negatively. Interlingual transfer can be understood as the use of certain elements of the mother tongue or the languages, which the speaker learnt before, in the target language (Afshunpour & Memarib, 2014). If the languages seem to be similar in certain characteristics (pronunciation, spelling, etc.) or have been recently learnt, students are more likely to present this transfer. Brown (2007, p. 225) points out the following statement:

There are varying degrees of interlingual interference from both the first and second language to the third language, especially if the second and third language are

closely related or the learner is attempting a third language shortly after beginning a second language.

When students are still beginners in the third or following acquired languages, they are in need of copying elements of their mother tongue and previous languages to be able to produce something in the target one. With regard to pronunciation, multilingual learners tend to create representations from the closest language phonetic systems they have acquired because they have not been exposed to native speakers' pronunciation (Gass & Schachter, 1989). As consequence of this, an interlingual transfer in pronunciation occurs.

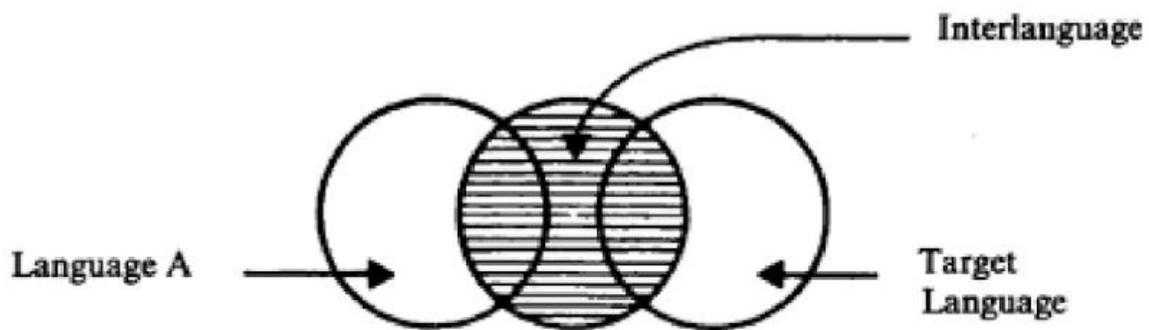


Figure 1. Interlanguage transfer representation by S P Corder (cited in Richards, 2014, p.162).

2.3.3 Intralingual transfer

During the process of language acquisition, students believe that the rules they have already learnt can be applied for any other aspect of this language. As a result, they make mistakes or errors in this new language and those are not related to their previous ones. When this occurs, it is considered as an intralingual transfer. Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Goodwin (2010, p.23) define this as “those errors stemming from marked or complex features in the structure of the target language itself and which thus seem to be committed by all-second language learners of the target languages regardless of their native language”. That is to say, multilingual students overgeneralize the knowledge they have acquired in that language and use it in the new topics to learn.

Even though this transfer can be considered as negative because it represents a lack of knowledge, it is part of the acquisition and improvement of the target language and they may appear because those structures, which the student is overgeneralizing in the same language, have not been or partially learnt at a certain point (Richards, 1971, cited in Kaweera, 2013). Regarding to pronunciation, Kesharvaz (2008, cited in Jam, Rahimi & Kasegari) proposes two pronunciation errors caused by interlingual transfer: spelling pronunciation (the action of pronouncing the words just like they are written) and the mispronunciation of silent letters in certain words but in others not (e.g. transferring the h sound of the English word “horse” in the word “hour”). As it can be understood, these transfers commonly occur at the first stages of acquisition but it is not related with a previous language, as interlingual transfer does.

2.3.4 Negative Transfer

Learners tend to produce patterns of their previous languages in the new systems being acquired because they assume that these rules can be applied there too. Notwithstanding, they might fail or succeed on it. When the use of those rules is incorrectly, a negative transfer occurs. Ringbom (2007, p.30-31) considers negative transfer as the “absence of relevant concrete (positive) transfer, leading to subsequent wrong assumption about cross-linguistic similarities” which can be from the L2 to the L3. It has to be mentioned that this transfer can be classified in two aspects: language negative transfer and pragmatic negative transfer, being the first one focused on pronunciation (Zheng, 2015). This type of transfer is more likely to occur among languages which are from the same family and, as a result of this, their phonological characteristics are alike. Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Goodwin (1996, p.28) claim that “the extent of influence that negative transfer exerts may differ from learner to learner, and may also vary depending on the type of phonetic structure [...] being acquired”. So then, pronunciation rules which are almost equal but different at some point can provoke negative transfers.

2.3.5 Positive Transfer

As negative interferences exist, there are positive patterns being transferred from a previous system to a new one too. Saville-Troike (2012) states that if the learner makes use of a specific structure or characteristic accurately in one of the previous languages and the one which is being acquired, the transfer is positive. This serves as a guide or help for students to achieve a better understanding in the language being learnt. Indeed, Damas (2016) claims that this type of transfer is an advantage for multilingual students to learn a new system because they have already acquired those features in another language and to make this process more straightforward.

A positive transfer depends on where the learner finds a support in a previous language to produce another one. According to Snowman and McCown (2011, p.364) there are two classifications of positive transfer:

Positive transfer that is due to identifiable similarities between an earlier-learned task and a current one is referred to as specific answer. Positive transfer that is due to the formulation, use and carryover of cognitive strategies from one [...] to another is referred to as general transfer.

2.4 Language Acquisition

In order to produce a system of sounds and words, specific phases of acquisition have to be held. Crystal (2011) defines language acquisition as a process or the outcome of learning certain patterns of a language and then its general characteristics. It cannot be called as acquisition if the learner is not totally able to produce meaningful output in a language. In order to achieve this, “they need sounds and words, meanings and constructions. They need to know what to use where and when, how to integrate language with other modes of communication, how to make themselves understood, and how to understand others” (Clark, 2016, p.1).

The acquisition of a language depends on different situations. Consequently, there are different factors to determine that a subject has already achieved the acquisition of a language. Hickmann, Veneziano and Jisa (2018, p.4) divide those in two types: “exogenous factors that might affect language acquisition involve the different environments in which learning takes place, while endogenous factors involve dimensions of the learners

themselves”. Therefore, the language acquisition process is connected to internal and external characteristics of learner’s life which will lead to obtain the elements of a language which are needed to perform it. Ellis (1997, cited in Groß, 2015) considers:

the social milieu in which learning takes place and the input that learners receive as important external factors” and “refers to internal factors like cognitive mechanisms that people possess and enable them to extract information about [...] language from the input (p.2).

2.4.1 Multilingualism

The acquisition of different languages leads to manage more than one system and being able to use them in order to communicate an idea, and there is when multilingualism shows up. Maher (2017, p.3) defines this concept as “a social situation involving groups or communities who communicate, with varying proficiency, in more than one language, in addition to a national or standard language”. This type of learners acquired different tools to sound like a native speaker but conserves some properties of their mother tongue and the language systems they have acquired. Todeva and Cenoz (2009, p.3) agree that “some multilingual achieved a very sophisticated, but different knowledge of a target language that goes beyond the common core mastered by many native speakers”. Even when multilingualism means that the speaker has already the basis of different languages and is able to apply them, its use may be mixed and sometimes the learner produces chunks of one language into another one. The cross-linguistic influence of a language happens from the previous languages into the target one and vice versa, i.e. the target language influencing the L1 or any system already acquired, which is considered as multi-directional transfer (De Angelis, 2007, cited in Bhatia & Richie, 2012).

2.4.1.1 Second Language Acquisition

Nowadays there is more interest in speaking not just about the mother tongue. Naturally, a person has to pass through another process of learning in order to achieve this. Ortega (2009, p.1-2) defines second language acquisition (SLA) as “the human capacity to learn languages other than the first, during late childhood, adolescence or adulthood, and once the first

language or languages have been acquired”. As it has been stated before, it is common that learners find a helping hand on their first languages to understand better the new system being acquired. Bot, Lowie & Verspoor (2005, p.22) describe how these languages interact in the following explanation:

At the beginning stages of [...] the L2, changes in the L1 may be hardly noticeable, but changes in the L2 can be very noticeable. New L2 ways of pronouncing phonemes, words, expressions, and types of sentence structures are added every day. At later stages of L2 learning, the L2 may stabilize.

Inside of this process, the pronunciation patterns of the L2 is one of the first elements to be acquired by the learners but sometimes it is difficult for them to separate their mother tongue’s phonological elements from the new one. James (1996, p. 295) establishes that the “L2 sound acquisition is not only that the development of articulatory and perceptual abilities proceeds out of phase, but also the development of phonological and pronunciation capacities unfold quasi-independently of each other”. For this reason, the L1 sounds play a role during the L2 learning but this influence will diminish through the acquisition period.

2.4.1.2 Third language acquisition

The importance of managing more than two languages has increased in the recent years. Subsequently, the research of Third Language Acquisition (TLA) too. Hammarberg (2009, p.6) considers that a third language (L3) is “a non-native language which is currently being acquired in a situation where the person already has knowledge of one or more L2s besides one [...] L1s”. During the acquisition of the L3 and since learners have their previous languages as references, they are more likely to select and produce certain characteristics that look similar for them in those languages and overuse them because they think they are well-done used, which may be or not. (Krevelj, 2013). As mentioned before, this mixing of languages can be something positive or negative in the acquisition of a third language system. Focusing on the positive matters, people who study an L3 have already acquired strategies to learn and manage more than one language. Cenoz (2011, p.72) notices that “third language learners can use this broader linguistic repertoire when learning a third language. For

example, they can relate new structures, new vocabulary or new ways of expressing communicative functions to the two languages they already know”.

2.4.2 Language Awareness

If students are conscious of the variances and similarities between the systems they have already acquired and the transfers from a previous language to an Ln that they probably do, it can be said that a language awareness occurs. This term is defined as the “explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use” (Association for Language Awareness, n.d). It has been proved that multilingual learners are more aware of the characteristics of the languages they use or are learning. Jessner (1999, cited in Łyda & Szcześniak 2014, p.155) mentions that “third or additional language learners have a higher level of language awareness than L2 learners”. Consequently, “multilingual learners might be assumed to analyse not only their learning and production, but also their attrition, and to use strategies of counterbalancing it” (Łyda & Szcześniak 2014, p.155).

As it can occurred in any language level of any Ln, language awareness also exists in the phonological level. Indeed, Derwing (2017) classifies the factors involved during the phonological awareness of multilinguals in linguistic factors (the phonological systems of both or more languages and its spelling), learner factors (age, interest in the phonological rules as well as in the learning of the language) and the exposure of the pronunciation of the languages. Therefore, students, who are aware of all those characteristics mentioned before, are more likely to omit negative transfers during the acquisition process of the target language.

2.5 Language variation in L3

During the acquisition of a third language, there are different factors which may be an influence in this process. Chambers, Trudgill & Schilling (2006) mention that language variation study is related to detect how the language is used in specific environments or social situations and the factors involved on it. Since cross-linguistic influence is also part of the process of acquisition, these issues of language variation can be observed on it. Hammarberg (1998, cited in Martins & Pinharanda, 2013) conducted a case study from CLI in L2 to L3

and its results showed that this influence is provoked by the typology of the languages, L2 status, proficiency and recency. Furthermore, this linguistic variation is a sign of changes in the production or knowledge of the target language, which can create positive or negative transfers. Mougeon & Beniak (1996, p.70) mention that “linguistic variation, however, can also involve change, i.e., the rise and decline of competing variants”. Therefore, the factors inside the acquisition of the L3 can vary from student to student, because not all of them have learnt the languages in the same conditions.

2.5.1 Language typological closeness

One way to classify a language is according to the geographic area where they come. For example, German and English language are part of the Indo-European languages. Song (2014) defines this term as the classification of the connections between certain languages taking into account their history background. If a learner is studying two or more languages that come from the same typological family, some patterns are easier to be transferred than a language which has not similarities with the ones which have been learnt previously. Madlener (2015, p.322) explains that “cross linguistic influences may be due to overall typological closeness/distance of the languages involved and/or to their (dis-) similarity in the domain of specific constructions”. For this reason, German L3 learners who have English as L2 are more exposed to the crosslinguistic phenomena than learners who are acquiring two languages from different families. Brunner (2017) points out that the connections on structure and typology that two or more languages share increase the chances of the cross-linguistic phenomenon. Consequently, the CLI can be more visible in languages which are typologically closed rather than others which can have different alphabet, word order, phonological patterns and so on.

