UNIVERSIDAD DE EL SALVADOR
FACULTAD MULTIDISCIPLINARIA DE OCCIDENTE
FOREIGN LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT

UNDERGRADUATE WORK

A PROPOSAL TO INCORPORATE THE TEACHING OF SPANISH-ENGLISH TRANSFER ERRORS IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION I OF LICENCIATURA EN IDIOMA INGLÉS: OPCIÓN ENSEÑANZA AT THE WESTERN MULTIDISCIPLINARY CAMPUS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR, YEAR 2019

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PRESENTED BY

DIANA CAROLINA ALVARADO PLEITEZ
ADRIANA MARIBEL GARCÍA AGUILAR
PAOLA ALEJANDRA MARTÍNEZ DE GUTIÉRREZ

THESIS ADVISOR
MASTER JOSÉ RIGOBERTO CORLETO BERGANZA

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SANTA ANA, EL SALVADOR, CENTROAMÉRICA

UNIVERSIDAD DE EL SALVADOR
AUTHORITIES

M.Sc. ROGER ARMANDO ARIAS ALVARADO

RECTOR

DR. MANUEL DE JESÚS JOYA ÁBREGO

ACADEMIC VICERRECTOR

ING. NELSON BERNABÉ GRANADOS ALVARADO

ADMINISTRATIVE VICERRECTOR

LICDO. CRISTOBAL HERNÁN RÍOS BENÍTEZ

SECRETARY GENERAL

M.Sc. CLAUDIA MARÍA MELGAR DE ZAMBRANA

UNIVERSITY RIGHTS DEFENDER

LICDO. RAFAEL HUMBERTO PEÑA MARIN

UNIVERSITY ATTORNEY

FACULTAD MULTIDISCIPLINARIA DE OCCIDENTE

AUTHORITIES

DR. RAÚL ERNESTO AZCÚNAGA LÓPEZ

DEAN

M.Ed. ROBERTO CARLOS SIGÜENZA CAMPOS

VICEDEAN

M.Sc. DAVID ALFONSO MATA ALDANA

SECRETARY

M.A. EDGAR AMÍLCAR PÉREZ MENDOZA

HEAD OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE DEPARMENT

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ABSTRACT

The mother tongue has a great impact in the learning of a second language; such impact causes errors and mistakes in phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics patterns. This research is focused on written errors produced when composing. English Composition I is a subject designed to train students with writing skills in order to avoid composition problems in which errors are immersed. After having taken English Composition I as a primary basis, English Composition II students continue committing errors in their pieces of writing.

Additionally, according to the data gathered, English Composition II students present the most incidence in pronoun misuse; faulty parallelism; singular/plural verb misuse; verb tense misuse; comma omission, addition, misuse; spelling omission, misuse; word choice; apostrophe misuse; capitalization misuse, omission; pluralization omission, misuse; preposition misuse; article omission and addition; negation misuse. Therefore, researchers concluded that emphasis should be given to transfer errors in the Composition I syllabus contents as students need reinforcement in the areas of phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics; errors are important for knowing students' improvements and deficiencies. That is why, researchers created a proposal for teaching Spanish-English transfer errors in English Composition I of Licenciatura en Idioma Inglés: Opción Enseñanza at the Western Multidisciplinary Campus of the University of El Salvador, Year 2019.

INTRODUCTION

This research named A Proposal to Incorporate the Teaching of Spanish-English Transfer Errors in English Composition I of Licenciatura en Idioma Inglés, Opción Enseñanza is a detailed study that presents important and reliable information concerning the most common transfer errors that students commit in their writing performance. Also, it contains a proposal to incorporate the teaching of Spanish-English transfer errors in English Composition I. The research is divided into five chapters as follows:

Chapter I contains the statement of the problem defining important information of the topic of interest based on previous observations and written tests. This chapter comprises fundamental elements to have a perspective of the problem that students are facing in their writing. Also, it contains the research objectives, justification and scope of the work, and research questions.

On the other hand, Chapter II includes the theoretical framework with the necessary literature information to understand all the elements related to transfer errors. It comprises the explanations of language acquisition, error and mistake, lexicon acquisition, patterns in phonology, graphotactic rules, morphological patterns, patterns in syntax, transfer errors in composition, Spanish and English punctuation patterns, and semantics.

Chapter III consists of the operationalization of variables in which the researchers took into account different tools, such as a written test, an unstructured observation, and an interview addressed to English composition teachers to gather necessary information for the study. At the same time, this chapter includes the methodology that was used to carry out this research as the selection of the paradigm and the type of study, the sampling procedure, the preliminary phase, planning phase, the execution phase, the timetable, and the budget.

Chapter IV describes the analysis and interpretation of data and the process used to collect, classify, interpret, and analyze the data obtained and the program used to create graphs that present the results of the research.

Chapter V encloses the descriptions of the limitations that researchers had during the study procedure as well as the conclusions of the research connected with the theoretical framework, research question and the collected information, resulting in a proposal created

by researchers to counteract the most common transfer errors found in the research. Also, it comprises the recommendations for future teachers, students, and researchers to continue studying transfer errors.

CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

1.1 Description of the problem

Surely, writing is essential for communicating accurately; it is a requirement for any professional but mostly for educators and future educators. Nonetheless, it is impossible that second language learners avoid problems in their pieces of writing during their learning process. On the other hand, errors in writing are important not only for teachers but also for students; they reveal the extent to which students have improved and the areas that need to be reinforced. In the mechanism of errors, learners' brains automatically start to realize the similarities and differences between the mother tongue (L1) and the target language L2); in other words, the first thing the brain internalizes is the acoustic sounds of L2 words which are automatically compared with the sound system of L1, usually leading learners to transfer L1 patterns into L2 patterns. In the research study entitled The Effects of The EFL Learners' Mother Tongue Interference on their Writing in English: An Error Analysis Study, Sid (2016) concludes that a number of different types of errors are found in English writing which are limited to eight major errors: subject-verb agreement, prepositions, articles, word order, singular/plural forms, verb tense and form, auxiliaries and capitalization. Also, it states that low achievement in writing is due to mother tongue interference.

In the third year of Licenciatura en Idioma Inglés: Opción Enseñanza, students are expected to manage the variety of topics developed in English Composition I so that students are able to develop accurate pieces of writing. However, students of English Composition I show deficiency in the management of both grammar and punctuation rules; such fact led researchers to focus on students' L2 writing basis in English Composition I.

By means of this research's diagnosis, researchers found out that transfer errors such as sound-to-sound, sound-to-spelling and spelling-to-sound are likely to occur in English Composition II students. This affects their quality of writing in the areas of spelling, grammar, punctuation, and semantics. Such fact led researchers to investigate about the teaching performance in English Composition I by analyzing its syllabus and making investigation about applied linguistics. After they analyzed the syllabus, they agreed that English Composition I

syllabus needs improvement; some English composition teachers claim that topics should be integrated in a more global content; as a result, researchers proposed to create a lesson plan including activities to counteract the influence that L1 may have on L2.

1.2 Scope of the Research

This investigation was conducted with all the students that are currently studying English Composition II during semester I, 2019 at the Western Multidisciplinary Campus of the University of El Salvador. It was addressed to know the most common transfer errors that English Composition II students commit when they write to incorporate those errors in the teaching proposal for English Composition I.

1.3 Research Questions

- What effects do Spanish-English transfer errors have on English Composition II students' writing?

- What are the most frequent Spanish-English transfer errors that English Composition II students commit in their pieces of writing?

- How can the teaching of Spanish-English transfer errors improve English Composition I students' English written production?

1.4 Justification

Researchers agree that the research study entitled A Proposal to Incorporate the Teaching of Spanish-English transfer errors in English Composition I of Licenciatura en Idioma Inglés: Opción Enseñanza at the Western Multidisciplinary Campus of the University of El Salvador, Year 2019 is important as its main objective is to improve English Composition I students' writing performance by integrating the teaching of Spanish-English transfer errors.

English Composition I prepares students to manage the different composition principles that the language has for avoiding problems in writing accurately. Although, learners have notions about grammatical structures, they have not internalized the L2 patterns producing errors, such as subject-verb agreement, shift in tense, spelling misuse, among others. This study is focused on Spanish-English transfer errors made by English Composition II students in their pieces of writing. Dechert (1983) and Ellis (1997) assert that the acquisition of L2 that is

extremely different from the speakers' L1 is a much more difficult process, therefore resulting in a stronger reliance on the learner's native tongue. In allusion to this idea, transfer errors are produced as a result of relying on L1; this confusion is caused when writers use their mother tongue to fill the gaps in L2.

English and Spanish are Indo-European languages since both languages share an alphabet as well as a number of structural similarities but are not closely aligned. The relation that these languages have among them conducts to serious transfer errors that learners commit without noticing; those errors are produced by the interference of Spanish into English since learners usually do not find a difference between them. Moreover, Dawson and Yong (2008) stated that students have many basic mistakes in written works on spelling, grammar, punctuation and organization. Kiuhara et al. (2009) also suggest that some words become spelling problems because of the gap between spelling and pronunciation. After the implementation of some tools, researchers noticed that the most predominant errors occur in spelling.

Furthermore, the ZIMSEC Report of 2014 highlights composition writing as the most difficult component of the English language curriculum followed by written grammar, which is a helpful tool for other subjects. Writing is considered the most important communication skill for academic purposes that students need to develop; many learners face several problems while learning this skill. Adas and Bakir (2013) state that writing is an intricate and complex task; it is the most difficult to acquire in all languages. They also highlight that many students understand the English language but most of them face problems expressing their ideas effectively. Graham et al. (2013), Nation and Newton (2009) remark that written input can be a very authoritative factor to patronize speaking. In a study on the impact of written input on communication, Newton (1995) discovered that all the vocabulary utilized by learners for negotiation are the ones present in their written input. To paraphrase, this leads researchers to deduce that the problems presented by learners at the moment of writing are also reflected in their speaking.

This research study provides English Composition I teachers with a proposal to implement the teaching of Spanish-English transfer errors which includes activities about the most common transfer errors that students commit in order to counteract the occurrence of such

errors; this proposal will give students a perspective of the similarities and differences that both languages have.

1.5 Research Objectives

1.5.1. General Objective

- To improve English Composition I students' writing performance by integrating the teaching of Spanish-English transfer errors

1.5.2 Specific Objectives

- To analyze to what extent English Composition II students commit Spanish-English transfer errors in English written production
- To describe the effects of carrying Spanish structures into English writing
- To create a teaching proposal for including Spanish-English transfer errors in English Composition I

1.6 Operationalization of variables

General Objective	Specific Objectives	Units of Observation	Variables	Definition of the variable	Indicators	Instruments

To improve English Composition I students' writing performance by integrating the teaching of Spanish-English transfer errors.	To analyze to what extent English Composition II students commit Spanish-English transfer errors in English written production	English Composition II students	Spanish-English transfer errors in English written production	A complex set of mental processes in which a native-language pattern is carried over into the non-native language being learned.	**Spelling transfer errors**
					• Spanish prosody carried into English
					• Cognate words
					❖ Grammatical transfer errors
					  • Articles
					  • Gender
					  • Number
					  • Pronouns
					    - Personal pronouns
					    - Relative pronouns
					    - Possessive pronouns
					  • Adjectives
					  • Prepositions
					  • Possessive case
					  • Question formation
					  • Verb tenses
					  • Passive voice
					  • Word order
					❖ Punctuation transfer errors
					  • Comma
					  • Period
					  • Capital letter
					  • Semi-colons
					  • Colons
					  • Ellipsis
					  • Dash
					  • Parenthesis
					  • Quotation marks
					  • Question marks
					  • Exclamation marks
						❖ Interviews addressed to English Composition II teachers
						
						❖ Unstructured observation

	To describe the effects of carrying Spanish structures into English writing	English Composition II students	Effects of carrying Spanish structures into English writing	Results of carrying L1 into L2	❖ Sentence fragments
					❖ Comma splices
					❖ Fanboys and Run-on sentences
					❖ Faulty parallelism
					❖ Dangling modifiers
					❖ Shift in tense
					❖ Wordiness
					❖ Choppy sentences
					❖ Coordination
					  • Faulty coordination
					  • Over coordination
					❖ Subordination
					  • Faulty subordination
					  • Over subordination
						❖ Journals
						
						❖ Written Test

	To create a teaching proposal for including Spanish-English transfer errors in English Composition I	English Composition II students	Activities for teaching Spanish-English transfer errors	Teaching activities for teaching Spanish-English transfer errors	❖ Writing and reading actibvities
					  • Paragragh
					  • Sentence fragments
					  • Puzzles
					  • Fill-in-the- blanks
						❖ Rubric to analyze English Composition I syllabus

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Language Acquisition

Language is the means people use to convey ideas from one mind to another; the acquisition of language remains one of the most fascinating aspects of human development. The most amazing aspect about a person using his or her native language or second language is the capability that he or she has to establish conversations with people from different culture. Indeed, when children are in their early life, they are immersed in the language that will be part of their whole life. Language acquisition refers to the capability that human beings have to perceive and comprehend a language as well as to use it properly in communication by having a previous knowledge about it. Usually, language acquisition refers to the native language that people acquire in the environment they grow and develop.

Chomsky's language acquisition theory talks about how learner's imitation of what they hear in L1 develops habits in L2. This theory clearly relates to this research regarding how L1 supports L2 acquisition. Chomsky's work is helpful in understanding the implications of first language in the second language acquisition and how the use of the mother tongue affects learning in the target language. However, one of the negative implications L1 can have into L2 is that students translate words into English. Translating is a problem when the idea people want to convey may not be clearly understood in the second language as students make up words in order to express themselves.

In fact, for Chomsky, L1 plays an important role in L2 as it already sets the structures, grammar, and vocabulary that change in another language, but are the same steps that people have to learn for them to be able to speak a second language; this phenomenon causes them problems when they try to put into practice what they have already learned.

Skinner (1957), one of the pioneers of behaviorism, accounted for language development by means of environmental influence. Skinner argued that children learn language based on behaviorist reinforcement by associating words with meanings; his theory is based on children's first exposure to their native language, a free learning influenced by the environment where they live. Additionally, he mentions that the first way children begin to learn their native

language is associating the things that they observe with the meanings that they get from the people around them. So, they are able to communicate due to the association that they do to acquire the vocabulary necessary to speak at their early lives.

However, Chomsky argued that children will never acquire the tools needed for processing an infinite number of sentences if the language acquisition mechanism was dependent on language input alone. In fact, Chomsky refers that children do not have a clear communication just with the language exposure as it will not provide them with the necessary vocabulary to produce a number of sentences; it allows them to initially communicate with the people that surround them, and it is necessary that children get more education so that they know more about the rules that compose the language. Despite this, he gets to the point of the mistakes that people commit when they are exposed in learning a new language because they try to translate sentences from L1 into L2.

For example, three-year-old children can be able to have a conversation, but this kind of conversation is not clear as most of their words were taken from the people who surround them. Also, they do not have a complete control and understanding of the language that they are using; likewise, children are not able to form complete and well-structured sentences, and when they speak, they do not change tenses. This observation helps researchers to be in agreement with Chomsky´s idea for being the most suitable one as it reinforces the study, in contrast with Skinner's idea. As a result, children do learn vocabulary associating the objects that they watch with the meaning provided.

2.1.1. Characteristics of first language acquisition

1) It is an instinct. This is true in the technical sense, i.e. it is triggered by birth and takes its own course, though of course, linguistic input from the environment is needed for the child to acquire a specific language. As an instinct, language acquisition can be compared to the acquisition of binocular vision or binaural hearing.

2) It is very complete. The quality of first language acquisition is far better than that of a second language (learned later on in life). One does not forget one's native language (though one might have slight difficulties remembering words if one does not use them for a long time).

3) <u>It does not require instruction.</u> Despite the fact that many non-linguists think that mothers are important for children to learn their native language, instructions by parents or care-takers are unnecessary despite the psychological benefits of attention to the child. In contrast, the ability that children have to get new words may depend on the type of learning that those children possess.

2.1.2. Native Language (L1), and second language (L2) acquisition

First language acquisition or native language is a language that every person is born with, and it is naturally acquired as it is developed in an informal and unconscious way because it does not require several instructions to be understood. When children begin to speak, they start to know more about the language that will help them to communicate through their life. It is necessary for them to know as much as possible from their native language so that they get to know and comprehend all the elements of it. Usually, the term "mother tongue" is used to refer to a child´s first language. It is the primary language that is revealed to the surrounding of a child after he or she is born. As time goes on, this language subconsciously helps the child to develop further in reading, writing and speaking fluently. The mother tongue helps a child to communicate with others by expressing his or her feelings, emotions and needs.

When a person is learning a second language, he or she uses the first language as a tool to make this process easier and faster. What people may not know is that L1 does not only have a positive influence when acquiring L2 but also have negative influence. Learning a second language is a hard work as it requires from learners, dedication and effort. Indeed, L2 learners need effort to improve their skills as they are not exposed to the language as native speakers; also, they need dedication to investigate about L2.

Cummins (1981), with his famous "Iceberg Theory," states that the role of first language is essential for the acquisition of the second one, because through L1 learning, L2 becomes easier; this occurs because some languages have similarities between them. Indeed, L1 requires that learners learn more about their own language before being able to use it, and it sets the way that they have to follow to be able to speak another language. For Cummins, it is essential that learners know how to use their L1 before acquiring a second language as for many writers L1 supports L2. Besides, Cummins (1982) stated that first language literacy and learning can be a

benefit to L2 acquisition. Language devices and concepts learned in a first language make the second language learning easier because students do not have to re-learn, in the new language, what they already know in their native language. Understanding a concept in the first language requires only a re-labelling of terms in the second language and not a re-learning of the concept (Cummins, 1982). According to this theory, concepts and skills are usually developed in the first language before they are transferred to the second. That is why, it is important for students to continue gaining experience and input in their first language at home (Cummins, 1981).

2.1.3. Difference between First Language L1 and Second Language L2 acquisition

When comparing L1 and L2, it is important to distinguish that one language is acquired by people in a natural communication while the second language is learned through a process in which people have to be involved for understanding the rules of the language. Thus, the L2 knowledge has a sequence of development which has a different structure from L1. Lightbown and Spada (2001) observe that acquisition occurs during the formative years of one's life-usually beginning in early childhood before age three and that it is learned as part of growing up among people who speak it fluently.

L1 acquisition begins while people are growing as it is a language that does not demand them much effort because it is natural. In contrast, learning is differentiated as a more conscious and explicitly sequenced process of 'accumulating knowledge of linguistic features such as vocabulary, sentence structure and grammar, typically in an institutional setting' (Yule 1985:163). As people acquire or learn language, they face different difficulties as it is not easy to properly manage a language, for L2 learners face many problems to use and to understand the foreign language; it is difficult to develop the different language competence as many people compare their L1 with L2. This causes that people produce transfer errors which prevent them from communicating effectively. The difference between these ways of developing language competence is manifested most clearly in their outcomes: through acquisition, the contextual understanding of the language is gained, and through learning, knowledge 'about' the language: 'knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them' (Krashen 1982:10; also Schmidt 1983).

In addition, Leaver et al. (2005) acknowledge that the language learning experience will differ depending on whether it is the first (L1), second (L2) or third language (L3), but it is not always clear which elements of the acquisition process are innate or extrinsic. It seeks to better understand the nature of language acquisition by exploring linguistic, social and affective factors such as environment, motivation and age, and by examining the interrelation between the two processes. In this context, Leaver believes that people face different difficulties independently if they are learning L1, L2 or L3 as every language has its complexity, and the problems that may arise while people are acquiring or learning a language maybe due to poor exposure of the language, the capacity people have to learn, and the desire and hard work that they do to learn and use the language either L1, L2 or L3.

However, this process can be affected by different aspects such as the elements that every language owns, the struggles that bring to understand it as the speech sounds, the structure of words, and sentences; besides, other factors are the place in which this process occurs as it is required that learners feel comfortable for them to participate in their learning, and it is necessary that people had acknowledged all the possible similarities and differences that L1 and L2 can have so that this can reduce the possibilities to avoid errors that affect the performance of learners.

2.1.4. Influence of native language to second language learning

Spanish influences on the English language were especially important in the sixteenth century when Spain was a global military and political power and in conflict with Britain at the same time. Both Spanish and English are Indo-European languages. But Spanish is one of the main Romance languages, and English is a Germanic one; English primarily originated from the Anglo Frisian dialects. Both languages are directly influenced by Latin-American people who live in the American territory when they are required to learn English for communication purposes.

English is a language that is needed to communicate as it is a global language; however, to learn a new language is not an easy task; this second language is also called the target language. According to Ashworth (1992), second language is a language acquired by a person in addition to his or her mother tongue. L2 is learned through a conscious process as it requires

different methods and techniques to be able to use it properly, but it will never be similar to the native language. As Lado (1957, p. 2) says, those elements of a foreign language that are similar to the learner's native language will be simple for the learner to learn, whereas those elements of a foreign language that are different to the learner's native language will be difficult for him or her to acquire. The comparison that people do makes the learning process difficult and complicated because they translate from the L1 into L2 carrying out the same structures.

The interference occurs when students try to fill knowledge "gaps" in the target language (English) using their native language structures. This occurs when learners want to communicate in the L2, and it is difficult for them to do; as a result, it causes the "language transfer theory" also known as L1 interference, and it is the effect the learners' first language has on his or her production of the second one. It states that the effect can be in any aspect of language: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking, and listening, among others.

This theory is divided into two parts: positive and negative transfers. The first one, positive transference, is seen when the structure of both languages is the same and so the interference of linguistic patterns can result in correct language production, sometimes called "true cognates." True cognates are used as a strategy to write in L2, and it is part of the positive transfer theory. Conversely, as Krashen (1981) pointed out, "negative transference" is frequently discussed as a source of errors; this means that students transfer words or structures that are not the same in both languages, otherwise known as "false cognates." In this perspective, when learners begin to see the similarities that both languages involve, they fall into a sequence of serious transfer errors as they think in their L1 before using L2.

In fact, all these errors are in all probability caused by Spanish interference. The ffollowing three errors may arise from the fact that in Spanish the combined article and adjective can be nominalized for the English equivalent **article** + **adjective** + **one;** for example, in Spanish, "**la hermosa**" means "**the beautiful one**" in English, and "**el joven**" means "**the young one**." Another kind of error is caused by the fact that two grammatical forms may exist in both languages, and the frequency in the use may vary; such situation prevails in the case of the infinitive and the gerund. In English, verbs may take as a complement either the infinitive or the gerund; in Spanish, almost all verbs must take the infinitive. Likewise, spelling problems

are sometimes connected to pronunciation problems since students are familiar with the different spelling of an equivalent Spanish word.

Language interference represents a serious issue because it "stands in the way" of language competence. To achieve competence when writing English is very difficult since it requires more ability and concentration than speaking. When Spanish learners are asked to write in English, their writing is understandable because they use the same structures of their L1 which produces repetition and illogical ideas.

Newmark (1966) points out that "Interference is not the first language 'getting in the way' of second language skills. Rather, it is the result of the performer falling back on old knowledge when he or she has not yet acquired enough of the second language" (p. 7). This theory is useful for this research as one of the objectives is to know the influence of L1 on L2 for students to avoid transfer errors. Likewise, this theory suggests that when a student is acquiring a second language (L2), he or she is both benefited and hindered by his or her native language (L1). In his or her native language, there are certain norms in pronunciation and syntax that may differ from those of the second language and interfere with his or her use of the new language. On the other hand, Krashen (1981) said that native language literacy and cognitive development in the native language will help a student learn a new language by transferring concepts from one language and applying them to the new one.

Research on L2 interference has shown that foreign language learners tend to be highly dependent on L1 structures and vocabulary, especially when producing suitable responses in the target language. Beardsmore (1982) explains that many of the difficulties foreign language learners have with the lexicon and grammar of the target language are caused by the transfer of linguistic habits from the native language, which leads to errors and mistakes. It is important to highlight that there is a clear distinction between errors and mistakes. Ellis (1997) establishes that errors reveal gaps in the learner´s knowledge. These errors mainly occur because the learner does not have a good command of the foreign language. On the other hand, mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance.

Errors vs. Mistakes

Errors

Mistakes

Types of errors

- Interlingual
- Intralingual

Interference errors include

Mistakes are lapses of performance; they are not considered unsatisfactory performance

Intralingual or Developmental factors include

- Transfer Errors
- Mother Tongue Interference
- Literal Translation

Interlingual's disadvantages

Transfer errors result when L1 pattern is carried over L2

- Simplification
- Overgeneralization
- Hypercorrection
- Faulty teaching
- Fossilization
- Avoidance
- Inadequate leaarning
- False concepts
- Hypothesized

- Comparison between both patterns
- Learner's translation word by word
- Applying the same structure in both languages

Types of errors

Sound-to-Sound transfer is the sound system of both languages

Spelling-to-Sound transfer is the relation between written and spoken form used in the native language

Disadvantages

- Simple structure
- Shift in Tense
- False cognate
- Omission of the third person
- Teaching techniques, etc.

Sound-to-Spelling words that sound alike may have different spelling

2.2 Error and mistake

The word 'error' came from the Latin word 'errorem' or 'errare,' which means 'to wander or stray.' The root of the word 'mistake,' nails the meaning more correctly. It is from the Old Norse word, 'mistaka,' which means 'mis' (wrong) and 'taka' (take). As a whole, it means 'wrongly taken.' Moreover, linguists make the difference between error and fault. A fault is an act characterized by a lack of respect for rules and standards set by linguists. But the error means a response or behavior of learners who do not match the response and the expected behavior. Each type of error is the product of a reflection that students face when teachers give them a task. In other words, the error can be considered a problem in the process of learning, and this feature distinguishes the fault. Considering languages complexity, it is impossible for students not to commit errors and mistakes.

Errors are produced by the interference of L1 into L2. Errors have been observed for knowing the positive and negative aspects that may bring to the writing performance of students. Besides, Lado (1957) suggests that the comparison between native and foreign language lies the key to ease all difficulties in foreign language learning. As Lado mentioned in his theory, if people could really understand the language similarities between both languages, they will discover that the previous knowledge of L1 helps learners to have bases in order to acquire L2. Furthermore, Brown (2000) states that a mistake refers to a performance error that it is, a failure to utilize a known system correctly, whereas an error is a noticeable deviation from adult grammar of a native speaker reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner. In allusion to the comparison between errors and mistakes made by Brown, he mentioned that mistakes are those faults that students commit when they are exposed to L2, but those mistakes are not considered a big deal. Students know the rules, but they probably have memory lapses. On the other hand, errors are considered a consequence of the poor knowledge and misunderstanding of students in L2 learning.

According to Lennon (1991), an error is "a linguistic form or combination of forms which in the same context and under similar conditions of production would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speakers' native counterparts." In allusion to his point, native speakers acquire their knowledge in an unconscious way as they are involved in L1; the errors that they could commit are not considered errors but mistakes that are produced as a result of the process

of learning. Moreover, in tune with this competence and performance classification, Corder's distinction between errors and mistake is well-known. The former is systematic, a real symptom of the learner's transitional competence as they show the different stages the student of a language goes through.

On the contrary, mistakes are regarded as non-systematic; they are frequently addressed as verbal lapses in performance. In the same way, Corder (1999) supports the idea that "errors are caused by ignorance of the appropriate rule or structure in the foreign language." In other words, students commit errors as a result of the lack of competence as they do not know what is correct. These problems that students face while they are acquiring a new language may be due to their poor process of learning as well as a sign of inadequacy of the teaching techniques. On the other hand, it was seen as a natural result of the fact that by nature, people cannot avoid making errors, so they should accept the reality and try to deal with them.

Fortunately, little by little, the error has been seen from a different point of view since people can learn from their mistakes. To point out, students do not have the same process of acquiring knowledge; some of them may face difficulties in trying to understand simple grammatical and composition rules; moreover, the techniques that teachers implement in the classroom sometimes may not fulfill all students' needs. This causes that students do not comprehend, and this affects them at the moment when they are putting into practice all what they have already learned. Despite this, it is impossible that L2 learners do not make errors as it is a new language for them; it involves significant differences compared to L1.

Besides, as followers of this theory have claimed (Corder 1967; Svartvirk 1973; Dulay, Burt & Krashen 1982), errors are an 'open window' to study the processes of learning and the route that learners follow when building up their competence in the target language. Because of this, errors are considered important for teachers so that they can discover the problems and progress that students have during their learning.

Likewise, as Selinker (1969) indicates, errors are significant in three respects: (1) errors are important for the language teacher because they indicate the learner's progress in language learning; (2) errors are also important for the language researcher as they provide insights into how language is learned; and (3) finally, errors are significant to the language learner as he or

she gets involved in hypothesis testing. Both ideas are similar because both of them recognize that teachers have to be conscious and active in students' learning as in this way, they will identify the errors that students commit while speaking or writing. Also, teachers could implement the adequate lesson plan to better this problem, and to know students' understanding.

In addition, L2 learners are conscious that errors are part of their process of acquiring a new language, and to avoid them is hard as they have to keep learning the rules that compose the language. It is generally accepted that error production is a necessary part of learning, and language teachers should use the errors with a view to have better results in the classroom. As Arthur pointed out, it may be the case that errors made by L2 learners are from their own perspective, not errors at all. They are consistent with systematic rules of the learners' own interlanguage (Tarone, 1977).

2.2.1 Types of Errors

Researchers in the field of applied linguistics usually distinguish between two types of errors: performance errors and competence errors. Performance errors are those errors made by learners' physical and mental fatigue. Normally, this type of error is not serious and can be overcome with little effort by learners; in this case, these kinds of errors are produced because students usually spend a lot of time thinking what to write, and they do not manage their time which causes to do things without being conscious. Competence errors, on the other hand, are more serious than performance errors since competence errors reflect inadequate learning as students may not have the level to comprehend difficult tasks. In this connection, it is important to note that researchers (cf. Gefen 1979) distinguish between mistakes which are lapses in performance and errors which reflect inadequate competence.

