INTERLANGUAGE SYNTAX OF L2 PERSIAN SPEAKERS: THE CASE OF RESUMPTIVE PRONOUNS IN ENGLISH RELATIVE CLAUSES

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Abstract

Whether UG is accessible to L2 learners, or whether L2 acquisition is constrained by Universal Grammar (UG) has been a debatable issue among researchers. Schwartz and Sprouse (1996) suggested the Full Transfer Full Access hypothesis (FTFA), in which the initial state of L2 is considered L1 grammar, and L2 learners are believed to have full access to UG. Therefore, parameter resetting is considered possible. This study was an attempt to investigate the development of the interlanguage grammar of Persian speakers acquiring English as a second language at different proficiency levels, and specifically focused on English relative clauses, in the light of FTFA hypothesis. The syntactic parameter under investigation was resumptive pronouns (RPs). While RPs are generally disallowed in English relative clauses, the use of an RP in the Persian counterparts is perfectly acceptable and required. Therefore, in the case of resumptive pronouns available in the L1 (Persian) but not in the L2 (English), the prediction was that the Persian learners of English language would have problems in abandoning the resumptive strategy in L2 clause. A grammaticality judgment task was given to two groups of adult Persian speakers acquiring English as a second language (advanced and intermediate groups) and the tendencies within the two groups on the grammaticality judgement task fitted well with the predictions made by the 'full transfer' claim of the FTFA. Also, it was found that advanced L2ers can successfully reconstruct their grammar according to the L2 setting.

Keywords: Universal Grammar, Full Transfer Full Access hypothesis, interlanguage syntax, second language acquisition, resumptive pronouns, English relative clauses

INTRODUCTION

The exact role of Universal Grammar in SLA has been a debating issue among researchers. Many studies have been done to answer these two questions: (1) what is the initial state of L2 acquisition? (2) In the case there is a difference between the parameter values of two different languages, does parameter resetting occur? Some researchers tried to answer these questions through proposing hypotheses. Schwartz and Sprouse (1996) suggested the Full Transfer Full Access hypothesis
(FTFA), in which the initial state of L2 is considered L1 grammar, and L2 learners are believed to have full access to UG. Therefore, parameter resetting is considered possible. This study was an attempt to investigate the development of the interlanguage grammar of Persian speakers acquiring English as a second language at different proficiency levels, and specifically focused on English relative clauses, in the light of FTFA hypothesis. The syntactic parameter under investigation was resumptive pronouns.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM
“A Resumptive pronoun is a pronoun in a relative clause which refers to the antecedent of the relative clause. The slight majority of world languages use resumptive pronouns instead of gaps in relative clauses” (Wikipedia, n.d). Resumptive pronouns are generally not allowed in English relative clauses. However, in Persian grammar the use of resumptive pronouns is quite acceptable. While the following sentence (1a) is ungrammatical in standard English, the Persian equivalent (1b) is grammatical:

1- * a. That is the girl who I am taller than her.
   b. an hast dokhtari ke man bolandtar hastam az oo.

In Persian relative clauses, the resumptive pronouns are needed in indirect object, genitive, object of preposition, and object of comparative positions, but not in subject position. The use of resumptive pronouns (RPs) in direct object position is optional in Persian. Thus, one of the differences between English and Persian is that while RPs are generally disallowed in English relative clauses, the use of an RP in the Persian counterpart of the sentence is perfectly acceptable. The following example illustrates the RPs insertion strategy in Persian Language:

Subject relative clause SU  →  RP is banned.
   That’s the man [who ran away].

Direct object relative clause DO  →  RP is optional.
   That’s the man [whom I saw (him) yesterday].

Indirect object relative clause IO  →  RP is mandatory.
   That’s the man [to whom I gave him the letter].

Object of preposition relative clause OPREP  →  RP is mandatory.
   That’s the man [whom I told you about him].

Genitive relative clause GEN  →  RP is mandatory.
   That’s the man [whose her sister I know].