2.5.1.1 Cognates

A word can be equal or almost likely to another word in more than two languages and this can be possible due to their family language or linguistic loans. Yule (2017, p. 253) describes that “a cognate of a word in one language (e.g. English) is a word in another language (e.g. German) that has a similar form and is [...] used with a similar meaning”. When multilinguals see this type of words in an Ln, they tend to relate it to their previous languages and

comprehend them easily than other words. Otwinowska (2016) mentions that when multilingual learners read by themselves, cognates are recognized and understood first than the rest of the words and although they are reading in one system, the language which has that similar element comes to their minds during that process.

A model called BIA+ (Bilingual Interactive Activation Plus) was proposed by Dijkstra & Van Heuven in 2002. In this one, they affirm that transfers from an Ln (any Language number) to another language can be activated also in the phonological level and these are possible due to the similarities they share. Aguinaga (2017, p.28) exclaims that “BIA+ presents a bottom-up processing from feature into letter into word, and correspondingly from feature into phoneme into word. When this phonological interference arises, it can have an inhibiting effect on word recognition”. For this reason, there are high possibilities of transferring the L2 to the L3 at the moment of reading aloud texts which contain cognates.

2.5.2 L2 status

As mentioned before, the second language acquired by learners is one of their main sources to learn the L3, that is why the L2 can be visible at the moment to produce the target language, action which can be explained with a factor proposed by Bardel and Falk in 2007: the L2 status. Rothman (2013, p.229) declares that “L2 status factor maintains that the L2 takes on a significantly stronger role than the L1 in the initial stages of the L3”. Even when they have their mother tongue and the L1, it seems that students prefer to pick up chunks of the L2 and applying them in the L3. Amaro, Amaro and Rothman (2015) uphold that multilingual learners feel more comfortable to transfer structures of the L2 to an Ln rather than any other acquired previous system. There is still a discussion of typological closeness is a cause of the L2 status in related languages. Nevertheless, there are some researches which have proved influence of the L2 status. Jessner (2008, cited in Byram and Hu, 2013) collects different investigations focused on Indo-European languages which demonstrate that second language patterns are more likely to be transfer by multilingual students if the L1 is not typologically related to the L3 but the L2 is. Hence was the L2 status of those learners stronger than their L1 knowledge.

2.5.3 Recency of use

Some students start acquiring the third language when they are still studying their previous ones (L1 and L2). For this reason, the second language is still fresh on their minds and makes them to produce it on the target language. This situation is better well-known as recency of use, which are “phenomena whereby the production of a linguistic unit (sounds, lexical items, syntactic structures, and discourse patterns) depends on how much time has transpired since the previous occurrence of that same linguistic unit”. (Hernández-Campoy & Cutillas-Espinosa 2012, p.101).

Any learner is attempted present this, but it is more common on beginners or weaker students of the L3 or Ln. Taylor (2012, p. 213) expresses that learners, who have been studying both or more languages since a long time ago, “are resistant to modifying their linguistics habits in response to the language they hear around them”. On the other hand, Otwinowska (2016) suggests that this phenomenon happens when the learners have an advance level of the language which is making the interference in the target language in comparison to other systems they know. Nonetheless, the recency of use can be involved with the factors which were mentioned before in other points of this paper.

2.6 Markedness

Some elements of a language which are very noticeable and that the speaker has already acquired, have more possibilities to be transferred or produced in the following Ln, even when this may be or not correct. Eckman (1977, cited in Jin, 2008, p.298) defines markedness as “a phenomenon A in some language is more marked than B if the presence of A in a language implies the presence of B; but the presence of B does not imply the presence of A”. Regarding to pronunciation, when a phonetic sound or phonemic appears while producing the language, it can be said that is marked, but when it is voiceless, it can be consider unmarked. Bybee (2012, p.2) explains the following:

in terms of phonology, for the voiceless/voiced contrast in obstruents, this means that in a context of neutralization (e.g. in syllable final position in German), the occurrence of the voiceless obstruent means that voicing is irrelevant. In other contexts, it means that voiceless is truly signaled and contrasts with voicing. (p.2)

Inside markedness, typological closeness also plays a role. If there is an element which is constantly repeated in one language, may or not be transferred in another and this is not related to the proficiency of the language, but it is to the performance of the Ln. De Lacy (2006) mentions that when there is an alteration in one language which is not similar to another, the transfer will be reduce, but if that type of alteration has a comparable property in the Ln being produced, the frequency of producing it increases.

2.7 Recent studies

Even when there is not too much information of CLI related to pronunciation from English to German in learners who have Spanish as mother tongue, some researches have contributed to this part of the Applied Linguistics. Bardel & Lindqvist (2007) carried out a quantitative-partly introspective research with a multilingual Swedish learn whose L3 is Italian and L2 are English, French and Spanish. This research had the aim of detecting the circumstances for crosslinguistic influence in the third language in a typological and language proficiency view. By the end of this, it was shown that if the language system between these languages is similar, the transfer is more likely to occur. Moreover, the recent or low exposition of the L2 is a factor involved in this interference.

A case study based on auditory perspective was held by Lipińska in 2015. Its purpose was to assess the degree of foreign-accentedness and acceptability of L3 speech by a group of 15 Poland university students who were L2 advanced English and B2 L3 German learners. The obtained results thanks to the instruments, which were a short text passage in students' L1, L2 and L3 and assessment sheets to English and German native speakers, demonstrated that the L2 has a strong influence in students' L3 speaking ability (pronunciation) rather than the L1.

Tremblay (2006) developed a qualitative and quantitative investigation with thirteen English native speakers who have French as L2 and German as L3 in Ottawa University, Canada. The researcher's purpose was to determine L1 and L2 influences in students' L3 vocabulary (pronunciation) when students have different L2 levels. The participants answered a questionnaire related to their language learning history, two proficiency test of their L2 and L3 and an oral task with sets of cartoons in order to explain orally a story. With

all of this done, it was found that L2 low-proficiency students are not to exposed to present this phenomenon as the ones who already have more than the basis of their second language.

A research project executed by Gut (2009) had the aim to investigate the possible sources and directions of CLI on vowel reduction and speech rhythm produced by four speakers with German or English as L2 or L3 in the University of Bielefeld, Germany. This quantitative project made use of recordings (reading passages, retelling texts and an interview situation) of native speakers and the participants. By the end of the project, it was shown that students whose L2 and L3 are similar on phonology were more attempted to transfer the vowel reduction but their speech rhythm didn't present any crosslinguistic influence.

Lloyd-Smith, Gyllstad & Kupisch were in charge of a qualitative research in 2017. This had the purpose of incorporating heritage speakers (HSs) into L3 acquisition field in order to investigate the role of the language dominance for predicting L3 transfer on 18 speakers of Turkish, German and English who were living in Hamburg, Northern Germany. Questionnaires and naturalistic interviews were applied and participants were divided in three control groups. With this project, the researchers found that the closest languages are, in typological terms, the L3 beginner students are more likely to transfer phonological properties, especially from German to English.

Onishi (2016) held a quantitative project which have the aim of determining whether there is a correlation between perception performance in the L2 and L3 in 43 Korean students who had English as L2 and were acquiring Japanese as L3. Two perception tasks which consisted in oral production of vocabulary were assigned to the participants to detect a transfer of L2 in the L3. By the end of the research, it was obtained that advanced L2 learners have a positive transfer from the L2 to the L3 on the phonological perception.

An analytic method carried out in the Netherlands by van de Ven et al. (2018) had the aim to prove the relations between the Dutch word decoding ability and the developments of L2 English and L3 fluency. A Word Decoding Test, which consisted on reading aloud word flashcards quickly and accurately, was applied to 787 12 years-old students from secondary and high school. By the end of the investigation, it was proved that L3 beginners and elementary learners get more confused if their L2 and L3 share lexical similarities and this provoke the activation of the crosslinguistic influence.

Kambanaros, Michaelides & Grohmann (2016) were in charge of a case study of an 8 years-old girl with SLI (Specific Language Impairment) and had Bulgarian as L1, English as L2 and Greek as L3. The objective was to explore whether cognates are used to boost lexical language transfer in the context of multilingual SLI. Through the implementation of a questionnaire and the use of word flashcards with L1, L2 and L3 cognates, it was obtained that this transfer is related to the weakened links between the semantic and phonological systems of the three languages. Nevertheless, there was no evidence of this phenomenon after the treatment of SLI.

A quantitative research focused on 32 Polish University students with English as L2 and French as L3 was effectuated by Wrembel in 2011. This had the purpose of exploring the sources of L2 transfer in L3 voice onset time patterns. Three lists with L3 target words in the three languages students speak, a language background questionnaire and recordings were used as instruments. Through this research, it was found that less proficient L3 French learners were more likely to transfer the L1 and L2 in L3 voice onset time.

Beghoul (2008) implemented a qualitative research in order to explain the notion of oral crosslinguistic influence in 59 students with French as L2 and English as L3 in the University of Constantine, Algeria. Thanks to the use of audiotape recordings (oral expression) and listening comprehension exercises, it was obtained that English and French words which have similar etymology (origin) were the ones who provoked the most this phenomenon. Moreover, strong and weak vowels sounds such as /ə/, in English were more transferred in their third language.

Nikolaev, Parfenov and Artemiev (2015) held a research with the aim of determining a degree of prosodic interference to verify this system in the L1, L2 and L3 and its negative impact on intonation. Pre-written conversational dialogues and five read audios in English were used as instruments. The participants were divided into two groups: the examined group which included 10 3rd year students of the Yakutsk University, who learn English as a foreign language and Russian as second language and the second group conformed by 10 students of Cambridge University, the speakers of the southern dialect of British English. As a result of this, it was obtained that English utterances of special questions (low fall) are affected by their L1 and L2, but especially due to the L2 and its intonation in those type of

questions. In other words, patterns of this pronunciation can be transfer during a communicative speech act.

An acoustic analysis focused on bilinguals of English and Spanish who learned Catalan as third language was conducted by Mayans in 2015 in the University of California. This investigation had the intention of observing in early bilingual speakers patterns of phonological transfer of laterals into Catalan. The three instruments used on this project were a language background questionnaire, self-report proficiency test, recordings narrating a short story and a picture elicitation task administered in Catalan. To sum up, just one student transferred one the sounds mentioned before as in the L1 and L2, but the subjects who were more conscious of the process did not present any transfer.

In Ottawa, Canada, a quantitative research whose intention was to explore whether the L1 and the L2 compete or converge on L3 pronunciation was carried out by Llama and Cardoso (2018). The 30 participants, who were L3 Spanish adult advanced learners but L1/L2 French speakers, answered a Language Background Questionnaire (LBQ), three proficiency tests, and three reading aloud tasks consisting of word lists with voiceless stops in stressed onset position in order to obtain the following results: the more the proficiency of the L3 increase, the less effect the L2 has, giving an opportunity to the L1 to transfer some phonological patterns in the L3. Nevertheless, the subjects were tempted to commit transfers of the L2 in voiceless stops but this did not occur neither in the L1.

A contrastive analysis in Hamburg, Germany, was conducted by Feindt in 2018. The purpose of this project, which had 66 monolingual German and 35 bilingual Turkish-German children with L3 English as participants, was to draw attention to bilinguals' phonological growth and observe whether the acquisition process is influenced by the L1 or the L2. With the use of recordings of words with English voiced and voiceless alveolar affricates sounds, it was proved that there can be negative transfers from both previous known systems but this was not visible in that specific phonological aspect of English language.

In Münster, Germany, Kopečková (2018) conducted a qualitative research with the purpose of exploring the nature and manifestations of metalinguistic awareness in the phonological acquisition of twenty 13 years-old native speakers of German with B2 English (L2) and B1 Spanish (L3). An interview in which they shared their language learning history,

recordings (a reading task) in L3 Spanish and an interview in English were implemented as instruments. By the end of this project, it was obtained that mispronunciation or wrong usage of some words in the L3 are connected to L2 cognates. When learners have a higher level of the languages, they are more aware of those transfers and try to avoid them.

In a middle-size town in the Basque Autonomous Community, a mixed research was led by Arratibel-Irazusta and Martínez in 2017. Inspecting the use of L1 and L2 (Spanish and Basque) knowledge as a communication strategy in an oral narration task with a with set of wordless pictures in two different age/proficiency CLIL groups of L3 English learners was the aim of the researcher. The participants, 48 Basque-Spanish bilingual learners of L3 English in 2nd and 4th year of Secondary Education, helped to obtain the following findings: students of the second group were capable to make use of the L2 and L3 without showing L1 influences. Nevertheless, just one subject committed a L2 transfer in the L3. One of the reasons for this unseen phenomenon in all the other cases might be related to the typological distance between the L2 and L3 and students' context, which is a country where their L3 is spoken.