Although, this research is focused on writing performance; researchers think that it is necessary to know the errors students produce when they speak or listen to as they confuse homonyms and homophones. Cf. Burt and Kiparsky (1974) distinguish between local and global errors. Local errors do not hinder communication and understanding the meaning of an utterance. Global errors, on the other hand, are more serious than local errors because global errors interfere with communication and disrupt the meaning of utterances. Local errors involve

noun and verb inflections, and the use of articles, prepositions, and auxiliaries. Global errors, for example, involve wrong word order in a sentence.

According to Dulay and Burt (1974) there are three types of errors: the developmental is based on the identity hypothesis that is similar to the errors made in Ll acquisition; these types of errors are produced due to the interference of L1 into L2, interference errors and unique errors which cannot fall into either of the above mentioned categories. In this context, Richards (1971), when trying to identify the causes of competence errors, came up with three types of errors: interference errors, which reflect the use of elements from one language to the other, intralingual errors, subdivided into errors due to overgeneralization or ignorance of rules restriction which is incomplete application of the rules or formally due to the false concept hypothesis which demonstrate the general characteristics of rule learning and third developmental errors when the learner builds hypothesis about the target language based on limited experience.

2.2.1.1. Interlingual errors

Interference, language transfer, and cross-linguistic interference are also known as interlingual errors. Corder (1981) states that these kinds of errors occur when the learner's habits (patterns, systems, or rules) interfere or prevent him or her to some extent from acquiring the patterns and rules of the second language. To paraphrase, the first thing that most L2 learners do when learning a new language is a comparison as they need a basis to support ideas into L2. However, this comparison can be acceptable and non-acceptable. It is acceptable because it provides learners with the basis for L2; on the other hand, it is non-acceptable because this comparison makes students believe that both languages have the same patterns, and they usually translate word by word producing deficiencies in their writing. Lado (1964) says interference (negative transfer) is a negative influence of the mother tongue (L1) on the performance of the target language (L2). Chelli (2013) defines those interlingual errors as being the result of language transfer which is caused by learners' first language.

In all the theories that researchers cited above about interlingual, the authors agreed that these kinds of errors are produced by the interference of L1 in L2, and these are the consequences that learners face as they presume that both languages are similar. Likewise, as stated by Brown (1980: 160), most of the learners' errors in the second language result primarily

from the learners' assumption that the second language forms are similar to the native language. Touchie (1986) suggested that interlingual errors are caused mainly by the mother tongue interference. Al-Khresheh (2010) suggested that interlingual errors are committed by literal translation. Another problem that L2 learners make is to translate the pattern literally causing problems in writing.

Interlingual errors involve the following aspects:

1) Transfer errors are caused by the interference of the mother tongue. A student who has not known the rules of L2 will use the same rules that he or she obtained in his or her native language. For example, when a Spanish speaker intends to say **I want a hug**, and it sounds to the English-speaking listener like **I want a hag**. Such interference does not only occur in structure but also in pronunciation known as "sound-to-sound" transfer error. In addition, there is another transfer error called "spelling-to-sound" which happens when learners transfer the relationship between written and spoken forms used in the native language. The same happens when words sound alike or partially alike that may have different spelling in the two languages, so people must deal with another type of error called "sound-to-spelling," such as **"*responsable for responsible."**

2) Mother tongue interference: errors are produced in the learners' attempt to discover the structure of L2 rather than transferring models of their first language.

3) Literal Translation: errors happen because a student translates his or her first language sentence or idiomatic expression into L2.

2.2.1.2. Intralingual error

Interference from the student's own language is not the only reason for committing errors. Students may make mistakes in the target language since they do not know the L2 very well. Richard (1974: 6) states intralingual interference refers to items produced by learners which do not reflect the structure of mother tongue but generalization based on partial exposure of the target language.

Intralingual and developmental factors include the following:

1. Simplification: Learners often choose simple forms and constructions instead of more complex ones. An example of simplification might involve the use of simple present instead of the present perfect continuous.

2. Overgeneralization: This is the use of one form or construction in one context and extending its application to other contexts where it should not apply. Examples of overgeneralization include the omission of the third person singular –s, and the shift in tense as the past tense forms change to present or vice versa. It should be noted that simplification and overgeneralization are used by learners in order to reduce their linguistic burden.

3. Hypercorrection: Sometimes the zealous efforts of teachers in correcting their students' errors induce students to make errors in otherwise correct forms. Stenson (1978) calls this type of error "induced errors." For example, the teacher's insistence in producing the lax vowel /æ/ makes Spanish ESL learners produce /a/ where the phoneme /æ/ is required. Thus Spanish ESL learners say /mɑn/ and /hɑt/ instead of /mæn/ or /hæt/.

4. Faulty teaching: Sometimes it happens that learners' errors are teacher-induced ones, i.e., caused by the teacher, teaching materials, or the order of presentation. This factor is closely related to the hypercorrection above. Also, it is interesting to note that some teachers are even influenced by their students' errors in the course of long teaching.

5. Fossilization: Some errors, especially errors in pronunciation, persist for long periods and become quite difficult to get rid of. Examples of fossilized errors in ESL learners are the lack of distinction between /n/ and /ŋ/; consequently, the word "long" may be pronounced /lon/ instead of /lɔːŋ/.

6. Avoidance: Some syntactic structures are difficult to produce by some learners. Consequently, these learners avoid these structures and use instead simple structures.

7. Inadequate learning: This is mainly caused by ignorance of rule restrictions or under differentiation and incomplete learning. An example is omission of the third person singular -s as in: "*She play, *He smile"; in English, the verbs in present simple have an inflection adding –s and –es at the end of the verb in third person singular; however, many Spanish speakers omit this rule as in Spanish, the verbs in present have a different inflection.

8. False concepts hypothesized: Many learners' errors can be attributed to wrong hypotheses formed by these learners about the target language. For example, in the sentence **"*He does eats the hamburger,"** some learners think that **does** (auxiliary) precedes the verb already inflected with -s. Similarly, they used both the auxiliary **did** and the main verb inflected as in the sentence "***It did happened last night."**

In conclusion, errors are not considered for all researchers as a problem learners deal with; the errors are windows that allow teachers to check students' learning process. Indeed, errors help them to know the insufficient knowledge that students have. According to the cognitive approach, the production of errors is inevitable and is a necessary part of learning. Chomsky (1998) confirmed that errors are unavoidable and a necessary part of learning. In addition, errors are part of L2 learners' acquisition, and errors' analyses propose an effective solution and folds two advantages. Firstly, it gives a good understanding of the nature and the types of errors so as to devise appropriate ways to avoid them (pedagogical advantage); Secondly, it provides an insight about the process of second language acquisition, for the study of learners' errors is part of the systematic study of the learners' language (theoretical advantage), (Corder 1981).

These two significances of error analysis are absolutely essential to make well created proposals for the development and improvement of the materials in the teaching of writing techniques. Researchers concur with Conder's idea as the advantages of errors analysis provide a complete view of the aspects they have to take into account at the moment of elaborating the proposal for this research.

2.2.2. Spanish vs. English Grammatical Structures

To understand the occurrence of Spanish-English transfer errors, it is indispensable to study patterns in grammar, orthography, and punctuation. For this research study is important to know the definition of grammar; some linguists define grammar just in the syntactic respect which is only in the sentence level; however, the study of grammar comprises a great study of language. In fact, grammar is the speakers' competence of the language that covers areas like phonology and phonetics, morphology, syntax, and semantics because they must be studied in

order to comprehend and explain aspects and effects that the L1 carries into L2. For this reason, grammar will be defined and studied as follows:

Grammar includes everything one knows about the structure of one's language-its lexicon (the words or vocabulary in the mental dictionary), its morphology (the structure of words), its syntax (the structure of phrases and sentences and the constraints on well-formed sentences, its semantics (the meaning of words and sentences) and its phonetics and phonology (the sounds and the sound system or patterns). A theory of grammar specifies the nature of these components and the universal aspects of all grammars. (u.n. p. 8)

Transfer errors include lexicon acquisition (phonology), word formation (morphology), grammatical structures (syntax) and semantics. First, lexicon acquisition comprehends how it is stored in the brain and how it is involved in morphology which implies to know its definition, root and morphemes of words along with the differences and similarities in both languages. Along this study, areas such as phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics that could describe transfer errors' production will be covered in different sections.

2.3. Lexicon acquisition

Lexicon as previously mentioned is the dictionary of words stored in the speakers' brain; it is a set of words which are categorized in the diverse parts of speech through which the speaker can express ideas by making a selected combination of words. This means that the speaker can create different expressions though they may not have been listened to before.

Lexicon acquisition refers to the way the brain starts processing the new-learned word. In the native language or mother tongue, the speakers start acquiring vocabulary by perceiving the sounds of an articulated word. In other words, the first thing the speakers keep in mind are the sounds. Through observation and repetition, speakers articulate sounds following meaningful sequences which are transformed into words and subsequently into sentences; this is what is known as the **mental grammar** which comes from the linguistic competence. As the word is perceived, this immediately involves the inclusion of all the elements of the linguistic sign like signifier and signified. Indeed, when learning a new word, the brain automatically categorizes the word into the corresponding part of the speech which will be later studied in

both languages. Knowing such things will be useful to understand how such sound patterns are involved in the second language (L2) specifically in the production of transfer errors.

2.4. Patterns in phonology

Both languages have differences and similarities regarding sound patterns that may lead and cause Spanish-English transfer errors in writing. The main focus in this section is to comprehend the sound system of both languages, the classification of the phonemes and the effect in L2 orthography.

Initially, the word "sound" lies at the very center of speech communication. A sound wave is both the end product of the speech production mechanism and the primary source of raw material used by the listener to recover the speaker message (The Physics of Sound).

Table 1. Vowel Sounds Compared in English and Spanish

Vowels Sounds													
Monophthongs							Diphthongs						
	Spanish written representation			English written representation				Spanish written representation			English written representation		
Phoneme	Initial position	Medial position	Final position	Initial position	Medial position	Final position	Phoneme	Initial position	Medial position	Final position	Initial position	Medial position	Final position
/a/	**a**rma	S**a**rgento	pal**a**	**A**rm	st**o**p, h**ea**rt, g**ua**rd, s**e**rgeant	Ø	/aɪ/ or /ai/ (Spanish phoneme)	**ai**re	J**ai**ro	h**ay**	**i**dol, **eye**	m**igh**t, b**i**te, m**i**crophone	b**ye**, p**ie**, b**uy**, fl**y**
/æ/	Ø	Ø	Ø	**A**sk	h**a**t, l**au**gh, pl**ai**d	Ø	/aʊ/ or /au/ (Spanish phoneme)	**au**la	p**au**sa	Ø	Ø	m**ou**th	Ø
/ʌ/	Ø	Ø	Ø	**u**p, **o**ther	ab**o**ve, f**u**n, bl**oo**d, en**ou**gh, d**oe**s	Ø	/e/ or /ei/ (Spanish phoneme)	Ø	r**ei**na	r**ey**	**a**pe, **eigh**t	st**a**ble, compl**ai**, gr**ea**t, r**ai**n,	M**ay**, conv**ey**, s**ay**,
/ɛ/ or /e/ (Spanish phoneme)	**e**strés	Entr**e**vista	m**e**nte	**e**lbow	t**e**ll, h**ea**d, s**ai**d, m**a**ny, s**ay**s, b**u**rry, l**eo**pard, fri**e**nd	Ø	/eu/ (Spanish phoneme)	**eu**foria	d**eu**da	Ø	Ø	Ø	Ø
/ə/	Ø	Ø	Ø	**a**mong	t**e**lephone, harm**o**ny, m**e**dium, l**ea**rn, b**i**rd, c**a**n, fam**ou**s, anal**y**sis, reg**io**n, poss**i**ble,	Ch**i**na, extr**a**, banan**a**, th**e**	/ɔɪ/ or /oi/ (Spanish phoneme)	**oi**ga	M**oi**sés	v**oy**	**oi**l	p**oi**nt	j**oy**
/i/	Ø	Ø	Ø	**ea**ch	rel**ie**ve sh**ee**t, b**ea**t, ch**ie**f, rec**ei**ve, Ch**i**nese, un**i**que	tr**ee**, b**e**, b**ee**	/o/ or /ou/ (Spanish phoneme)	Ø	b**ou**rbon	B**ou**	**o**pen	m**o**de, m**ou**ld,	g**o**, kn**ow**, d**oe**, alth**ough**

/ɪ/	isla,	alimentar	maní, Mary	it, English	hill, myth, pretty, women, build, business, forfeit, fear, fierce	cookie, city	/ia/ (Spanish phoneme)	hiato	fiador	falacia	Ø	Ø	Ø
/ɔ/ or /o/ (Spanish phoneme)	oración	Flor	oro	author, awesome	cloth, floor, taught, walk, bought, broad	draw,	/ie/ (Spanish phoneme)	hierba	nieve	pie	Ø	Ø	Ø
/u/	uso	Sur	Bambú	ooze	soon, youth, rude, fruit,	two, do, true, through,	/io/ (Spanish phoneme)	Ø	violín	vicio	Ø	Ø	Ø
/ʊ/	Ø	Ø	Ø	Ø	book, push, would	Ø	/iu/ (Spanish phoneme)	Ø	viuda	Ø	Ø	Ø	Ø
/w/G	huevo	Ø	Ø	wall, wet	Ø	Ø	/ua/ (Spanish phoneme)	Ø	cuantos	agua	Ø	Ø	Ø
							/ue/ (Spanish phoneme)	Ø	cuento	Ø	Ø	Ø	Ø
/y/G	you, yet	Ø	Ø	you, yet,	Ø	Ø	/ui/ (Spanish phoneme)	huir	cuidar	Ø	Ø	Ø	Ø
							/uo/ (Spanish phoneme)	Ø	Ø	ambiguo	Ø	Ø	Ø

Note. Ø means no existence. G means Glides (semi-vowels) classified as monophthongs since they combine the posterior vowel sound. They are not considered as separate phonemes. Furthermore, some of the phonemes may have a variety of allophones which will not be studied in this research.

Table 2. Vowel phonemes

	Front	Central	Back
High	/i/ /ɪ/		/u/ /ʊ/
Mid	/e/ /ɛ/or ˢ/e/	/ʌ/	/o/
Low	/æ/	/a/	/ɔ/ or ˢ /o/

Source: Adapted from An Introduction to Linguistics (p. 65) by Crane, L. B. et al., 1981, United States.

The phonemes with the sign ˢ represent a Spanish written phoneme which may be equal to the sound and written representation of an English phoneme. For example, regarding similarities, some phonemes have the same written representation as in the case of /i/, /u/, /a/; nevertheless, there exist different written forms for representing the same sound in both languages such as /ɛ/ (English written phoneme representation) and /e/ (Spanish written phoneme representation). Though those phonemes are different in the written representation, both of them represent the same sound with the same characteristics of articulation. To differentiate the Spanish written phoneme from the ones in English, it is placed a "*s*"; as in English, there exist sounds that may have the same Spanish written phoneme representation, for example, /e/, /o/ (representing diphthong sounds in English) and ˢ /e/, ˢ /o/ (representing monophthong sounds in Spanish).

The result of the differences in phoneme written representation of both languages is that a single vowel Spanish phoneme (monophthongs like /a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/) represents a single spelling in its written alphabet; for example, ˢ /e/ can represent the Spanish spelling of **e** as in "**e**rror" but it cannot represent "**rei**na" since for such word, the written phoneme representation is /ei/ (a combination of two Spanish vowel phonemes: /e/ and /i/) which is different from English. In English, a single written phoneme may represent a combination of letters or different spellings; for instance, /e/ (diphthong in English) being a single written vowel phoneme can represent the spelling of a variety of letters like **a** as in ape, **eigh** as in **eigh**ty, **ai**, as in expl**ai**n, **ay**, as in p**ay** and **ea**, as in gr**ea**t. Although there are differences in phoneme written representation, there exits equivalents representing the same sound since articulatory characteristics are shared.

The problem of transfer errors, specifically the ones involving spelling, does not occur due to their similarities but to their differences in phonology; for example, a common written transfer error for L2 students is the word "respons**a**ble" (Spanish pattern) intended for the English pattern **"responsible"**; in other words, the pattern of spelling "**a**" is brought into English by using "**a**" instead of "**i**" as presented below.

Table 3. Spelling and sound pattern of "a" carried to English

responsable (Spanish)	respons**i**ble (English)
Spanish spelling pattern carried: "a"	transfer error: "respons**a**ble" instead of "respons**i**ble"

Note. The sound pattern of Spanish is adapted to conform to the English sound and spelling pattern.

This happens as the phoneme /a/ is taken as the equivalent of schwa /ə/ which does not exist in Spanish. Additionally, they differentiate in their phonetic characteristics.

Table 4. Features of /a/ and /ə/

	Spanish	English		/a/	/ə/
	/a/	/ə/		- Tense	- Tense
High	-	-		+ Low	- Low
Low	+	-		+ Central	+ Central
Back	-	-		- Round	- Round
Round	-	-			
Tense	-	-			

Source: Adapted from An Introduction to Linguistics (p. 68) by Crane, L. B. et al., 1981.

The schwa /ə/ has different articulatory characteristics, and for that reason, it cannot be taken as the equivalent for /a/. Most non-native speakers of English have troubles with the pronunciation and writing of schwa, the most commonly used vowel. Marková points out that the sound schwa is considered to be voiced as it is created with the vibrating vocal chords, mid-central as it is formed in the center of the vocal cavity, unrounded as the lips are not rounded, neutral as it is lax and the tongue and the lips are not tense, unaccented as it does not occur in accented syllables, short as it does not have much length in production as other vowels (p.24).

Additionally, there are some transfer errors in which the pattern of a vowel or consonant Spanish phoneme is carried into English writing causing double consonant cluster omission; it

is needed to take a look at the differences and similarities consonant phonemes shared among the two languages.

Table 5. Consonant Sounds Compared in English

Consonant Sounds					
Phoneme	**Spanish written representation**			**English written representation**		
/b/	**V**ote	ca**b**ina	Cale**b**	**b**ar	li**b**erty	cra**b**
/p/	**Pr**áctica	a**p**arte	Ø	**p**ractice	pe**pp**er	cla**p**
/t/	**T**ú	a**t**ún	mamu**t**	**t**wo	beau**t**iful	sea**t**
/d/	**d**edo	me**d**icina	i**d**	**d**ay	me**d**icine	ma**d**
/k/	**k**oala	po**c**o	Ø	**c**arry	a**cc**urate	too**k**
/g/	**g**asoline	a**g**redir	Ø	**g**asoline	bi**gg**est	e**gg**
/f/	**f**ruta	a**f**ecto	Ø	**f**ruit	a**f**ter	o**ff**
/v/	Ø	Ø	Ø	**v**iolin	con**v**ince	lo**v**e
/s/	**S**er	a**c**ertijo	podría**s**	**s**ide	nece**ss**ary	me**ss**
/z/	Ø	Ø	Ø	**z**one	ha**z**ard	rai**s**e
/ʃ/	Ø	Ø	Ø	**sh**oes	cu**sh**ion	bru**sh**
/dʒ/	Ø	Ø	Ø	Ø	televi**si**on	bri**dg**e
/Ө/	Ø	Ø	Ø	**th**ink	me**th**odology	mou**th**
/ð/	Ø	Ø	Ø	**th**us	wi**th**out	ba**the**
/h/ or ˢ/x/	**j**ota	a**j**edrez	<u>relo**j**</u>	**h**appy	be**h**avior	Ø
/ʧ/ or ˢ/č/	**ch**apa	a**ch**ote	Ø	**ch**at	ma**ch**ine	su**ch**
/ʒ/	Ø	Ø	Ø	**J**ack	bud**g**et	pa**g**e
/m/	**m**es	a**m**ar	álbu**m**	**m**ess	A**m**erica	colu**m**n
/n/	**N**o	a**n**illo	pa**n**	**n**ot	a**nn**oy	so**n**
/ŋ/	Ø	Ø	Ø	Ø	a**n**gry	sla**ng**
ˢ/ñ/	Ø	ni**ñ**a	Ø	Ø	Ø	Ø
/l/	**l**ora	a**l**uminio	capita**l**	**l**ie	a**l**ien	capita**l**
/r/ or ˢ/r/	Ø	ca**r**a	carácte**r**	**r**ise	a**r**ise	ca**r**
ˢ/rr/	**r**osa,	ca**rr**o	Ø	Ø	Ø	Ø
/w/	**h**ueso	A**hu**achapán	Ø	**w**ine	t**w**in	a**w**ay
/y/	**Y**o	a**y**ote	Ø	**y**ear	can**y**on	Ø
ˢ/ʎ/	**ll**ave	caba**ll**o	Ø	Ø	Ø	Ø

Note. In the word <u>reloj</u>, "j" can be or cannot be pronounced depending on some dialects, and the semi-consonant phonemes /w/ and /y/ are included in the consonant phoneme chart for representing the spelling of vowels. The last phoneme in the above chart is used just to describe the Spanish spelling of "ll" though it can be interchanged with the phoneme /y/.

Consonant phonemes are classified according to their voicing, place and manner of articulation as it is presented (Resnick. M., and Sousa, R., 1997).

Table 6. Spanish and English phonemes representation

Spanish								English							
Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal		Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal	
/p/ /b/		/t/ /d/			/k/ /g/		Stops	/p/ /b/			/t/ /d/		/k/ /g/		Voiceless Voiced
	/f/		/s/			/h/	Fricatives		/f/ /v/	/Ө/ /ð/	/s/ /z/	/ʃ/ /ʒ/		/h/	Voiceless Voiced
				/č/			Affricates					/ʧ/ /dʒ/			Voiceless Voiced
/m/			/n/	/ñ/			Nasals	/m/			/n/		/ŋ/		Voiced
			/r/ /rr/				R-Sounds				/r/				Voiced
			/l/				Lateral				/l/				Voiced
				/y/	/w/		Semi-consonants	/w/				/y/			Voiced

Source: Reprinted from Comparing English and Spanish: Patterns in Phonology and Orthography (p. 22), by Nash. R, 1977.

This study describes the appearance of sound-to-spelling transfer errors. For instance, the Spanish phoneme /e/ is carried to the English spelling even though in English such phoneme does not exist as in the case of the following words.

Table 7. Transfer error "es" carried into English Spelling

Spanish Sound Pattern	English Spelling Pattern	Transfer error
Spanish spelling pattern carried: /e/ representing the spelling of "e" usually at the beginning of a word. Example: - estudiante - espacio	- **s**tudent /studənt/ - **s**pace /spes/	Transfer error: "**es**" Examples: - **e**student /ɛstudənt/ - **e**space /ɛspes/

Note. The English consonant cluster /**st**/ and /**sp**/ at the beginning of words leading to the spelling of "**est-**" and "**esp-**" in English.

The change of the initial "st-" and "sp-" into "est-" and "esp-" in English words occurs when Spanish speakers bring out the sound pattern /est/ and /esp/ to provide syllabicity because

in their native language, the consonant clusters /st/ and /sp/ at the beginning of words do not exist.

Table 8. Spelling Patterns in both Languages

Both vowel phonemes are equal in both Spanish and English		
Spanish spelling pattern	English Spelling Pattern	
Examples:	Examples:	
Demostrar	demostate	(omission of "n")
Posible	posible	(omission o "s")
professor	profesor	(omission o "s")
profesión	profesion	(omission o "s")
aplicación	aplication	(omission o "p")
atención	atention	(omission o "t")
característica	caracteristic	(omission of "h")
agresión	agression	(omission o "g")
puntuación	puntuation	(omission of "c")
comunicación	comunication	(omission of "m")
diferencia	diference	(omission of "f")

Note. The cross-language correspondences vary in their prosody.

Both languages have cross-language spelling correspondences consisting on diagraphs (duplication of the same consonant letter).

To summarize, sound-to-spelling transfer errors occur when a phonetic pattern is carried over the L2 because of two main reasons: 1) to carry a phonetic pattern of L1 as the equivalent of a phoneme in L2 which does not exist in L1, and 2) when the phonemes are shared or exist in both languages but the spelling of L1 is carried to the spelling of L2. Furthermore, sound-to-spelling transfer errors are closely related with orthography which may include spelling patterns; however, this study will focus just on the ones in which transfer errors are common to happen.

2.5. Graphotactic Rules

According to Stubbs (1986: 6), there are three main types of spelling rules that occur in descriptions of English spelling conventions: 1. Correspondence rules, 2. Adaptation rules and 3. Graphotactic rules (or letter-distribution rules). The Graphotactic rules restrict or define the possible sequences of graphemes in a writing system (letter sequences). There exist some specifications that state where letters can or cannot occur in order to prevent people from making

mistakes in writing when they join letters together to have an equal pronunciation. In Spanish, vowel spellings have consonant values, and it is not necessary to state environments. Simple vowel values are always spelled with single vowel letters, and complex values are always spelled with diphthongs.

Like most alphabetic systems, letters (graphemes) in English orthography may represent a particular sound. Each of the vowel letters (a, e, i, o and u) has two basic pronunciations: a simple value and a complex value. **Basic simple:** a→/æ/, e→/ɛ/, i→/ɪ/, o→/ɑ/, u→/ʌ/. **Basic complex:** a→/e/, e→/i/, i→/aɪ/, o→/o/, u→/u/. To understand the environments in which the value of a letter would change, the following charts are presented.

Table. 9 Basic Simple Values in English

Signal Environment of Letter Value		
Environment 1	(Vowel letter) + final C	b**ad** → /bæd/
Environment 2	(Vowel) + CC	cl**ass** →/klæs/
Environment 3	(Vowel letter) + C₁C₂	h**elp**→ /hɛlp/
Environment 4	(Vowel letter) + C₁C₂ + ȼ	d**ance**→/dæns/

Source: Adapted from Comparing English and Spanish: Patterns in Phonology and Orthography, by Nash.

Table. 10 Basic Complex Vowel Values in English

Signal Environment of Letter Value		
Environment 1	(Vowel letter) + C + ȼ	c**ape** → /keip/
Environment 2	(Vowel letter) + C + vowel suffix	b**ite**→ b**iting**→ /baɪtɪŋ/
Environment 3	(Vowel letter) + ȼ	s**ee** → /si/

Source: Adapted from Comparing English and Spanish: Patterns in Phonology and Orthography, by Nash.

The pronunciation of a vowel letter is almost always determined by the letter or letters that come after it in the word.

Table. 11 Vowel Environment Examples

Vowel Letter	Basic Simple	Example				Basic Complex	Example		
		E1	E2	E3	E4		E1	E2	E3
A	/æ/	had /hæd/	class klæs/	fatty /fætɪ/	dance /dæns/	/e/	cape /kep/	fatal /fetəl/	sundae /sʌnde/
E	/ɛ/	let /lɛt/	tennis /tɛnɪs/	wedding /wɛdɪŋ/	sense /sɛns/	/i/	theme /θim/	meter /mitɚ/	tree /tri/
I	/ɪ/	hit /hɪt/	fiddle /fɪdəl/	milk /mɪlk/	ridge /rɪdʒ/	/aɪ/	bite /baɪt/	biting /baɪtɪŋ/	pie /paɪ/
O	/ɑ/	not /nɑt/	doll /dɑl/	topping /tɑpɪŋ/	bronze /brɑnz/	/o/	dom /dom/	rosy /rozɪ/	hoe /ho/
U	/ʌ/	up /ʌp/	button /bʌtən/	must /mʌst/	curve /kʌrv/	/u/	cute /kjut/	cutest /kjutɪst/	blue /blu/

Note. Adapted from Comparing English and Spanish: Patterns in Phonology and Orthography, by Nash.

The combination letters: **ch, ph, sh, th** function as single consonant letters

Table 12. Combination letters

Ch	much, attach	/mʌt**ʃ**/ , /ətæt**ʃ**/
Ph	telegraph, autograph	/teligræ**f**/ , /ɔtəgrɑ**f**/
Sh	wash, crush	/wɑ**ʃ**/ , /krʌ**ʃ**/
Th	path, earth	/pɑ**θ**/ , /ɛr**θ**/

Source: Adapted from Comparing English and Spanish: Patterns in Phonology and Orthography, by Nash.

Other values of vowel letters are considered as special values, and they occur in special orthographic environments, for example:

Table 13. Special values of vowel letters

Special Values of Vowel Letters		Example	
a	/ɔ/	Walk	/wɔk/
a	/ɑ/	Arm	/ɑrm/
e	/ɪ/	Dishes	/dɪʃəz/
i	It does not have special value		
o	/ʊ/	Woman	/wʊmən/
o	/ɪ/	Women	/wɪmən/
u	/ʊ/	Push	/pʊʃ/

Source: Adapted from Comparing English and Spanish: Patterns in Phonology and Orthography, by Nash. R, 1977.

Most of the time when two vowel letters appear together, the spelling may represent a single vowel phoneme, a single complex phoneme or two different vowel phonemes as follow.

Table14. Vowel Letter Combination

Vowel spelling	complex	Simple	separate
ea	read→ /rid/	head→ /hɛd/	reaction→ /riˈækʃən/
oo	groom→ /grum/	blood→ /blʌd/	coordinate→ /koʊˈɔrdəneɪt/
ai	paid→ /peɪd/	fair→ / fɛr/	archaic→ /ɑrˈkeɪk/

Source: Adapted from Comparing English and Spanish: Patterns in Phonology and Orthography, by Nash. R, 1977.

Letter "e" is the most commonly used vowel in written English mostly found in the last syllable. When these words end with "e," the letter is not pronounced; that is called silent "¢." The silent ¢ performs important functions in written English: (1) to indicate vowel sounds, (2) to indicate consonant sounds, (3) to distinguish homophones, (4) to add a vowel to a syllabic consonant, specifically the syllabic [l], (5) to prevent words from ending in *u* and *v*, and (6) to maintain the history of a word.