Object of the comparative OCOMP  →  RP is mandatory.
   That’s the man [whom I am taller than him].

Therefore, in the case of resumptive pronouns available in the L1 (Persian) but not in the L2 (English), the prediction is that the learner will have problems in abandoning the resumptive
strategy in L2 clause. Moreover, Persian speakers acquiring English as a second language may not recognize the above sentences as ungrammatical in English, because the equivalent in Persian is quite grammatical. In addition, Persian speakers, having the assumption that the object is missing in the following example, may rule them out as ungrammatical:

Indirect object relative clause  \( \text{IO} \)
That’s the man [who I gave the letter to \( t_i \)].

Object of preposition relative clause  \( \text{OPREP} \)
That’s the man [whom I told you about \( t_i \)].

Genitive relative clause  \( \text{GEN} \)
That’s the man [whose \( t_i \) sister I know].

Object of the comparative  \( \text{OCOMP} \)
That’s the man [whom I am taller than \( t_i \)].

Furthermore, research in this field shows that ‘the presence of resumptive pronouns in native language can lead to a greater use of them in the target language’ (Odlin, 1989), and hence supporting the assumption of the researcher regarding Persian speakers’ problem in acquiring English relative clauses.

Whether UG is accessible to L2 learners, or whether L2 acquisition is constrained by UG has been a debatable issue among researchers. There are different claims on the accessibility of UG to L2 learners; the claims range from no access at all to full access. In support of partial access, Ayoun (2003) indicates a nice computer metaphor. She views ‘the brain/mind as a computer hard disk’, and UG as ‘an application software which creates language files based on the input it receives’, that is, the language that the learner is exposed to. So, just in the same way that a computer cannot open, for example, a pdf file, if the Acrobat Reader is not installed in its hard disk, a new language or L2 ‘cannot be created without (at least partial) access to its software, Universal Grammar’. Thus, UG plays the role of an application program without which a language cannot be used. From this point of view, some partial access to UG seems more plausible than no access at all.

**THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

The theoretical framework adopted in this study was the *Full Transfer/Full access hypothesis* suggested by Schwartz and Sprouse (1996), in which the initial state of L2 acquisition is considered the final state of L1 acquisition. Schwartz and Sprouse (1996) indicated that ‘all the principles and parameter values as instantiated in the L1 grammar immediately carry over as the initial state of a new grammatical system on first exposure to input from the target language (TL)’. Later, Schwartz (1998) suggested the ‘failure-driven development’, in which restructuring occurs as a response to failure in parsing. That is, since the grammatical properties of the L2er’s native language is the initial state in L2 acquisition, L2ers ‘restructure their grammars on the basis of evidence from the target language which is not parsable (that is, analysable) by the initial-state grammar’ (as cited in
Kong, 2005). In other words, failure to assign a representation to input data will force some sort of restructuring of the system or grammar, and this restructuring will draw from options of UG (Full Access). In some cases, this restructuring may occur quite rapidly; in others, much more time may be needed. As this process of restructuring continues, each intermediate system is a distinct Interlanguage grammar (Schwartz & Sprouse, 1996).

Moreover, Eubank and Schwartz (1996) criticized the previous research on transfer, of being ‘essentially static in nature in that they locate evidence in interlanguage for either the absence or existence of L1 influence, often without regard for the point in development the data represent’, and thus ‘missing an explanation for development itself’. They emphasize on the need to explain ‘how and why L2 acquirers move from one state of knowledge to another’. To support the theory, Schwartz and Sprouse (1996) report a longitudinal case study they have done on an adult native speaker of Turkish acquiring German as a second language. They have examined the development of word order and nominative case, with regard to the position of the verb, since German and Turkish languages are different in this case. At first, the learner shows some signs of transferring his L1 grammatical properties to his acquisition, but after 26 months of experiment, they conclude that he is able to restructure his knowledge to L2 grammar. However, they claim that, in some grammatical properties, he seems to be subject to fossilization because of no input data to force delearning, and so his Interlanguage grammar is far distinct from that of German.