A quantitative research was implemented by Dadbakhsh and Jabbari (2016) in Iran with the purpose of studying L3 crosslinguistic influence at the initial state, testing between the three hypotheses of Full Transfer/ Full Access (main L1 transfer effect, L2 Status Factor), the principal L2 transfer effect, and Cumulative Enhancement Model. 40 university students of English (L2) literature who were learning French (L3) in a lower-intermediate level were assigned to answer a French Placement test, an English proficiency level test, read aloud 35 flashcards containing French words and an Oral Judgment Test (OJT). With all of this done, there was evidence of mispronunciation of the words in the third instrument due to a negative L2 transfer. Furthermore, the L2 phonological system had a powerful impact in students' pronunciation of some sounds in the L3.

A quantitative project, which had examining the language and literacy skills and their relations to each other in multilingual children, who have a broad range of oral and written L1, L2 and L3 language proficiency, was carried out in Ontario, Canada by Mirza, Gottardo & Chen in 2016. A demographic questionnaire, Woodcock Word Identification subtest and

Woodcock Word Attack (reading aloud words), subtest of the Comprehensive Test of Phonological Processing (repeating a term and then delete part of the word to produce an English word) were implemented with 50 Canadian children of 6–10 years old who were Urdu–English speakers with Arabic as L3.

Through the application of 240 recordings of non-native English speech and questionnaires of participants' language-learning, a research project was implemented at Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznan, Poland, by Wrembel in 2010. Its purpose was to detect the causes of L3 phonology crosslinguistic influence the impact of the second language (L2) on the phonological acquisition of an L3. The subjects were Polish students with knowledge of German philology and B1 English as well as students of Applied Linguistics with a higher level of English as L3 and 27 expert judges: seven English native speakers 20 non-native English speakers of English. By the end of this investigation, it was visible than the proficiency of both foreign languages is a factor of crosslinguistic influence. When trilinguals have a low level of the third language, the transfers are more likely to occur, but this can change with the increase of the L3 proficiency.

A systematic analysis was conducted by Díaz and Pascual (2011) in the University of California, USA. Exploring the causes that affect the production of Spanish L3 falling diphthongs by Japanese students with English as L2 during the first stages of their acquisition was the objective of the researcher. Three Japanese exchange students whose L3 was Spanish and counted with an intermediate level of English as intermediate answered a speaking production task in both L2 and L which consisted on reading a list of words in Spanish containing diphthongs. Also, six Spanish native speakers participated as a control group. By the end of this process, it was obtained that even when the L2 and L3 shared some similarities, students made a resistance to transfer some properties of this language and this might be due to their social and stylistic variation of their mother tongue.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

This research project intends to identify an L2 (English) crosslinguistic influence in the oral production of an L3 (German). This chapter has the aim to describe the method, location of research, characteristics of participants, techniques, instruments, methodology and ethical considerations involved in the investigation. Moreover, the process of collection and analysis used in order to obtain the data is explained.

3.1 Design

Due to the nature of this research, the mixed method was used. According to Leavy (2017, p.164) “a mixed method research involves collecting and integrating quantitative and qualitative data in a single project and therefore may result in a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under investigation”.

As stated before, the objective of this research is to identify an L2 cross-linguistic influence in the oral production of L3 German beginners, low-elementary and low-intermediate learners who have already acquired English as their L2 to perform speaking tasks in order to determine whether language typological closeness is the main factor of this influence. Consequently, this type of method was held in order to answer statically and descriptively to the research questions presented in this paper and have a wider view of the transfers being performed from the L2 to the L3.

3.2 Location of research.

This research was carried out with students in the courses of German 1, 5 and 9 at the Centro de Lenguas Extranjeras of the Faculty of Languages (CELE) BUAP, which is located at the central zone of Puebla City, Mexico. This language center prepares BUAP employees, high school and university students to present a certification exam of the languages they are learning. Regarding to the course of German 1 (beginners), its main objective is that students will reach the A1.2 level (according to the CEFR) in German and they will be able to use simple every day expressions and express themselves briefly according to their present needs. In German 5 (low-elementary), students reach the A2.1 level and they will be able to understand and talk about topics of their daily life. Related to German 9 (low-intermediate), which is the last course offered by CELE, they obtain a B1.1 level at the end of the course and have the capacity to understand and write long texts if they are about topics they already know such as work, education and leisure. The nomenclature “.1” is stated in this language level to denote that the speakers are in a sub-level of the main one, i.e beginners A1.1 need to complete that and an A1.2 to achieve totally the A1 level.

3.3 Participants.

The participants of this research are students who already have English as their second language and are studying the first, fifth and ninth level of German (being this their L3) at the Centro de Lenguas Extranjeras BUAP. The characteristics are illustrated in Table 1, 2 and 3.

Table 1. *Characteristics of beginners in German 1 (Spring 2019) in CELE.*

No. Participant	Age	Gender	English level	German level
1	18	Male	B1	A1.1
2	20	Female	B1	A1.1
3	20	Male	B1	A1.1
4	19	Female	B1	A1.1
5	23	Female	A2	A1.1
6	25	Female	B1	A1.1

As it can be observable on table 1, most of the participants have an intermediate level of the L2 (English), except of one subject who is in the elementary level according to the MCER. One of them took partially the course of German 1 the previous semester but due to personal issues he could not finish it. The range of age of these participants is from 18 to 25 years old.

Table 2. *L3 low-intermediate participants enrolled in German 5 (Spring 2019) in CELE.*

No. Participant	Age	Gender	English level	German level
1	23	Female	B2	A2.1
2	20	Female	B2	A2.1
3	22	Female	B2	A2.1

The previous chart (see Table 2) shows that the three participants who are taking German 5, which is equivalent to A2.1, have the same level of their L2 (English), i.e they are English low-elementary speakers. All these subjects are around their 20s.

Table 3. *Low-intermediate students attending the course German 9 (Spring 2019) in CELE*

No. Participant	Age	English level	German level
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1	20	B2	B1.1
2	23	B2	B1.1
3	26	B2	B1.1

As well as the low-elementary German participants, the students of the course German 9, where they reach the B1.1 level of the L3, posse a B2 English level. The age average of these participants is between 20-26 years old.

3.4 Ethical consideration.

During this research, participants were not forced to take part of it, i.e their decisions of not being included and autonomy were respected. Even when their e-mails were asked, these were not included nor shared in this investigation. Furthermore, the instruments were applied in a safe environment for the participants and their dignity was not hurt. Ritchie et al (2014, p.78) presented the following set of ethical considerations, which were followed during this research:

- 1) That research should be worthwhile and should not make unreasonable demands on participants, 2) that participation in research should be based on informed consent, 3) that participation should be voluntary and free from coercion or pressure, 4) that adverse consequences of participation should be avoided, and risks of harm known, 5) that confidentiality and anonymity should be respected.

3.5 Instruments.

Since this research is focused on oral production, the techniques required for it were recordings and a survey about crosslinguistic perspectives related to its factors. The instruments implemented for these techniques were a handout for a reading aloud task and a

speaking task and an online questionnaire. In the following paragraphs, the techniques and the format of the instruments are detailed deeply.

3.5.1 Handouts (reading aloud and speaking tasks).

This instrument includes a text written in German about the whys and wherefores to consider Main Frankfurt (a city located in Germany) as a metropolis. The text was taken and adapted from the book “studio d’A1” (page 15), which used to be the course book for German 1 to 4 (A1) in CELE. The text is short and includes tricky words which have similar spelling or pronunciation in English and German such as cognates and numbers. By reading aloud the text, conscious speaking (controlled practice) is being produced.

Furthermore, another activity included in the handout is related to unconscious speaking (uncontrolled practice). In this task, participants are asked to express orally in German their reading comprehension. This opinion was recorded in order to find whether they are more likely to transfer English patterns in conscious or unconscious output.

3.5.2 Structured questionnaire.

A structured online questionnaire was implemented to collect the data related to the third research question, which is, to detect the main factor of crosslinguistic influence from English to German in these participants. Sesay (2011, p. 78) mentions that a structured questionnaire “contains the questions as well as alternative answers to them. This is similar to multiple-choice question format [...]. The answers provided for each question are usually exhaustive of all possible responses as well as mutually exclusive”.

The online questionnaire has a total of 26 items, all of them written in Spanish. Items 1 to 9 are open and have the aim to gather students’ general description (age, gender, etc.) and their L2 and L3 level. A Likert scale was used from item 10 to 14 and 19 to 26, being number 1 “strongly agree”, number 2 “agree”, number 3 “neither agree or disagree”, number 4 “disagree” and number 5 “strongly disagree”. The reason to use this scale was to measure which crosslinguistic factor (L2 status, markedness, recency of use and typological closeness) is the strongest among L2 English-L3 German learners. Questions 15 to 18 are

open because differences and examples of pronunciation transfer from the L2 to L3 and L1 to L3 were asked.

3.6 Data analysis technique.

Since this is a mixed study, a descriptive analysis technique was used to analyze the obtained data. Holcomb (2017, p.2) establishes that “descriptive statistics are used to organize and summarize data whether they come from studies of populations or samples”. Consequently, the data to be obtained is analyzed through tables, descriptions and graphs, so as to the frequency can be represented numerically, written and in percentages, correlating all the information with the historical framework.

3.7 Procedure.

The steps followed to look for the participants, gather the information and analyzing the base data are presented in the coming points:

1. In order to choose and select the subjects of study, probability sampling was applied. Daniel (2012, p.66) defines this type as “a sampling procedure that gives every element in the target population a known zero probability of being selected”. For this reason, the participant were selected in respect to their level, i.e. just groups which are in level A1.1, A2.1 and B1.1. Beforehand, the permission to apply the instruments was asked to the teachers of these German courses.
2. Before applying the reading aloud and speaking tasks, a short introduction about the researcher, the name, purpose and importance of the study was given to the participants of the three groups. Then, they were asked whether they wanted or not to participate and students who have English as L2 and German as L3 were identified.
3. They picked up a paper from a bag and the ones who got a mark on their papers were selected to participate in this research. When they agreed, their personal information (name, age, e-mail) was gathered for further contact in case it was needed.
4. The selected participants went out of the classroom so the class would not be interrupted and the acoustic for the recordings could be clearer. Second, the handouts for the task and instructions were given to participants. Third, they started to record with their smartphones

and read aloud the text written in the handouts without making pauses or recording it one more time. After this, the participants recorded and expressed in German what they understood about the short text. The recordings were sent to the researcher when they finished both activities.

5. Regarding to the structured questionnaire, the participants were asked to provide their e-mails so this instrument can be shared with them and answered. It was told to participants that they could asked doubts to the researcher about the questionnaire and provide their answers at least in two days after the reading aloud tasks. Since two subjects who did the speaking tasks did not provide an answer for the survey, just the students who were willing to participate and complete both instruments were considered in this research.

6. A transcription and analysis of all the recordings (for both tasks) made by the subjects were written in order to sign clearer where the influence is appearing. With this, wrong-pronounced words in English but with a German accent can be more visible. It has to be mention that this first analysis was made by the researcher.

7. In order to validate and confirm whether there was an influence of English on their L3 pronunciation, an undergraduate German native woman speaker who took Spanish classes at BUAP listened to the recordings of the activities included in the handout. These audios and a table with the headings “Participants”, “German words being pronounced as they were English words” and “Reasons” were provided to her by e-mail. She analyzed each recording, filled in the chart and sent it again so that her results could be compared with the analysis made by the researcher. The reasons considered in this chart were sound change, word stress and borrowing, an example of this analysis is provided in Table 4.

Table 4. *Detection and analysis of participants’ transfers by a German native speaker.*

Participant	German words being pronounced as they were English words	Reasons (sound change, word stress or borrowing)
P2-German 5	Internationalität	Sound change
P4_German 1	Globaler Marktplatz	Sound change Word stress

Stadt	Sound change
Einwohnern	Word stress
Internationalität	Sound change
Frankfurt of Main	Borrowing
Globale	Word stress

8. The data obtained through the survey was downloaded in an Excel document.

The results of this analysis will be presented in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

The findings of this research study are outlined in this chapter. With the help of the questionnaires and the speaking tasks previously applied, the following paragraphs present the interpretation and analysis of participant's crosslinguistic influence in the oral production of a third language and their perceptions related to the similarities of their L2 and L3.

4.1 L2 Crosslinguistic influence in L3 in a controlled practice: Reading aloud.

The transfer errors committed by the participants at the moment of reading aloud a 113-word text (title included) in the third language will be explained. These errors were classified in word stress (the accentuation is similar to English language), sound change (a phonetic or phonological sound was produced as in English) and borrowing (pronouncing the whole word as in the L2).