Table 15. Uses of ¢

According to Nash (1977), the silent **"¢"** has different orthographic purposes, for example:

N°	Orthographic presence	Orthographic purpose	Example		
1	**After letter s**	To show no representation of the plural ending, 3rd p.s., and to differentiate words	brows- browse see - sees laps - lapses		
2	**After letter c, v, z (Generally do not appear in final position)**	[z] voiced alveolar fricative → [s] voiceless alveolar fricative. [k] voiceless velar stop/plosive → [s] voiceless alveolar fricative	dance solve breeze		
3	**At the end, the letter g becomes stop or fricative when it precedes ¢**	To signal the fricative pronunciation. [g] voiced velar stop → [dʒ] voiced palato-alveolar affricate	stop	fricative	
			rag	rage	
			rang	range	
4	**After letter c, g (unstressed syllables)**	To signal the fricative pronunciation	classic	notice	
			rig	ridge	
5	**After th**	To signal voiced pronunciation. [θ] voiceless dental fricative → [ð] voiced dental fricative	θ	ð	
			bath, cloth	bathe, clothe	
6	**After l (following a consonant)**	To indicate syllabic pronunciation /əl/	C+l¢	CC+l¢	C1C2+l¢
			Bible	bottle	gentle
7	**Occasionally after ɑ+a consonant cluster**	To signal a basic complex vowel value	complex	simple	
			paste /**ei**/	past /**æ**/	
8	**After French words ending in -ine, -ure, -ore**	To maintain the history of a word	examine, nature, pinafore		

Source: Adapted from Comparing English and Spanish: Patterns in Phonology and Orthography, by Nash. R, 1977.

A silent letter is a letter that does not match any sound in a particular word; such phenomenon occurs in archaic spellings. There are special environments when a consonant is unpronounced, for example:

Table 16. Silent consonant letters /#/

/#/ Consonant	Position	Example	Phonemic representation
At the beginning of a word			
h	after **g, r, w**	ghost, rhythm, why	/gəʊst/ , /rɪðəm/ , /waɪ/
g		gnaw	/nɑː/
k	before **n**	knee	/niː/
p		pneumonia	/nuːmoʊ.njə/
p	before **s**	psychology	/saɪkɑː.lə.dʒi/
w	before **r**	wrong	/rɑːŋ/
At the end of a word			
b	before **t**	doubt	/daʊt/
	after **m**	thumb	/θʌm/
g	before **m, n**	diaphragm, campaign	/daɪ.ə.fræm/, /kæmpeɪn/
h	after a vowel	Utah	/juː.tɑː/
gh	before **t**	light	/laɪt/
Special combinations			
suffix	at the end of a word	crumb → crumble	/krʌm/→ /krʌm.bəl/
consonant = /#/	when the consonant is not pronounced	sign → signal column → columnar	/saɪn/→ /sɪg.nəl/ /kɑː.ləm/→ /kə-ˈləm-nər/
consonant = /#/ or it is pronounced	same environment	hour, house dough , cough	/aʊr/, /ˈhaʊ. zɪz/ /doʊ/, /kɑːf/

Source: Adapted from Comparing English and Spanish: Patterns in Phonology and Orthography, by Nash. R, 1977.

Spanish differs from English since in Spanish vowel environments generally do not exist because a vowel phoneme represents a single sound. There are cognate words that may change in their spelling patterns, pronunciation, or both. The following spelling chart presents parallel consonant pronunciations and spellings that denote different phoneme values in both languages.

Table 17. Spanish and English consonant correspondences

Consonant Correspondence	Phoneme	Word		Consonant Correspondence	Phoneme	Word	
p vs. pp	/p/	aplicación	application	c vs. que	/k/	opaco	opaque
t vs. tt	/t/	atacar	attack	c vs. sc	/s/	ciencia	science
C	/k/	oculto	occult	c vs. sch	/s/	cisma	schism
B	/b/	abreviación	abbreviation	g vs. gu	/g/	garantía	guarantee
D	/d/	adicto	addicted	g vs. gue	/g/	plaga	plague
G	/g/	agravar	aggravate	gü vs. gu	/gw/	ungüento	unguent
F	/f/	suficiente	sufficient	k vs. kh	/k/	kaki	khaki
S	/s/	esencia	essence	n vs. gn	/n/	reinado	reign
m	/m/	comentar	comment	qu vs.k	/k/	parquet	park
n	/n/	anotación	annotation	r vs. rr	/r/	huracán	hurricane
l	/l/	colección	collection	s vs. ps	/s/	salmo	psalm
cu	/kw/	cuota	quota	v vs. b	/b/	automóvil	automobile
f vs. ph	/f/	frase	phrase	x vs. cs	/ks/	éxtasis	ecstasy
c vs. ch	/k/	carárter	character	z vs. c	/s/	plaza	place
c vs. k	/k/	banco	bank				

Source: Reprinted from Comparing English and Spanish: Patterns in Phonology and Orthography (p. 170-171), by Nash. R, 1977.

Table 18. Different phoneme value in Spanish-English

Same letter, different pronunciation	Phoneme	Examples		Same letter, different pronunciation	Phoneme	Examples		
a	/a/	grado	pasta	S	/s/	usual		
	/ey/	grade	paste		/ž/	usual		
c	/k/	cubo	excusar		/s/	rosa		
	/ky/	cube	excuse		/z/	rose		
f	/f/	perfuma	refugio		/s/	tensión		
	/fy/	perfume	refuge		/š/	tension		
g	/h/	gema	ángel	C₁ vs. C₂	tema	abril	lenguaje	
	/ǰ/	geme	angel		theme	april	language	
h	/#/	hospital	huracán	C₁ vs. C₁C₂	distrito	ritmo	función	
	/h/	hospital	hurricane		district	rhythm	function	
ll	/y/	millón	vainilla	C vs. ---	resumen	cementerio		
	/l/	million	vanilla		resume	cemetery		
m	/m/	formula	mulo	--- vs. C	armonía	orquesta		
	/my/	formula	mule		harmony	orchestra		
qu	/k/	quieto	líquido	other correspondences	ausencia	milla	prensa	
	/kw/	quiete	liquid		absence	mile	press	
r	/rr/	raza	real					
	/r/	race	real					

Source: Reprinted from Comparing English and Spanish: Patterns in Phonology and Orthography (p. 170-171), by Nash. R, 1977.

Table 19. Different value correspondences in Spanish - English

Correspondences in Spanish and English					
1	Vowel letter or vowel combination				
	Spanish simple vowel		English complex value		
a	/ɑ/	Cable	/ey/	cable	
e	/e/	Extreme	/iy/	extreme	
i	/i/	Biblia	/ay/	bible	
	Spanish simple vowel		English (different) simple vowel		
a	/ɑ/	Banco	/æ/	bank	
o	/o/	Objeto	/ɑ/	object	

u	/u/	Justo	/ə/	just
Spanish complex value			**English simple value**	
au	/aw/	Auto	/ɔ/	auto
ai	/ay/	Aire	/ɛ/	air
Spanish complex value			**English (different) complex vowel**	
ay	/ay/	Playa	/ey/	play
eu	/ew/	Feudal	/uw/	feudal
2	**Spanish single value vs. English vowel combination**			
a	/ɑ/	Falta	/aw/	fault
u	/u/	Fruta	/uw/	fruit
o	/ɔ/	Doble	/ʌ/	double
3	**Spanish vowel combination vs. different English single vowel**			
ai	/ai/	vainilla	/ə/	vanilla
i	/ɪ/	prisión	/ə/	prison
4	**Spanish single value vs. different English single vowel**			
a	/ɑ/	tabaco	/ə/	tobacco
o	/ɔ/	Japón	/æ/	Japan

Source: Reprinted from Comparing English and Spanish: Patterns in Phonology and Orthography (p. 170-171), by Nash. R, 1977.

2.6. Morphological Patterns

Morphological aspects such as syllable formation, word formation, and morphemes (prefixes and suffixes) are studied in the section for the description of Spanish-English transfer errors. Moreover, cross-language correspondences (word patterns) focused on spelling transfer errors are included in the inflectional and derivational analysis to understand grammatical issues and to compare prefixes and suffixes in both languages.

Spanish and English come from the alphabetic writing system, but the initial basis for alphabetic writing is syllabic writing. This happens as Greeks, known as the founders of the alphabetic writing, began to get involved as negotiators with groups from North African and Near Eastern who used syllabaries derived from the initial Egyptian. Then, the Greeks took those syllabaries or scripts to adapt them and to make their own language. Consequently, they established symbols for both vowels and consonants. Later, the Romans adopted the Greek alphabet. Due to Romans, the alphabetic writing began being adopted by other Western world

people. In general, the main characteristic of alphabetic writing is that each letter represents a sound either a vowel or a consonant in the written form (Crane, L. Ben, 1981, pp. 19-20).

As Spanish and English come from the Indo-European family, they share morphemes. In addition, syllable separation is only formed by the existence of a vowel letter (the nucleus of the syllable), for example, a-na-con-da and **i**-so-la-tion. Fuentes. L (n.d) establishes the following rules for separating syllables:

1) If a consonant is located between vowels, the syllable is arranged by joining the consonant with the vowel that proceeds, example, **m**u-**n**i-**c**i-**p**a-li-**d**ad and **m**u-**n**i-**c**i-**p**a-**li**-**t**y.

2) If two consonants are located between vowels, then, the consonants are divided, one belongs to the first vowel, and the other consonant belongs to the final vowel, example, pa**r**-**c**ial and pa**r**-**t**ial.

3) If two consonants are located between vowels, the last of the two consonants is l or r, then, the two consonants are grouped with the vowel that follows, for example, in Spanish re-**pr**e-sen-tar, a-**pl**i-ca-ción but in English writing re-**pr**e-sent and a**p**-**pl**i-ca-tion.

4) If the consonant group is of three, then, the initial two consonants are grouped with the preceding vowel, and the remaining consonant is grouped with the vowel that follows, example, o**bs**-**t**á-cu-lo and o**bs**-**t**a-cle. But if the last letter of the group of three consonants ends either in **l** or **r**, then, the first consonant is grouped with the previous vowel, and the other two consonants are grouped with the last vowel, for example, e**x**-**tr**a-or-di-na-rio and e**x**-**tr**a-or-di-na-ry.

5) If the group of consonants is of four, the consonants are divided in groups of two for forming the syllable, for example, i**ns**-**tr**uc-ción and i**ns**-**tr**uc-tion.

6) Spelling such as **ch**, **ll** or **rr** (Spanish) and **ch**, **sh**, **th**, **ph**, **ss**, **pp**, **mm**, **cc**, and **ff** (English) should not be separated as they represent a single phoneme, for example, in Spanish writing ca-**ll**ar, co-**ch**i-no-, ca-**rr**o-sa but in English ar-**chi-** tect, un-**sh**or-ten, al-**ph**a-bet, a**s-s**o-cia-tion, a**p-p**ly, co**m-m**u-ni-ca-tion, a-**ccu**-rate, and e-**ff**i-cient.

7) In the compound nouns, the aggrupation is made by having as a base a simple word discomposed in syllables, for example, por-tar/pla-nos → por-ta-pla-nos. In English, compound nouns can be written as a single unit or separated, such as air-plane and wa-shing ma-chine.

Moreover, morphology is the study of word formation, structure of words, and a morpheme can be defined as a minimal unit with significance of a word; its constituents are classified into stems, affixes and suffixes; such constituents form words, the minimal units of a sentence. It can be asserted that Spanish and English are cognate languages; both of them share affixes and suffixes from Latin and Greek.

The derivational analysis consists of studying the affixes and suffixes that can change the stem from one part of speech to another part of speech like adición/addition (noun) to adicional/additional (adjective); by means of this example, it is noticeable the change of the part of the speech, noun to adjective. In the following table, some of the most common affixes and suffixes are separated with the signal **/** to emphasize that they were adopted or conformed according to the language.

Table 20. Spanish and English Affixes descended from Latin

Affixes	Significance	Example (Spanish/ English)	Affixes	Significance	Example (Spanish/ English)
ab-/abs-	separation	abstracción/ absorbe	**inter-**	between	internacional/ international
ad-/add-	addition	adicional/ additional	**intr-**	inside	introducción/ introduction
ante-/ ant-	before	anteproyecto/ antiquity	**multi-**	many	multicultural/ multicultural
bi-/ bis-	two	bisabuelo/ bilabial/	**per-**	through	percepción/ perception
circum-	around	circumferencia/ circumference	**pos-/ post-**	after	posponer/ postpone
cum-/com-/ con-	with	conversación/ conversation, comparación/ comparison	**re-**	again	recolección/ recollection/
contra-	against to	contradecir/ Ø	**retro-**	to go behind	retroceder/ retrocede

des-	privation	desgracia/ Ø	**semi-**	half	semicírculo/ semicircle
dis-	separation or negation	disparar/ disability	**sin- sine-**	negation	sinrazón/ Ø
equi-	equal	equivalente/ equivalent	**super- supra-**	above	supermercado/ supermarket
ex-	privation, negation, outside, beyond	excomunión/ explanation, extraer/ extract	**trans-**	by means of	transmitir/ transmit
extra-	outside from	extraordinario/ extraordinary	**ultra-**	even beyond	ultrasonido/ ultrasound
in-	in of	influencia/ influence, inconveniente/ inconvenient	**vice-**	instead of	vicepresidente/ vice-president
infra-	below	infracción/ infraction	**yuxta-**	together with	yuxtaposición/ Ø

Source: Adapted from *Gramática Moderna de la Lengua Española* 17 Edition (p. 234-236) by J. L. Fuentes.

Table 21. Spanish and English Suffixes descended from Latin

Suffixes	Significance	Example (Spanish-English)	Suffixes	Significance	Example (Spanish- English)
-al -ar	relation, own of	animal, consular	**-ble -bili**	capability, possibility	probable, sensibilidad sensibility
-ano, -ino -eno, -no -an, -ine	membership, precedence, material, related with	urbano/ urban, divino/ divine	**-blo -bul**	object, instrument	vocablo/ Ø
-ario, -orio, -toio, -erio -arian, -tory -er,	membership, place, job	agruario/ agrarian, sensatorio/sensatory, builder	**-ense -ians**	membership, precedence, origin	canadiense Canadian

-az	tendence, intensive quality, excess	audaz Ø	**-eo**	relation, membership	férreo/ Ø
-ble, -bili	capability, possibility	probable, sensibilidad/ sensibility	**-ia, -icia, -ie, -icie, -eza, -ez, -ice**	quality (abstract nouns)	justicia/ justice
			-miento, -men/ -ment, -am	instrument, result	implementación implementation, examen exam

Table 22. Spanish and English Affixes descended from Greek

Affixes	Significance	Example (Spanish/ English)	Affixes	Significance	Example (Spanish/ English)
a- an-	without	átomo/ atom	foto-	light	fotocopia/ photocopy
acro-	high	acróbata/ acrobat	gastro-	stomach	gastronomía/ gastronomy
ana-	against or to go back	anacrónico/ anachronic	geo-	land	geofísica/ geophysics
anfi-	around or both	anfiteatro/ amphitheater	helio-	sun	heliografo/ heliograph
anti-	against to	antídoto/ antidote	hemi-	medium	hemisferio/ hemisphere
antropo-	man	antropólogo/ anthropologist	hidro-/ hydro-	water	hidrógeno/ hydrogen
apo-	outside or far	apología/ apology	hiper-/ hyper-	excess, superiority	hipertensión/ hypertension
archi-	command or antiquity	archipiélago/ archipelago	hipo-/ hypo-	below/ inferiority	hipodérmico/ hypodermic

arqui- /archi	preeminence	arquitecto/ architect	histo-	tissue	histología/ histology
auto-	by itself	autonomía/ autonomy	homo-	similar, equal	homófono/ homophone
biblio-	book	bibliografía/ bibliography	idio-	particular, own	idioma/ idiom
bio-	life	biología/ biology	iso-	equal	isósceles/ isosceles
cata-	to go below or to the end	cataclismo/ cataclysm	macro-	big	macrocéfalo/ macrocephaly
cine- cinemato-	movement	cinematográfico/ cinematographic	mega- mégalo-	big	megáfono/ megaphone
cosmo-	world	cosmología/ cosmology	meso-	half	mesopotamia/ mesopotamia
crypto-	hidden	cripta/ crypt	meta-	change, beyond	metamorfosis/ metamorphosis
cromo-	color	cromosíntesis/ Ø	micro-	small	micrófono/ microphone
deca-	ten	década/ decade	mono-	one, unique	monólogo/ monologue
demo-	population	demografía/ demography	pan-	all	pamericano/ pan-american
dia-	through	dialogo/ dialogue	para-	together, aside of	paralelismo/ parallelism
dinam-	force	dinámico/ dynamic	peri-	around	perímetro/ perimeter
em- en-	inside	enciclopedia/ encyclopedia	pol-	various	polígono/ polygon
endo-	intern	endotérmico/	pro-	before of	prólogo/

		endothermic			prologue
epi-	above, beside to	epidermis/ epidermis	proto-	priority	prototipo/ prototype
eu-	good	eufonía/ euphony	sin-, sim-/ sym	with	simpatía/ sympathy
exo-	outside	exótico/ exotic	tele-	distance	teléfono/ telephone
fono-/ phono-	sound	fonología/ phonology	teo-/ theo-	god	teología/ theology

Source: Adapted from Gramática Moderna de la Lengua Española 17 Edition (p. 242-244) by J. L. Fuentes.

Table 23. Spanish and English Suffixes descended from Greek

Suffixes	Significance	Example (Spanish/ English)	Suffixes	Significance	Example (Spanish/ English)
-algia/ -algy	hurt	neuralgia/neuralgia	**-logo/-logist**	that studies	antropólogo/ anthropologist
-aquía/-chy	command	anarquía/anarchy	**-lito/ -lith**	rock	fotolito/photolith
--atra/-atris	that cares	psiquiatra/ psychiatrist	**-mancia/ -mancy**	guessing	quiromancia/ quiromancy
-céfalo/ -cephal	head	encefalítico/ encephalitic	**-metro/-meter**	measure	termómetro/ thermometer
-ciclo/-cycle	circular	bicicleta/bicycle	**-oide/-oid**	similar	humanoide/ humanoid
-cracia/ -cracy	power	democracia/democracy	**-patía/-pathy**	of cause	simpatía/ sympathy
-dromo/ -drome	career	hipodromo/ hippodrome	**-podo/pod**	toe	isópodo/ isopod
-fago/ -phagus	eat	esófago/ esophagus	**-polis/-polis**	city	necropolis/ necropolis
-filo/-phile	sympathizing	bibliófilo/ bibliophile	**-ptero/-pter**	fin	helicóptero/ helicopter

-fobía/ -phobia	fear	hidrofobia/ hydrophobia	**-scopio/ -scopy**	observe	microscopio/ microscopy
-fonía/ -phony	transmission	telefonía/ telephony	**-sofía/-sophy**	wisdom	filosofía/ philosophy
-gamia/ -gamy	marriage	monogamia/ monogamy	**-teca/-theca**	closet	biblioteca/ bibliotheca
-geno/-gen	that engenders	oxígeno/oxygen	**-tecnia/ -technics**	science	pirotecnia/ pyrotechnics
-grafo/ -graph	write	autógrafo/ autograph	**-terapia -therapy**	treatment	psicoterapia/ psychotherapy
-it is/-itis	inflammation	colitis/colitis	**-tomía/ -tomy**	cut	anatomía/anatomy
-ívoro/ - ivore	eat	carnívoro/ carnivore	**-tipia/ -type**	impression	monotipia/monotype

Source: Adapted from Gramática Moderna de la Lengua Española 17 Edition (p. 245-246) by J. L. Fuentes.

There are some other suffixes that are from the Spanish language that both languages share such as –nte, -ente / -ent (agent: estudiante, student), -or, -tor, - sor, -dor, -ador, -triz / -er, - (agent: interruptor, interrupter, actor, profesor, professor, and so on), and -dad, -tad, - idad /-ty, (abstracts of quality: facultad, faculty, deidad, deity, and so forth). Spanish has even more inflectional suffixes that indicate grammatical parts of speech as nouns, adjectives, verbs and pronouns; they also indicate augmentative, diminutive, superlative, and derogative case. Additionally, they indicate, abstraction, nationality, profession or job, place, resemblance, aggrupation, intensity, possibility, relation, and action. Regarding adjectives, English does not allow adjectives pluralization.

Now that affixes and suffixes have been compared for understanding both languages characteristics, cross-language correspondences help to explain the possible transfer errors committed by a Spanish speaker when writing English.

Usually, the most common spelling transfer errors occur due to the inexistence of the same consonant doubled in exception of **cc**, **ll, rr, ch** because they represent one sound. This happens as English has consonant clusters, a combination of consonants. On the other hand, Spanish does not allow the occurrence of three consonants in the same syllable and to avoid

such phenomenon, **"e"** is placed as in the case of papel**e**s, vall**e**s, pec**e**s since it cannot be said "*papels, valls, pezs, and so forth." The placement of **"e"** is called **empty syllable carrier** as it serves to provide syllabicity. The vowel environment is showed below:

Environment 2: (vowel) + CC

The vowel letter is followed by a double consonant letter in medial or final position, for example, add, apply, associate, and so forth.

Table 24. Consonant correspondences of Spanish and English

Spanish spelling pattern	Example	English spelling patter	Example	Spelling transfer errors
p	aplicar	pp	apply	aply
t	atracción	tt	attraction	atraction
c	acusar	cc	accuse	acuse
b	abreviación	bb	abbreviation	abreviation
d	adicción	dd	addiction	adiction
g	exageración	gg	exaggeration	exageration
f	eficiente	ff	efficient	eficient
s	asociar	ss	associate	asociate
m	comunicar	mm	communicate	comunicate
n	anotación	nn	annotation	anotation
l	colectar	ll	collect	colect
cu	cuota	qu	quota	cuota
f	fase	ph	phase	fase
c	característica	cha	characteristic	caracteristic

Source: Adapted from Comparing English and Spanish: Patterns in Phonology and Orthography (p. 170), by Nash. R, 1977.

2.6.1. Nouns

As stated before, Spanish just has **cc, ll, rr** considered each as single spelling because each represents a phoneme. There are equivalents for those spellings in English; however, some of the correspondences show variation in spelling as well as in pronunciation. For instance, there exist changes: **cc /ks/→ct /kʃ/** as in "a**cc**ión" for "a**ct**ion," **rr /rr/→r /r/** as in "ca**rr**o" for "ca**r**," **ll /ia/→ll /l/** as in "**ll**ave" and "i**ll**ustrate" (non-cognate words).

This derivational analysis is the basis for comprehending grammatical patterns, such as marks of gender, number, tense, person in both languages.

Nouns by their suffixes can indicate number and gender. In Spanish, suffixes can reflect gender by choosing the suffix "a" or "o" like **perro** and **perra**, but in English, such phenomenon differs. For instance, English nouns can be either female or male, and the gender of such nouns will depend on context; for example, in the sentence *the teacher is beautiful*, **<u>beautiful</u>** indicates a female adjective, and in the sentence, *the teacher is handsome,* **<u>handsome</u>** indicates a male adjective, but in the sentence, *it is beautiful*, the reference of pronoun **<u>it</u>** will depend on the antecedent the speaker is referring to. Furthermore, there are some nouns which are only female and some others male.

Table 25. Nouns with a single gender

Nouns with a single gender	
Spanish	**English**
niño	boy
niña	girl
tío	uncle
tía	aunt
hombre	man
mujer	woman

Source: Adapted from The Grammatical Structure of English and Spanish. (p. 42), by Stockwell, R. P. et al. 1965.

Generally**,** most of English nouns share gender (male and female), and there is no inflectional change as in the case of professionals and animals, such as teacher, engineer, bird, fish, among others. With respect to number, both languages can indicate plurality by the suffix **–s** or **–es** as in the following chart.

Table 26. Plurality in nouns

Plurality in nouns	
Spanish	**English**
• Nouns ending in a vowel: hija-hijas (-s is added at the end).	• Nouns ending with consonant and vowel: airpla**ne**-airplanes (-s is added at the end).
• Nouns ending with a consonant: mes- meses (- es is added. "e" is the empty-syllable carrier to avoid consonant clusters)	• Nouns specifically ending in consonants, such as ch, sh, zz, ss: watch-watches, brush-brushes, quiz-quizzes, boss-bosses (-es is added) • Nouns ending in vowel and a consonant that do not end in the above spelling: consonants: actor-actors (just –s is added)

Source. Adapted from The Grammatical Structure of English and Spanish. (p. 42), by Stockwell, R. P. et al. 1965.

2.6.2. Adjectives

Adjectives indicate gender and number in the Spanish language; meanwhile, in English, such aspect of gender and number cannot be indicated since it is ungrammatical to pluralize adjectives; for example, if a Spanish noun is plural and male, then, the adjective must agree with its gender and number. Some examples are presented in the following table.

Table 27. Concordance in gender and number

Spanish	**English**
cabello negro- cabellos negros	black house- black houses
camisa negra- camisas negras	black man- black men

Source: Adapted from The Grammatical Structure of English and Spanish. (p. 47,48), by Stockwell, R. P. et al. 1965.

Adjectives in English do not change even if the noun is male or female and singular or plural. In Spanish, there are some adjectives referring to colors that do not change in gender, but change in plurality; for example, la casa, el carro grande, verde or las casas, los carros grandes, verdes. Another peculiarity in Spanish is that adjectives can be shortened as buen-o for **buen**, mal-o for **mal** and some Spanish possessives like mí-o/a for **mi** and suy-a/o for **su**. Also, demonstratives share similarities and differences by looking at their correspondences.

Table 29. Correspondences of demonstratives in Spanish and English

Demonstratives					
	Spanish			English	
	Singular	Plural	Neuter	Singular	Plural
Male showing proximity	est-e	est-os	es-o	this	these
Female showing proximity	est-a	est-as	est-o		
Male showing distance	es-e	es-os		that	those
Female showing middle distance	es-a	es-as			
Male showing long distance	aquel	aquellos	aquello		
Female showing long distance	aquella	aquellas			

Source: Adapted from The Grammatical Structure of English and Spanish. (p. 49, 50) by Stockwell, R. P. et al. 1965.

2.6.3. Pronouns

Pronouns are considered to be interchangeable with nouns; in other words, pronouns replace nouns. As adjectives, pronouns can show gender, number, and even person. To show such grammatical aspect of pronouns the following tables are presented.

Table 30.   Spanish pronouns

		Subject / With preposition		With verb			
				Reflexive	Indirect		Direct
Singular	1st	yo	mí	me		Le	lo
	2nd	tú	ti	te			la
					se		se
	1st male	nosotros				les	los
	female	nosotras					las
Plural	2nd male	vosotros					
	female	vosotras					

Source. Adapted from The Grammatical Structure of English and Spanish. (p. 48-52) by Stockwell, R. P. et al. 1965.

Table 31. English pronouns

Person	Number	Gender	Subject	Subject/ Object	Object Pronouns	Possessive Adjectives	Possessive Pronouns
1st	Singular	male/ female	I		Me	**my**	mine
	Plural		we		Us	**our**	ours
2nd				you	You	**your**	yours
3rd	Singular	male	he		Him	**his**	his
		female	she		Her	**her**	hers
		neuter		it	It	**its**	not used
	Plural		they		them	**their**	theirs

Source: Adapted from The Grammatical Structure of English and Spanish. (p. 52) by Stockwell, R. P. et al. 1965.

English has less complexity in pronoun use in comparison to Spanish. The possessive adjective can also function as a modifier if it is placed before the noun, for example, **his** pencils, **her** blouse, **their** cats. Similar to Spanish, English pronouns show gender, number and person.

Table32. Equivalences of Spanish pronouns when carried into the English language

Spanish	English
yo	I
nosotros, nosotras	we
tú, vosotros, vosotras, usted, ustedes, ti, te, os, lo, la, le, los, las, les, se	you
él	he
ella	she
lo, la, él, ella, ello	it
ellos, ellas	they
mí, me	me
nos, nosotros, nosotras	us
lo, le, se, él	him
la, le, se, ella	her
los, las, les, se, ellos, ellas	them

Source: Reprinted from The Grammatical Structure of English and Spanish. (p. 53) by Stockwell, R. P. et al. 1965.

One of the most common written transfer errors regarding pronouns is the pluralization of pronouns when they follow a noun acting as modifiers. Some others are caused due to carrying Spanish word order into English.

2.6.4. Verbs

Verbs are actions that the noun performs, and they show tense, mood, person, and number in both languages. Verbs are in both languages, regular and irregular, though each language has its own irregularity as showed below.

Table 34. Comparison of verbs conjugation

Spanish verbs	English verbs
Spanish verbs have the endings: ar-, -er, -ir not mattering if they are regular or irregular. The regularity and irregularity of verbs is not discovered by a superficial view unless by conjugation. Irregular verbs change the stem when conjugated.	English verbs have their own written forms in each tense. This means that the stem changes.
Example: amar /haber Regular (the stem does not change): - Present: amo, amas, ama, amamos, amarán - Past: amé, amaste, amó, amamos - Future: amaré, amarás, amará, amaremos, amarán Irregular (the stem changes): - Present: hago, haces, hace, hacemos, hacen - Past: hice, hiciste, hizo, hicimos, hicieron - Future: haré, harás, hará, haremos, harán.	Example: watch/ buy Regular (the stem does not change): - Present: watch, watches - Past: watched - Future: will watch Irregular (the stem changes): - Present: buy - Past: bought - Future: will buy

Note. Spanish presents even more regularities regarding the conjugation of verbs as it has more tenses than English.

In both languages, regular verbs are the ones in which the stem does not change, and irregular verbs are the ones in which the stem changes.

Studying morphological aspects has been helpful to determine the spelling patterns carried over English. Additionally, it is the basis to start analyzing written transfer errors in the sentence level. In the following section, grammatical patterns carried into L2 are explained more to describe grammatical transfer errors regarding parts of speech.

2.7. Patterns in Syntax

2.7.1. Transfer errors

When learning L2, it is impossible not to commit transfer errors. The Frankfurt International School web site stated that language transfer is the current term for cross-linguistic influence, L1 into L2.

When learning a new language, students have to handle lots of problems including difficulties in the writing process; those difficulties occur due to the impregnated knowledge they possess of their mother tongue. According to Stockwell. et al (1965), an error masks a complex set of mental process developed and reinforced over many years of acquisition and use. They also state that transfer errors result when a native-language pattern is carried into L2 because students tend to translate ideas; as a result, they do not give a clear and precise message.

Language produced by second language students differs from some grammatical rules that precede the L2; the comparison learners do with the knowledge of the mother tongue makes the learning of a second language usually complicated.