A debatable issue in SLA within the parameter resetting framework is that if the L2 learners can adopt the L2 parameter values, especially in the cases where these values are different from their L1 parameter values. Schwartz and Sprouse, as cited in Kong (2005), suggested that when learners ‘encounter data from the L2 which does not match the properties determined by their initial state grammar’, that is, their L1 grammar, ‘they will restructure their knowledge guided by UG’. In other words, ‘the restructuring to L2 grammar properties is determined by operations constrained by UG’. If there is not sufficient input in the L2, then, L2 learners cannot acquire certain properties of that language. For example, if L1 French speakers of L2 English encounter clauses in which adverbs are between the subject and the verb (She often drinks coffee), this will not be enough for them to understand that the adverb often cannot be used after the verb (She drinks often coffee), because both are correct in French. Therefore, These L2ers will use both representation and ‘will diverge from native speakers’ (Kong, 2005). The same can be applied to L2 Persian speakers acquiring English relative clauses. According to Full Transfer/Full access Model, we can hypothesize that if Persian speakers are not given cues as to the ungrammaticality of resumptive pronouns inserting strategy in direct object relative clauses of English language, they will continue to allow both representations, since both cases are grammatical in Persian.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

As it is obligatory to have RPs in indirect object, object of preposition, genitive, and object of comparative positions in Persian relative clauses, this study seeks to find out

1. To what extent Persian speaking L2ers with different levels of proficiency will be able to accept gaps in these positions in English relative clauses?
2. Do L2res from lower levels of proficiency behave worse than that of advanced ones because of L1 parameter setting in initial state?
3. Do advanced L2ers successfully come up with the L2 setting in the process of acquisition of relative clauses?
LITERATURE REVIEW

White (2003) explains that two types of evidence would support the FTFA hypothesis: ‘(i) evidence of L1 properties in the interlanguage grammar; (ii) evidence of restructuring away from the L1 grammar’. Many studies (Haznedar, 1997; White, 1985, 1986; Yuan, 1998; Slabakova, 2000, as cited in White, 2003; Conradie, 2005; Kayama, 2005) have provided evidence in support of FTFA hypothesis.

Conradie (2005) tested the predictions made by the FTFA by investigating the L2 acquisition of two syntactic parameters, the Split-IP parameter, and the V2 parameter, in Afrikaans by native speakers of English and German, respectively. He explained that ‘German has the same parameter settings as the L2, Afrikaans (namely, [+SIP] and [+V2]), whereas English differs from these two languages with respect to the settings of both parameters ([−SIP] and [−V2])’. Thus, the study compared ‘two learner groups to each other (one whose L1 has the same parameter settings as the L2 and one whose L1 has different parameter settings) in addition to comparing each of these groups to native speakers of the L2’. To determine the setting of the SIP and the V2 parameter in the L2 learners’ interlanguage grammars, the subjects were asked to complete three tasks: a sentence manipulation task, a grammaticality judgment task, and a short truth-value judgment task. The results of his study showed that the German participants did much better on the sentence manipulation task and the grammaticality judgment task than the English participants, and ‘since all of the learners received the same instruction over the same period of time from the same instructor’, he concluded that ‘the differences between these two groups are attributable to the grammars that they started out with’. In other words, the differences were attributed to the initial states differences. He mentioned that ‘the tendencies observed within the two groups on all three of the tasks can easily be accounted for by the FTFA’, and ‘provide some support for the ‘full transfer’ part of the FTFA’.