4.1.1 Beginners (Level A1.1) participants.

During the reading aloud process, this type of students (beginners) proved that borrowing was their major transfer since they changed 17 words (some repeated in more than one student) out of 113 words to English, this transfer was repeated 41 times. Respecting to sound change, 4 out of 113 words caused them problems in this aspect, presenting this slip 23 times. Lastly, the reason considered as word stress was visible just once.

Table 5. *L2 transfer errors in the L3 committed by A1.1 German students during the reading aloud task*

CATEGORY	TOTAL OF TRANSFER ERRORS	PARTICIPANTS	EXAMPLES
Word stress	1	1	Symbol
Sound change	23	5	Verschiedene, Stadt, Veranstaltungen, Mainufer, wichtige.
Borrowing	41	7	Internationalität, internationalen, Museum, Dezember, Prozent, sechs, sieben, super, oder, Main, Symbol, Skaterparadies, am.
Total	65 times		

As it is shown in table 1, 100 % (7 out of 7) pronounced some German words as English words even when they were written in the text and they were following the text and spelling of the words with their sight. Diphthongs were ignored by some participants, pronouncing words like *Skaterparadies* ['ska:tərpara'di:s] as Skaterparadise and *sieben* ['zi:bən] as seven. One participant changed totally the word *am* for *of* at the moment of saying *Frankfurt am Main*, even when in English the name of this city stays the same, but in Spanish it is named as *Fráncfort del Meno*, denoting the *del* to the *of* pronounced by the participant.

Regarding to sound change, 5 out of 7 (70%) participants mispronounced some phonetic symbols such as /v/ instead of /f/, /w/ like /v/ and /s/ as /ʃ/. The error transfer which was the least produced was word stress, just being represented by one participant (14%) with the word *Symbol* [zym 'bo:l].

4.1.2 Low-elementary German (Level A2.1) participants.

In total 8 words out of 113 words written in the text were the ones which caused interference in this low-elementary German students. In respect to word stress, 4 words (just repeated once per participant) were detected to create a conflict at the moment of reading aloud the L3 text. For sound change, 2 different words were wrongly pronounced by one member of this group and in the case of borrowing 2 out of 113 words lie in two different participants.

Table 6. *L2 transfers produced in the L3 by German A2.1 participants in the controlled task.*

CATEGORY	TOTAL OF TRANSFER ERRORS	PARTICIPANTS WHO COMMITTED THIS MISTAKE	EXAMPLES
Word stress	4	2	Symbol, Internationalität, Zentralbank, 732688.
Sound change	2	1	Globaler, europäische.
Borrowing	2	2	Museum and Prozent.

Total	8 times
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In the case of the participants who are taking an A2.1 German course, two out of them (66%) got more transfer errors in word stress, especially in the word *Symbol* [zym 'bo:l] (in English, the stress is in the first syllable and in German is in the second one). Regarding to sound change, just one participant (33%) did not pronounce the German diphthong “eu” in *europäische* [ɔyro 'pɛ:ɪʃ] as it has to be in the L3, but as /jʊ/ in English. Related to borrowing, two students (66%) stated the English word “percentage” instead of *Prozent*, its German translation and the correct one in this case due to the text was written in their L3.

4.1.3 Low-intermediate German (Level B1.1) participants.

Low-intermediate participants were seen as the ones who committed least transfers. Out of the 113 words, just 5 words caused them a borrowing interference and 2 in the category of sound change. There is no evidence of words not-well pronounced in respect to their stress in the L3.

Table 7. *English transfers during the reading aloud task from B1.1 German learners.*

CATEGORY	TOTAL OF TRANSFER ERRORS	PARTICIPANTS WHO COMMITTED THIS MISTAKE	EXAMPLES
Word stress	0	0	-
Sound change	2	2	Euro, europäische.
Borrowing	5	2	Main, tausand, Dezember, sieben, Skaterparadies
Total	7 times		

As it is visible in the table 3, even participants who have a higher level than the others were affected by the influence of the L2 at the moment of reading aloud during the L3. The most visible negative transfers were borrowings (100% out of participants) such as Main [main] (pronounced as /meɪn/ in English), thousand, December, Skater paradise and seven. It has to be mentioned that the student who mispronounced the last number corrected his mistake, i.e. he was aware of it. As the students of German 5 (A2.1), the German diphthong “eu” [ɔy] was

pronounced as the English phonetic sound /,jʊ/ by two subjects (66%). Mistakes committed in word stress were not found in German low-intermediate participants.

4.2 L2 Crosslinguistic influence in L3 uncontrolled task: Giving an oral opinion.

The influence that English language had in participants at the moment while explaining in the L3 what they understood about the text will be discussed. These transfers were divided in word stress, sound change and borrowing.

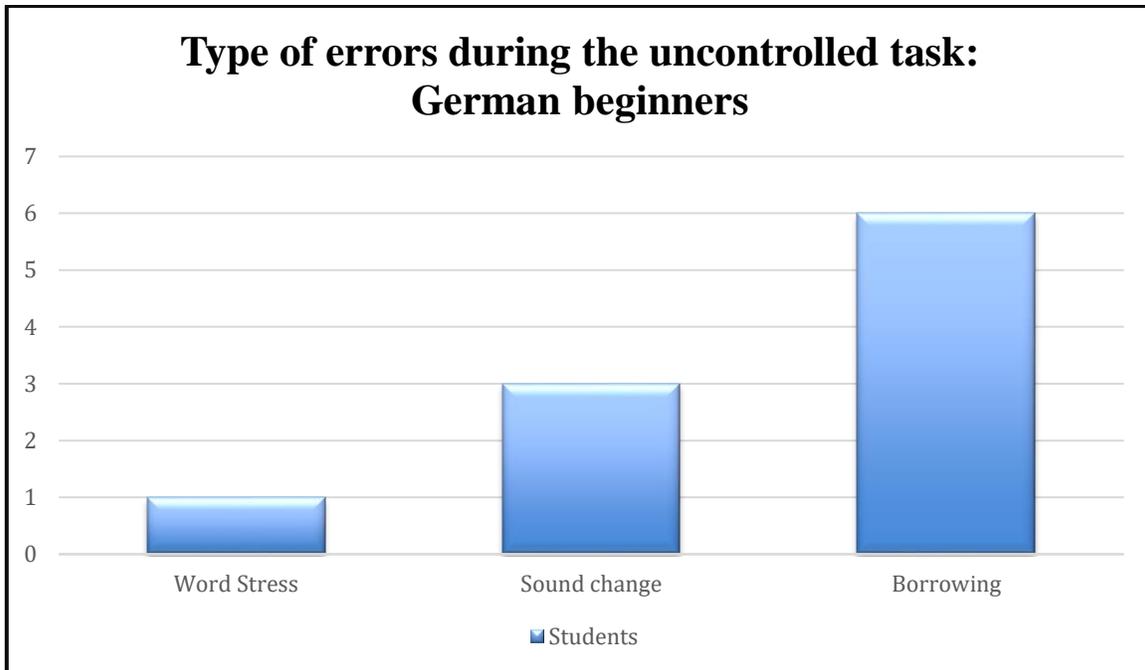
4.2.1 Beginners (Level A1.1) participants.

As showed in Figure 2, all the students from German 1 (beginners) made use of the L2 to complete the tasks. Indeed, this time were not just words, they were complete statements, creating a mix of English and German (Denglisch).

Some examples produced by this participants are the followings:

- (1) Ich understood about ein Airport and the [...] about Euro and some deutsche Artitekturmuseum.
- (2) It is about das Euro. This is explained about the money for Frankfurt

Figure 2. Type of transfer errors committed by A1.1 German learners in uncontrolled task.



Related to sound change, diphthongs and final syllables were omitted by three participants in words like *globaler*, *deutsche* and *komme*, being the last one pronounced as the English verb “come”. Just one student showed transfers in word stress in the words *interessant* and *internationalen*. It has to be mentioned that this last word was also tricky for these participants during the reading aloud task.

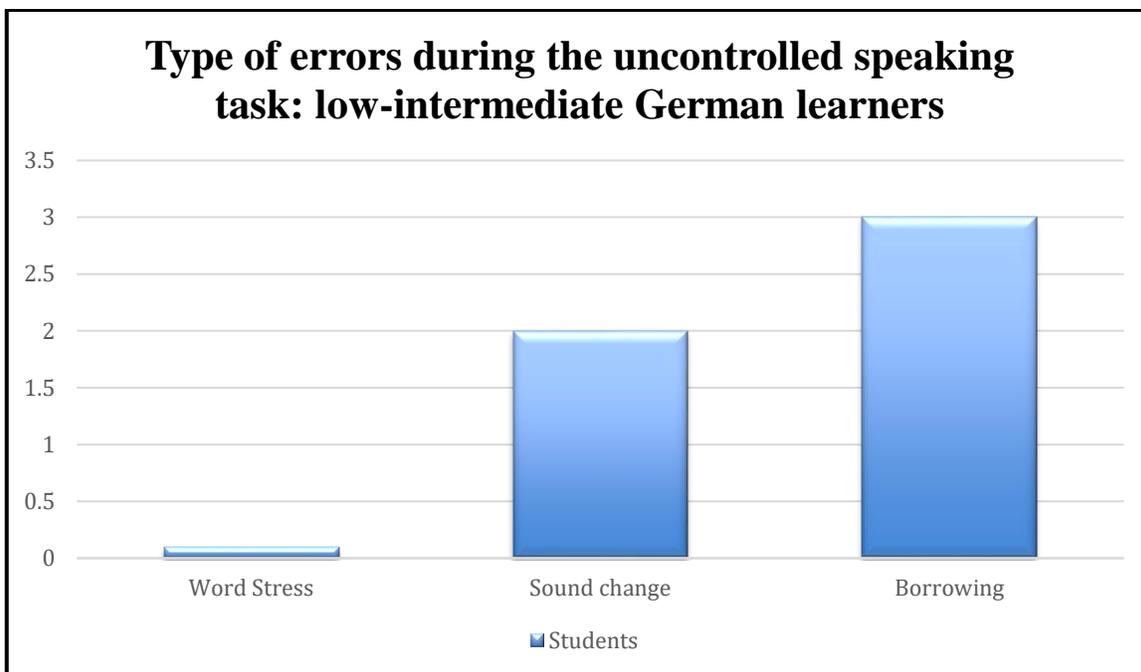
4.2.2 Low-elementary German (Level A2.1) participants.

As it can be seen in Figure 3, all the participants which are elementary learners of the L3 also made use of the L2 (borrowing) to express better what they understood about the text.

Some examples are:

- (1) Das ist why Frankfurt ist eine wichtige Stadt.
- (2) People can practice skating and there's this Museum, which seems very important as well.

Figure 3. L2 Cross-linguistic influence of A2.1 German learners during the uncontrolled speaking.



Two examples of sound change were observed in the words *ist* (the participant omitted the /t/ sound) and *Bank* [baŋk] (the sound of letter a was pronounced as /æ/), produced by two different participants. Word stress transfers were not found in this group.

4.2.3 Low-intermediate German (Level B1.1) participants.

Regarding to these low-intermediate students, any L2 pronunciation or vocabulary transfer was visible during the uncontrolled task. Nevertheless, just one participant presented an L1 transfer: *Europa* as it is said in Spanish (his mother tongue), omitting the diphthong “eu” which changes pronunciation in the L3 (German). Also, the speech expressed by these students was without hesitations, more complete and longer than the ones of L3 beginners and low-elementary participants due to their proficiency of the language.