There is a set of common transfer errors that are generated in the writing process, especially in syntax. Transfer errors can be taught during L2 learning thanks to the study of generative grammar in the mother tongue and in any other language. There are frequent transfer errors students commit in the writing process during the L2 learning. The most common errors will be studied one by one in a deeper way with the aim of understanding why they occur and how they can be taught. According to Ph. D. Texas Woman's University, the most common are articles, gender, number, personal pronouns, relative pronouns, adjectives, prepositions, possessives, question formation, negation, verb tenses, passive voice, word order, and false cognates.

According to Stockwell et al. (1965), phrases have two kinds of structure: external and internal structure. **The external structure** of the NP (noun phrase) includes functions such as subject of a verb, object of a verb, object of a preposition, noun predicate, and complement. **The internal structure** of the NP consists of a Determiner (D), plus a NOUN (N) plus the category of NUMBER (NUM).

2.7.1.1. Articles

Articles are words used to modify a noun, as a person, idea, object, or place. There exist two different types of articles that people use in writing to refer to a noun or group of nouns named as definite and indefinite articles.

Figure 1. Spanish determiner rule

$$D \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{c} el \\ un \\ \emptyset \end{array} \right\} \text{ in specified environments}$$

Source: Reprinted from The Grammatical Structure of English and Spanish. (p. 65) by Stockwell, R. P. et al. 1965.

In Spanish, nouns have gender (male and female). The articles "the" and "a," need to have gender and number (specify singular or plural), and must agree correctly with the noun of the sentence.

In Spanish, the definite article (el, la, los and las) is used with possessive pronouns**: Voy a leer mi libro y <u>el</u> tuyo también.**

- *****I will read my book and <u>the</u> yours also.
- I will read my book and yours also.

In Spanish, the indefinite article (un, uno, una, unas and unos) is not used before nouns describing profession, occupation or social status:

- Mi abuelo es arquitecto.
- Mi hermana es secretaria.
- *****Our uncle <u>is professor</u>.
- Our uncle is <u>a professor</u>.
- Nuestro tío es profesor.

No distinction is made between the indefinite article (un, uno, una) and the number one (uno) in Spanish: Juan está buscando <u>una</u> casa para sus padres.

- *****Juan is looking for <u>one house</u> for his parents.
- Juan is looking for a house for his parents.

The plural form (unos, unas) of the Spanish indefinite article (uno, una) means "some": ¿Puede recomendar unos buenos libros?

- ***Can you recommend <u>ones</u> good books?

- Can you recommend <u>some</u> good books?

Figure 2. English determiner rule

$$
D \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{the} \\ \text{a\~some} \\ \varnothing \end{array} \right\} \text{ in specified environments}
$$

Source: Reprinted from The Grammatical Structure of English and Spanish. (p. 65) by Stockwell, R. P. et al. 1965.

Definite Article

This article is the word 'the,' and it refers directly to a specific noun, for example:

- **the** dog in the park
- **the** breakfast sandwich in my bag
- **the** book on the table

Each noun being stated to—in these cases park, breakfast sandwich and book—is direct and precise.

Indefinite Articles

These articles are "**a**" and "**an**." They have the same connotation; the difference depends on the sound at the beginning of the next word. These articles are used to refer to a noun, but not to a specific person, place, object, or idea, for example:

- a table in my room
- a car in the parking lot
- an easy exam
- an interesting topic

In each case, the noun is not specific. The table could be any table in the room, and the car could be any car in the parking lot, etc.

In both languages, there are two sets of determiners definite and indefinite; the table below illustrates the differences.

Table 35. Comparison of Definite articles

	Spanish		English	
	singular	plural	(singular or plural)	
			Before a consonant	Before a vowel
masc.	el	los		
fem.	la (el)	las	the (d̶ɨ)	the (d̶ɨ y)
neut.	lo			

Source: Reprinted from The Grammatical Structure of English and Spanish. (p. 66) by Stockwell, R. P. et al. 1965.

Table 36. Spanish-English Articles

Spanish	English
el agua	the house
la Angela	the control
los franceses	the French

 Note. The majority of English nouns do not have a specific gender as in Spanish. In the third example, it is applied the nominalization process in which adjectives can function as nouns.

Table 37. Spanish-English indefinite Articles

	Spanish		plural	English		plural
	singular			singular		
	before a noun	else where		before a consonant	before a vowel	
Masc.	un	uno	unos	a ~ an		some
Fem.	una (un)		unas			

Source: Reprinted from The Grammatical Structure of English and Spanish. (p. 67) by Stockwell, R. P. et al. 1965.

Table 38. Spanish-English indefinite Articles examples

Spanish	English
El agua	She has some handouts → she has some
La Angela	She has a handout → she has one
Es policía	She is a police officer
Son estudiantes muy buenos	They are students
Son unos buenos estudiantes	They are very good students

Source: Adapted from The Grammatical Structure of English and Spanish. (p. 67,68) by Stockwell, R. P. et al. 1965.

2.7.1.2. Gender

As Spanish, some languages mark words according to whether they are male, female or neuter; all the Spanish nouns have inherent grammatical gender (la nana, la sal, el niño, el libro). It does not matter what kind of gender is; it has to contain the grammatical concordance as in articles and adjectives.

- *What bright moon! Look at <u>her</u>!

- What bright moon! Look at <u>it</u>!

Grammatical gender is assigned to nouns in Spanish, in which the moon (la luna) is female: **¡Qué luna más brillante! ¡Mírala!**

In English, it is not common to use nouns according to gender. However, it is possible to use pronouns and possessive determiners to show gender (e.g., *he, she, it, his, hers, its*). Gender differences are relevant where personal pronouns and possessive determiners have to be decided on.

- **She** found **her** shoes.
- The answer will be given on Monday; **she** has been waiting for **it** impatiently.
- **He** found **his** notes.
- **They** got 10 in **their** final test.

2.7.1.3. Number

In Spanish, the plural marker applies not only to nouns but also to articles, adjectives, and possessive adjectives: **Queremos a <u>sus</u> nuevo<u>s</u> amigos**.

- *We love <u>hers</u> new friends.
- We love <u>her</u> new friends.

Stockwell et al (1965) state that there are no variations of the person-number markers.

- *The other <u>childs</u> got lost.
- The other <u>children</u> got lost.

There exist no irregular plural nouns in Spanish.

- *Roberto needs a new trouser.
- Roberto needs a new <u>pair</u> of trousers.

English words describing such "symmetrical" things as trousers and pajamas tend to be singular in Spanish: **Roberto necesita un nuevo pantalón**.

The word for two hundred in Spanish (doscientos) ends with a plural marker: **Le debo a él doscientos dólares.**

- *I owe him two <u>hundreds</u> dollars.
- I owe him two hundred dollars.

2.7.1.4. Personal pronouns

Subject pronouns are frequently dropped in Spanish which is a "pro-drop" language; that means that pronouns can be omitted: **Alberto no es de México. Es de Cuba.**

- *Alberto is not from Mexico. Is from Cuba.

- Alberto is not from Mexico. <u>He's</u> from Cuba.

Spanish does not have the equivalent for the English surrogate subject **"There"** found in existential sentences like **"There is hope"** and **"There were many people at the party**." According to Butt and Benjamin (2000), "In Spanish such sentences usually involve the special verb **haber** (present indicative **hay**), which means **'there is/are'**" (p. 407): **Hay muchos estudiantes enfermos en la clase hoy**.

- *There many sick students in class today.

- <u>There are</u> many sick students in class today.

2.7.1.5. Relative pronouns

In Spanish, relative pronouns are used to join two clauses, the second one refers to the subject of the first clause. They are:

- que
- el que, los que; la que, las que
- lo que
- quien, quienes
- el cual, los cuales; la cual, las cuales
- lo cual
- cuyo, cuyos; cuya, cuyas
- donde

"Que" is the most frequently used. It refers to persons and things. It could be the subject or complement of its clause, for example:

- El niño que está allí es mi primo.

- El alumno que estudió recibió excelentes calificaciones.

No distinction is made between personal and non-personal relative pronouns in Spanish, as Butt and Benjamin (2000) noted, "Que is by far the most frequent relative pronoun and may be used in the majority of cases to translate the English relative pronouns 'who', 'whom', 'which' or 'that'" (p. 495).

- The teacher *<u>which</u> spoke Spanish left our school.
- The teacher <u>who</u> spoke Spanish left our school.
- The song *<u>who</u> was played was romantic.
- The song <u>which</u> was played was romantic.

Who and **whom** are used for people, and which for things or **that** for people or things as in the following cases.

• After a noun, to make it clear which person or thing the writer or speaker is talking about:

- the car that Jack draw
- the man who investigated the murder
- an old boy who tried to build a ship

2.7.1.6. Adjectives

Adjectives are used to **describe** nouns; an adjective in Spanish can act as a noun after the definite article: **El encontró dos camisas de diferentes colores y compró la azul.**

Comparative and superlative forms of Spanish adjectives are consistently constructed with "más" and "el más," which are the equivalents of "more" and "the most": Mi padre es más rico que mi tío, pero mi abuelo es el más rico de todos.

- ***My father is more rich than my uncle, but my grandfather is <u>the most </u>rich.

- My father is richer than my uncle, but my grandfather is the <u>richest</u>.

In Spanish, adjectives agree with nouns that they modify: **¡Mira estas lindas flores!**

- ***Look at these beautiful<u>s</u> flowers!

- Look at these <u>beautiful </u>flowers!

The Spanish adjective "aburrido" means both "boring" and "bored": **Todos estaban aburridos con el discurso del director.**

- ***Everyone was <u>boring</u> with the principal's speech.

- Everyone was bored with the principal's speech.

  Most adjectives can be used **in front of a noun, for example;**

- She has a *beautiful house*.
- We watch a very *amazing film* last night.

or **after a link verb** like *be, look* or *feel*:

- Their farm *is beautiful*.

- That book *looks interesting*.

It exists an order for conveying a clear and grammatical correct message.

Table 38. Order of Adjectives in English

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
General opinion	Specific opinion	Size	Shape	Age	Color	Nationality	Material

Source: Description of the order of English Adjectives. Retrieved February 14, 2019 from Learn English, Copy Right British Council.

- *****He found two shirts of different colors and bought the blue.

- He found two shirts of different colors and bought the blue <u>one</u>.

2.7.1.7. Prepositions

In Spanish, the personal preposition "a" is used after a transitive verb whose direct object is human: **¿Quién asesinó a Abraham Lincoln?**

- *****Who assassinated <u>to</u> Abraham Lincoln?

- Who assassinated Abraham Lincoln?

Prepositions are part of the parts of speech, and they refer to location, direction, or time. They can also be used to convey other relationships: agency, comparison, possession, purpose, or source. A preposition generally goes before its noun or pronoun.
- *****For what did they come?
- What did they come for?

Figure 3. Order of prepositions in Spanish

```
                          O
               ┌──────────┴──────────┐
              SN                    Sprep
          ┌────┴────┐          ┌──────┴──────┐
         D          N        Cópula         Sprep
                                        ┌─────┴─────┐
                                   Preposición      SN
                                               ┌────┴────┐
                                              Det        N

        La        casa      está        A        un       costado.
        La        mesa      es          De      -----      metal.
```
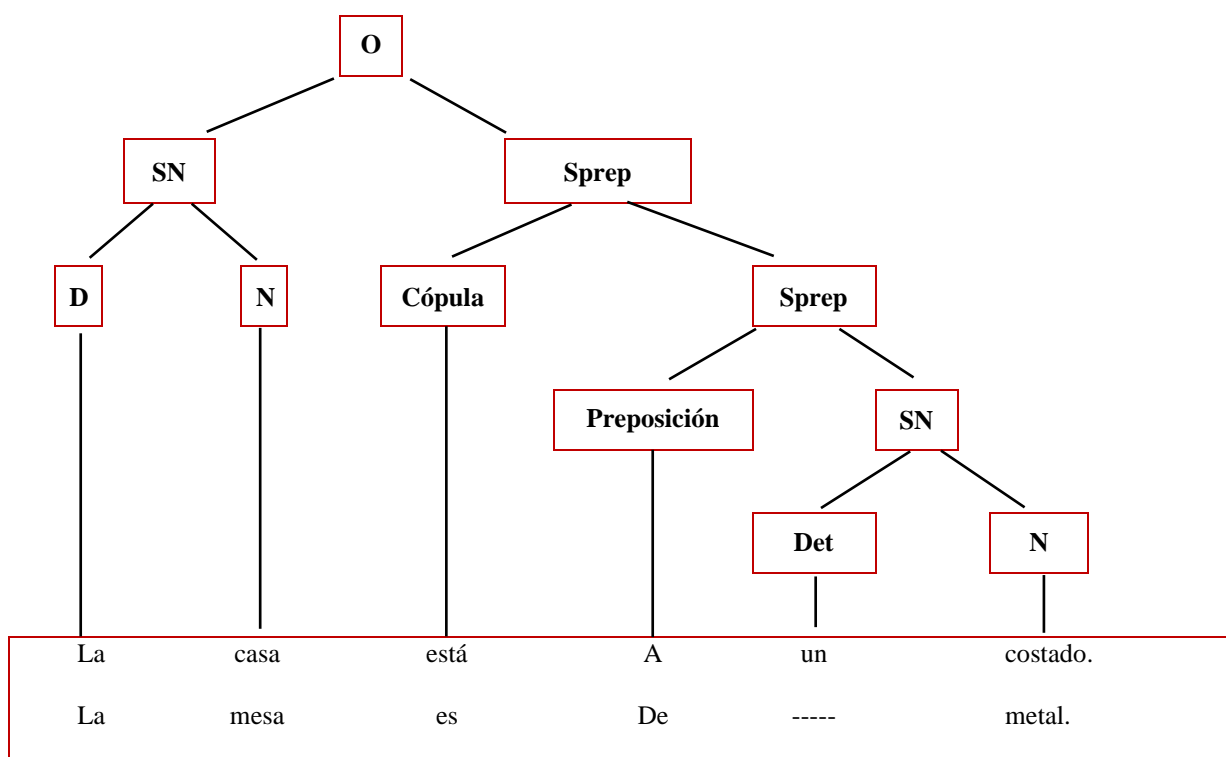
Note. Prepositions cannot occur at the end of a sentence in Spanish

An infinitive verb can follow a preposition in Spanish: **Después de comer el desayuno, vamos a la escuela.** However, in English after a preposition a gerund pattern is used causing learners to commit these errors.

- *****After to eat breakfast, we go to school.

- After eating breakfast, we go to school.

"By the phone" is the English rendition of "por teléfono": **Mi amigo y yo hablamos por teléfono todo el tiempo.**
- *****My friend and I talk on the phone all the time.

- My friend and I talk by the phone all the time.

"At/In Madrid" is the English rendition of "a Madrid": **Los turistas finalmente llegaron a Madrid.**
- *****The tourists finally arrived Madrid.

- The tourists finally arrived at/in Madrid.

2.7.1.8. Possessives

Pronouns refer to "possession". There are two types: possessive pronouns and possessive determiners. Possessive determiners are used before a noun. Meanwhile possessive pronouns are used in place of a noun:

- ***Please show us the house <u>of </u>Mary.

- Please show us Mary<u>'s</u> house.

The Spanish "of-phrase" is used instead of the English "possessive case":

- ¡Muéstrenos la casa de Mary, por favor!

- *Is that* [determiner] ***your*** *laptop? It's very similar to* [pronoun]***mine****. (It's very similar to my laptop.)

- *That's not* [determiner]***their*** *car.* [pronoun]***Theirs*** *has got a blue door.*

- *It was* [determiner]***my*** *fault not* [pronoun]***hers****.*

In Spanish, the translation of the definite article "el" is "the" in English; however, the equivalent of "el" is the possessive adjective "su" in this context: **Lisa se lava el pelo dos veces por semana.**

- *****Lisa washes <u>the</u> hair twice a week.

- Lisa washes <u>her</u> hair twice a week.

Typical errors

The possessive case **'s** is not used after possessive pronouns:

- Are those gloves hers? → Not: *****Are those gloves her's?

The possessive case **'s** is not used with the possessive adjective **its**. <u>It's</u> means 'it is':

- The team is proud of its ability to perform consistently well. → Not: … *proud of it's ability…

Another determiner should not be used with a possessive determiner:

- I'm going to get my hair cut this afternoon. → Not: … ***get <u>the</u> my hair cut …

Possessive determiners are not used on their own. They are always at the beginning of noun phrases:

- That's not my bag. It's yours. (or It's your bag.) → Not: *It's <u>your</u>.

Possessive pronouns are not used before nouns:

- Lots of our friends were at the convention. → Not: *Lots of ours friends …

2.7.1.9. Question formation

Spanish has many forms to state a question rather than English. Undoubtedly, both Spanish and English sentences can covey a question without moving their order just changing their intonation. This occurs mostly in yes-no questions. Moreover, the standard patterns of question formation for each language are the following.

Table 39. Standard question patterns of Spanish and English

Spanish question formation pattern	English question formation pattern
Type 1. ¿Han estudiado ellos lenguaje?	Have they studied language?
Type 2. ¿Ellos han estudiado lenguaje?	

Note. Spanish has more flexibility in question formation than English. English has just one standard pattern for questions, either yes-no or wh-question. Any other possibility of question formation in English is considered as ungrammatical.

Affirmative statements can signify a question by giving the question intonation. It can be inferred that Spanish has two possible word orders for creating questions: 1) The normal sentence order SVO, Subject-Verb-Order as in example type 2 and 2) VSO, Verb-Subject-Order as in example type 1. In English, the pattern Verb-Subject-Order is considered for question formation as any other way is considered ungrammatical. The most frequent question formation pattern used in Spanish is Verb-Subject-Order. The production of transfer errors in question formation results from carrying such pattern into English. Though both languages share the pattern VSO, there is always a difference with respect to the main verb and object allocation

rather than the auxiliary allocations that make Spanish speakers produce this type of transfer error.

Table 40. Difference in Verb Allocation Shared VSO Order in Both Languages with Difference in Verb Allocation

Difference in Verb Allocation	
¿Han estudiado ellos lenguaje?	Have they studied language?
1) It is specified VP and NP.	1) It is specified VP and NP.
[S[VP] [NP]] = [S [VP Han estudiado lenguaje] [NP ellos]]	[S[VP] [NP]] = [S [VP Have studied language] [NP they]]
2) It is specified the constituents in the VP and NP.	2) It is specified the constituents in the VP and NP.
[S [VP[Aux] [V] [N(Object)]]	[S [VP [Aux] [V] [N(Object)]] [NP [N(Subject)]]] =
[NP[N(Subject)]] =	[S [VP [Aux Have] [V studied] [N(Object) language]]
[S [VP[Aux Han] [V estudiado]] [N(Object) lenguaje]] [NP [N(Subject) ellos]]	[NP[N(Subject) they]]
3) It is exemplified the movement of the Object from the VP next to the NP whereas the V remains next to Aux.	3) It is exemplified the movement of the Verb and Object from the VP next to the NP. In other words, the V does not remain next to the Aux. since it is split by the Subject, and the Object goes at the end.
[S [VP [Aux] [V] [N(Object)]] [NP [N(Subject)]]] →	[S [VP [Aux] [V] [N(Object)]] [NP [N(Subject)]]] →
[S [VP [Aux] [V] ___] [NP [Subject]] [V Object]] =	[S[VP[Aux] [V]___] [NP[N(Subject)]] [V] [N(Object)]] =
[S [VP [Aux Han] [V estudiado]] [NP [N(Subject) ellos]] [VP[[(Object) lenguaje]]	[S [VP [Aux Have] ____] [NP[N(Subject) they]] [VP [V studied] [N(Object) language]]
Summary:	**Summary**:
…[VP[Aux Han] [V estudiado]] [NP[N(Subject)ellos]] [V__]…	...[VP[Aux Have] __] [NP[N(Subject) they]] [VP[V studied]...
The Verb remains with the Aux. "Han"	The Verb is allocated after the Subject

Note. The movement of the Verb and Object next to the NP does not mean the existence of another VP but that they belong to the same VP.

The above examples show the order each element has without getting deeply into transformational rules and sentence analysis. Continuously, in English, the auxiliary will go before the subject and what follows after the subject is the main verb, not mattering if the question is either a yes-no or wh-question. For this reason, in English, subjects are considered as preverbal subjects. Because of L1 interferences in L2, the following ungrammatical sentences

stated by Texas Woman University in the article Mother-Tongue Interference in Spanish-speaking English language learners' interlanguage are produced.

- ***Has seen Mary the movie? (Auxiliary and Verb before the Subject) instead of the grammatical sentence, has Mary seen the movie?
- *Did studied you for the exam? Instead of "Did you study for the exam?"
- *When John left? / *John left when? / *John, when left? Instead of when did John leave?

To summarize, what produces grammatical transfer errors in question formation is the carrying of the Spanish question pattern of Type 1 into English. In Spanish, the question formation is not restrictive as it is in English; for example, the standard English order for question formation is Aux + Subject + Object (Complement) which causes problems to most Spanish speakers as they translate the same question pattern of Type 1 producing transfer errors in question formation.

2.7.1.10. Negation

In Spanish, there are many forms to give the significance of negation in comparison to English. Usually in Spanish, the negation unit goes before the verb, for example, **él <u>no</u> quiere bailar**; while in English, the negation element "not" is attached to the auxiliary "do, does, did, have, had, and modal verbs" since auxiliaries are considered to be the carrier of tense rather than the main verb itself.

Table 41. Negation Pattern of Spanish and English

Spanish negation pattern	English negation pattern
Ella no desea salir.	She does not/ doesn't want to go out.
[S[Subj][VP [**[Neg] [V]** [Obj]]]	[S[Subj] [VP [**[Aux [Neg]]** [V] [Obj]]]
The negation element is located as a single unit before the verb.	The negation element forms a single unit with the auxiliary. In other words, it is the auxiliary unit where the particle of negation is attached to.

Note. The negation particle in English is always attached to the auxiliary.

Both languages' characteristics in negation may lead to a grammatical transfer error in the written performance. The Spanish speaker tends to carry the negative pattern to adapt it to that of English. For this reason, he or she is more likely to produce ungrammatical sentences

such as "Roberto **not** found his book" instead of the grammatical sentence Roberto did not find his book; "I not want to study" instead of I do not want to study.

Furthermore, this kind of problem may happen as in Spanish, the auxiliary **do** in its present and past form is not used. This means that there are no Spanish equivalents for "do not," "does not," and "did not," which express a verb in the negative. In addition, double negation is standard in Spanish: **Dijo que no vio a nadie**. This syntactical feature makes it difficult for Spanish speakers to differentiate the three English categories of assertive forms such as "some" and "somebody," non-assertive forms such as "any" and "anybody," and negative forms such as "no" and "none" (Coe, 1987).

2.7.1.11. Verb tenses

Spanish is really complex; it has 14 verb tenses.

Table 42. Verb Tenses in Spanish

Present	Imperfect	Preterit	Future	Conditional
Present Perfect	**Preterit Perfect**	**Future Perfect**	**Conditional Perfect**	**Present Subjunctive**
No han comido	En cuanto hube visto a mi primo, salió. As soon as I had seen my cousin, he left.	Ya habrás pedido cuando yo llegue. You will have already ordered when I arrive.	Él habría leído el libro, pero el teléfono sonó. He would have finished the book, but the telephone rang.	Durmamos toda la noche en el jardín de mi casa.
Imperfect Subjunctive	**Present Perfect Subjunctive**	**Pluperfect**	**Pluperfect Subjunctive**	
Si yo fuera tú, no lo haría. If I were you, I wouldn't do it.	Me asusto de que usted me haya llamado. I am shocked that you called me.	Ella había practicado mucho para el concierto.	Si me lo hueras dicho antes, habría ido contigo.	

Source: Description of verb tenses in Spanish. Adapted from Learn Spanish Online. Spanish Verb. Retrieved February 13, 2019.

Table 43. Constituents of Spanish Verb Form

Stem	+	Theme	+	Tense-aspect	+	Person-number
1		2		3		4

Source: Reprinted from The Grammatical Structure of English and Spanish. (p. 122) by Stockwell, R. P. et al. 1965.

Although this is the sequence in which these constituents occur in verbs, it is not the order in which they are generated. The pertinent rule (simplified by omitting predicate nouns or adjective, and so forth) shows the following order:

Verb Phrase→ Auxiliary + verb; in which the auxiliary is specified as ASPECT plus TENSE; the verb itself is simply a stem. The theme class depends on the verb stem, since every stem belongs to a particular theme class, in the same way, every noun belongs to a particular gender class. Person-number do not derive from the verb phrase but from the subject; the choice of the subject assigns the appropriate person-number suffix to the verb.

The comparison of both languages Spanish-English is really extensive; each language has its own constituents; they could be similar but not equal.

In Spanish, the simple present tense is frequently used to express an action that is taking place at the moment of speaking. Thus, "Nieva" means both "It snows" and "It is snowing."

- ***Look, it snows!
- Look, it's snowing!

Verbs come in three tenses: past, present, and future. The past is used to describe things that have already happened. The present tense is used to describe things that are happening right now, or things that are continuous. The future tense describes things that have not happen.

Table 44. Use of English verb tenses

Simple Present	Simple Past	Simple Future
I *read* almost every day.	Yesterday, I *read* an entire novel.	I *will read* as much as I can this year.
Present Continuous	**Past Continuous**	**Future Continuous**
I *am reading* Oscar Wild at the moment**.**	I *was reading* Edgar Allan Poe last night.	I *will be reading* the miserables soon.
Present Perfect	**Past Perfect**	**Future Perfect**
I *have read* lots of books.	I *had read* at least 25 books by the time I was 10.	I *will have read* at least 5 books by the end of the month.
Present Perfect Continuous	**Past Perfect Continuous**	**Future Perfect Continuous**
I *have been reading* since I was a child.	I *had been reading* for two a years before my father learned to read.	I *will have been reading* for 30 minutes before dinner tonight.

Source: Description of verb tenses in English. Reprinted from Grammarly Blog. Verb Tenses-Grammar Rules. Retrieved February 16, 2019.

Table 45. Person Number Spanish Forms

		Singular			Plural		
Spanish		1st	2nd	3rd	1st	2nd	3rd
		corro	corres	corre	corremos	corréis	corren
				runs			
English				run			

Source: Adapted from The Grammatical Structure of English and Spanish. (p. 126) by Stockwell, R. P. et al. 1965.

In Spanish, the simple present tense is often used for a future action: **Nos vemos mañana.**

- ***We see each other tomorrow.
- We will see each other tomorrow.

In Spanish, the simple present tense can express an action that began in the past but continues to the moment of speaking: **Vivo aquí desde 1995.**

- ***I live here since 1995.
- I have lived here since 1995.

In Spanish, a sentence in the imperative mood can have an expressed subject: **¡Venga usted esta noche a cenar con nosotros!**

- ***Come you this evening to eat with us!**
- Come this evening to eat with us!

2.7.1.12. Passive voice

"Spanish speaks itself here" is the English rendition of **"Se habla español aquí,"** a syntactical construction used in preference to a passive sentence without the agent phrase. An agent phrase is a prepositional phrase beginning with "by" in English and "por" in Spanish, as in **"Spanish is spoken here by the people"** and **"español es hablado aquí por la gente."** According to Nobel (1982), "passive sentences which lack the agent are not used often in Spanish" (p. 233). Nobel also noted that a special construction called the "se-passive" is used.

- ***Spanish speaks itself here.**

- Spanish is spoken here.

2.7.1.13. Word order

English and Spanish follow the same word order. This means that both of them are classified into the languages that follow the order SVO, Subject-Verb-Object, for example, "He has a pet" and "Él tiene una mascota"; nevertheless, such order may change to be adapted to speakers' language. To conform to the negation pattern, Spanish changes its negation order in comparison with English. According to Stocwell et al (1965), the negation goes with the auxiliary to which tense is attached. Regarding question formation, both languages have more than one form to signify a question.

Word order in Spanish is much unrestricted than it is in English. According to Coe (1987), "The freer word order allows words that are emphasized to be placed last" (p.79). The three interlanguage sentences listed below reflect this particular feature of Spanish, causing errors in English.

- ***Arrived very late the teacher this morning.**
- ***This morning arrived very late the teacher.**
- ***The teacher arrived this morning very late.**
- The teacher arrived very late this morning.

In Spanish, adverbs of frequency have several possible positions in the sentence, but not the typical central position as in English.

- ***Often they have given to the church.
- ***They often have given to the church.
- They have often given to the church.

In Spanish, head nouns are typically "post-modified," in opposition to English: **Juan pertenece al Club de Soccer de Dallas.**

- ***Juan belongs to the Club of Soccer of Dallas.

- Juan belongs to the Dallas Soccer Club.

In Spanish, indirect objects must have a preposition such as "a," and the direct object and indirect object can go in the same order. In English, the two-object structure without a preposition (John sent Roberto a gift) is unfamiliar to Spanish speakers, and they may avoid it (Coe, 1987).

- ***John sent to Roberto a gift.
- John sent a gift to Roberto.
- John sent Roberto a gift.

In Spanish, a preposition phrase is regularly put in front of a direct object: **Felipe llevó a la escuela sus libros favoritos.**

- ***Juan took to school his favorite books.

- Juan took his favorite books to school.

In Spanish, an adverbial phrase is regularly put in front of a direct object: **Nuestra maestra habla muy bien inglés y español.**

- ***Our teacher speaks very well English and Spanish.

- Our teacher speaks English and Spanish very well.

2.7.1.14. False cognates

False cognates may or may not change their pronunciation, but although they may be written equally, their signification changes. Spanish originates from Latin; therefore, its vocabulary corresponds with the Latin-derived side of the English language (Coe, 1987). These corresponding vocabularies are known as cognates. As Crandall et al. (1981) warned, "Cognates can be both a blessing and a curse for the teachers and learners of a second language" (p. 49). Indeed, these thousands of cognates can help L2 learners accelerate their acquisition of English vocabulary; however, cognates can be also "false friends" and deserve to be pointed out for the benefit of the learners.

In Spanish, "asistir a la escuela" means "to attend school."

- *Every child should assist to school.
- Every child should attend school.

In Spanish, "librería" means "bookstore."

- *Take me to a library. I need to buy some books there.
- Take me to a bookstore. I need to buy some books there.