Kayama (2005) investigated whether second language learners can acquire Japanese complex multiple relative clauses, specifically pro and its associated properties. He mentioned that ‘in Japanese, RCs can be multiple and the relative head can be associated with the innermost RC. On the other hand, in English, which doesn’t have pro, relativization is subject to Subjacency because English RCs are derived by movement. Since it is the existence of pro that makes relativization in Japanese possible without movement, L2ers of Japanese need to establish pro in their grammar in order to acquire complex RCs’. Kayama (2005) tested the FTFA hypothesis; assuming that pro and its properties are encoded in Universal Grammar, adult L2ers were predicted to acquire pro along with its properties as they receive L2 input. He explained that ‘complex multiple RCs are not explicitly taught in classrooms. If L2ers acquire this structure not only empty arguments, then such knowledge provides evidence of UG in L2 acquisition’. To test the hypothesis, he conducted an experiment (truth-value judgment task). Subjects were intermediate and advanced learners of Japanese whose L1 was either English or Korean. The results of the experiment showed that both Korean and English advanced learners of Japanese responded rather similarly to the native speakers of Japanese, rejecting incorrect interpretations. However, English intermediate L2ers performed poorly on this task, while Korean intermediate learners did not differ very much from the advanced learners. He concluded that English advanced L2ers of Japanese are able to acquire pro and its associated properties, thus supporting FTFA hypothesis.

In a more recent study, Marefat and Rahmany (2009) studied the acquisition of English relative clauses by Persian speakers, testing ‘the predictions of seven major hypotheses proposed on the
difficulty order of SS, SO, OO, and OS RCs for Persian EFL learners with different levels of English proficiency’. They collected data from 39 university students performing a sentence comprehension task. Results of their study showed that ‘the determining factor in the difficulty order of the RCs for Persian EFL learners is the role of the head noun in the RC rather than the position of relativization, as some hypotheses predict. Moreover, Persian EFL learners opt for a linear parsing strategy in processing RC structures’. Also, Proficiency level did not show a noticeable change in the difficulty order of the RCs.

In the case of resumptive pronouns in relative clauses, there are many research done on subjects with different background languages. Chou (2006) examined Taiwanese underlying knowledge of English relative clauses. 12 types of English relative clauses were analyzed in his study, namely SS, SO, SIO, SOPREP, SGEN, SOCOMP, OS, OO, OIO, OOPREP, OGEN, OOCOMP, making use of grammaticality judgment tests, sentence-combination tests, and Chinese-English translation tests. In addition, the learners’ avoidance strategies were extensively analyzed to see what was actually avoided as they were engaged in the formation of English relative clauses. Implicationally, the results suggested that Universal Grammar may be still operative in the minds of the adult second language learners. He also reported that the learners were ‘able to reset the parameter to that of the target language by assigning new values to the existing L1 parameter setting’ (Chou, 2006).

Eckman (2004) proposed ‘a constraint-based analysis for what is arguably the most interesting phenomenon in second language (L2) syntax; the occurrence of an L2 error pattern where the regularity cannot be explained in terms of either transfer from the learner’s native language or input from the target language’. He focused on a study by Hyltenstam (1984) in which he reported the occurrence of resumptive pronouns in relative clauses produced by L2 learners of Swedish, while such pronouns are not allowed in any relative clause positions in some of the native languages, and are disallowed completely in the TL. Eckman (2004) proposed that this ‘example of an L2 pattern that is novel in the sense of being neither NL-related nor TL-derived represents a phenomenon termed “the emergence of the unmarked”’.

Ioup and Kruse (1977) investigated the acquisition of RCs. Their subjects were English learners from a variety of language backgrounds, including Spanish, Persian, Japanese, Arabic, and Chinese. The subjects were asked to do grammaticality judgment on the four types of RCs (OS, OO, SO, and SS). The results showed that the ‘learners made more errors on center-embedded RCs (SS type RCs-39% and SO type-26%) than on right-embedded (OO-23% and OS-11%)’ (as cited in Chen, 2008). The result of their study conformed ‘to PDH in which center-embedded RCs, SS and SO, are more difficult. Later, Prideaux and Baker (1986) also showed the same results (cited in Chen, 2008).