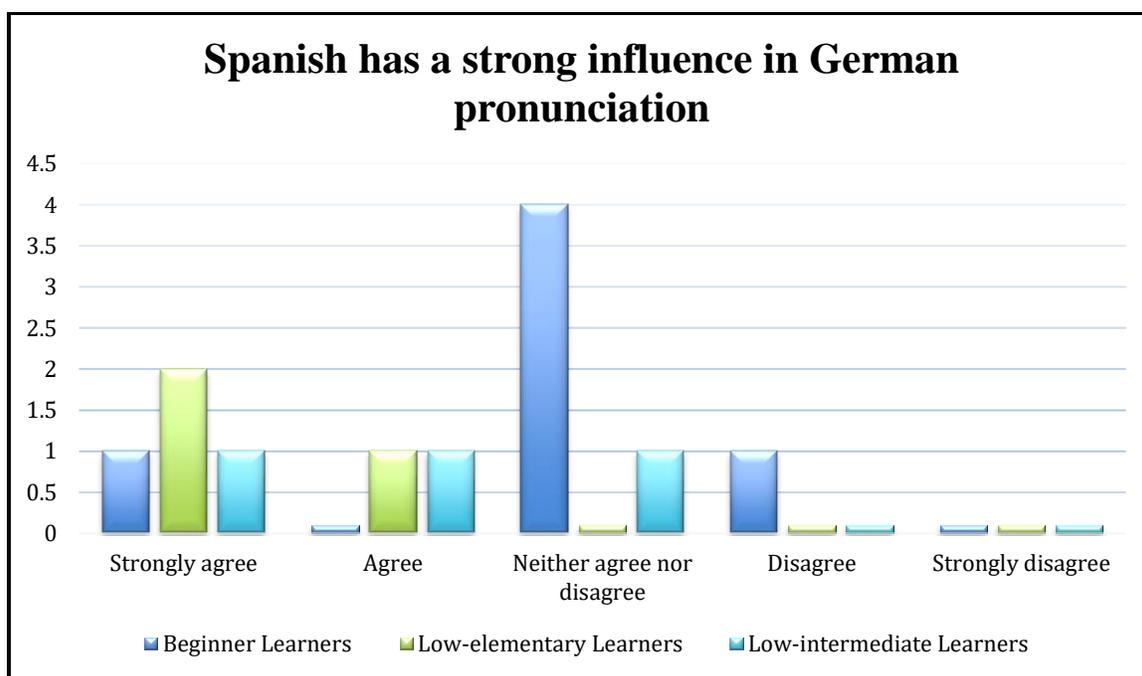
4.3 Factors influencing the L2 Cross-linguistic in L3 German learners.

Participants’ perceptions about the reasons of using a previous language during the oral production of an Ln will be discussed. Even when these are students’ opinions, these will be presented in graphs and charts to show which cross-linguistic factors are influencing this type of learners the most. This data was gathered through the online structured questionnaire.

4.3.1 L2 Status.

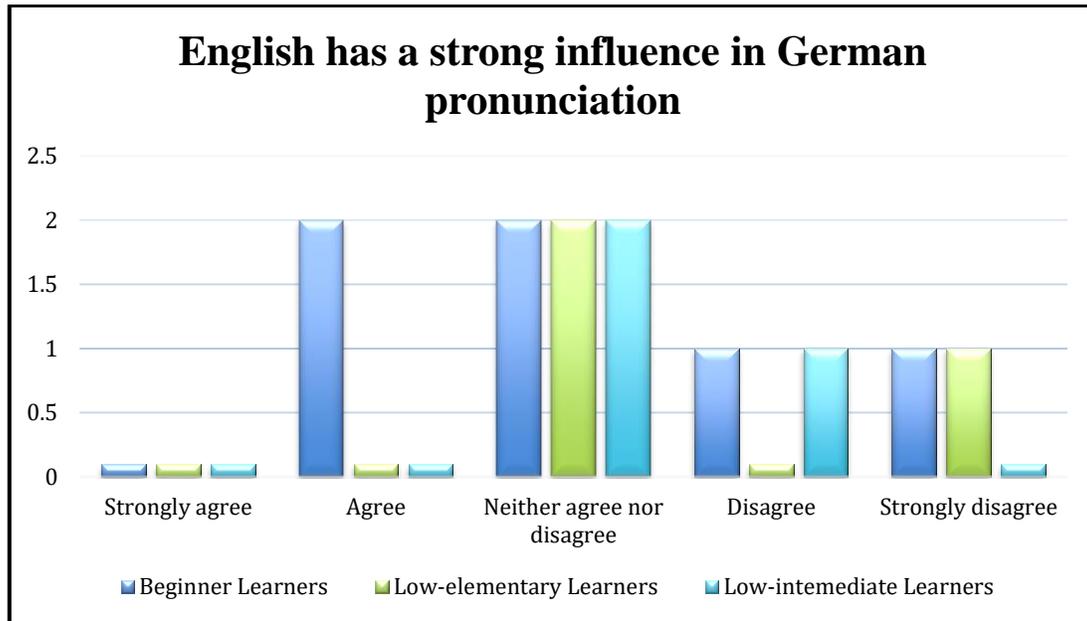
In order to find whether the L2 (English) has stronger role than the L1 (Spanish) at the moment of producing the L3 (German), three Likert scale questions related to this type and one question regarding to the speaking tasks were asked. In the graph below, it can be observable that the 41.7% of participants (5 students) may or may have not considered Spanish important to have a correct or close pronunciation of the L3. Furthermore, the 33.3% of participants (4 students) believed that Spanish has a strong role in their L3 pronunciation. It has to be mentioned that the only German low-intermediate student who considered that Spanish plays a big role in the pronunciation of the L3 was the one who produced a Spanish word during the conscious speaking task.

Figure 4. Influence of the mother tongue in the L3 pronunciation of German CELE students



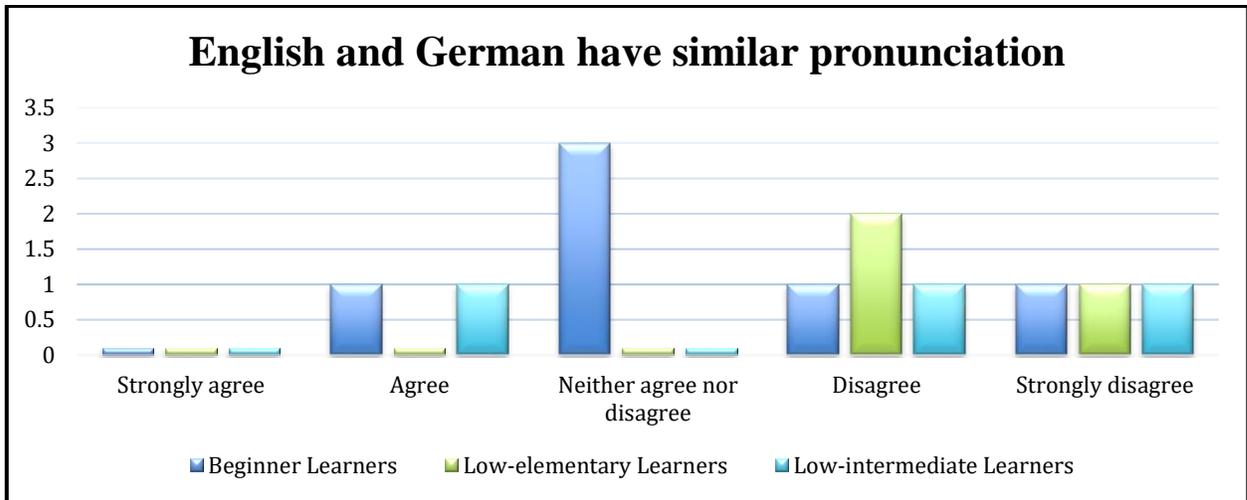
If the L2 is stronger than the L1 at the moment of speaking in the L3, it can be said that the main factor of this transfer is the L2 status. As it is shown in figure 5, one half of the learners (6 participants) expressed that English may or may not be affecting or helping them in the L3. The 16.7% mentioned that it has a strong role on it, 16.7% disagreed on this and 16.7% completely disagreed. In comparison to the previous graph (see figure 4), the L1 (Spanish) has more power on their L3 (German) rather than the L2 (English).

Figure 5. L2 Status or impact of the L2 in the L3 of German CELE Students



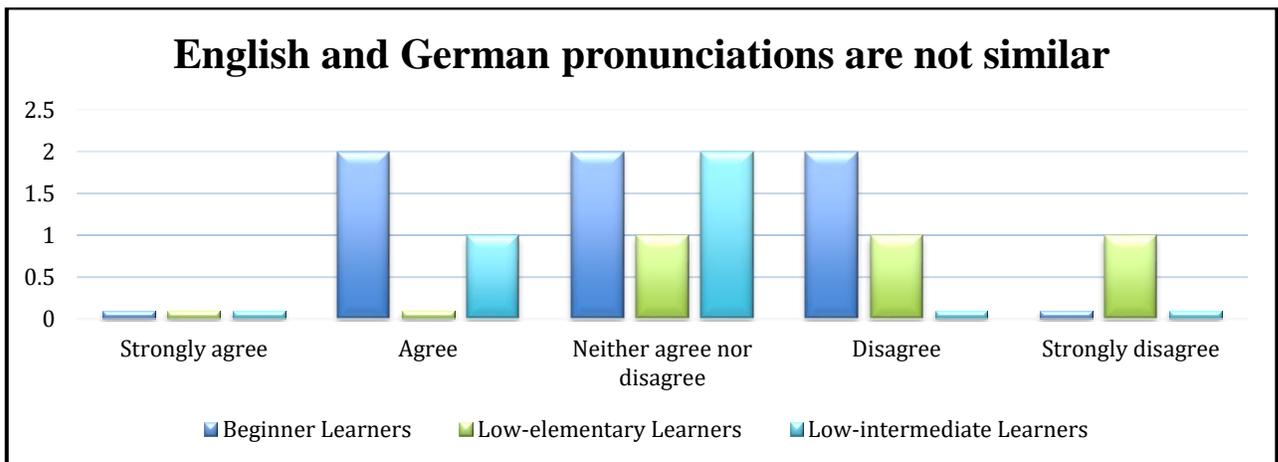
Moreover, 33.3% participants believed that there is almost any similarity between the L2 and L3 in terms of pronunciation, whereas 25% accepted that both pronunciation systems are totally different and other 25% exclaimed there can or not be a resemblance in both language pronunciations. Just a 16.7% agreed in the similarity of German and English pronunciation. Just the option of “totally disagree” was the one which have equal results in the three analyzed groups. All this information can be seen in figure 5.

Figure 6. L3 German learner’s perceptions about similar pronunciation between German and English



In contrast to, it is shown on Figure 7 that 41.7% of the participants were not sure whether English and German have some equal elements in the phonological-phonetic level. As it can be seen, beginners and advanced learners agreed on that. 25% of the learners considered that there is not a resemblance between these two languages and another 25% disagreed on this. Finally, just one student truly stated that that concept is totally wrong.

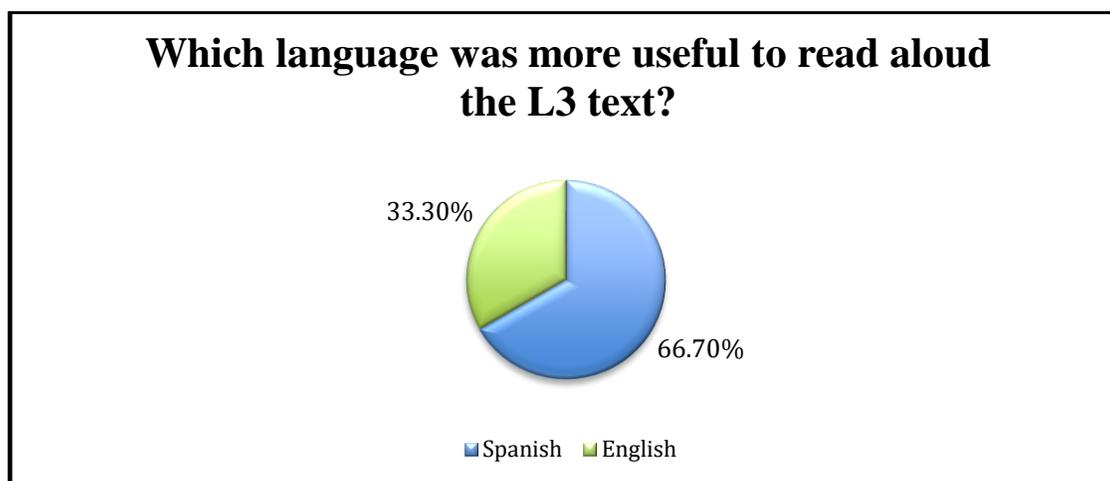
Figure 7. L3 German learners' perceptions about distance in pronunciation between English and German



For the collection of data to answer the first research question, students were asked to read aloud a text in the L3. This text contain cognates and words that may be unknown for the participants of German 1 (beginners) and 5 (low-intermediate), even when this text was taken

from an A1 book. As it can be observed in figure 8, eight participants expressed that they found a helpful hand in their mother tongue (Spanish) to read aloud the text and produce the L3 (German), whereas the L2 (English) had a stronger role than the L1 in four participants. 2 out of 3 low-intermediate students selected English as the supportive language to read that text, 2 out of 3 low-elementary participants also considered the L2 more helpful than the L1 for that task and just for one beginner was helpful the L2 to complete the activity in the handout.

Figure 8. Influence of the L1 and the L2 during the reading aloud task.