According to Robert P. Stockwell et al. (1965) transfer errors are logical, and as such should not be drilled out of classroom behavior without explaining to students why they occur. Each of the errors described before have to be managed when learning L2; this will help students to convey a clear message when writing.

2.8. Transfer Errors in Composition

2.8.1. Coordinating Conjunctions (FANBOYS), Run-On, and Rambling Sentence

FANBOYS is an acronym used to remember the coordinating conjunctions: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so. These words function as connectors. They can connect words, phrases, and clauses, like this:

- Words: I passed Syntax and Literature.
- Phrases: She likes to eat hamburger or to eat sushi.

- Clauses: They did not attend the meeting, and now they do not know what to do.

In general, commas are placed before FANBOYS when two independent clauses are joined (there are two verbs and two subjects). If there are not two subjects and two verbs, it is not needed to add a comma after the coordinating conjunction. In other words, if the second grouping of words is not a complete thought, a comma should be used.

- I used to drink soda in the lunch, and my mother did not like it.
- She was tired of doing the same, so she moved away last spring.

In general, if coordinating conjunctions are not used between two complete and separate thoughts, this causes alone a "comma splice" or "fused sentence". This is considered for teachers a serious error.

- *My dog hates to run, I decided not going out anymore.
- * My mother gave me a watch, I bought her a skirt.

There are four simple things to fix this comma splice: just add a coordinating conjunction, change the comma to a semicolon, make each clause a separate sentence, or add a subordinator (a word like because, while, although, if, when, since, and so on). My mother gave me a watch, and I bought her a skirt.

- My mother gave me a watch; I bought her a skirt.
- My dog hates to run. I decided not to go out anymore.
- My Little nephew was watching TV when the telephone rang.

Notice that there are some connectors that are like FANBOYS because they join sentences, but are called conjunctive adverbs such as however, therefore, moreover, and so on. They go between two complete thoughts, just like FANBOYS, but they take different punctuation. It is required to recognize them, and to know that they are not FANBOYS, but they are connectors. A period can be used to make two sentences, or when using a conjunctive adverb, a semicolon is used after the first complete thought. Anyway, it is required a comma after the faker in the second complete thought. Notice the differences in punctuation in the next examples:

- Douglas' apartment allows dogs; however, he does not have any pet.
- She did not arrive early today. Instead, she will go out late.
- *They did not go to the party, however they send the gift.
- * He is not popular with girls, otherwise, he will become a womanizer.

It is important to realize that the length of a sentence really has nothing to do with whether a sentence is a run-on or not; being a run-on is a structural flaw that can plague even a very short sentence:

- *It was thundering yesterday at night, I could not sleep.
- It was thundering yesterday at night, so I could not sleep.
- * I drink wine with my friends, I did not drive.
- I drink wine with my friends, and I did not drive

As in the case of run-on sentences, rambling sentences occur when writers write some independent clauses, and they are joined with coordinating conjunctions one following the other. Rambling sentences usually confuse readers, and do not leave them time to comprehend what they have already read. In fact, this makes the paragraph non-understandable due to the many ideas that have nothing to do with one another.

There are ways to fix these kinds of errors when committing a rambling sentence: a period and a new sentence, a semicolon or a comma, and a conjunction.

Example of Rambling sentences

- *I did not go to the university, but I asked my friend to borrow me her books, and she will give them to me tomorrow, but I will not have time to study, so there is a possibility that I get a bad grade in my last exam, and my mother will get angry at me.
- I did not go to the university, but I asked my friend to borrow me her books; she will give them to me tomorrow; however, I will not have time to study. My mother will get angry at me, for there is a possibility that I get a bad grade in my last exam.

Besides, rambling sentences often contain comma splices, but the presence of comma splice does not mean that the sentence is a rambling sentence as in the following examples:

Examples of Comma splices

- *My dog hates to run, I decided not to go out anymore.
- My dog hates to run, so I decided not going out anymore.
- *I will build a house for my dog, he likes to sleep, as he spends time in my sofa.
- I will build a house for my dog; he likes to sleep, and he spends time in my sofa.

Example of a rambling sentence containing one comma splice:

- *My friends and I decided to go to the beach on vacations, so I asked my father to borrow me his car, but he did not like the idea, I told my friends that we will have to rent one.
- My friends and I decided to go to the beach on vacations, so I asked my father to borrow me his car. He did not like the idea; instead, I told my friends that we will have to rent one.

It is difficult to find the difference between these two kinds of errors; however, the first difference has to do with the fact that rambling sentences are produced by coordinating conjunctions while run-on sentences are created by commas. Rambling sentences and comma splices are considered errors because they create a disruptive intonation of the passage when readers try to understand. Knowing about connectors allow students to correct their errors while they are writing as they realize that it is not permitted to join a long series of independent clauses using just coordinating conjunctions or commas.

2.8.2. Overloaded Sentences

Generally, overloaded sentences are produced due to transfer errors that people commit as they want to translate the exact words that they want to express. Overloaded sentences are passages full of sentences that contain more information that the reader cannot easily follow.

- *Schools were closed because the fact that the snowstorm last night stopped and a service company repaired quickly the electricity cable.
- Schools were opened because the snowstorm stopped last night, and the electricity cable was repaired quickly.
- *Last summer, I had the good luck to go during the summer to a mountain camp in the mountains of New York State.
- Last summer, I had the good luck to go to a mountain camp in New York State.
- *About 55 percent of the entire voter voted against the cafeteria service. That's more than half of all voters. It just goes to show you how bad attention they gave.
- About the 55 percent of all the voters voted against the cafeteria service, and it shows the bad service.
- *What I wanted to say was that the baseball game is being broadcast right now on channel 24 as a matter of fact.
- I wanted to say that the baseball game is being broadcasted on channel 24.
- As a matter of fact, I wanted to say that the baseball game is being broadcasted on channel 24.

Length is often blamed for sentences going awry, but the problem is more complex than just a long sentence. Besides, some people try to avoid committing these errors using brackets, but brackets are also considered a sign of punctuation that allows unnecessary information. Writing is not just putting words on a page; it is a way of communication where people can transmit sincerely thoughts that they want to express.

- **Lee Hi is a Korean Singer who is famous for a song called "Breath" which was written by Kim Jong Hyun which committed suicide which was caused due to the depression that he suffered which is an illness that affects many teenagers around the world.
- Lee Hi is a famous Korean singer whose popular song is "Breath" written by Kim Jong Hyun who committed suicide. The cause of his death was the depression that he suffered; this is an illness that affects many teenagers around the world.
- **The little boy called the snowman who likes winter a cold season in which coffee is a delicious dessert and disappeared in the season he loves the most is now a dream that everybody wants to touch again.

- The little boy called the snowman, who liked winter, a cold season in which he disappeared, is now a dream that everybody wants to touch again.

2.8.3. Sentence Length and Structures

Many people consider that errors committed while writing are produced due to the length of a sentence; moreover, the sentence length may affect the ideas that are wanted to be transmitted, but a length of a sentence is not a problem if people are able to separate every idea or phrase with proper connectors.

In fact, writers must consider the length of a sentence because writing short sentences makes the passage a choppy one. A good writer is the one who has a combination of short, medium and length sentences.

- *I wanted so badly to apply for a scholarship in a European country like Germany which is a beautiful country with amazing places that are visited for 100,000 people every year, but I did not get the grades that the program was asking to get for being part of this wonderful program, so I will have to work more the next year.
- I wanted so badly to apply for a scholarship in Germany, a beautiful and amazing country. It is visited for 100,000 people every day, but I did not get the grades the program was asking for. Therefore, I will have to work more for the next year.
- *The boy was terribly upset when his purse was stolen. There wasn't anything that could get the image out of his mind. The thief was running when she grabbed his backpack. The boy did not see her coming and was caught off guard. The boy fell down and never got a good look at her.
- The boy was terribly upset when his purse was stolen by a girl as he could not forget how the event happened. First, he did not see the thief coming; the thief ran for grabbing his backpack making him fall down. Unfortunately, he never got a good look at her.

Furthermore, sentences length can affect the structure of the sentence in English, there are four types of sentences:

a) Simple sentence: a simple sentence is an independent clause without connectors or dependent clauses.

- I love to go to the beach with my family.
- My favorite color is black.

b) Compound sentence: a compound sentence contains two independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction (FANBOYS).

- I will go to the cinema, but I will not buy popcorn.
- They ate Spaghetti at lunch, and I ate chicken.

c) Complex sentence: A complex sentence contains one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. The clauses in a complex sentence are combined with conjunctions and subordinators.

- When her husband arrived home, she was doing the dinner.
- After he washed the car, he went to the doctor.

d) Compound-Complex sentence: A compound-complex sentence contains multiple independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. These sentences will contain both conjunctions and subordinators.

- The exam was difficult, but we passed it which made us joyful.
- I would have bought the cheese that they loved, but I did not have the enough money.

2.8.4. Faulty Parallelism

The clauses or phrases joined by conjunctions should have similar grammatical structures to ensure that every item in the series follows the same, or parallel form.

This rule is especially important when the series includes a series of actions, events, and things. To avoid faulty parallelism is important as this causes that lectors cannot follow the logic of the sentences; consequently, they are not able to understand the ideas. The general principle

of parallelism is the use of similar ideas expressed by a similar grammatical structure. Many writers fail doing these constructions which provoke an inconsistency in their writing.

Raimes (1987) stated that insuring parallelism does not mean that every sentence should be structured in the same way. It means that if a writer is creating a sentence or a passage that contains elements that are related in purpose, these elements must be presented in the same grammatical structure as shown below:

- *I am sad about you going alone, and to spend time with someone else.
- I love listening to music, surfing on Internet, and taking a nap.

Moreover, there is faulty parallelism in the different parts of speech as in the following cases.

2.8.4. 1. Reflexive Pronouns

Swan and Walter (1989) stated that reflexive pronouns are used when an object is referring to the same person or thing as the subject.

- *Aaron and Adriana have been cleaning the living room herself.
- Aaron and Adriana have been cleaning the living room themselves.

2.8.4. 2. Adjectives to Adverb

Adjectives, describe things; they generally come in front of nouns. An adjective always has the same form; there are no endings for number or gender; they also do not change for singular and plural or before male and female nouns (Eastwood, 2002).

- *They were happy, enthusiastically, and delightful after winning the second place.
- *The president greets cheerfully, warmly, and anxious at the crowded.

2.8.4. 3. Articles

Writers often confront to faulty parallelism when they write. In some cases, the violation of parallel structure is not always obvious (Clarke, 2008):

- *Marcos has the biggest, Ø most beautiful, the most interesting house among all my friends. (omission of article Ø)
- She bought in the supermarket an apple, a banana, Ø peach and watermelon.

To avoid faulty parallelism in articles, articles must be used only before the first term or with all the terms.

- *El Salvador sold vegetables and fruits to the American, the French, Ø Italians, and Ø Japanese.
- El Salvador sold vegetables and fruits to the Americans, French, Italians, and Japanese.
- El Salvador sold vegetables and fruits to the American, the French, the Italians, and the Japanese.

2.8.4. 4. Prepositions

Prepositions are connecting words that show the relationship among words in a sentence (Vince, 2008). If different words within a sentence take different prepositions, each preposition must be integrated (Raimes, 1987).

As in the case of articles when the same preposition applies to a series of elements, it may be either repeated for each one or used just once, but it must be consistent to avoid errors.

- *I did not get a job on January, Ø July and on December. BETTER: I did not get a job on January, July and December.
- The chef prepared a soup with Ø fish, Ø mushrooms, and with the left overs of the last week.
- The chef prepares a soup with the fish, mushrooms, and left overs.

2.8.4. 5. Clauses

As claimed by Davidson (2002), a clause is a word-group which has the same arrangement as a sentence but which is part of a larger sentence. Hence, "a clause is a sentence inside a sentence." Usually the omission of an element in the sentence can cause ambiguity.

As it was stated before, parallelism aims to make meaning clear. According to Langendoen (1970), a general rule to follow is to repeat the initial word or phrase in a parallel construction whenever it is required to make the sense clearer. In series of that-clause, for instance, the meaning is typically clearer if the introductory word is frequent in each clause; however, it is not the case in most of learners' writings as in the following cases.

- *I hate the shoes with bright colors that my mother bought me the last year, and my father thinks are beautiful.
- I hate the bright color shoes that my mother bought me and that my father thought were beautiful.

- *My boss told me that I will return to my house and I should leave in one month.
- My boss told me that I will return to my house and that I should leave in one month.

2.8.4. 6. Phrases

Davidson (2002: 124) stated "A phrase is any group of two or more words that can occupy the same slot in a sentence as a single word." Usually people get confused, and they use phrases as sentences causing errors while writing.

- **Claudia looked for her cellphone under the bed and table.
- Claudia looked for her cellphone under the bed and under the table. (Prepositional phrase)
- **Their favorite hobbies are reading books and eat pupusas.
- Their favorite hobbies are reading books and eating pupusas. (Verbal phrase)
- **I hate to take a shower in the afternoon and cleaning my bedroom.
- I hate to take a shower in the afternoon and to clean my bedroom or I hate taking a shower in the afternoon and cleaning my bedroom. (Gerund and Infinitive phrases)
- **This cake is very deliciously and expensive.
- This cake is very delicious and very expensive. (Adjective phrase)

2.8.5. Spanish and English Prosody Influences in Transfer Errors

The teaching of prosody is one of the most ignored language aspects in the classroom. Nowadays, teaching regarding foreign languages has become more automatically. This means that the teaching of foreign languages is more focused on grammatical and pronunciation aspects such as the management of verb tenses, functions of parts of speech, and the articulation or realization of sounds rather than the perception of sounds in a connected speech. Prosody is a set of aspects which involves the production of stress in a syllable (word accent) as part of a block of words (phrase accent); this block of words follows a series of intonation according to what the speaker conveys. It follows a rhythm involving the linking of sounds, having a sequence of melody in a connected speech. Prosody is a complex language aspect as it goes beyond studying phonemes since it deals more with the auditory qualities of sound.

It is important to teach learners prosodic features as successful communication depends as much on intonation, stress and rhythm to produce a correct pronunciation. The study of prosody

of a specific foreign language helps the L2 learners to comprehend and to make them be comprehended by native speakers. For this reason, it is important to integrate the language prosody as Santamaría (n.d.) mentioned that the arrival and implementation of the communicative approach transformed the language teaching into an instrument rather than an object of communication, and for this reason, prosody was left aside, affecting the success of the transmission and reception of the intended message.

Moreover, with this teaching approach, it was created the idea that the prosody management of the language is developed by automatic acquisition as native speakers learn it by exposition, but in the case of L2 learners, it is acquired by listening to the teacher and audios. Then, Santamaria, in his final conclusions, states that prosody is not a phenomenon of automatic acquisition as L2 students need more training in this complex language aspect for the following reason.

Grammar management will not be helpful for L2 student if he or she manages the language prosody. Though using grammatical structures, misinterpretation may happen if prosody is not well managed. Grammar errors produced by non-native speakers can be politely understood by native speakers, but errors involving prosody lead to uncomfortable situations as in prosody it can be interpreted the speakers' attitudes, moods, feelings, and so forth. That is why, for understanding authentic speech and for transmitting the intended message, it is required the prosody domain, especially in intonation, as grammar and lexicon is not enough for having a good communication. On the contrary, for both the L2 learners and the native speakers, misunderstanding may happen which can lead to uncomfortable situations.

Furthermore, misinterpretation may happen in tense, person, mood, and other aspects if the right accent and intonation is not well used. In the case of Spanish speakers learning English, misuse of homographs may occur, for example in words "**desert** (place)**, dessert** (food), and the verb **desert** (leave)" as they are giving a different stress; also, L2 learners give the intonation of an affirmative sentence to a question since Spanish is not that melodic as English; another example can be in imperative mood since Spanish speakers use imperative utterances without intending much authority or demand, but in English, those utterances may be perceived as very authoritarian or impolite; likewise, problems regarding tense may occur as for Spanish speakers it may be difficult to make the contracted form between the first person singular with the

auxiliary; for instance, this happens in the case of "I'll" when trying to say, for example, "I'll do so" (Simple Future) which, for the English native speakers, it may be perceived as "I do so" (Simple Present).

The perception of sound patterns of a certain language is very crucial for comprehension. For this reason, every prosodic aspect is connected in speech which is applied for all languages though each one is different in certain forms. There are many prosodic aspects involved in connected speech such as accent or stress, intonation, rhythm, volume, tempo, linking, and melody. Rotchés and Cantero (2008) point out that to reproduce a good and effective model of speech, it is not sufficient with pronouncing correctly the language speech from a phonic point of view; also, it is required linguistic mechanisms that can allow the speaker to organize the speech elements and the receptor to comprehend the conveyed message thanks to the interpretation of phonic blocks. Such mechanisms are accent, rhythm, and the intonation which establishes the speech melody (p.2).

2.8.6. Accentuation

Accentuation is a supra-segmental component of speech which interferes in the perception of the message. Brazil defines prosodic prominence as an intonation figure through which some syllables of certain words are more noticeable and perceived than others in the speech's flow. The words with prominent syllables are articulated with major emphasis than the rest which are not prominent syllables, and they are installed in listeners' attention focus (as cited in Caldiz, 2012).

2.8.6.1. Accent or Stress

Accent and stress are equal in terms of use and meaning for both Spanish and English speakers; nonetheless, *accent* is a term used in Spanish while in English, such term is equal to *stress*. For instance, Cantero (2002) states that accent is a linguistic phenomenon which emphasizes a vowel above the rest through a tonal contrast (p.44). In words of Selwyn (n.d), "stress, or emphasis is easy to use and recognize in spoken language, but harder to describe. A stressed word or syllable is usually preceded by a very slight pause, and is spoken at slightly increased volume."

2.8.6.2. Nuclear Accent

Nuclear accent is defined as the nucleus stress within the word level which can be noticed in stressed syllables, and the one more emphasized in the word is considered to have nuclear accent. Caldiz (2012) states that Spanish designates prominence to a single word even if its sense has been previously selected and forms part of a repetition of information. Spanish evidences a tendency of maintaining the nuclear accent at the end of the tonal group, even when words do not add new information though having probably received prosodic prominence previously. Besides, Crutteden (1997) and Hualde (2005) explain that the nuclear accent in Spanish tends to be situated at the end of the tonal group with more frequency than English, and that both languages differ in the inflexibility of English constituents compared to the flexibility to organize the information freer in Spanish (as cited in Caldiz, 2012). The nuclear accent can be highly noticed in the word level. The following patterns show both languages' nuclear accent tendency in cognate words.

Table 45. Accent

Part of Speech	Spanish		English	
Nouns	╱ ___ ___ ___ capital animal	╱ ___ ___ ___ omisión campeón condición	╱ ___ ___ ___ capital animal	╱ ___ ___ ___ omission champion condition
	╱ ___ ___ ___ ___ Operador decorador generador	╱ ___ ___ ___ ___ confirmación admiración información	╱ ___ ___ ___ ___ operator decorator generator	╱ ___ ___ ___ ___ confirmation admiration information
Adjectives	╱ ___ ___ ___ laboral digital musical nominal palatal	╱ ___ ___ ___ informal inicial oficial	╱ ___ ___ ___ laboral digital musical nominal palatal	╱ ___ ___ ___ informal inicial oficial

	╱	╱	╱
	__ __ __ __	__ __ __ __	__ __ __ __
	adicional artificial	additional artificial	
	emocional superficial	emotional superficial	
	ocasional	ocassional	

Note. Notice that just nouns and adjectives were included as they have a wide range of shared suffixes in comparison to verbs and adverbs.

It can be noticed that Spanish accent falls mostly in the last syllable. Caldiz (2012) claims that due to the flexibility of the syntactic components in Spanish, speakers adapt their speech with the purpose of maintaining the nuclear accent in the final position. Spanish syllables tend to have almost the same duration rather than English; in English, unstressed syllables are more noticeable than Spanish syllables. In the words of Nash (n.d.), "another difference is the length of the unstressed syllable compared to Spanish, but in English, the unstressed syllable is noticeably shorter than the stressed syllable" (p.34). For instance, such phenomenon is showed:

Spanish   **English**

Condición ▭▭▭   Condition ▭▭▭

Spanish, as well as English, can show grammatical aspects depending on the accent or stress position. For instance, in Spanish, such stress movement can differ in person; it is not the same to say TOmo /tómo/ (first person singular) and toMÓ /tomó/ (third person singular); in the same manner, it can differ in tense as it is not equal to say toMÉ /tomé/ (past) and TÓme /tóme/ (present), and even in the last example TÓme /tóme/, it can be noticed the mood which is imperative. In addition, the same happens with nouns and pronouns since it is not the same to say caRÁCter /karácter/ (behavior) and CÁracter/káracter/ (piece of information); the same occurs with pronouns as in the case of Él (personal Pronoun) and El (determiner) as well as mÍ (object of a preposition) and mI (possessive pronoun). Likewise, in English, such phenomena can occur changing the part of speech, for example, REcord /rɛk.ɚd/ (noun) and reCORD /rɪˈkɔːrd/ (verb). By those examples, it can be inferred that prosody, regarding grammatical aspects, has more flexibility in Spanish in the aspect of person, tense, mood, and part of speech.

This prosody changes may lead L2 learners to orthography problems such as spelling. To exemplify, Spanish speakers when learning English sometimes tend to transfer the prosody pattern as in the following example:

Spanish   **English**

General ☐ ☐ ☐   General * ☐ ☐ ☐

                               Instead of ☐ ☐ ☐
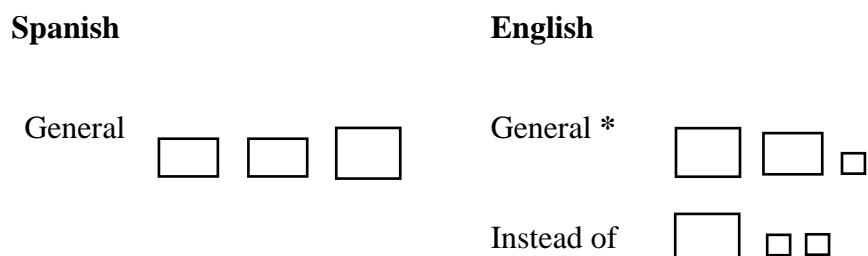
As noticed, Spanish speakers tend to lengthen the rest of English unstressed syllables. Further, Spanish and English share some prosody aspects being highly beneficial and disadvantageous at the same time. It is beneficial in the sense of having similar cognate prosody patterns, but it is disadvantageous in spelling as by having similar prosody, L2 learners are not quite conscious of spelling of cognate words, for example, in the case of aplicaCIÓN which its miswritten form is "aplication" intended for application. Basically, this spelling errors may happen for sharing similar prosody aspects since it is easier for the brain to perceive the prosody than to perceive spelling patterns.

To conclude, Liberman (2008) claims that:

Spanish is a syllable-timed language. When Spanish speakers transfer the intonation patterns of their mother tongue into English, which is a stress-timed language, the result may sometimes be barely comprehensible to native English speakers. The meaning or information usually conveyed in English by the combination of stress, pitch and rhythm in a sentence is flattened or evened out by the Spanish learner (prh. 7).

2.9. Spanish and English Punctuation Patterns

Punctuation is an important aspect of language as it serves to emphasize the information of a sentence. Also, writing is a difficult task as it requires preparation before being able to express ideas clearly. When learners write from Spanish to English, they face different difficulties because English punctuation is different from Spanish. More generally, from a linguistic point of view, punctuation has been disputed as following prosodic principles or as a clarifier of

grammatical structure (Baron, 2001; Bruthiaux, 1993). As a result, prosody gives emphasis and intonation in the type of sentence and questions that people produce while speaking, and this intonation is produced due to the type of idea people want to transmit.

Indeed, Moore (2016) finds a common ground for these two views by observing that prosody and punctuation realize the same function – revealing/emphasizing the information structure of an utterance–in the spoken and respectively written modes of language. Grammatical/prosodic influences from the native language may surface in the new language as particular punctuation choices.

Eckersley (1979) reads the term 'punctuation,' as …" simply a device making it easy to read and understand written or printed matter." Indeed, punctuation is essential in writing as it makes easy for lectors to understand the kind of emotion that writers want to express in their pieces of writing. Besides, teachers of English as a second language have noticed punctuation to be extremely difficult and confusing for many ESL/EFL students. They do not use commas in combining simple or compound sentences to make new sentences.

The most common punctuation marks in English are: capital letters and full stops, question marks, commas, colons and semi-colons, exclamation marks and quotation marks. In speaking, we use pauses and the pitch of the voice to make what we want to express clearly. There are different types of punctuation that express a pause like the comma, the period, the ellipsis, the semi colon, and the colons, the punctuation that expresses intonation, such as exclamatory and questions marks, and the auxiliary punctuations like dash, parenthesis, quotations mark.

Table 45. Punctuation	USES OF PUNCTUATION IN SPANISH AND ENGLISH			
	Spanish		**Spanish**	
Punctuation	**Punctuation**	**Punctuation**	**Punctuation**	**Punctuation**
PERIOD or FULL STOP in a sentence has the function to give lectors the understanding that the sentence has a complete meaning	Use the period to mark the end of a complete sentence.	Tu sobrino está cansado de gritarte. Ellos nos hicieron la tarea. Adriana aprenderá alemán el próximo año.	Use the period to mark the end of a complete sentence.	Your cousin is tired to yell at you. They did not do the homework Adriana will learn German the next year.
	Use a period instead of a question mark after indirect questions	Me gustaría saber qué haremos mañana. Me podrías decir cuántos años tienes.	Use a period instead of a question mark after indirect questions	My father has been asking me why I did not answer the telephone. Your classmates wonder how your vacations were
	Use a period after abbreviations and person's initial.	Licda. Elena Marroquín Ing. Oscar Arnulfo G. W. Dwyer	The period is used after abbreviations and person's initial; however, the period is omitted in names of organizations, agencies countries, persons, or things usually referred to their capitalized initials	Mr. Marcos Solis Steven B. Trump Dr. Alicia Martinez

	Among the full period and following period (punto y seguido), there is no a clearly difference in the uses. In the same way, if the passage changes its ideas, a period must be placed, but if the passage continues in the same idea, the following period must be used. In the case of the use of the period, both languages present similarities in the use of it.		
COMMA (,) indicates a brief pause that occurs within the statement.	It is used to separate the members of an enumeration, except for those preceded by any of the conjunctions: e, o, u.	Es una muchacha tranquila, respetuosa y de buen nombre. Llegaron todos los familiares: primas, tíos abuelos, hijos. ¿Quieres pan, comida o fruta?	Use a comma before the conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so) that joins the two independent clauses in a compound sentence.	I like dancing outside, and I also love singing. She went to work late, so she could no finish the document.
	When the elements of the enumeration constitute the subject of the sentence or a verbal complement and are prefixed to the verb, it does not put a comma after the last one.	De pleitos, divisiones y problemas no desea ni oír comentar. La contaminación, tala de árboles y problemas ambientales son temas de interés social.	Use a comma after relatively lengthy introductory phrases or dependent (subordinate) clauses.	In order to understand better, they read twice the info. After we sang the song, my mother appeared with the microphone.
	To separate grammatically equivalent members within the same statement.	Estaba entusiasmado por su juego, por su examen, por su beca, por su estudio.	Use commas to separate items in a series	Jorge bought two pairs of jeans, a jacket, and a pair of shoes.
	It is placed in front of the conjunction when the sequence that heads expresses a content	Lavaron las puertas de la casa, dividieron las	Use commas before and after non-essential elements (parts of the sentence providing	

different from the previous element/ s.	paredes del cuarto, y quedaron satisfechos.	information that is not essential in order to understand its meaning).	Metro-Centro, which is the only mall in Santa Ana, has many stores.
Elements separated by (;), the last element, before which the copulative conjunction appears, is preceded by a comma or semicolon.	En la mesa coloco los libros; en el sofá, las llaves; en la cama el teléfono, y la ropa en el armario.	Use commas to separate the elements of dates and places.	Today, May 7, 2019 I was born in Santa Ana, El Salvador.
To isolate the vocative from the rest of the sentence (if the vocative is in the middle of the sentence is written between two commas).	Marta, sal de aquí. He dicho que os concentréis, chicos. Estoy triste, Daniel, por la noticia	Use a comma before a direct quotation.	When asked if he had read for the interview, Paul replied, "Only a little," and the exam showed it!
It is used before an adverbial phrase.	Ahora, como no tengo clase, no haré un examen. Mañana, cuando te vea, iremos a cenar.	Use commas before and after words and phrases like however and nevertheless that serve as interrupters	Gregory did not like music. He is, however, very successful in his musical classes.
Incisions that interrupt a sentence, either to clarify or clean up what has been said.	Al instante, Carmina la hija de Sofía, gritó asustada. Todos mis amigos, incluido Oscar, estaba molesto.	Use a comma (which ordinarily indicates a pause and a variation in voice pitch) where it is required by the structure of the sentence.	-When the car hit, Nicolas Olsen collapsed. -When the car hit Nicolas, Olsen collapsed.
When the regular order of the parts of the statement is reversed, putting elements that tend to be postponements are	Oportunidad, ya no la tiene. Dinero, ya no tiene. Certeza, la necesita.	There is no equivalent in English	

	preferred, people tend to place a comma after the anticipated block.		
	Links as esto es, es decir, en fin, por último, no obstante, por lo tanto, en cambio, y también generalmente, posiblemente, finalmente, quizá, placed at the beginning of a sentence are separated from the rest by a comma.	No obstante, se necesita iniciar la campaña. Finalmente, ella decía la verdad. Por lo tanto, no vamos a conciliar ninguna propuesta con ellos.	Use comma after introductory elements such as adverb clauses, long phrases, transitional expressions, interjections, and an introductory *yes* or *no*.	When Salvadorians are happy, they feel unashamed. Yes, every opinion counts. No, it is not disrespectful.
	When a verb is omitted because it was previously mentioned or because it is understood	Los mayores, por aquella fila. En la música, un dios; en el dibujo, bastante decepcionante.	There is no equivalent in English	

-Spanish and English have introductory phrases and subordinating clauses located at the beginning of sentences which follow a comma, so these similarities facilitate the acquisition of L2. Generally, the comma can be omitted after introductory phrases depending on the speakers' intention, meaning, or clarity. Spanish and English have phrases that provide unessential information about the subject, and they go between commas.