Hyltenstam (1984) ‘looked into the acquisition of Swedish, a language without resumptive pronoun, as a second language by speakers of two languages, Finnish and Spanish, both of which do not allow resumptive pronoun and those of another two languages, Greek and Persian, both of which partially allow resumptive pronoun’ (as cited in Chen, 2008). The results showed that all of the subjects with different L1 produced some resumptive pronouns in relative clauses. Persian and Greek speakers made more use of resumptive pronouns.
METHODOLOGY

The subjects of the study were adult Persian speakers acquiring English as a second language. The subjects volunteered to take part in the study. However, there was an attempt to choose the subjects ranging from different levels of proficiency. The subjects’ TOEFL or IELTS scores were considered for their level of proficiency. The subjects were undergraduate students studying at different universities in Iran and abroad. They were asked to send their feedbacks to the researcher’s email. In this way, the data was gathered electronically. The subjects were asked to write their IELTS or TOEFL scores, as well as their mother tongue to make sure that all of them have Persian as their L1.

In order to prevent any changes in the text and format of the document, the questionnaire was designed in the form of a macro-enabled word document; a macro-enabled word document is a protected file that only the designer can edit or change it, but everyone can fill in the forms. When the feedbacks were received, the data was analyzed. The following figure shows a sample of the questionnaire:

Figure 1: A sample of the Grammaticality Judgment Task

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Sentence</th>
<th>Grammatical</th>
<th>Ungrammatical</th>
<th>I’m not sure!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I knew it would happen.</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>He has the worst handwriting I’ve ever seen!</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>This is the girl that I told you about her.</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>The woman, who later died in hospital, has not yet been named.</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The instrument of the study was a questionnaire which included only one task: grammaticality judgment task. There were 80 English sentences in the questionnaire and the subjects were asked to tick each sentence as to grammatical, or ungrammatical; in the cases they were not able to decide on the grammaticality of a sentence, they were supposed to choose the third choice, that is, ‘I’m not sure’.

Only 31 items out of 80 items were meant to provide data for the study. The other 49 items were distracters, that is, some irrelevant sentences which were not really related to the research; they were only to boost the subjects’ confidence, and to avoid repetition of relative clauses. These 49 items were randomly selected from different sources of English grammar tests. Although they were not meant to be considered for the study at first, some of these irrelevant items provided interesting data which will be discussed later.

Thus, the task included 31 sentences which contained the five types of relative clauses, that is, direct object (DO), indirect object (IO), object of preposition (OPREP), genitive object (GEN), and object of comparative (OCOMP). All of these items included the resumptive pronouns and, hence,
were ungrammatical. The following table shows the distribution of the items and their corresponding relative clauses:

Table 1: Distribution of items and corresponding relative clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative Clause</th>
<th>Item Numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DO</td>
<td>6, 9, 11, 29, 30, 39, 45, 70, 74, 76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IO</td>
<td>4, 16, 54, 59, 68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPREP</td>
<td>21, 27, 33, 37, 51, 77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN</td>
<td>5, 35, 43, 48, 75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCOMP</td>
<td>40, 50, 62, 65, 80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Twenty-three Iranian students volunteered for the study. However, one of them was excluded, as her first language was not Persian. The age of the participants ranged from 19 to 38.

**FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

The data gathered from 20 participants showed that they could be divided into two distinct levels of proficiency: advanced level and intermediate level. First, there was an attempt to convert the TOEFL scores into their IELTS equivalent, for those who had TOEFL scores, so that all the scores could be comparable. For example, one of the participants who had indicated her TOEFL (paper-based) score as 570, was graded an IELTS score of 6.5. The guideline in TOEFL site was used as criteria for conversion. The IELTS scores of the participants ranged from 5 to 7.5. Then, the participant were divided into two small groups; the advanced group whose scores ranged from 6 to 7.5, and the intermediate group whose score ranged from 5 to 5.5. The advanced and intermediate group consisted of 14 and 6 people respectively.