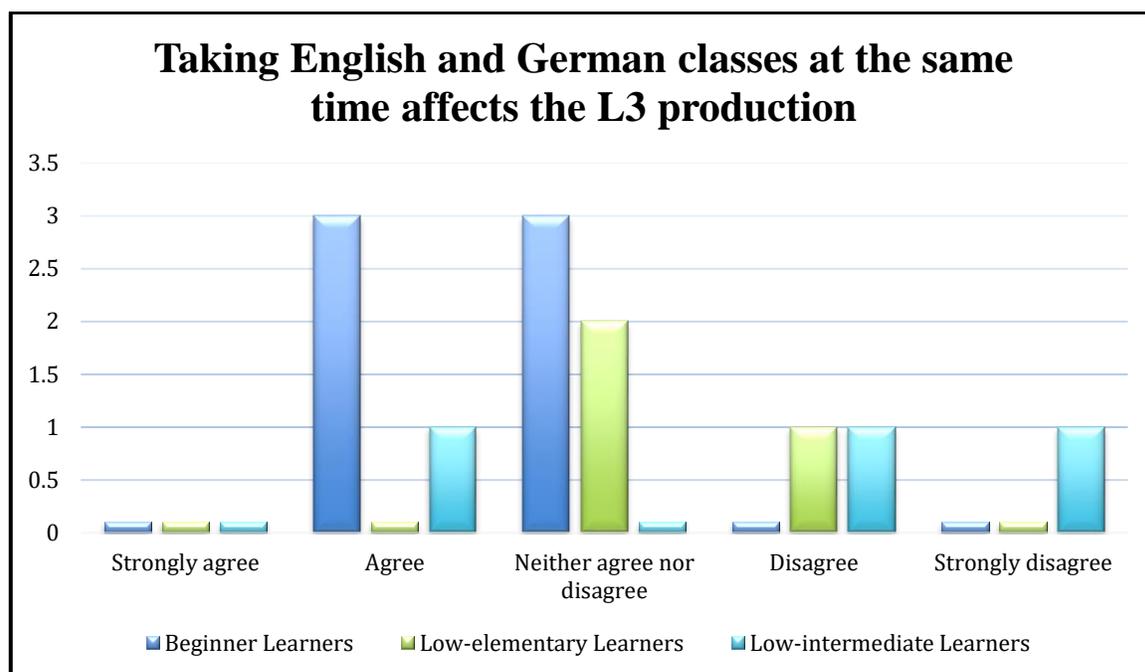


4.3.2 Recency of use.

When a multilingual uses a language constantly and then moves to use a previous or a language system which is being currently learned, chunks of it can be visible in the production of one of these languages. For this reason, two questions connected to the cross-linguistic factor “recency of use” were included in the questionnaire to see the impact this factor has on L3 German and L2 speakers.

As demonstrated in figure 9, 41.7% participants (5 subjects) were unsure whether learning two languages at the same time may be a factor to produce parts of the L2 on the L3. Any low-intermediate learner voted for that option. Indeed, they disagree that this can be a reason to pronounce English elements in the L3. Just 4 students, being 3 out of them beginners, thought that there was a possibility of transferring English if it is used in close situations of the L3 production.

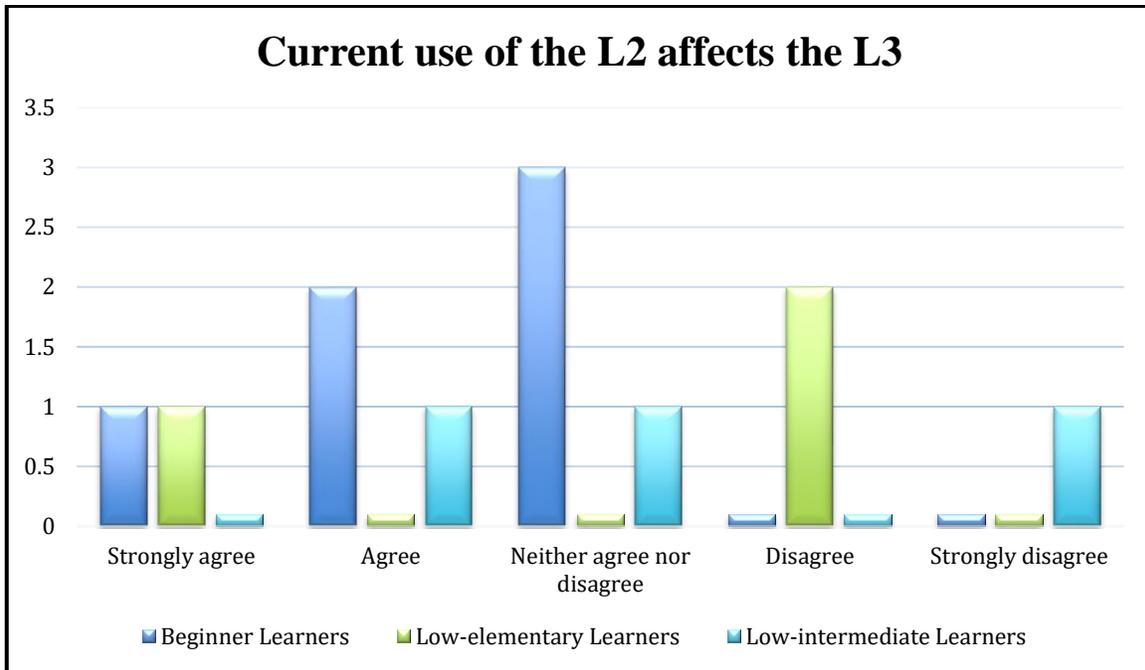
Figure 9. Students' beliefs whether the currently learning of the L2 and L3 provokes L2 transfers.



As it is visible in figure 10, 33.3% participants (4 subjects) were not sure at all whether using the L2 in their daily life have made them include it on the L3 production or not. Also, 25% of the learners (being 2 of them beginners) agreed that the constant use of the L2 affects their L3 pronunciation. A 16.7% of the learners were strongly agree and disagree (per each category) and finally there was just one low-intermediate student who stated that this was totally impossible to occur.

Apart of the strongly disagree and disagree section, beginners voted the most in the other categories. Consequently, it could be stated that the more they use the L2 before producing the L3, the more they can transfer it in their German oral production.

Figure 10. Participants' opinions about the L2 daily life use affecting their German oral production.

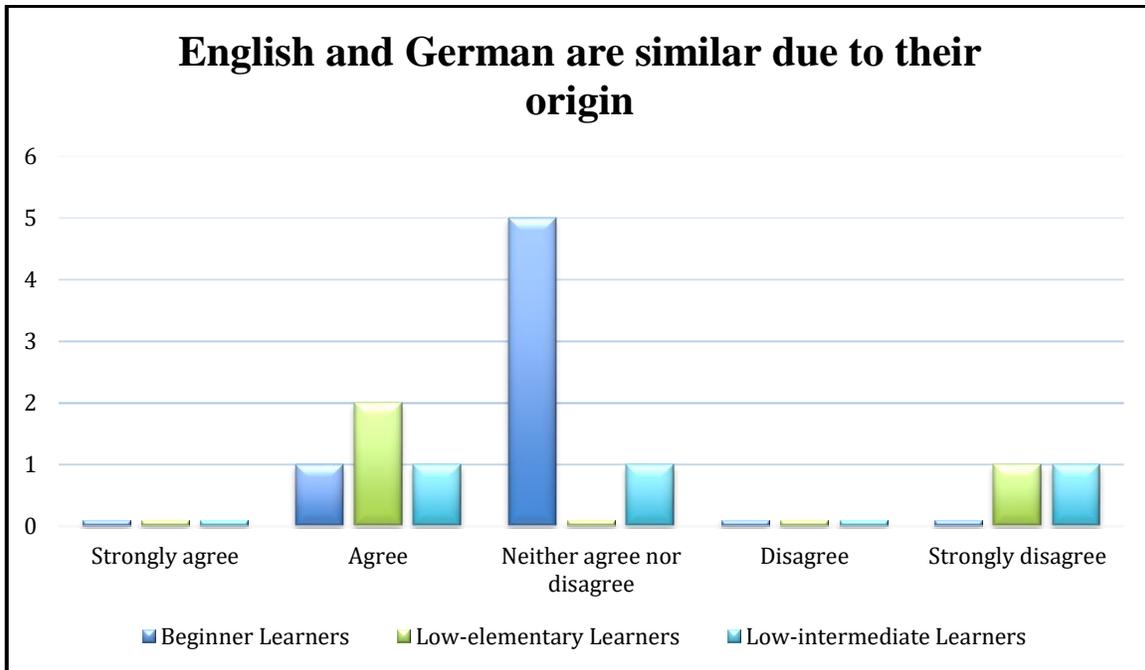


4.3.3 Typological closeness.

Two languages are typologically close when their geographic zone of origin is the same. As a consequence, it can be a strong factor to provoke a cross-linguistic influence of one system in the other. For this, three questions focused on this factor were included in the questionnaire in order to accept or refuse the hypothesis, which is that this is the main reason of German CELE learners to produce the L2 during their L3 oral production.

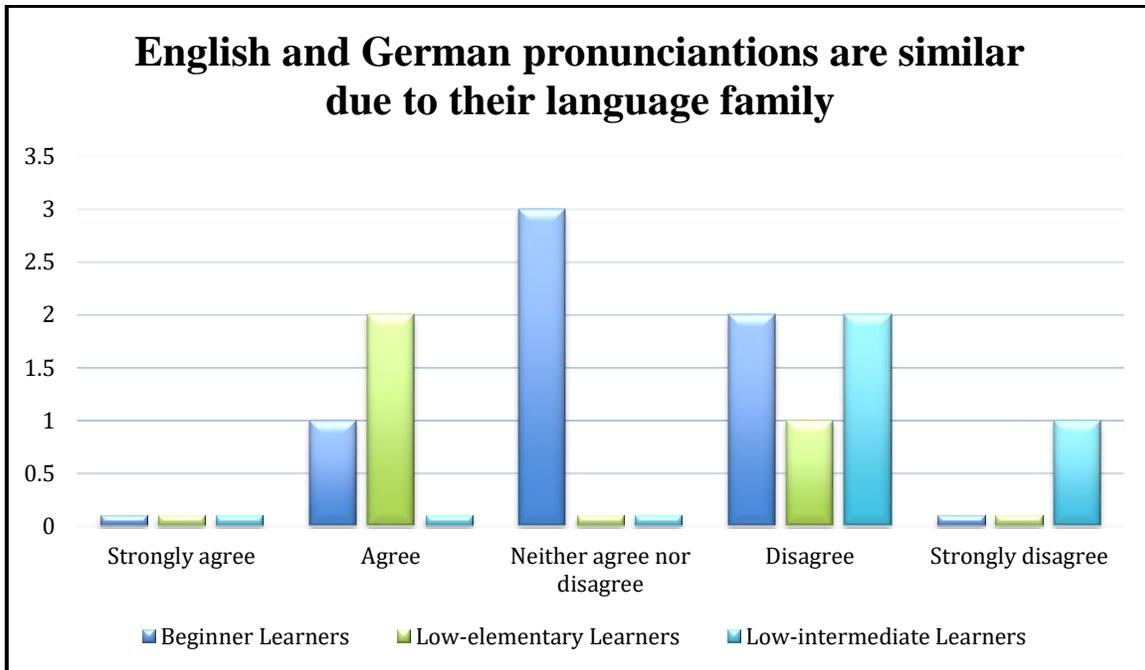
First at all, it can be seen in Figure 11 that 50% of the participants, being this 5 out of 6 German beginners, were undecided whether their transfers are a consequence of the geographical and historical background of English and German. 33.3 % L2 English-L3 German speakers expressed that it was a considerable reason of their transfer process. Lastly, a low-elementary student and a low-intermediate participant did not consider at all that this can be a consequence of the similarities between English and German.

Figure 11. L3 German CELE students' opinion of considering the origin of both languages a factor of transferring.