CAPITAL LETTERS			
	Capitalize the first word of a sentence and proper nouns.	Ellos compraron un nuevo departamento en Francia el pasado verano. Margarita fue una persona muy amable.	[Similar use in both languages]	They bought a new department in France last summer. Margarita was a friendly person.
	Capitalize names of countries	colombiano salvadoreño	Derivative words from proper names are usually capitalized	Colombian Australian

	Capitalize subjects, languages, titles	Mi materia favorita era Literatura I. Mis compañeros disfrutaron leer Orgullo y Prejuicio	In titles of books, plays, students' pieces of paper, and so on, capitalize the first and last words and all other words except articles, prepositions, and conjunctions.	The watchman was a person who reduced the crime in Toronto. The Paradise and Wonderful Night in Venice by Ad. P.
	It is not used in the same context	It is not used in the same context	Capitalize the pronoun I and the interjection O (but no oh, excepts when it starts the sentence)	I baked bread. I used to play the piano.

Writers face a lot of difficulties in capitalizations because they tend to capitalize every single word; however, after knowing some of the uses of capitalization they must know that mostly proper nouns are capitalized. In the case of the use of the Capital letter, both languages present similarities in the use of it. In Spanish the pronoun I (yo) is not capitalized, if it does not begin the sentence.

ELLIPSIS indicate a suspension in the idea; they are used when the writers intend to transmit an emotion, but it is implied clearly	Ellipsis is used to leave the sentence incomplete or to give it suspense.	No lo pude ver con ella… es imposible Tus ojos… tu boca…todo es perfecto. Al momento que Margot entró a la oficina… todos gritaron.	[Similar use in both languages]	I could not see him with her… it's impossible Your eyes… your mouth …everything is perfect. By the time, Margot came into the office …everybody yelled.
	When it is omitted one or more paragraphs within a long quotation.	Millones de personas están sufriendo de los efectos catastróficos de los desastres naturales causados por el cambio climático (…) los efectos continuaran creciendo y se empeorarán con el tiempo, creando ruinas para las futuras generaciones (…) unos	[Similar use in both languages]	Millions of people are already suffering from the catastrophic effects of extreme disasters exacerbated by climate change (…) its effects will continue to grow and worsen over time, creating ruin for current and future generations (….) One of the biggest drivers by far is our

			burning of fossil fuels – coal, gas and oil.
	de los grandes causantes son la quema de combustibles fósiles, gas y aceites.		
Ellipsis can go in brackets when a passage is copied and some words are deleted	La Segunda Guerra mundial fue una Guerra que duro desde (1939 a 1945). Los mayores participantes tiraron su economía entera […] y sus recursos militares. La Segunda Guerra mundial fue el conflicto más mortal de la historia humana. Trataba […] de preguntar para qué servía esto y aquello y lo de más allá, y cuánto costaba y a cómo se vendía	[Similar use in both languages]	Second World War was a global war that lasted from (1939 to 1945). The major participants threw their entire economic (…) and military resources. World War II was the deadliest conflict in human history.
Ellipsis can be followed by other punctuations, such as commas, semi colons, among others.	Me pregunto si él…, pero no lo amo. Lo llamaré…, y tú permanece callada.	[Similar use in both languages]	I wonder if he…, but I do not love him. I will call him…, and you stay quiet.

The most common errors that learners commit when using ellipsis is to add more than three dots at the end or at the middle of the sentence; also, in Spanish, a period is not written after the ellipsis; however, other marks like commas, semicolons, and colons.

The exclamative and interrogative are placed before or after the ellipsis: it will depend if the sentences is complete or incomplete. In Spanish, after the ellipsis when they close a sentence, the first letter of the word is capitalized, but if it does not close the sentence, a small letter is used.

Notice that the ellipsis mark is inside parenthesis to indicate that information is missing. In Spanish, ellipsis is written inside parentheses or brackets when a text is translated, and it is omitted a part of it.

COLONS indicate a long pause after the information. Colons serve to complete, clarify, and resume.	Colons are used in the heading of a normal or business letter and in greetings of speech.	Querida madre: Estimado jefe del Departamento: Señora Alvarado:	[Similar use in both languages]	Dear mother: Dear Head of the Department: Mr. Francisco Martinez
	After phrases that indicate exemplifications like the following, in this way, and follow-up. (à continuación, siguiente, de esta manera)	Mi madre ama comprar artesanías como las siguientes: El Ministerio de Educación aprobó la enseñanza de las materias siguientes:	The colon may direct attention to an explanation or summary, an appositive, a series, or a quotation.	My mother loves to buy handicraft as the following: The ministry of Education approved the teaching of the follow-up subjects: The teacher finishes the class telling: "create the highest, grandest vision possible for your life, because you become what you believe."
	The colon may separate two main clauses or sentences when the second explains the first:	La gente de Argentina cree que el tango es más que una danza: es parte de su cultura.	[Similar use in both languages]	People from Argentina believe that Tango is more than a dance: It is part of their culture.
	Use colon after independent clause to introduce a list	La tesis consiste en tres partes: el planteamiento del problema, el marco teórico y el análisis de datos.	[Similar use in both languages]	The thesis consists of three parts: the statement of the problem, theoretical framework, and the analysis of data
	Use colons to introduce quotations after the colons the	Después de unos minutos el jurado salió de la sala y	[Similar use in both languages]	After some minutes, the juries went out of the room, and they said:

	first letter of the word is written in capital letter	dijeron: "Marcos Iván es culpable de haber abusado de su vecina y estará en la cárcel por 40 años".		"Marcos Ivan is guilty to have abused of his neighbor, and he will be in jail for 40 years." -People agreed that the climate change will be worst over the years as they mentioned: people do not care to throw garbage on the streets, and they continue doing things that affect the environment.

When quoting others' words in a direct quotation, there are two choices about how you present those words: either embedded within the normal flow of the text (integrated quotes) or outside the text (blocked quotes). Integrated quotes within a single sentence require a <u>comma</u>.

After the colon, quoted sentences regularly begin with a capital, but other sentences may begin with either a capital letter or a lower case letter, although the latter is generally preferred There is no difference in the use of the colons in Spanish and English.

Notice in this case if the sentence before the colons cannot stand alone, then a colon must not be used. Besides, the use of the colon is correct in both languages.

HYPHEN is used to connect and divide separate elements of individual words	Use a hyphen in compound nouns	artístico-musical hispano-argentino franco-alemán Norte-sur	Use a hyphen in some compound words.	air-crew play-group a long-term daughter-in-law
	Use a hyphen with some prefixes and suffixes	vice-ministro ex-presidente	Use a hyphen with some prefixes and suffixes	vice-minister ex-president
	There is no use in Spanish		Use a hyphen when two or more words are joined to form a single adjective	good-looking bad-tempered well-liked

			Use the hyphen with compound numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine	seventy-eight ninety- four eighty-night
	There is no use in Spanish			
The hyphen is not needed in Spanish just for a correct understanding. In comparison with English in Spanish the hyphen is not used in compound numbers				
PARENTHESES are a form of punctuation to be used around words in a sentence to add or clarify information. Generally anything placed in parentheses is considered to be less important than anything outside of it.	Use parentheses to add information, but it does not change the meaning of the sentence.	En *Ya verás cómo consigue ganar,* la conjunción *cómo* (con pronunciación átona y sin tilde) introduce una subordinada sustantiva. Achille-Claude Debussy (Saint-Germain-en-Laye, Francia; 22 de agosto de 1862-París, 25 de marzo de 1918) fue un compositor francés y una figura central en la música europea	[Similar use in both languages]	The second world war included all the great power (sovereign state recognized for being influenced) that eventually formed two opposite alliance. Nazism is a form of fascism(a form of radical, right-wing, authoritarian ultra-nationalism) and showed that ideology's disdain for liberal democracy and the parliamentary system
	Use parentheses to enclose directions and references	En mi época, es decir, cuando yo tenía dieciocho años […] (Aub, Gallina) ¿Crees que, si supiera cómo, no lo habría llamado? Pero ¿adónde? (Gala, Durmientes).	[Similar use in both languages]	Our love was the wind." (Nicholas Spark, A walk to remember) "See me just as I see you…" (Nicholas Spark, See me) Then you will call upon me and come and pray to me, and I will hear you. (Jeremiahs 29:12)

	Use parentheses around an abbreviation or an acronym when it is used with the spelled–out word.	El presidente de la república prometió la incorporación PDR (planes de desarrollo rural) para ayudar a personas pobres. El banco mundial (BM) abrirá sus puertas para pequeños empresarios que necesitan préstamos.	[Similar use in both languages]	The NASA (**National Aeronautics and Space Administration) revealed the existence of UFO.** **The AFL (**American Football League**) informed that the games will be transmitted on Internet on Monday afternoon.**
	Sometimes the parentheses are used to avoid to introduce an option in the passage. In this case, the word can be enclosed in the parentheses.	Los documentos se entregaron el (los) mes (es) de 2019. Todos (as) los (as) niños (as)	There is no equivalent in English	
There is no difference in the use of the parentheses in Spanish and English just in the case when in Spanish, it is added the termination of plural nouns in parentheses.				
APOSTROPHE indicates the possessive case (except for personal pronouns), to mark omissions in contracted words or numerals, and to form certain plurals.	There is no equivalent in Spanish		Use the apostrophe to mark omissions in words or numerals.	She hasn't eaten. They won't go. I don't eat pizza. You're so intelligent. She's perfect.
	There is no equivalent in Spanish		For compound nouns or word groups, add the apostrophe and s only to the last word. Also, to indicate joint ownership, add the apostrophe	--The choir of singers' voice was perfect. The teacher used her garage to store the team of players' equipment.

			and s only to the last name or to each name.	--My boss and the secretary's son Douglas and Yandy's apartment.
	There is no equivalent in Spanish		For plural nouns ending in s, add only the apostrophe. For plurals not ending in s, add the apostrophe and s	This is my sister's bed. Her brothers' car was destroyed. Girls' purses
	Spanish does not use the apostrophe (') to indicate possession; instead of, they use "de" to refer to ownership.	El novio de mi mamá es guapo.	Use apostrophes to show the possessive case of nouns and indefinite pronouns. For singular nouns add the apostrophe and s.	My mother's boyfriend is handsome. Francisco's family is wonderful. Candy's friends
	The apostrophe is used to drop some words. **Note:** these contractive forms are not used in academic language.	d'afuera m'hijo el dolor l'angustia p'arriba	The apostrophe is used to drop some words.	I am takin' He is goin'
Note: Use an apostrophe for "it's" when it represents the contractive form "it is" and NOT for possession. "It's" always means "it is." "Its" always shows possession; for example, "Its color is blue". In English, the apostrophe is used to make the contraction of auxiliary and negation as well as subject and auxiliary. However, in Spanish, it is not used. In Spanish, it does not occur the possessive of noun; instead of, they use "de" to refer the ownership. The apostrophe was used in the past in poetry to indicate the omission of a vowel, for example, d'aquel for de aquel.				
SEMI-COLON (;) indicates a pause higher than the comma and lower	It is used to separate the elements of an enumeration when it comes to complex	El pepino es simple; el melocotón, dulce; y el limón, ácido.	Use a semi-colon in place of the comma and conjunction to separate the two independent	I like eating outside; I also love watching television.

than that indicated by the period. Semicolons are short pauses that permit writers to add more ideas to previous sentences that are separated by commas.	expressions that includes commas.		clauses in a compound sentence.	
	It is used to separate juxtaposed propositions, especially when the comma has been used in them.	El chico, feliz, jugaba en el parque; sus padres preguntaban por él.	before the conjunctive adverb (such as however and therefore) that joins two independent clauses	I love Chinese food; however, I also enjoy pizza or hamburger.
	It is used in front of conjunctions or conjunctive phrases like pero, mas y aunque, sin embargo, por tanto, por consiguiente, en fin, and so forth.	Su idea fue interesante y renovadora; pero no llenó por completo las expectativas del grupo. No era la mejor opción de la junta; sin embargo, la solución llegó rápidamente luego de su participación. A las 10 de la noche aún estaba en la oficina; definitivamente, seguía trabajando en la presentación.	To separate elements in a series if they contain internal punctuation.	On his fishing trip, Jeff caught rainbow, brook, and lake trout; large-mouth, small mouth, and white bass; and a few northern pike.
-Semicolons in Spanish are used much as they are in English, as a punctuation mark that combines uses of the period and the comma. One common use of semicolons is to show a link in meaning between two clauses that would then be made into single sentences. Another common use of semicolons is to provide precision in lists. The semicolon is used to join phrases that are linked.				
QUESTIONS MARKS	The interrogative sentences are divided in two groups: direct and indirect.	¿Viste las novelas ayer? ¿Cómo se llamaba el libro?	Use the question mark after direct (but not indirect questions.	Who called you at midnight? Did you listen to her, "she said that I hit her"?

	No sé bien lo que dijiste (indirect question) ¿Puedes decirme si terminaras el reporte ahora?		
Multiple or complex questions	¿Tienes que hablar de él, por qué lo mencionaste, cuándo lo viste, él te vio, quién?	Question marks may be used between the parts of a series:	Did you love his house? Spend a lot of time there? Give him the gift? [Question marks cause full stops and emphasize each part. Compare "Did you love his house, spend a lot of time there, and give him the gift?"]
There is no equivalent use.		A question mark within parentheses is used to express the writer's uncertainty as to the correctness of the preceding word, figure, or date:	The princess Diana was born in 1977(?) and died in 1994. The new NASA program will start on July 5th (?)
Yes or No questions	¿Comiste ayer? ¿Tienes calor o no?	Yes or No questions	Did you eat? Are you happy?
Open questions which contain a pronoun, a determiner, and an adverb.	¿Dónde está tu mamá? ¿Quién escondió tu cuaderno azul?	[Similar use in both languages]	Where is your mother? Who came late to the class?

	Certain questions express a reaction to a previous statement, so that the question is confirmed to the speaker in the correctness of his statement:	¿Te llamas Rosario? ¿Verdad? ¿Eres casado? ¿Lo eres?	[Similar use in both languages]	Did you eat? Don`t you? Is he married? Isn't he?
	Interrogative sentences can constitute statements in which information is requested properly:	¿Quieres algo de tomar? (offering); ¿Todavía piensas lo mismo? (counterclaim); ¿Te gustaría tomar un poco más de té? (recommendation); ¿Tienes otro lapicero? (request for an action)	In English, there are certain kinds of questions that are used to express different ideas.	Do you want food? (Offering); Do you still think the same? (Counterclaim); Should I need to study more? (Recommendation); Do you have another pencil? (request for action)
	In Spanish, there are two types of interpretation for negative questions	¿Sabes que no estás preparado para ser padre? ¿Estás de acuerdo no? ¿Eso es importante no?	English negation patterns	Are you not ready? Did not you bring the homework? Is he not a doctor?
In English, there are open questions that give more details about the subject. In Spanish, direct interrogative sentences are marked in the writing with the opening (¿) and closing (?) signs. Omitting the initial sign is considered ungrammatical which is opposite in English. Spanish speakers produce more questions to ask something, but English speakers usually speak directly. After the close question or exclamatory marks (?!) do not write the period.				
EXCLAMATION MARK (¡!) Defines exclamatory statements and it is a	In direct style, and interjections	¡Qué increíble noticia! ¡Oh! ¡Ay! ¡Eh!	Interjections are words or short phrases used to convey wonder, delight, and anger, among others. They typically occur at the beginning of a	Wow! I´ve had been writing bad sentences. Oh my God! That´s sounds terrific.

			sentence and are followed by exclamation marks.	
statement of strong emotion.	Two exclamation marks are used, one at the beginning and one at the end. Also, the usage of period is not allowed after the mark.	¡Eso es un abuso! ¡Esto no me lo esperaba! ¡Ni modo!	An exclamatory sentence contains either "what" or "how." Usually "what" and "how" are used to ask questions, but in exclamatory sentences, they express emotion.	What beautiful you look! How amazing!
	The mark at the beginning must be placed where the exclamation begins, even if it does not begin with the statement.	Con respecto al pago de facturas, ¡ya todo fue cancelado!	Give other sentence types an exclamatory meaning by using an exclamation point. This works for imperative sentences (i.e., commands), which are used to tell others what to do.	Please help me! Don´t think is over! Our boss is coming! She did it!
	If the vocative and subordinate propositions occupy the first place in the statement, the punctuation mark is written outside the exclamation. However, if they are placed at the end, they are considered within it.	Diego, ¡Es fantástico verte de nuevo! ¡Es fantástico verte de nuevo, Diego!	It is used after an emphatic interjection and after a phrase, clause, or sentence to express a high degree of surprise, incredulity, or other strong emotion.	Wow! What a nervousness pass! Act now! Work with the group! "Woman! We're not connected!" she said.
	The adverb *cómo* can affect distance on an attribute and give rise to two variants	The first one ¡Cómo era de simpática! the second	There is no used in English.	

| | | ¡Cómo era simpática! | |

In American English – when quoting – the period, comma, question, and exclamation marks go inside the quotation marks. These rules differ from Spanish because the period and comma go outside the quotation marks. (The question and exclamation marks stay inside the quotation marks).

In English, write one mark/point at the end of the question/exclamation only. In Spanish, start the question/exclamation with an inverted mark, and close it with a question exclamation mark.

When a comma is placed after an exclamation mark, the following word does not have to begin with capital letter the same case as in the questions.

2.10. Semantics

Lyons (1977) expressed that semantics is the study of meaning, to refer to his point of view semantics helps writers to identify the meaning of the correct word depending of the context. In English as in Spanish, there are several words that have the same meaning, but they are not used in the context; for example, vez (time) or ves (verb to see); vino (verb to come) or vino (alcoholic drink) as in English bear (animal) or bear (something that cannot stand) can (auxiliary verb) or can (container). Moreover, this variation and meaning may depend on what writers want to express. Kreidler (1998) said that Linguistic semantics is the study of how languages organize and express meanings. To allude Kreidler, it is needed that L2 learners are conscious of the target language.

In addition, it is indispensable to understand the semantic relationships that carry words or sentences in the language as it will facilitate writers the best options at the moment of writing. Paraphrase: it is when one statement has the same meaning as another, for example, she does not like apples, oranges, strawberries is a paraphrase of She does not like fruits.

Entailment: it is when one statement entails another when the second is logically necessary consequences of the first like, they were joyful and exciting entails that they have fun or all the students fail the exam entails that No one passes the exam.

Inclusion: one statement includes another, as their presentation was about climate change includes they talked about pollution, and animals' extinction.

Contradiction: it is when one statement contradicts another. I did not fail Literature I contradicts I will not be able to take Literature II, or yesterday, it was hot contradicts yesterday, it was raining.

Anomaly: it is when a sentence does not convey a meaning or it violates the semantic rules, for example, *the tree was yelling and *the horse talked (both verbs require a human entity to perform the action).

Lexical Ambiguity: it is used when a word allows more than one meaning in the context, as I saw a bat, which may denote animals or an instrument used to hit a ball.

Semantics, through time, has changed its way of being studied by linguists. Because this area has been analyzed from different points of view; nowadays, many definitions have emerged. For the majority of linguists, semantics is related with the meaning of words in a certain context; however, those definitions differ in some aspects as presented below:

Table 47. Definitions of semantics

Semantics is the study of meaning	Lyons (1977)
Semantics is the study of meaning in language	Hurford & Heasley 1983
Semantics is the study of meaning communicated through language	Saeed (1997)
Semantics is the part of linguistics that is concerned with meaning	Löbner (2002)
Linguistic semantics is the study of literal, decontextualized, grammatical meaning	Frawley (1992)
Linguistic semantics is the study of how languages organize and express meanings	Kreidler (1998)

Source: Reprinted from Semántica Inglesa, Some Preliminar ies: What is semantics? (p.1)

This research follows the definition given in *Semantics* retrieved from the website of the Faculty of Washington which literally says:

Semantics is the study of the meaning of words, phrases, and sentences. In semantic analysis, there is always an attempt to focus on what the words generally mean, rather than on what a speaker might want to express ona particular occasion. Linguisitcs semantics wirh the conventional meaning conveyed by the use of words and sentences of a language.

Therefore, semantics has to do with the meaning of words though the speaker's intended message may be interpreted in different forms. This leads to connotation, what the receptor can infer about the utterance rather than its denotation itself. Consequently, semantics involves many aspects like semantic features, semantic roles, and lexical relations.

2.10.1. Word Order

To manage the essentials of the sentence as an aid to clear thinking, and effective writing is something writers have to care about. A key to good writing is to possess or develop sentence sense. Sentence sense is the awareness of what makes a sentence; the ability to recognize its grammatical parts and the relationships to understand between its parts. When people refer to the word order of a language, they often are referring specifically to the order of subject, object,

and verb with respect to each other, but word order refers more generally to the order of any set of elements that is part of clauses, and phrases.

Observing the positions, forms, and the meaning of words can help people to understand the relationship between parts of sentences. Notice below how meaning is expressed by the arrangement and forms of words.

- They discovered wonderful places in Hawaii.

It is observed the importance of word order to convey a clear idea; other arrangement of the same words is possible converting the same in a question.

- Did they discover wonderful places in Hawaii?

However, there are arrangements that are not possible in English as the following:

- *They wonderful discovered places in Hawaii. [Unstructured sentence]

Before knowing the word order of the part of speech, it is important to know the structure of sentences. There are different types of sentence structure as simple sentences have two basic grammatical parts, the subject and the predicate. The subject functions as the noun that performs the action or noun about which something is said (the noun and all words associated with it), and the second part predicate (the verb and all words associated with it).

Complete subject + complete predicate [pattern for simple sentences] **[S[NP][VP]]**

- They discovered wonderful places in Hawaii.
- Those dogs were barking all night.
- The handsome neighbor is taking English classes.

Independent clause + comma + coordinating conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so) independent clause [pattern for compound sentences] **[S[S[NP][VP]][,][coordinating conjunction][S[NP][VP]]]**

- My mother cooks dinner, and my sister cooks breakfast.
- I like soda, but I do not like coffee.

Notice that before the coordinating conjunction a comma is placed; however, many people forget to do it.

*My mother bakes cakes Ø and my sister bakes cookies. [The comma is not used, which is an error, and it is proven in the following pattern **[S[S[NP][VP]][Ø][coordinating conjunction][S [NP][VP]]]**

The most common errors that writers commit while writing is to add unnecessary words to express their ideas producing clutter writing.

- *Margot and Candy used to travel to places that they dream about every time that they thought about their life which was all most all the time. [Overloaded sentence]
- Margot and Candy travel to all places that they dream about. [Taking out unnecessary words]

Independent Clause + subordinating conjunction + dependent clause [Pattern of Complex Sentence] **[S[S[NP][VP][Sub. C[Sub. Conj.][S[NP][VP]]]]**

Subordinating conjunction+ dependent clause+ comma+ Independent Clause

[S[S[NP][VP][Sub. C[Sub. Conj.][S[NP][VP]]]]

Some common subordinating conjunctions are: after, although, as, because, before, how, if, once, since, than, that, though, till, until, when, where, whether, while

- My father lived in this house since he was 8 years old.
- Fernando was drinking coffee when his girlfriend called him.

It most cases, writers write a comma before the subordinating conjunction which is an error because the comma is placed when the subordinating conjunction goes at the beginning.

- *My father lived in this house, since he was 8 years old. [The use of the comma is incorrect]
- When his girlfriend called him, Fernando was drinking coffee. [The subordinating conjunction goes at the beginning, so a **comma** is used]

Independent Clause + subordinating conjunction + dependent clause + coordinating conjunction + Independent Clause [Pattern for Compound-Complex sentence] **[S[S[NP][VP][Sub. C[Sub. Conj.][S[NP][VP]]]][,][Coor. Conj.][S[NP][VP]]]]**

- The teacher was angry because everybody left the exam, so he is going to repeat it.

2.10.1.1. Word order of Nouns

In a sentence, the noun can function as a subject, object, subject complement, appositive, as in the following cases:

- My uncle has been playing golf for 1 year. [NP as a subject]
- I bought a new pair of shoes. [NP as an object]
- He is a responsible teacher. [NP as a subject complement]

Many nouns (words used to name persons, places, things, ideas, animals, and so forth.) change their form to indicate number (cookie, cookies; dog, dogs) and to indicate the possessive case (Andrea's notebook, Kevin's laptop). The articles "a, an, and the" regularly signal that a noun follows (an apple, a lamp, the television). However, the article can be omitted if it is not needed.

A study to the following basic patterns will allow writers to recognize subject and object complement.

Subject + linking verb + subject complement

Subject + verb + direct object + object complement

2.10.1.2. Word order of Verbs

Verbs are words that express action, occurrence, or existence. Verbs function as the predicate of a sentence or as an important part of the predicate. All verbs change form to indicate a singular subject in the third person (they love; she loves). When verbs are conjugated for the past form, they change their form (love→ loved). Also, in English there are some auxiliary verbs that change the tense of the verb in different moods, or voices. The following words are

commonly used as auxiliaries: have, has, had, am, is, are, was, were, be, been, do, does, did, will, shall, can, may, must, among others. Auxiliary verb + main verb [Pattern of auxiliary verbs]

- They can speak 5 languages. [**Can** is used to express ability]
- I have never traveled by train. [**Have**+ -**ed** indicate a link between the present and the past]

  Intransitive verbs do not take object complement.

- *It rained the city. [Rain is an intransitive verb that do not take an object]
- It rained across the city. [The noun is object of the preposition across]

2.10.1.3 Word order of Adjectives

An adjective modifies a noun or pronoun by providing descriptive or specific detail. Unlike adverbs, adjectives do not modify verbs, other adjectives, or adverbs. Adjectives usually precede the noun or pronoun they modify. In English, the adjectives do not have to agree in number or gender with the nouns they describe as L1 tend to pluralize the adjectives.

- She saw a handsome man.

Table 47. Adjectives Order

Feeling	Size	Age	Color	Place	Type	Noun
amazing	big		green		sports	car
		old		Spain		apartment
nice				Korean	3D	television

Source: Retrieved from: http://eslau.ca/lesson/unit65.pdf

2.10.2. Determiners as Adjectives

Determiners function as adjectives, articles, pronouns, and numbers. When a determiner is used as an adjective, it restricts the noun it modifies. Determiners functioning as adjectives tell which one? how many? and whose? The following set of words are considered determiners.

2.10.2.1. Articles (a, an, the)

Possessive pronouns (mine, ours, yours, his, hers, theirs)

Relative pronouns (whose, which, whichever, what, whatever)

Demonstrative pronouns: (this, these, that, those)

Indefinite pronouns: (any, each, other, some...)

Cardinal Numbers: (one, two, three...)

Ordinal Numbers: (last, first, second...)

Possessive proper nouns (Bob's, Sarah's)

NOTE: Generally, the most important use of adjectives is to qualify the meaning of the noun; therefore, the adjective is placed closest to the noun as shown below:

- The beautiful and tall woman is my best friend's sister. [adjectives describing the subject]

- Those white roses are from my mother's garden.

Also adjectives may function as object complement.

- She loves the old house. [adjective+ noun]

- My classmates held a big party.

2.10.2.2. Adjectives as subject complements

The subject complement is a group of words that follow a linking verb (appear, become, feel, grow, smell, seem, sound, remain, turn, prove, look, taste, get and the forms of the verb to be) and modifies the sentence's subject, not its verb.

- Their pets are tiny and old. [subject + verb (linking verb) + adjective]

2.10.2.3. Possessive form

The possessive form is used with nouns referring to people, groups of people, countries, and animals. It shows a relationship of belonging between one thing and another. To form the possessive, add apostrophe (') + s to the noun. If the noun is plural, or already ends in -s, just an apostrophe after the –s is added.

2.10.2.4. Comparative Adjectives

Comparative adjectives are used to compare differences between two objects they modify (larger, smaller, faster, and higher). They are used in sentences where two nouns are compared.

Noun (subject) + verb + comparative adjective + than + noun (object). [Structure for comparative sentences]

- I am taller than her.

2.10.2.4. Superlative Adjectives

Superlative adjectives are used to describe an object which is at the upper or lower limit of a quality (the biggest, the smartest, and the most beautiful). They are used in sentences where a subject is compared to a group of objects.

Noun (subject) + verb + the + superlative adjective. [Structure for superlative sentences]

- She is the most beautiful.

2.10.3. Adverbs

Adverbs should come as near as possible to the verbs they qualify. This is because the meaning of a sentence can change with the position of the adverb.

Kinds of Adverbs

-manner (boldly, dangerously, fast, hard, quickly, usually, well)

-place (by, behind, here, left, near, over, there, upstairs)

-time (next, now, punctually, soon, tomorrow,)

-frequency (always, frequently, never, occasionally, once, repeatedly)

-degree (fairly, hardly, pretty, quite, too, very)

-interrogative (why? when? where?)

-relative (why, when, where)

When verbs are intransitive, the adverb is placed immediately after it.

- He spoke rapidly. He rapidly spoke. [The position of the adverb changes the meaning of the sentence.]
- All the children have been listening patiently to the teacher.

When the verbs are transitive, the adverb is placed immediately after the object.

- He touched her cheeks softly. [Np + Vp + obj. Com + Adverb of manner]

- Her boyfriend hugs her dog happily.

Adverbs of time and frequency normally come before the verb, at the end, and at the beginning of the sentence; it will dependent on the emphasis, for examples: always, before, often, never, and seldom.

- We always visit my grandmother on weekends.

- Yesterday, you were asking him about your dictionary.

- You were asking him about your dictionary yesterday.

When the verb is followed by an auxiliary verb, the adverb goes after it.

- Sandra will never work with you. [Pattern: Subject + aux. v + adv. + v + com.]

[S[NP Sandra][VP will [Adv. never]work][prep. with [NP you]]]

An adverb which modifies an adjective or another adverb comes before it.

- We are so angry. [S[NP We][VP are[AdjP [Adv. so][Adj. angry]]

2.10.4. Preposition

A preposition always has an object which is usually a noun or pronoun. The preposition relates and links its object to some other words in the sentence.