Comparing the results of the two groups, there was a major difference between the performance of the advanced and intermediate group; the intermediate participants behaved noticeably worse than the advanced ones. In fact, the advanced L2ers behaved very well in ruling out about 94% of the items as ungrammatical, while the intermediate ones accepted 43% of the sentences as grammatical, for about 18% of the items they were not sure, and only about 39% of the items were correctly recognized as ungrammatical. The following bar illustrates the distribution of the correct judgements made by the advanced group compared to that of the intermediate group:

**Figure 2: Distribution of Correct Judgments of Advanced and Intermediate Groups**
As it is shown in Figure 2, there was significant improvement with increasing proficiency. In fact, Persian speaking advanced English L2ers behaved like native English speakers in judging the grammaticality of relative clauses; in most of the cases, they were able to recognize the use of resumptive pronouns as ungrammatical.

Tables 2 and 3 illustrate the mean for wrongly answered items in both groups. As it is shown the mean for intermediate members who answered wrongly is 1.29±.93, and that of advanced group is .83±1.06. Also, the t-test (p=.000) shows the difference is highly significant.

**Table 2: One-Sample Statistics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate F</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1.2903</td>
<td>.93785</td>
<td>.16844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced F</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>.8387</td>
<td>1.06761</td>
<td>.19175</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3: One-Sample Test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Test Value = 0</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>t</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate F</td>
<td>7.660</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced F</td>
<td>4.374</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tables 4 and 5 show the mean for correctly answered items in both groups. Comparing the mean of both groups (1.16±.73 vs. 13.12±1.14), it was found that the performance of the advanced was highly better. The t-test (p=.000) shows the significance was statistically important.

**Table 4: One-Sample Statistics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate T</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1.1613</td>
<td>.73470</td>
<td>.13196</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4: One-Sample Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IntermediateT</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1.1613</td>
<td>.73470</td>
<td>.13196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AdvancedT</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>13.1290</td>
<td>1.14723</td>
<td>.20605</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: One-Sample Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Test Value = 0</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>t</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IntermediateT</td>
<td>8.801</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced T</td>
<td>63.718</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item-specific analysis demonstrated some interesting results. For example, the following item was the most wrongly judged item among the advanced group:

Item number 16: The guys who you gave them a present at the mall yesterday were from Australia.

The reason may be attributed to the factor of extractability and linear distance; in a relative clause, resumptive pronouns improve as they get farther from the head. In other words, the longer and more embedded the sentence is, the use of resumptive pronouns is considered more grammatical in English. It may be likely that the advanced group confused the length of the following item with embedded clauses and considered it grammatical, since this item was a bit longer than other items and contained an adverbial phrase. The same may hold true for the items number 51 and 54 which were the second most wrongly judged among the advanced members; these two items are long, as well.

Also, item number 5 was the only one that all of the participants answered correctly. All of the participants judged it as ungrammatical. Actually, the advanced group made no error in judging the GEN relative clauses including this one. OCOMP relative clauses were the second least wrongly judged among the advanced group. However, no meaningful difference was found on the performance of the intermediate members on the variety of clauses.
The overall finding of the study supported the hypothesis that we made, in accordance with the Full Transfer/Full Access hypothesis, that because of the initial transfer of L1 setting, L2 learners with lower proficiency levels would do noticeably worse than the advanced L2 learners. Thus, the poor performance of intermediate L2ers could be accounted for, by the FTFA, as the influence of initial setting of L1. They were presumably still operating with the parameter settings that they had transferred from Persian language.

The more advanced group behaved almost like native speakers. However, they did make some incorrect judgment especially in DO and IO relative clauses. In addition, there was a negative relation between the number of incorrect judgements and the IELTS scores in advanced group. For example, Kian (IELTS = 7.5) did only one incorrect judgment, while Milad (IELTS = 6.5) did four. Thus, the results were highly in favour of FTFA, demonstrating the ongoing acquisition of the L2 setting.

To sum up, the tendencies within the two groups on the grammaticality judgement task fit well with the predictions made by the 'full transfer' claim of the FTFA. Also, it was found that advanced L2ers can successfully reconstruct their grammar according to the L2 setting. In other words, in the case of the resumptive pronouns in relative clauses, L2ers gradually reset their parameters in accordance with the values of L2, that is, no use of resumptive insertion strategies.

REFERENCES