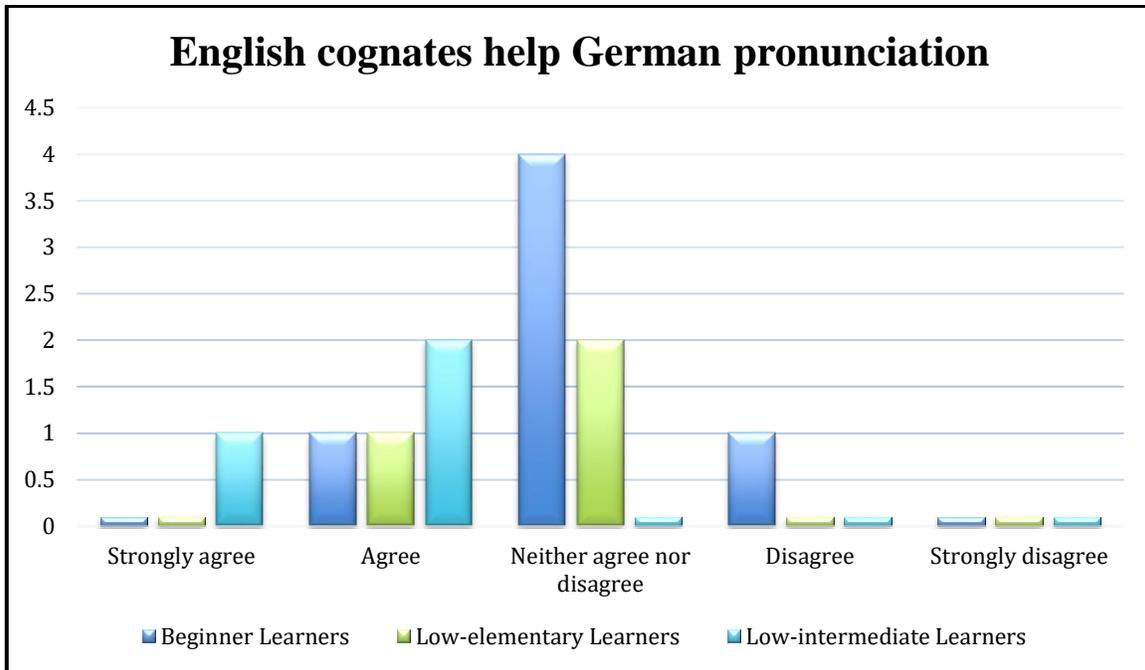
Both, German and English are part of the Indo-European languages. Different authors have mentioned that this is a solid reason of mixing these two systems, but 41.7% of the participants (5 subjects) did not agree with those researchers according to their experiences using these languages. The opinions among beginners and low-intermediate learners in this option was the same. Likewise, a 25% of the participants agreed with this statement and another 25% not. Once for all, just an L3 low-intermediate German learner totally refused that testimonial. In figure 12, these results are able to be seen.

Figure 12. Subjects' opinion whether the language family creates similarities of their L2 and L3 sound.



Lastly but not less important, cognates are an important element in the cross-linguistic process, and this words exists due to some languages derive from others of the same extent or geographic zone which they originated. Nevertheless, as it is noticeable in figure 13, a half of the participants (being 4 of them beginners and 2 low-elementary learners) were not quite sure if these words have been a reason of their English pronunciation in their L3 speech. On the contrary, 33.3% (four) of the participants did not have doubts that this can be a consequence of pronouncing German words as English words. It has to be mentioned that the half of the 33.3% were B1.1 or low-intermediate students, who also committed some stress, sound change and borrowing transfers in the controlled speaking task. Finally, one low-intermediate student strongly agreed with this statement and a beginner did not.

Figure 13. Influence of cognates in the cross-linguistic influence between English and German in CELE students

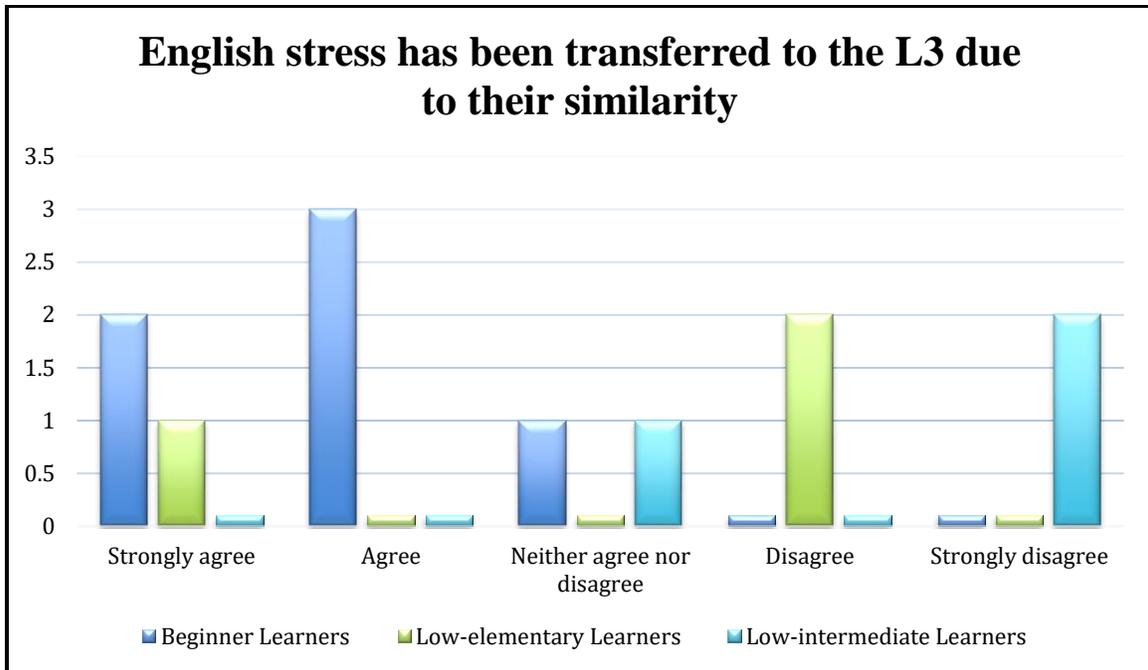


4.3.4 Markedness.

Some marked and unmarked elements in one language can have a repercussion in the use of a previous or new language being acquired. As a result of this, in the online structured questionnaire were included two questions which can yield information of the importance that markedness has in the pronunciation of L2 English speakers who are learning German as their L3.

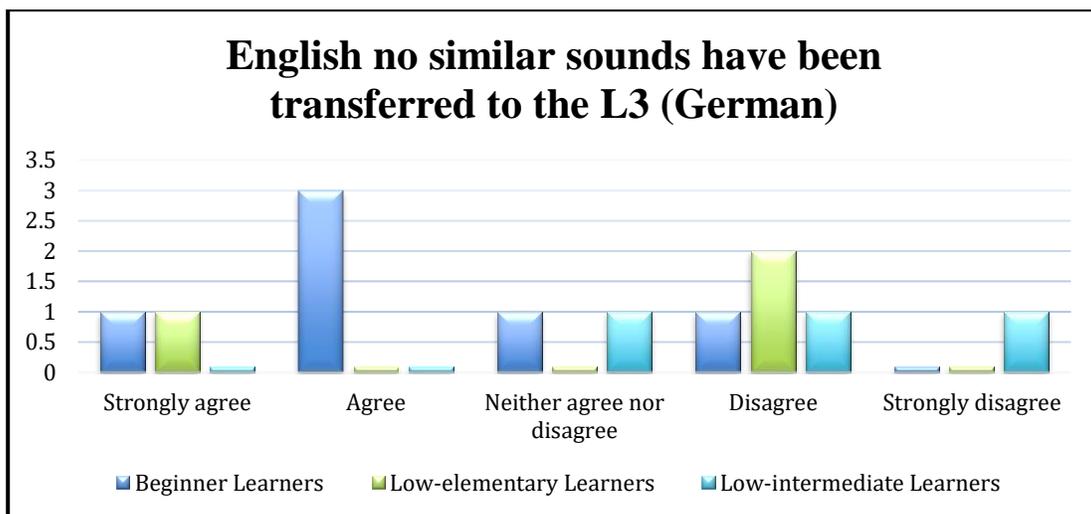
It is presented in figure 14 that 25% of the participants truly agreed that they have experienced some English stress transfers in their L3, being two out of them students with an A1 level (beginners) and one with an A2 level (low-elementary). Furthermore, 25% have also suffered this type of transfer but not as much as the students mentioned before. To continue with, 16.7% of them were not sure if this have happened during their L3 production, whereas another 16.7% of the participants have not done this. Lastly, the other 16.7% missing mentioned that they have not truly passed through that kind of transfer.

Figure 14. L2 stress in CELE German students during their L3 oral performance.



Next, it is shown in figure 15 that 33.3% of CELE German students did not remember transferring English sounds which are not found in their L3, being 2 out of them A2.1 students, one A1.1 learner and another B1.1 participant. The options of strongly agree and neither agree nor disagree were selected 16.7% of the population (per each category). Lastly, three beginners have passed through this negative transfer and one B1.1 student have never had that experienced.

Figure 15. Perceptions of CELE German learners of transferring L2 nonexistent sounds in the L3.



CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION

The central purpose of this study was to identify the L2 (English) interferences in the L3 oral production (controlled and uncontrolled) of students with different levels of proficiency in the L3 (German) to decide if this occurs due to the languages closeness between these two languages. In order to detect this, learners read a short text in the L3 and recorded themselves while reading aloud (controlled/conscious task) and gave their opinions or mentioned what they understood about the text using the L3 (uncontrolled/unconscious speaking task). Moreover, participants answered a structured online questionnaire in order to gather information about the causes of the L2 interferences they presented during the tasks and in their daily use of the L3. From these exercises, transfers which were visible were taken to be analyzed as well as their perceptions of this cross-linguistic influence. In this chapter all the final remarks of this research project are presented such as the results, implications of the study, limitations and some advices for further research.

5.1 Discussion

To begin with, the research questions stated in Chapter 1 of this thesis will be answered with the data results gathered from the tasks and instruments executed in this investigation:

1. To what extent do German learners (L3) at different proficiency levels transfer phonological patterns of their L2 (English)? Which participant group transferred less phonological patterns when they used their L3?

The results obtained from this research showed that the three groups analyzed in the study (German beginners, elementary and low-intermediate learners) were rarely aware that they were mixing both language sounds. It has to be mentioned that all participants suffered from L2 cross-linguistic influence in cognates which their spelling is similar, the meaning is the same but their pronunciation change. For example, *Symbol*, *Dezember*, *internationalen*, *Museum*, *Zentralbank*, *Euro*, etcetera). Therefore, participants may have believed these terms could be used interchangeably (Yule, 2017) and instead of recognizing that they were being used in the L3, they switched them to the L2 (Otwinowska, 2016). Regarding to the differences of proficiency learners, the following paragraphs will present them.

With respect to beginners, they were still not familiar with the L3 correct pronunciation, so they found a helpful hand in the L2 by importing some L2 sounds (e.g /v/ sound instead of /f/ , /w/ instead of /v/), words (e.g *six* instead of *sechs*, *international* instead of *internationalen*) and complete utterances to the L3. These results support the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (Geeraerts and Cuyckens, 2007) given that multilingual learners' transfers are easily to bode when the system of both languages share similarities (in this case, from English to German) and students are conscious of that (Malmkjær, 2010). Based on this result, it can be said that one of the possible reasons might be that German and English languages have the same linguistic roots.

In contrast to beginners, it was visible that L3 low-elementary (A2.1) students were in the process of getting the awareness between the use of English and German because they made some transfers but not in the same length as basic German participants. Nonetheless, they still need to work in word stress since that was the most affected category of transfer errors among the others (borrowing and sound change). Their endeavors to produce the L2 were less common than beginners but they were still there and tried to fill those L3 chunks with L2 elements. This finding support the theory of Ellis (1997) that when language learners have it hard to express something in the L3, they prefer to blend their space or short it, which may cause the use of the L2 so as to produce a complete statement.

Finally, participants studying the ninth level of German (defined as low-intermediate or B1.1) were registered as the ones who performed less L2 phonological patterns in their oral production of the L3 since they were more used to the language (Kopečková 2018), bearing out some investigations made by Wrembel (2010 and 2011), Lloyd-Smith, Gyllstad and Kupisch (2017) and Ven et al. (2018) about how more advanced learners of a language are more conscious of the production of the L3 and mixed less their L1 and L2 than students who are in lower levels. This avoidance of L2 cross-linguistic influence is almost certainly related to the fact that they have been studying German for a longer time than the other two studied groups (beginners and low-elementary). As a consequence of that, they are more accustomed to the language.