- Let's go into the restaurant. [Preposition of Movement]

- In the center, there's a group of dancers. [Preposition of Place]

- Carlos is behind Gabriel. [Preposition of Place]

- Your bed is next to the window. [Preposition of Place]

- I was born in 1994. [Preposition of Time]

- I waited for him until 9:00 p.m. [Preposition of Time]

- We get into / out of a car or taxi, but get on/ off a bus, plane, train, ship, and bike:

- Get into the car. We're ready to go. I felt ill when I got off the ship. [Preposition of Movement]

Prepositions are not used in the following cases:

- This (morning, week, and so on): What time did you have breakfast this morning?

- Last (month, year, and others): The new theatre opened last month.

- Next (week, year, and so forth): My English course starts next week.
- Every (day, weekend, among others): There are special events every day.

In general, a prepositional phrase may be placed anywhere within a sentence and still be correct. However, regardless of where writers choose to place the prepositional phrase, they have to be sure to place it as close as possible to the word it modifies; otherwise, the sentence may be confusing.

- *They gave some coins on the corner to the children.
- They gave some coins to the children on the corner.

The order of a sentence can modify the meaning that the writers intend to express; that is why, it is important that writers know the pattern of every part of the speech. When students place the part of the sentence in the wrong position, they commit a mistake called misplaced modifier.

2.10.5. Modifiers: Misplaced, Squinting and Dangling
 2.10.5.1. Rules

•Adjectives automatically modify the noun, pronoun or noun phrase; they are physically closest to. So, all other things being equal, adjectives are placed immediately before or after the word(s) they are intended to make more specific.

•Adverbs have more freedom to move around in sentences, but it is essential to observe where they are ambiguous or clearly misplaced.

Modifiers like adjectives and adverbs enable learners to express their ideas clearly and precisely, for example,

- The pretty girl <u>who sat next to me</u> is my best friend's sister.

(Adjective clause)

- *My nephew spoke in the presentation <u>fluently.</u>

(Adverb)

- My nephew spoke fluently in the presentation.

Moreover, if learners do not use adverbs and adjectives correctly, readers will have problems trying to figure out which segments are being modified, and the ideas are not clear for lectors.

2.10.5.2. Dangling Modifiers

Dangling modifiers are modifiers that do not obviously and logically refer to a word or phrase in the sentence. Unlike a misplaced modifier, a dangling modifier cannot be corrected by simply moving it to a different place in a sentence. Besides, dangling modifiers appear at the beginning of the sentences, although it can also come at the end.

Since the meaning of most English sentences depends largely on word order, the position of the parts of a sentence is especially important to clear communication.

- *While was reading, the teacher went out of the class.
- *Arriving home tired, a piece of cake and soda were the only things on her mind.
- *Having finished the dinner, Marina turned off the computer.
- *To improve their grades, was done again.
- To improve their grades, the exam was done again.

Since verbals have their roots in verbs, they fool language users into assuming they are functioning in these sentences as verbs, which is not the case. The case of, looking (present participle), looked (past participle), and to look (infinitive).

- **Looking his wife, Douglas could not stop smiling.
- *To look at her in the distance, Christian ran to the mountain.
- Douglas, observing his wife, could not stop smiling.

The adjectival function of these phrases becomes more obvious when they are placed after the noun they currently modify.

2.10.5.3. Misplaced Modifiers

In standard written English, modifiers such as almost, only, just, even, hardly, nearly and merely are regularly placed immediately before the words they modify.
In speech such modifiers are often put before the verb.

- I only run two hours. [both examples show a different meaning because of the position of the adverb]
- I run only two hours.

The position of a modifying prepositional phrase should clearly indicate what the phrase modifies.

- *with his friend, we could see Monica at the supermarket. [S[PreP]

[NP][VP]] becomes better [S[NP We][VP see][Prep at the supermarket] [S[PreP with][NP his friend]]

- We could see Monica walking at the supermarket with his friend. [Prepositional Phrases] We could see Monica walking with his friend at the supermarket.

- *The restaurants served fruit to the customers in vases. [Adverb place]

- The restaurant served in vases fruit to the customers.

Adjective clauses should be placed near the words they modify.

- *A lady gave us some apples from the East of Boston. [Adjectival Phrase]

- A lady from the East of Boston gave us some apples.

Avoid squinting constructions; modifiers that may refer to either a preceding or a following word.

The misplaced parts of a sentence not only affect the meaning of the sentence but also the writing performance. Also, adverb phrases may be placed near the word modified or at the beginning or end of a sentence. Sometimes the position of the adverb can be unclear or awkward.

2.10.5.4. Squinting Modifier

Sometimes a modifier is placed between two clauses without clearly modifying any of them, which can cause confusion.

- *Those students who miss classes frequently fail the exam. [S [NP those students who miss classes [AdvP frequently]] [VP fail [NP the exam]]]

- Those students who frequently miss classes fail the exam.

- *To dance regularly relaxes me. [S [InfP to dance] [VP [AdvP regularly] [VP calm [NP me]]]

- Regularly, to dance relaxes me. [S[AdvP Regularly] [,] [InfP to dance] [VP calm [NP me]]]

2.10.6. Wordiness

The use of unnecessary words to express an idea is called wordiness, and it affects the writing as usually there is redundancy in the ideas since English is a language that is known to be direct.

- *If she does not feel better, she will never improve. [Omit words or phrases that add nothing to the writing, and it is a repetition of ideas]
- She does not feel better.
- *In the early morning every day, she and her brother walk in the long and silent park that it is behind her grandmother`s house where her mother used to play when she was young.
- She and her brother walk in the park behind their grandmother's house every day. [The omission of unnecessary words when few can express what the writers want to express]
- *During the same time that the doctor was prescribed the medicines, the next patient collapsed.
- While the doctor was prescribing the medicines, the next patient collapsed. [Some words can replace some long expression with one or two words as in the example above]
- *Paola met her family in a dinner. She cooked chicken with mushrooms. All her family was satisfied.
- Paola cooked chicken with mushrooms in the dinner, and her family was satisfied. [The exclusion of repeated ideas leads to a better understanding of the sentence]

2.10.7. Sentence Fragments

A sentence fragment is a piece of information that is punctuated as a sentence but lacks some of the characteristics of a complete sentence. For instance, many writers may commit errors as they produce clauses without some parts of them. This produces errors that writers must correct for having a better writing.

[Pattern of a complete sentence may be omitted either the Noun phrase or the predicate.]

[S [NP][VP]] → [S [NPØ][VP]] or [S [NP][VPØ]]

As in the following cases,

- When the beautiful Jacqueline standing on the corner. [The clause lack of VPØ]

The sentence fragment can occur in any type of structure of sentence, for example:

- *My little nephew seldom taking bath. [The clause lacks the verb phrase (**VPØ**)]
- My little nephew seldom takes bath in the morning.
- *that was horrible. [SubC [SubConj [NPØ][VP[AdjP]]]
- I saw you with the green dress that was horrible.

A complete sentence must contain both a subject and a verb, and it may contain additional information or details that support the main part of the sentence. There are two types of sentences; the independent clause, which can stand by itself and the dependent clause, which "depends" on another part of the sentence for its meaning and cannot stand alone. Sentences can vary in length from few words to many lines of text, so length is not a reliable indicator of a complete sentence. Besides, most students commit mistakes as they want to include small details that usually are not necessary to understand the meaning of the sentence; this is produced because of the comparison of L1 to L2.

Before analyzing sentences, it is necessary to recognize the structural difference between sentences and fragments; a sentence to be complete has to have at least one subject and one predicate, for example,

- My English teacher was an excellent professional.
- Mario and Eduardo work in Sears. [Pattern of a simple sentence]

2.10.7.1. Subordinate fragments

A dependent or subordinate clause contains a subject and a predicate, but it cannot stand alone as a complete sentence.

Using subordination, a dependent clause can be attached to an independent clause to provide information about the relationship between the clauses. There are three types of dependent clauses adverb, adjective, and noun clauses.

The most common subordinating conjunctions used to form dependent or subordinate clauses include the following:

Time: after, as long as, as soon as, before, once, till, until, when, whenever, while

Place: where, wherever

Comparison: as, as if, as though, than

Contrast: although, even though, though, whereas, while

Cause: as, because, since

Condition: even if, if, provided that, unless

Purpose: in order that, so that; and result: so . . . that, such . . . that

- *Since we finished the thesis. We have not known anything about each other. [Subordinate clause]

- We have not known anything about each other since we finished the thesis. [Fragment included in the preceding sentence]

- *I traveled around the world for more than 10 years. *Before I decided to stay definitely in Spain. [Subordinate clause the dependent clause of the sentence cannot stand alone] [SubC [SubConj [NP][VP]]]

- Before I decided to stay definitely in Spain, I traveled around the world for more than 10 years. [Fragment included in the preceding sentence] **[S**[SubC[SubConj**[NP][VP]** [,][NP[VP]**]] [P**attern of a complex sentence]

- Jaime was an excellent little boy when he was 10 years old.

Independent clause: Jaime was an excellent little boy. Dependent clause: when he was 10 years old.

On the other hand, not all fragments are considered errors; there are some types of fragments that express complete meaning like exclamations as well as questions and their answers, single words, phrases or subordinate clauses written as sentences.

Sentence fragments occur when phrases are punctuated as sentences even though they are not actually sentences. There are different types of errors which produce sentence fragments: 1. Sentences that miss the subject are considered fragments, for example:

- *****Worried about all the bad grades. (This sentence lacks the subject; the performer of the action is unknown) **[S [NPØ][VP]]**

- Everybody is worried about all the bad grades.

- ***** Monthly saved money to buy a house. (This sentence lacks the subject; the performer of the action is unknown) **[S [NPØ][VP]]**

- He monthly saved money to buy a house.

2. Sentences that miss the predicate are considered fragments, for example:

- *****The team of musicians' instruments (this sentence lacks the predicate; the action is unknown) **[S [NP][VPØ]]**

- The team of musicians' instruments was stored in the old music classroom. [Predicate]

3. Verbs are important in sentences because they describe the action that the subject performs; however, the lack of verbs produces clutter writing.

- *Yesterday outside the university, everybody was looking with astonishment. *<u>Girls eating hamburgers outside the university.</u> (This sentence lacks the predicate; the action is unknown) **[S[NP][VPØ]]**

- Yesterday outside the university, everybody was looking with astonishment because girls eating hamburgers outside the university were asking for money. (A way to fix a fragment)

- *He was happy to know *that the beautiful girl with red lips and blue eyes. (Omission of the Verb phrase) **[S[S[NP][VP]][SubC[SubConj] [S[NP[VP]]]] becomes [SubC[SubConj][S[NP[VPØ]]]]**

- He was happy to know that the beautiful girl with red lips and blue eyes was part of his History Class.

Prepositional phrases as part of subordinate clauses are considered fragments when they begin with a preposition and end with a period.

Fragment of prepositional phrase

- *Through the garden and the school hall. [S[NPØ][VPØ [PP[Prep trough[NP[NP the garden] [Coor Conj and] [NP the school hall]]]]]]

- The students were eating everything through the garden and the school hall.

2.5.7. 2. Fragment of infinitive, present participle, and adverbial phrase

- *Running with scissors in the class. The teacher must know what to do. [present participle phrase]
- The teacher must know what to do when students are running with scissors in the class. [The order of the sentence does not affect the meaning of it]
- *He is planning a good strategy to lose weight. *And eating vegetables every day. [present participle phrase]
- He is planning a good strategy to lose weight and eating vegetables every day is one of his best options. [Fragment included in the preceding sentence]
- *He is planning a good strategy, to lose weight. *And to eat vegetables every week. [Infinitive phrase]
- He is planning a good strategy, and to eat vegetables every week is his best choice. [Fragment included in the preceding sentence]
- *To wash all your clothes in the washing machine. My mother was disappointed. [Infinitive phrase]
- My mother was disappointed to wash all your clothes in the washing machine. [Fragment included in the preceding sentence]
- *My colleagues were sad after saying goodbye. *With a happy smile. [Adverbial phrase]
- My colleagues were sad after saying goodbye; with a happy smile, I waved my hand.

2.10.8. Addition and Omission of Words

Writing is an essential skill that L2 learners have to care about when learning a language. Usually many writers commit mistakes while they are trying to master this skill because they add unnecessary words or omit necessary words that have specific functions in the sentence. Mostly, the omission of words can affect the meaning of the sentence.

- *The girl who lives next to park is my friend. [Omission of the article]
- *My nephew used to climb up apple tree.
- The girl who lives next to the part is my friend.
- My nephew used to climb up the apple tree.

- *Daniela was a good student when came to the university. [Omission of the pronoun]
- Daniela was a good student when she came to the University.
- *Children hate candies are unusual. [Omission of the relative pronoun]
- Children who hate candies are unusual. [Proper use of the parts in the sentence]
- *Daniela was a good student when she came the University. [Omission of the preposition]
- Daniela was a good student when she came to the University.
- *They will traveled to Paris by the time you come. [Omission of the auxiliary verb]
- They will have traveled to Paris by the time you come.
- *Carmen has living here for five years. [Omission of the auxiliary verb]
- Carmen has been living here for five years.
- *Adriana can cook the same dish as good as her. [Omission of words to complete the though in the comparison]
- Adriana cooked the same dish as good as her mother.
- *Julia and Kevin are the intelligent in the class.
- Julia and Kevin are the most intelligent in the class.
- *Diana is taller her friends. [Omission of the part of the comparison pattern]
- Diana is taller than her friends.
- *He was sick that he could not wake up. [Omission of an intensifier to express the condition of the subject]
- He was so sick that he could not wake up.

Many writers face difficulties when they are writing as they usually add unnecessary words causing errors. Some of the additions of words that they commit are the following.

- *We were very extremely angry after the presentation. [The overuse of modifiers in the sentence producing a weird structure]
- We were very angry after the presentation.
- *She was being reading a new novel. [Addition of Auxiliary verb]
- She was reading a new novel.

- *They will have traveled to the Paris by the time you come. [Addition of article when it is not required]
- They will have traveled to Paris by the time you come.
- *Children who hate the candies are unusual. [Addition of article]
- Children who hate candies are unusual.
- *The Boy band who she or he plays lost the last game yesterday. [Addition of pronouns in adjective clauses is not required as they do not add relevant information about the subject.]
- The Boy band lost the last game yesterday.

CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGICAL DESIGN

This research was directed to achieve its objectives, to answer the research questions and to prove or reject the hypothesis "students' written grammatical and semantical English structures will improve through the implementation of the proposal to incorporate the teaching of Spanish-English transfer errors by means of different activities in English Composition I of the major Licenciatura en Idioma Inglés: Opción Enseñanza."

3.1. Paradigm Design

The researchers carried out a mix method since it was used the quantitative that involves the researcher tools surveys, written test and journals in which researchers found the need to measure the highest incidence of errors made by English Composition II students. Also it was implemented the qualitative method that gather data from different instruments such as interviews with the aim of presenting the diverse points of view obtained from teachers and students, and by the use of the unstructured checklist, researchers could verify the existence of transfer errors in teachers' methodology.

By combining both, researchers could gain a better understanding and validation of the study and could avoid any possible problem noticed in the study.

Moreover, researchers employed the projective study to achieve the aims establish at the beginning. The aim of this study was to create a proposal incorporating Spanish-English transfer errors as it was observed during this investigation that students face difficulties at the moment of writing due to the interference that L1 has on L2. The proposal submitted by researchers will be not implemented by them because of the nature of the study.

3.2 Sampling Procedure

This study was conducted in the English Composition II groups with a total population of ninety students at the Western Multidisciplinary Campus of the University of El Salvador. For this reason, the researchers did not choose a sample; therefore, they decided to work with such population to guarantee a reliable research.

3.3. Preliminary Phase

To prove the presence of the problem, the researchers observed the phenomenon and approached the students to conduct the diagnostic study to know if the problem really exists. Once the population was determined, it was important to establish how the diagnosis would be conducted. Moreover, this phase describes the transfer errors that students had at the moment of writing.

3.3.1. Approaching the Field of Study

Before beginning this study, researchers asked for permission to the Head of the Foreign Language Department to carry out the research in English Composition II groups at the Western Multidisciplinary Campus of the University of El Salvador. Such permission facilitated researchers to observe the class development and to administer some instruments.

During the observations, researchers verified if transfer errors were taught in English Composition II classes either in spoken or written form. Besides, researchers also decided to interview the teachers, to check the journals, and to administer a written test. The data gathered trough the research tools supported the presence of transfer errors in students' writing performance.

3.3.2. Diagnostic Study

The first instrument that researchers used for this research was a a validation checklist (APPENDIX A) for professionals to check clarity and accuracy of instructions and items presented in the instruments, then researchers used an unstructured observation (APPENDIX B) to know about the methodology and the presence of transfer errors in English Composition II classes. The second tool was an interview (APPENDIX C) administered to English Composition II teachers to know the perception and implementation of transfer errors in composition classes affecting students' writing performance.

Moreover, researchers created a rubric (APPENDIX D) to revise students' journals. Then, investigators asked for permission to check the journals (APPENDIX E) written by English Composition II students. With this, researchers were conscious of students' written errors. Also, researchers administered a written test (APPENDIX F) to students in which they

created a paragraph translating some cognate words from Spanish to English. Finally, a rubric for analyzing English Composition I syllabus (APPENDIX G) was created to verify if the teaching of Spanish-English transfer errors was included in the contents.

3.3.3. Definition of the Problem

In the third year of Licenciatura en Idioma Inglés: Opción Enseñanza, students are expected to manage the variety of topics developed in English Composition I so that students are able to develop accurate pieces of writing. However, students of English Composition I show deficiency in the management of both grammar and punctuation rules; such fact led researchers to focus on students' L2 writing basis in English Composition I.

In any case, most of L2 learners are not aware of the errors they produce because they try to translate word by word, to use the same kind of punctuation, and to confuse the patterns of L1 with L2. Moreover, the L2 interference makes students' writing non-understandable as there is no coherence in their ideas. Transfer errors are a serious problem that affects students' writing performance; these errors can be considered unconscious because students have neither internalized the linguistic features of the L2 nor realized the differences between both languages, leading students to fall back on their first language.

Indeed, there is a great probability for L2 learners to produce transfer errors from L1 into L2. Transferring the L1 patterns into L2 may lead to written problems not only in grammar but also in spelling and semantics. When learning L2, the first thing the brain internalizes is the acoustic sounds of any new-learned word which are automatically compared with the sound system of L1. Having understood that, it is clear that Spanish-English transfer errors such as Sound-to-Sound, Sound-to-Spelling, and Spelling-to-Sound are likely to occur on L2 learners.

3.4. Planning Phase

The planning phase is composed by the literature review which contains all the necessary information to design the data collection instruments, and it also presents the tools researchers used to carry out the study. The instruments were validated by professionals of the Foreign Language Department; finally, the researchers took into account ethical aspects which were needed to obtain an effective investigation.

3.4.1. Literature Review

After identifying and defining the phenomenon that is affecting English Composition II students, researchers started to obtain information from books, articles, and all suitable web sites about transfer errors. All data gathered during this study was fundamental to know all the features that transfer errors involve. Furthermore, researchers investigated an appropriate teaching methodology to propose the teaching of transfer errors in English Composition I to improve students' writing performance.

The influence that L1 has on L2 is considerable because it leads to transfer errors as L2 learners fill the gasps with the L1 patterns. The interference of L2 has shown that foreign language learners tend to be highly dependent on L1 structures and vocabulary, especially when producing suitable responses in the target language. To determine why transfer errors occur in L2 acquisition, it is indispensable to study grammatical and morphological structures to establish the types of transfer errors from a structural view.

Furthermore, some linguists define grammar just in the syntactic respect; however, the study of grammar comprises speakers' competences which include areas like phonology and phonetics, morphology, syntax, and semantics. In order to comprehend and explain aspects and effects that the L1 carries into L2 and to understand better what may lead to a transfer error, it is necessary to address to matters such as lexicon acquisition (phonology), word formation (morphology), grammatical structures (syntax), and meaning of words (semantics). The derivation analysis of this study is focused mostly on grammar aspects related to marks of gender, number, tense, person, and so forth. Finally, researchers compared the relation of punctuation, and grammar usages with composition errors.

3.4.2. Data Collection Instruments

To gather the necessary data, researchers designed a series of instruments in order to (1) verify the existence of the research problem (the presence of transfer errors in English Composition II students' writing performance denoting deficient writing basis coming from English Composition I), (2) comprehend to what extent students commit transfer errors, (3) identify the areas in which students need improvement, and (4) be familiar with the teaching methodology. To corroborate such aspects, researchers used a validation checklist (APPENDIX

A) for professionals to check clarity and accuracy of instructions and items presented in the instruments. Researchers created an unstructured observation (APPENDIX B) with the purpose of observing every single detail regarding the phenomenon. Such instrument included unstructured items (open statements) so that researchers could capture details about unexpected aspects of the behavior of the phenomenon that seemed relevant for the research study. Moreover, this tool was pretty significant as the data was not manipulated by researchers; in other words, they only wrote down what was observed about the behavior of the research problem within its natural environment.

Additionally, researchers designed an interview (APPENDIX C) to know the methodology English composition teachers use at the moment of teaching composition faults and the teachers' perspective about some aspects regarding transfer errors, such as the difference between errors and mistakes, the definition of transfer errors, the most common errors in students' pieces of writing, the inclusion of transfer errors in English Composition I lesson plans, the teaching methods, techniques and strategies teachers implement in classes, and the alternative forms to integrate the teaching of transfer errors in English Composition I. Such interview contained ten open-ended questions with the purpose of exploring teachers' knowledge about transfer errors. Moreover, this research instrument gathered substantial information about the teachers' understanding of transfer errors. Also, it enriched the research as teachers' answers were not limited to a set of options; certainly, teachers answered freely, and they revealed their attitude towards transfer errors and the teaching methodology used in composition classes. In addition, teachers provided explanations about the occurrence of transfer errors and about the implementation of transfer errors in English Composition I. This research instrument facilitated the research study as it gave insights to formulate the research hypothesis.

Researchers asked English Composition II teachers by means of a letter to have access to students' journal (APPENDIX E). The journals were check by using a rubric (APPENDIX D). The former (APPENDIX D) was created with the objective of establishing faults in writing retrieved from the information presented in the theoretical framework. This rubric comprised the type of writing faults as addition, omission, misuse, and overuse with their corresponding definitions and examples. This instrument intended to evaluate and classify sentence faults depending on the type of transfer error and the part of speech the error belongs to. Later, it

served to quantify the errors students committed in their pieces of writing as a proof of the existence of the research phenomenon. Researchers could present the quantitative and qualitative data presented in the analysis and interpretation of data.

On the other hand, students' journals (APPENDIX E) were the primary source of the data collection in order to prove the presence of transfer errors. This research tool consisted of a written journal in which students were required to write either a story or paragraph using the composition principles taught in class. Furthermore, this research instrument provided precise information as data was not influenced by researchers; in fact, researchers took meaningful segments containing the errors exactly as they were in the journals. Through this, researchers could evaluate the most common transfer errors committed in students' pieces of writing and the grammatical areas students need to improve; such evaluation of transfer errors was the basis for creating the teaching proposal presented in this research study.

Later, researchers designed a written test (APPENDIX F) in which students had to compose a paragraph. In this written test, researchers provided students with twenty cognate words (nouns, adjectives and verbs) written in Spanish for them to translate in English. The main objective of this instrument was to collect information on the management of spelling correspondences presented in the theoretical framework. At the same time, this instrument served to know the influence that students' L1 has on students' L2 writing, and it aided to reconfirm the presence of transfer errors in students' writing performance and to include the teaching of transfer error in a research proposal designed to counteract the most common errors.

Additionally, investigators used a rubric for analyzing English Composition I syllabus (APPENDIX G). This rubric had the aim of assessing the components that a syllabus must contain, and it helped to evaluate the organization of the syllabus. Besides, this research instrument gave the vision to incorporate topics concerning transfer errors in the contents already established in the syllabus.

3.4.3 Validation of Data Collection Instruments

To validate the data collection instruments, researchers used a checklist (APPENIDX A) for specialists to check clarity and accuracy of instructions and items presented in the instruments. In the validation of this research study, researchers asked some professionals to

validate the research tools used to prove the occurrence of transfer errors. In this stage, experts verified if the instruments properly measure the research problem. In addition, they provided recommendations for researchers to improve the data gathering process. In this procedure, researchers made sure to follow every single recommendation to make the items in the instruments concise and clear so that the data gathered supported this research. Moreover, researchers comprised the information that could be reduced into a single item. They worked on grammatical structures so that the items were meaningful, and they reorganized the items for having a flow in the collection of data.

3.4.4 Validity and Reliability

To make valid this research study, researchers used "content validity" with the purpose to see if the instruments accurately assessed the research phenomenon. Also, investigators utilized "criterion-related validity" which helped researchers to notice how the instruments worked for obtaining the data. In fact, researchers gathered data from a representative sample.

To guarantee reliable results, researchers used "inter-rater reliability" because they administered different tools to obtain precise results of the phenomenon and to be consistent in their judgments.

3.4.5. Ethical Aspects

The researchers took into account some ethical aspects during the research process to make the study reliable. Among these aspects are the following: Confidentiality because the data gathered during all the investigation protected the rights of the sample. Also, voluntary participation and non-discrimination as the students were not forced to participate in the research. This participation went in complete anonymity as researchers did not reveal any personal information of the population to protect students' and teachers' privacy. At the same time, this study has intellectual property since the information was taken from diverse sources that can be found in the reference page, and it is cited to avoid plagiarism, so researchers gave the proper credits of all the cited sources that they took into account for gathering data. Furthermore, respect and honesty had an important part during the study process because researchers approached students respectfully to get a good relationship during the process of the study, and investigators processed the data with sincerity without lying and modifying the

results obtained. Finally, objectivity was necessary to avoid any personal or financial interest that could affect the research process.

3.5. Execution Phase

In the execution phase, researchers explained the data collection procedure, the tools used to assess English Composition II sample so that researchers could get the necessary data for this research study. In the data processing, researchers mentioned the organization of the data collected in the study. Finally, in the data analysis and interpretation, researchers analyzed and interpreted the data. Besides, it was created a time table for organizing the time in which the activities of the study were developed and a budge table for presenting the expenses during the research study.

3.5.1. Data Collection Procedure

Researchers set two weeks to administer the four different instruments they created for English Composition II students and teachers. The first instrument administered was an unstructured observation used by researchers in which they had to observe (items), such as the inclusion of Spanish-English transfer errors in classes, the methodology teachers used in classes, and the way teachers provide feedback, among others. The second tool was an interview with 10 open questions administered to English Composition II teachers in which researchers wanted to know the perception teachers have about Spanish-English transfer errors. The third one was a written test containing a set of cognate words in which students have to translate them from Spanish to English and to create a paragraph using all those words. The last instrument was students' journals to verify the presence of transfer errors in their pieces of writing. Additionally, researchers created two instruments (rubrics), one to revise journals and written tests and another to analyze the syllabus of English Composition II.

3.5.2. Data Processing

After the administration of the unstructured observation, researchers gathered together to process the data. They began by comparing the information gathered from the observation made by each investigator. Posteriorly, they took out the comments that were similar and different. Finally, they discussed about the results and agreed to incorporate the information that would support the research study. Similarly, researchers followed the same procedure with the

data obtained in the interviews; they concluded to add the information that would be necessary for the development of the research. Researchers took out the most significant segments containing students' errors from the written test and the revision of student's journals. They classified all the errors so that the research study produced a reliable outcome. In addition, they categorized and quantified the errors for the data processing in order to triangulate the data obtained from the research tools. After the administration of the research tools, researchers used a statistical process to analyze the information for either rejecting or validating the hypothesis.

3.5.3. Data Analysis and Interpretation

To analyze the collected data from the research instruments, investigators gave emphasis to the most outstanding results for presenting them in graphs to appreciate and to facilitate their interpretation. From the data gathered through the written test (appendix C) and students' journals (appendix D), the investigators interpreted and then presented the results in graphs. These graphs helped readers to better appreciate the outcomes. The results presented were tabulated by the use of the Office Excel 2010 Windows Program. Additionally, investigators reviewed the theory presented in the theoretical framework to associate and state the conclusion with the findings.

3.5.4. Budget

The tables below illustrated the costs of this research study. The categories of the budget were essential to achieve the research results.

a) Supplies

Supplies name	Cost per item	Number of items	Total
Pens	$ 0.25	4	$1.00
Printer ink	$28.75	1	$28.75
Folders	$0.20	10	$2.00
Fasteners	$0.10	4	$0.40
Paper	$4.59 /pkg	1 pkg	$4.59
Total			$36.74

b) Other services

Services	Cost	Total	Cost
Photocopying	$0.02/ page *1000 copies	$20.00	$0.02/ page *1000 copies
Internet	300 hours* 0.50	$150.00	300 hours* 0.50
Transportation	Varied	$100.00	varied
Food	Varied	$100.00	varied
Book Cover	$35x4	$140.00	$140
Total	$385		$510

3.5.5. Time table

Time table																																	
	Months	March				April				May					June				July				August				September				October	
	Weeks	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2
Activity	Personal in charge																															
Selection of the problem	Research team	▓																														
Approaching the field of study	Research team	▓	▓																													
Diagnostic study	Research team		▓	▓	▓																											
Defenition of the problem	Research team				▓																											
Literature review	Research team					▓	▓	▓	▓	▓	▓	▓	▓	▓																		
Operationalization of the variables	Research team													▓	▓																	
Elaboration of data collection instruments	Research team														▓																	
Validation of instruments	Research team														▓																	
Data gathering	Research team															▓	▓	▓														
Data proccesing	Research team																	▓	▓	▓	▓											

Task	Team																															
Data analisys and interpretation	Research team																				▓	▓											
Conclusion and recomendation	Research team																				▓	▓											
Teaching proposal	Research team																					▓	▓	▓	▓	▓	▓						
Final thesis report	Research team																												▓	▓	▓		
Presentation thesis work	Research team																															▓

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

To improve English Composition I students' writing performance by incorporating the teaching of transfer errors, researchers worked with the three English Composition II groups at the Western Multidisciplinary Campus to verify that English Composition II students had problems with Spanish-English transfer errors. The data analyzed and interpreted was obtained from an unstructured observation to notice the incidences of transfer errors in the classroom, an interview (open-ended questionnaire) to know the point of view of the English Composition II teachers, and a written test and journals to verify transfer errors in students' writing.