2. When do German learners transfer L2 patterns the most in the L3 in control or uncontrolled tasks?

With the purpose of gathering information about this research questions, participants were assigned to do two speaking tasks, one controlled and the other uncontrolled. The first one consisted in reading aloud a passage in the L3 and recording their speech, whereas the second one entailed using the L3 to give their opinions or understanding about the text and record it. During both controlled and uncontrolled activities, subjects demonstrated L2 (English) pronunciation patterns (especially borrowings). However, the phenomenon was more visible during the controlled task because the words were given to participants so as to detect if they were able to manage pronouncing just L3 phonological sounds. With respect to the controlled task (reading aloud in the L3), participants showed negative (e.g Symbol, Veranstaltungen, wichtige) and few positive transfer errors (Dezember, super, Zentralbank) during their performances. In this one, beginners showed more L2 interferences (65 times), followed by low-elementary participants (8 times) and low-intermediate (7 times) subjects, being borrowing and sound change the main problems of transfer.

In contrast, in uncontrolled tasks less pronouncing errors were found. Nonetheless, even when sound change and word stress were visible during the uncontrolled task, it was borrowing the most dominating problem during that speaking task. In fact, it was just not borrowing words from the language, but complete utterances to fill those spaces which were causing them problems to express it in the L3, being beginners and elementary participants the ones who were attempted to use Denglisch (German and English) in complete utterances because English is closer to German rather than Spanish and their language components are alike (Gut 2009, Lloyd-Smith, Gyllstad and Kupisch 2017, Ven et al. 2018.). On the other hand, low-intermediate learners had no problems in respect to cross-linguistic influence while completing this task.

3. What are the main causes of this oral production transfer from English to German?

In order to answer this research question, a structured online questionnaire was sent via e-mail to participants to gather their perceptions about how much English influences their German pronunciation. The four main causes revised in this investigation were L2 status, recency of use, typological closeness and markedness. Based on the survey conducted,

factors such as typological closeness, L2 status and recency of use (being these last two more voted by participants in early stages of acquisition) were considered to be the ones who affected the most this type of learners and that is aim to be ascertainable given that their negative and positive transfers were more visible in cognates rather than German words which are completely different in English.

With regard to typological closeness, in Likert scale questions, 50% of students (especially beginners) were not completely sure about whether this was a factor of transfer. When it comes to cognates, low-elementary and low-intermediate participants were more conscious that this type of words may influence their L3 oral production, whereas beginners were still unsure about this. Nonetheless, these results did not match at all with their performances during the controlled and uncontrolled tasks (they committed more mistakes due to cognates) and their free answers in the open question “Why do you think German and English have differences in pronunciation?” since 8 out of 12 answered that it was due to German and English geographical origins or the language family they belong to. Hence, it can be seen that they knew both languages are different, but they were not conscious of what provokes the mixture of these two; especially when they were in the early ages of acquisition, proving that the awareness may not be as strong in them as the rest of the groups with a higher proficiency of the language (Jessner, 1999).

In aspects of L2 status, beginners considered this as the main cause of this cross-linguistic influence, but these participants were the ones who transferred English borrowings (which are more related to typological closeness rather than those two factors) the most and statements during the speaking tasks. Otherwise, low-elementary and low-intermediate participants showed being disagreed with the options about being L2 Status their main cause. Apart of the L2, 66.70% of participants believed that Spanish (learners’ L1) have helped them more for their German pronunciation than English, but few proofs of this were showed during the research.

Regarding to recency of use, 33.3% (being 3 out of them beginners and 2 out of them low-elementary) are not as sure as low-intermediate participants whether taking classes of both languages provoked them the phenomenon of using L2 patterns in the L3, but 41% agreed that if they use constantly their L2, the L3 may be affected. It has to be taken into

account that 9 out of the 12 participants are studying or studied a BA degree on English Teaching, therefore, their educational formation makes them to be more in touch with the L2 than the L3, refusing like this Taylor's (2012) assumption about students, who managed more than two languages at the same time, avoiding more cross-linguistic influence than bilingual people.

Finally, 50% of the students (mostly beginners and low-elementary participants) assumed that markedness may be one of the causes of their L2 cross-linguistic influence in the L3 because those words stress marked aspects in the L2 seem to be similar for them in the L3, provoking the mixing of this two systems. On the other hand, low-intermediate subjects were not sure or totally disagreed with the fact that L2 marked and unmarked elements might have caused them problems in their oral production of the L3.

5.2 Conclusion

Controlling the use of two language systems may be difficult, but the more they are learnt and practiced, the better they can be produced. Subjects who speak English (L2) and are learning German as their L3 may find difficult to create a borderline between the pronunciations of these two systems but that is part of the sequence or process of acquisition of any following language (L3, L4, L5 etc.), particularly when there is a typological closeness between those languages. Most of the time, beginners and low-elementary learners were not aware of how much their L2 influences in their L3 production and discard the possibility that their German learning is being affected by the already acquired language information of their L2.

To sum up, in this study, this phenomenon was more visible during the early stages of acquisition and it may decrease (but not disappear) when the learner has got an intermediate level and more competence of the L3. The existence of this cross-linguistic influence was probably due to both languages are part of the same linguistic family (Indo-European languages in the case of English and German) and partially it was also a consequence of how much and frequently speakers have used the L2 in their daily life in contrast to their L3.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

First at all, it is of the utmost importance to create awareness among students regarding to their pronunciation during the acquisition of a third language, especially when the language previously learned shares a strong closeness in that linguistic aspect with the L3. For this reason, one strategy for students to avoid an English cross-linguistic influence in German can be reading aloud passages, recording themselves and comparing their pronunciation with an L3 native speaker or using a speech recognition app for well-rounded learning so as to detect whether their pronunciation is closer to the L3 or the L2.

Sometimes teachers focus more on teaching grammar and vocabulary rather than an accurate pronunciation of the foreign language, making students to look for support on their previous languages (L1 or L2) and figuring out how the pronunciation in the L3 might be. For this, it is crucial that German language teachers share with students a chart of standard German phonology and how the sounds are produced, implement more phonology-focused exercises such as minimal pairs matching, dictation, rhyme and word stress recognition, and so on.

Through this research, teachers may find a helpful hand to detect what German words than L2 English learners confuse the most in the L3 in order to work more on them and listen to their students' oral production while using those words. Moreover, the use of phonology assistance sites or writing the phonetic transcription in new vocabulary learnt in class can be a practical strategy for students to be more involved in the correct oral production of the L3 and making them aware how different English and German in terms of pronunciation are.

5.3 Limitations of the study and recommendations for further research.

Through the procedure of this project there were some problems that made difficult the recollection of data. The first problem that had to be faced was that they supposed to be 15 participants at the very beginning, but three out of them did not answer the online survey; therefore, they were no longer considered in the investigation. For this reason, the type of instrument may be reconsidered for further research in order to avoid this type of disadvantages. Secondly, some participants did not receive at the first instance the right to

answer the online survey due to some spelling mistakes at the moment of sending it. It would be better if all the participants (per level or group) would be taken to a specific place and they can answer that questionnaire at the same time.

Thirdly, time was not enough for the development of more speaking aloud tasks to observe whether this L2 transfer occurred more than twice during this type of activities and this may be an obstacle to enrich the study. Finally, the place focused on this research has B1.1 as the highest level course of the L3 (German) and people with more proficient levels such as B2, C1 and C2 could not be studied in this paper, for this reason, it would be preferable to apply the tasks and surveys to learners with similar characteristics but higher language levels of other schools or languages centers to bear out the hypothesis and detect if more competent language learners can fall in the mistake of pronouncing L2 patterns in the L3 oral production.

Other factors that were not encompassed in this project such as psychological closeness and language deficiency can be involved, because the study of all transfer errors and Ln (L1, L4, L5, etc.) influences that students commit and why they do it will never end. Moreover, something that was visible but not analyzed as it should be done in the study is the awareness that multilinguals have of the influence of an L1 or L2 in their following or previous languages, for this, it is suggested to take this into account for further investigations.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Handout for the controlled and uncontrolled speaking tasks

HANDOUT #1 FOR L3 GERMAN LEARNERS

Topic: “Crosslinguistic influence of an L2 on an L3 in the oral production”

No. of Participant: _____. German course: _____. Date: _____.

INSTRUCTIONS: Read aloud the following text. Then, express briefly and orally in German what you understood about the topic.

FRANKFURT AM MAIN- EIN GLOBALER MARKTPLATZ

Warum ist Frankfurt am Main eine wichtige Stadt? Frankfurt am Main hat mit seinen 732 688 Einwohnern das Flair einer internationalen Minimetropole. 26% der Einwohner kommen aus dem Ausland. Die Skyline ist ein Symbol für die Dynamik und die Internationalität der Stadt. Frankfurt ist mit seinen Banken und dem Rhein-Main-Airport, der Basis der Lufthansa, ein globaler Marktplatz. In Frankfurt ist die Heimat des Euro, die Europäische Zentralbank. Das Mainufer ist ein Skaterparadies, dort gibt es auch das Deutsche Filmmuseum, das Deutsche Architekturmuseum und das Jüdische Museum. Es gibt verschiedene Veranstaltungen in Frankfurt am Main ab Dezember 2019. Zum Beispiel, das 15. Festival des Deutschen Films. Super oder?

For this research, your participation is very important.

“Thank you”

Appendix 2: Structured online questionnaire about students’ perceptions of the L3 cross-linguistic influence in the L2.

Percepciones de la influencia del idioma inglés en la producción oral del idioma alemán

Para esta investigación, tu participación es muy importante. Con el fin de encontrar la influencia que el idioma inglés tiene en tu tercera lengua (alemán), se te presentarán algunas cuestiones. Selecciona del 1 al 5 de acuerdo a tu opinión, donde 1: muy de acuerdo, 2: de acuerdo, 3: ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo, 4: desacuerdo y 5: muy en desacuerdo.

***Obligatorio**

Dirección de correo electrónico *

Tu dirección de correo electrónico

Edad *

Tu respuesta

Sexo *

- Femenino
- Masculino

¿Qué nivel de inglés cursas? (En caso de ser LEI, especifica tu Lengua Meta). *

Tu respuesta

¿Has tomado algún examen de ubicación o certificación del idioma inglés? Menciona cual. *

¿Qué nivel de alemán estás cursando? *

Tu respuesta

¿Has tomado algún examen de ubicación o certificación del idioma alemán? Mencionalo. *

Tu respuesta

¿Cuántos años llevas aprendiendo inglés? *

Tu respuesta

¿Cuántos años llevas aprendiendo alemán? *

Tu respuesta

El español me ha ayudado en la pronunciación del idioma alemán *

- 1 2 3 4 5
- Muy de acuerdo Muy en desacuerdo

El inglés me ha ayudado en la pronunciación del idioma alemán *

- 1 2 3 4 5
- Muy de acuerdo Muy en desacuerdo

La pronunciación del alemán es similar a la del idioma español *

1 2 3 4 5

Muy de acuerdo Muy en desacuerdo

No encuentro alguna similitud entre la pronunciación del idioma inglés y alemán

1 2 3 4 5

Muy de acuerdo Muy en desacuerdo

Menciona 3 palabras que se pronuncien de manera similar en inglés y alemán *

Tu respuesta

Menciona 3 palabras que se pronuncien de manera similar en español y alemán *

Tu respuesta

¿Qué diferencias notas entre la pronunciación del idioma alemán e inglés? *

Tu respuesta

¿Por qué crees que existen esas diferencias?

Tu respuesta

Los cognados del inglés (palabras que comparten significado, ortografía y pronunciación similares en dos lenguas) en alemán me son fáciles de pronunciar. *

1 2 3 4 5

Muy de acuerdo Muy en desacuerdo

Para pronunciar las palabras del texto previamente leído („Frankfurt am Main- ein globaler Marktplatz“), asociaste más su pronunciación... *

Del inglés al alemán

Del español al alemán

Tomar clases de inglés y alemán al mismo tiempo afecta mi pronunciación del alemán *

1 2 3 4 5

Muy de acuerdo Muy en desacuerdo

El inglés (L2) ha influido en mi pronunciación del alemán (L3) porque utilizo con mayor frecuencia la L2 en mi vida diaria. *

1 2 3 4 5

Muy de acuerdo Muy en desacuerdo

Considero que el idioma inglés y alemán se pronuncian parecido debido a que ambos se originaron en Europa *

1 2 3 4 5

Muy de acuerdo Muy en desacuerdo

El idioma inglés y alemán suenan igual ya que son de la misma familia lingüística *

1 2 3 4 5

Muy de acuerdo Muy en desacuerdo

He transferido el acento del idioma inglés al momento de hablar en alemán *

1 2 3 4 5

Muy de acuerdo Muy en desacuerdo

He transferido sonidos del idioma inglés al idioma alemán aunque estos no sean similares (ejemplo: el sonido inglés /v/ en palabras como Vater, Vogel, etc.) *

1 2 3 4 5

Muy de acuerdo Muy en desacuerdo

Envíame una copia de mis respuestas.

ENVIAR

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