During the unstructured observation, researchers could observe the techniques used by the teachers in the classes. The topics included in this subject are types of paragraphs since students put into practice all the knowledge acquired in English Composition I. Researchers noticed that teachers asked students questions to know if students managed previous topics.

Furthermore, during the classes, researchers discovered in teachers and students' conversations that some students had grammatical errors. The types of teaching techniques that teachers used at the beginning of the class were students talking time and cooperative learning (pair work). Teachers asked students to share their writing experience and provided them feedback.

Through this type of observation, researchers could verify by themselves the inexistence of the teaching of transfer errors because the subject that students were studying was aimed to write paragraphs and essays. However, after checking students' journals and written test, researchers could notice that students presented transfer errors in their writing.

After the implementation of the unstructured observation, researchers needed to know the perspective that teachers have about transfer errors, so they administered an interview with open-ended questions to include all the necessary data for this research. Through this interview, teachers could express their opinion about transfer errors that affect students' writing performance.

4.1. Difference between transfer errors and mistakes

English Composition II teachers commented that transfer errors occur while students internalize grammatical structures of L1; students translate from L1 to L2 trying to convey expressions that do not fit in English patterns. Moreover, teachers said that mistakes are faults less formal than errors; also, they said that mistakes are conscious, but errors are more systematic because they show lack of competence. In the same way, teachers said that mistakes are produced because students are falsely assuming that any word can be used under any circumstance. Despite this, Corder (1974) reminds that errors and mistakes are different even though these two terms are often used as if they are synonyms. On the other hand, errors reflect deviations on the part of the learner from the grammatical rules of a native speaker, and reflect the incomplete 'Competence' of the learner.

Chomsky (1965) says that errors are systematic and indicative of incorrect knowledge of the target language. Mistakes, on the other hand, are un-systematic slips where a learner knows the correct grammatical system, but for some reason fails to use it properly. The incomplete competence or knowledge of the target language, Corder and Chomsky is referring to, may be due to the lack of a comparative explanation of the patterns of Spanish and English which reflect the poor study of transfer errors in both students and teachers from English Composition I and II. Unfortunately, errors are committed since students have not internalized totally all the grammatical rules of the L2, so they transfer patterns from L1 to L2. This occurs when learners are writing in L2 language using their L1 grammar. For example, a study made by Richards (1971b in Ellis 1994:58) states that "interference errors occur as a result of the use of elements from one language while speaking another." An example might be when a Spanish learner of English says "I not come" because the equivalent sentence in Spanish is "yo no vengo." This error occurs because Spanish does not need the auxiliary verb to form the negation contrary to English.

4.1.1. Transfer Error

Teachers perceived transfer errors as the influence that L1 has over L2. Students bring and translate complete patterns from Spanish into English when they write. This causes common errors in grammar structures like "*people is" which in English must be "people are" (plural

noun). The Frankfurt International School web site said that language transfer is the current term for cross-linguistic influence, the influence of the mother tongue (L1) on the production of the target language (L2). The acquired knowledge of the mother tongue makes the production of a second language complicated since students just translate from one language to the other.

Students also use grammatical transfer errors regarding parts of speech such as determiners **"*they did not give me an good grade**" equivalent to Spanish pattern **"ellos no me dieron una buena nota."** As English, there are determiners that help learners to say the quantity of things; however, both languages differ in their uses because in Spanish those determiners are used according to the gender and number of the noun, while in English determiners are used depending on the first letter of the noun as if the noun begins with a vowel (an) and consonant (a).

The incorrect use of adjectives is the following **"*my uncle prefers the girls intelligent and outgoing"** pattern in English must be as the following **"My uncle prefers the intelligent and outgoing girls"**; this is an error as most Spanish speakers do not respect the order of the adjectives in English since Spanish adjectives have free collocation. Possessive adjective like *"*Students can be aggressive if teachers try to help them with his punctuation";* in this case, the possessive adjective is modifying the noun punctuation; this possessive adjective **his** does not have an antecedent because it does not agree with the noun **students**. The order of adverbs usually can change the meaning that writers want to express as in the following case, **"only he gave me a gift"** (nobody else gave me something) to **"he only gave me a gift."** In addition, there are frequent transfer errors students commit in the writing process during the L2 learning, for example, in pluralization omission "*she was **one of** the best **teacher** I have (…)" instead of "she was **one of** the best **teachers** I have (…)." *One of* implies that this nominal group must be in the plural form.

Quantifiers are words or phrases that tell *how much* or *how many.* According to Ph. D. Texas Woman's University, the most common transfer errors occur **in articles**, "*It is important in **the** people´s lives," "* to have **a** especial attention to," "*these are **a** important characteristics," "*To b**e te**acher is a good (…)" instead of "It is important in people´s lives," "to have special attention to," "these are important characteristics," and "To be **a** teacher is a good (…)." Two different types of articles are used in writing to refer to a noun or group of

nouns, these are definite and indefinite articles. In Spanish, the indefinite article (un, uno, una) is not used before nouns describing profession, occupation or social status. The articles "the" and "a" need to have gender and number (singular or plural), and must agree correctly with the noun of the sentence. The articles 'a' and 'an' have the same connotation; the difference depends on the sound at the beginning of the next word.

In English, *-ing* adjectives are used to describe an effect, and *-ed* adjectives are used to describe what a person feels, for example, "* it was not an **interested** movie" instead of "it was not an interesting movie." Moreover, in English, adjectives are not pluralized as in the following case "*The African animals are beautifuls" instead of "The African animals are beautiful." Adjectives in English do not change (agree) with the noun that they modify. In English, the negation form is made by writing the auxiliary verb + not which it is not the case in Spanish, for example, the literal Spanish translation for **"*no tengo una mascota**" to "***I have not a pet**" instead of "**I do not have a pet.**"

Moreover, students commit errors in verb tenses, such as "***A teacher have** to show, he or she **catch**, he or she **get**, he **want** to become, **this** attitudes **are**" and so forth instead of "A teacher **has** to show, he or she **catches**, he or she **gets,** he **wants** to become, and **these** attitudes **are.**" Both languages (Spanish and English) have inflectional suffixes indicating gender, number, tense, and others, but each language has its own form of indicating irregularity. Such irregularity can be only shown by means of conjugation.

In both languages, regular verbs are the ones in which the root of the verb does not change and irregular verbs are the ones in which the root changes. In English, the third person singular has an inflection. The errors presented are ungrammatical because students omitted the inflectional affix of the verb in third person. Regarding **prepositions**, researchers have found that students tend to commit errors when using prepositions, for example, a student wrote "*(…); students have to wake up early to be on time in class because they live **for away**" intended for "(…); students have to wake up early to be on time in class because they live **far away**". Such error occurs due to similarities in pronunciation; for instance, the sound /ɑ/ in the adverb *far* and the sound /ɔ/ in the preposition *for* sound alike causing such errors, among other problems mentioned before.

4.1.2. The most common Spanish-English transfer errors committed by students

The most common errors that students commit are related to false cognates or false friends, such as "asistir" whose literal Spanish translation is "assist," but in English, it has to be "attend;" word choice, such as "*In your writing, writers must have a partial point of view without sending aggressive messages in their **writtens**" is intended for "In your writing, writers must have a partial point of view without sending aggressive messages in their **writing.**" Such sentence is considered ungrammatical as "written" is the past participle of write, not a noun, and can act as modifier or adjective.

Furthermore, prepositional phrases always take as an object a noun (the head word) and its modifiers. Additionally, adjectives in English are not pluralized. Thus, such expression should follow the pattern Prep + NP. Subject-verb agreement such as **"*she have," "*they lives"** as in English third person singular presents inflection in the verb which does not occur in Spanish. Also, word order is frequently wrong in question formation as in the case **"Have seen they the lake?"** equivalent to Spanish pattern "**¿Han visto ellos el lago?"** which is wrong as it does not follow the correct English structure for questions [S[VP [Aux Have]] [NP[N(Subject) they]] [VP [V studied] [N(Object) language]], adjectives as in the case **"*the boy handsome of the school is my neighborhood",** which must be in English **"the handsome boy of the school is my neighborhood"** as in English adjectives go before the noun they modify. Pluralization of adjectives like "**the beautifuls houses"** equivalent to Spanish pattern "**las casas hermosas"** is wrong as in English adjectives cannot be pluralized. In addition, researchers could note those errors and the occurrence of others in students' writing.

4.1.3. Inclusion of Spanish-English transfer errors in English Composition I lesson plans

Teachers agreed that English Composition I lessons do not include the teaching of Spanish-English transfer errors as one of them assumed that the topic is studied in previous subjects, such as English grammar. The lack involvement of transfer errors as part of teaching topics in the subject makes English composition teachers have a poor perception about the nature of transfer errors such as grammatical, phonological, and morphological aspects rather than translation itself. Researchers accessed to the English Composition I syllabus, and they observed that transfer errors were not part of the syllabus' contents; however, they are immersed in the

composition topics included in the syllabus since those errors, according to this study, result in composition problems like faulty parallelism, subject-verb-agreement, shift in person or tense, and word choice.

4.1.4. The exclusion of Spanish-English transfer errors in students' writing

One of the English Composition II teachers stated that the exclusion of Spanish-English transfer errors affects students drastically because they are producing the same errors over the years, which is time consuming. Moreover, teachers said that the incorporation of transfer errors in the syllabus of English Composition I will make students aware of the errors they make due to the influence that L1 has into L2. The presence of transfer errors affects the academic and professional writing of the students. In fact, English composition students need to manage not only general composition errors but also specific transfer errors before getting deeply into the composition of paragraphs and essays. In other words, the integration of the teaching of transfer errors in the lesson planning of English Composition I is necessary for students to produce more accurate pieces of writing.

4.1.5. The approaches, techniques and methods in English Composition II

English Composition teachers expressed that they use a combination of different approaches and methods in their classes. In general, they mentioned that they use the eclectic approach as it allows them to include a combination of different approaches and methods. They implement the collaborative and cooperative learning so that students can help each other, the communicative approach since they are dealing with students' production of the language, and the natural approach in which the native language should not be used in the classroom, and it also concerns the acquisition of lexicon so that students are able to communicate.

 4.1.5.1. The most effective approaches and methods

Teachers expressed that some activities implemented in class are not the most effective since all the students have a different way of learning, but they have observed that most students improved at the end of the subject. A teacher said that self-assessment makes students aware of their own errors which help them to improve their writing performance. The effectiveness of a method will depend on students' motivation which is divided in two,

integrative in which learners learn the language because they want to know about its culture and instrumental in which learners learn the language in order to achieve goals. Students' attitudes toward the class will determine the level of their attention; also, students' personality influences the level of participation in class. For example, extroverted students do not like to study by themselves, and they get distracted easily, which is a problem as they do not pay attention causing to not comprehend subject matters, and introverted students do not participate actively in class which is a challenge for teachers to get them involved in the class. Moreover, for those types of students the learning process is not affected, but they do not develop a good conversational environment.

The learning need is equated to the route of learning. This concerns things such as how learners learn the language, why they learn it, and what resources are available to help them learn. Altman (1980) explains types of learner needs based on individual differences within the framework of learner-centered language teaching. According to Altman (1980), learners should be placed properly based on their age, level of language proficiency, maturity, time available. This requires the institution to make flexible educational arrangements to allow all learners to access to learning that is appropriate to the types of needs they have. In this way, the content and mode of learning will be influenced by the options available that students have at their disposal. The types of modifications of learning resources are made accordingly to meet the kinds of individual differences with regard to time, goals, mode, or expectations of learning.

4.1.5.2 Advantages and Disadvantages

Teachers recognized that most techniques and methods have disadvantages; for example, students rely on their classmates; they do not think by themselves, and they take too much time to carry out the activities. Furthermore, not all the techniques implemented in the class may improve students' performance because students have different ways of learning; in other words, it seems difficult to change the learning style of each student in the classroom. So, teachers might vary their teaching style to be more in line with their students learning style. As the International Journal of Language and Linguistics (2014) states that involving learners in the active process of learning requires identifying and understanding learners' learning styles and teachers teaching styles. Some of the learning styles that could help students in their learning process are the cognitive style, personality learning style, and sensory learning style. Teachers

have to take into account these types of learning styles to carry an equitable learning between students.

Cognitive styles are individuals' natural way (s) of absorbing, processing and retaining new information and skills" (Reid, 1995: viii). Cognitive encompasses analytical/ global, field-dependent/field independent, impulsive/ reflective learning styles, Kolb's model of learning styles and Ehrman and Leavers' construct. On the other hand, **personality learning styles** include extroverted/introverted, random-intuitive/concrete sequential, and closure-oriented/ open oriented, and **Sensory learning styles** are divided into three sub-types: visual, tactile/kinesthetic and auditory (Dornyei, 2005; Oxford, 2001). Some activities implemented by teachers are very enjoyable for students, but they do not internalize what it is taught because language is more dependent on practicing right things. The grammar rules can be learned through materials and classes, but the essential tools (vocabulary and idiomatic usage) will come from independent study and practice said Tim Ferriss (*2008*).

On the other hand, methods help students to be more disciplined when they write. All methods and approaches have advantages and disadvantages because not all the students face the same difficulties. Some of their advantages may be to have an active engagement of students in the learning process, an improvement in any skill, an active participation of students, and so forth. Also, some disadvantages may be the distraction, the difficulty of activities, and the dependence on teachers or classmates, among others.

4.1.6. Alternatives to teach Spanish-English transfer errors

Some of the best ways that teachers suggested to teach Spanish-English transfer errors are the following: to present the topic with videos showing native speakers so that students can recognize the correct structures of the language, the right word choice, and so on. Additionally, it could help to present students the similarities and differences of both languages.

The teaching of Spanish-English transfer errors is crucial because it may help teachers to avoid correcting the same mistakes over and over, and it will help students to distinguish the grammatical, phonological, and morphological rules of both languages.

The following graphs contain the highest incidences in transfer errors found in the journals and the written tools administered to English Composition II students. The graphs below do not include all the grammar errors that researchers included and checked in their work.

Graph 1. Analysis of the data obtained from Journals in English Composition II, Group I

Grammar

- Singular/plural Verb misuse; 36%
- Faulty Parallelism; 21%
- Pronoun Misuse; 43%
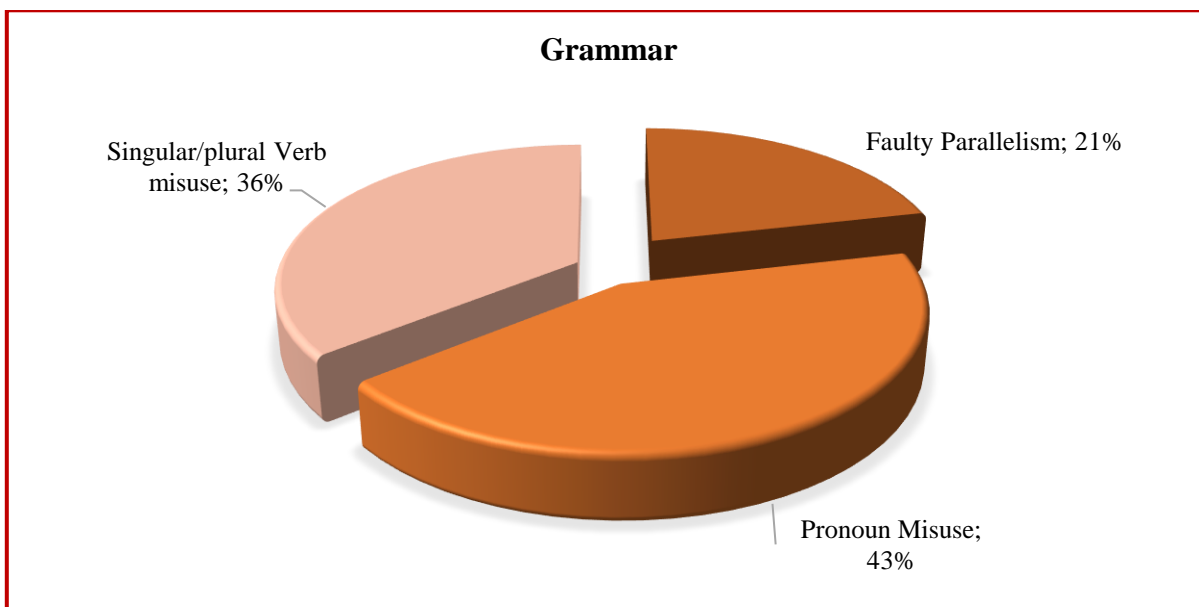
Source: English Composition II students Journals Records-May 15, 2019

One of the examples of possessive adjectives frequently found in the journals follows the pattern *"*Students can be aggressive if teachers try to help them with **his** punctuation";* in this case, the possessive adjective is modifying the noun punctuation; this possessive adjective **his** does not have an antecedent because it does not agree with the noun **students,** causing an error since the possessive adjective needs to agree with the noun it modifies. In English, the possessive adjectives his, her, and their tell whether something belongs to a male, a female, or plural noun. However, in Spanish, the possessive adjective **su** has different meanings (her, his, its, their).

Furthermore, singular/plural verb misuse was the second derivation of grammar with more occurrence, such as "*All those things that **teacher say, He look** suspicious**";** in English, the third person singular (she, he, it) presents an inflection in the simple present -s, -es, etc. The examples show that students committed errors by the omitting –s or –es inflection from the third person singular verb in their attempt to make the verb agree with the singular subject (he, she,

it). In English, in the present tense, a verb changes its form only when its subject is third person singular, whereas in Spanish, there are different inflections for verbs.

Faulty parallelism presented the less incidence; for example, "*Good students have the characteristics **of attention and being responsable".** These prepositional phrases lack parallelism as they do not follow the same structure. In this case, the verb that is close to the preposition becomes –ing form which is describing something about someone. The writer intended to write a series of adjectives; however, he or she produced an unparalleled construction, moving from the noun **attention** to a prepositional phrase whose equivalent is being **attentive.**

Graph 2. Analysis of the data obtained from Journals in English Composition II, Group I

Spelling

Spelling misuse; 33%

Spelling Omission; 67%
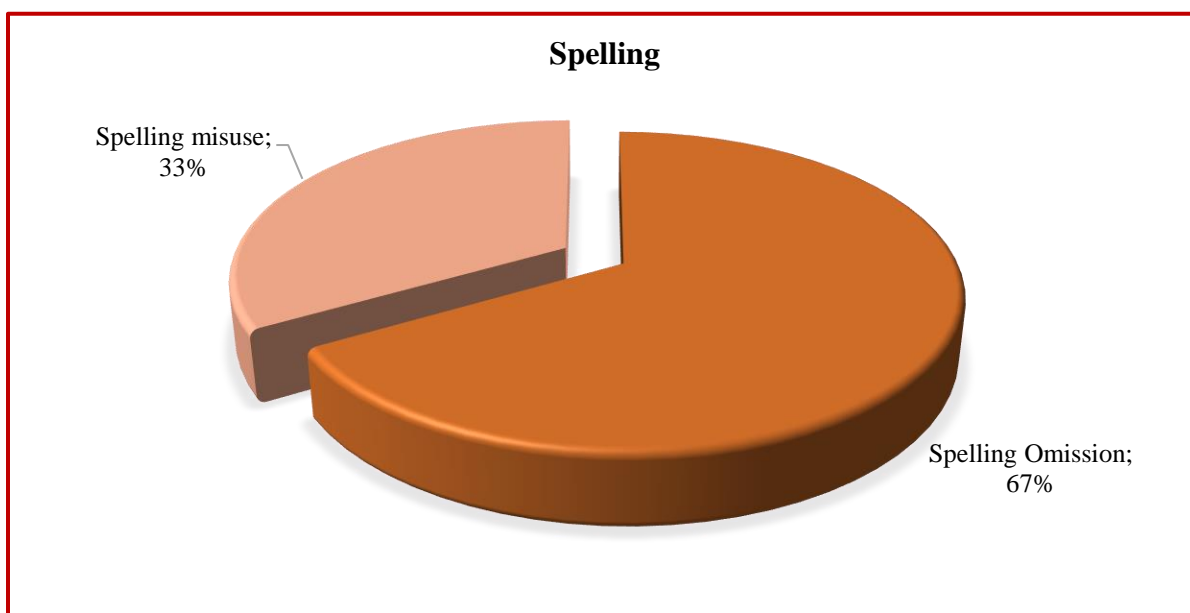
Source: English Composition II students Journals transfer errors Records-March 15, 2019

A strong correlation was found between articulation of English words and the ways in which these words were spelled by students. Some of the most frequent spelling omissions found in students' writing are, for example, "*profes_ion, dif_erence, dif_iculties, aggre_sion, recco_lect, as_ociate, ap_ly, ad_itional,"; Such errors may happen as in English, there exist doubled consonants such as ss, pp, tt, cc, mm, ch, sh, th, ph, ff that have a single consonant value, a designated phoneme for two consonants, whereas in Spanish the spellings of ch, ll, and rr are considered diagraphs representing a single sound. The cross-language correspondence of

"c" may change to the English spelling of "c" or "ch," for example, **culture** and **chemistry** which have the same phonology correspondence /k/. Additionally, both languages have the same spelling "ll" as in the words **lluvia** and **allusion**, yet such spelling in both languages differ from /ʎ/ + vowel sound to /l/. Besides, both languages share the spelling of "rr" as in the word **correlación** and **correlation** though their phonology correspondence differ from /rr/ to the English allophone [ɾ]. For this reason, L2 students tend to omit the doubled letter in the above mentioned words.

Additionally, spelling misuse was the second most frequent error in the journals produced by students. These errors were "***responsable, tame**"; with the word responsible, students follow a similar pattern of their language. This is caused due to the pronunciation of the word /rɪˈspɒn.sə.bᵊl/ instead of /rɪˈspɒn.si.bᵊl/. In the same way, *tame whose English pattern is **time** may be produced as a result of the comparison /aɪ/ and /eɪ/ as both of them are diphthongs and have the same environment CVC→ ¢.

Graph3. Analysis of the data obtained from Journals in English Composition II group I
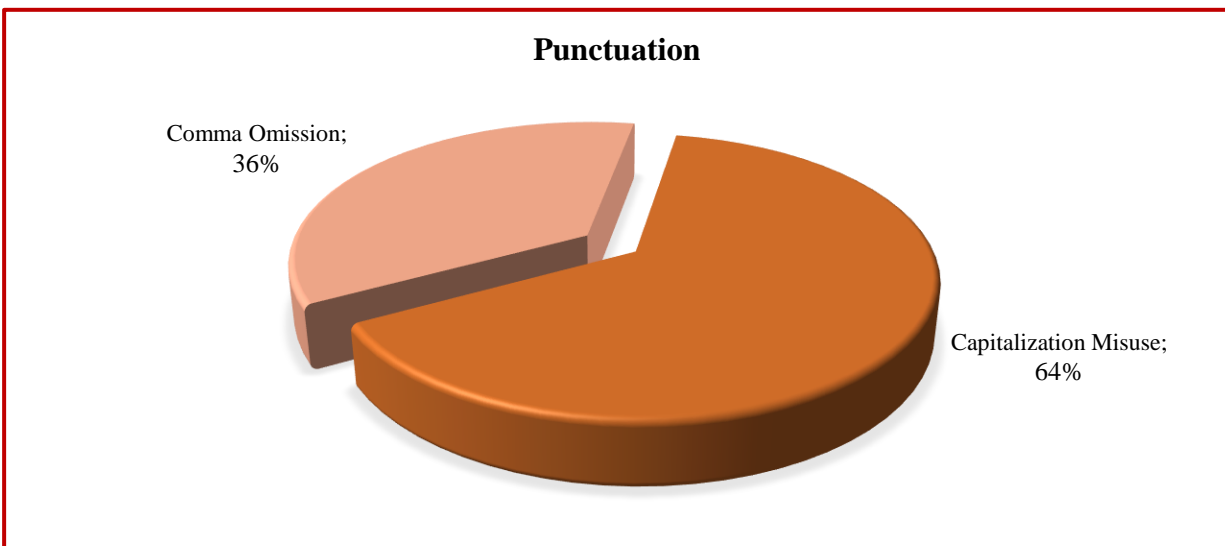
Source: English Composition II students Journals transfer errors Records-March 15, 2019

The graph shows the highest incidence of capitalization misuse; for example, "*(…) between them**. other** student saw them." The capitalization of sentences happens in the first word, and if it follows a period, the first letter of the first word is capitalized; this rule happens in both languages. However, students forget such capitalization, and they generally capitalize words that follow commas or connectors. Another frequent error is comma omission as in the

sentence "*If you want to be a teache**r y**ou need some qualities"; the punctuation rule states that when the subordinate clause precedes the main clause, the comma is used as in the pattern [S[SubCl[SubConj][NP][VP]][,][IndCl[NP][VP]]]. However, if the main clause precedes the subordinate clause the comma is omitted as in the following pattern [S[NP[VP[Ø]][Subj C[Sub conj[NP[VP]]]]. Although this last rule can be omitted depending on the intention writers want to transmit to the lector, the comma can precede the adverb clause if there is no connection with the rest of the sentence.

Graph 4. Analysis of the data obtained from the Written Test in English Composition II, Group I

Source: English Composition II students written test Transfer Errors Records-March 25, 2019

Word choice shows to have more incidence in L2 learners' writing. This is a severe problem for L2 learners as they need to know which the most suitable word is for certain contexts. For instance, researchers found errors in which meaning differs; they are the following: "* Also, if that student is **arming** to become a teacher, she/he must demonstrate a good level of enthusiasm without an exaggeration level that can become an aggression for her/his students;" "* Findings have **collected** information on the pros and cons of this freedom" and so on. The words in bold in the above examples give a completely different meaning, sometimes, resulting illogical. To exemplify, in the first example, the meaning is that the student is getting weapons in order to become a teacher; here, the verb "arm" means to provide a weapon to somebody. Therefore, this construction is illogical since in such context, a [+HUMAN] identity needs to

perform the action; in other words, the verb "arm" is already set for human beings as identity. Furthermore, some L2 learners tend to produce these errors with false cognates like in the first example in which "arming" is intended for "planning." In the second example, it is impossible to convey that "Findings" which is a [+ABSTRACT] and [-HUMAN] noun is the performer of the action; in other words, it cannot perform the action of collecting information. In summary, this is a clear reflection of the incomplete management of the L2 lexicon which sometimes leads to serious semantic problems.

Graph 5. Analysis of the data obtained from the Written Test in English Composition II, Group I
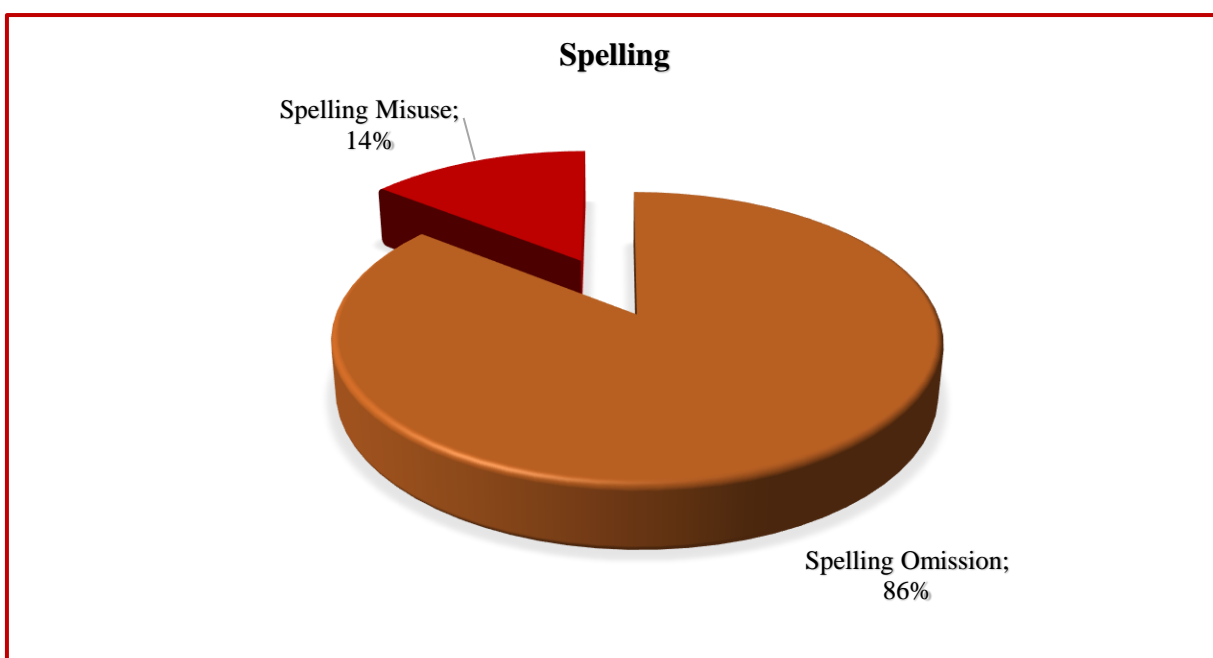
Spelling

Spelling Misuse; 14%

Spelling Omission; 86%

Source: English Composition II students written test Transfer Errors Records-March 25, 2019

With respect to negation misuse, the error found in this research instrument was "* I hate my **not** responsible teacher." "Not" is confused by the L2 learner as part of the auxiliary signaling negation. In the above example, the writer intended to negate the adjective "responsible." In English, to make an adjective negative, some rules are followed; for example, in this case, the rule is that adjectives beginning with **r** carry the negative affix "ir". As well as Spanish, English has certain affixes for forming the negation in adjectives. In summary, this error in negation shows to be due to the partial acquisition of L2.

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The error having more occurrences is spelling omission. Some of the most common errors found regarding this area are "*a_gression, exa_gerate, pos_ible, ag_ressive, ac_used, recol_ect, a_plicate, ef_icient, ac_use, as_ociation, ab_reviation, profes_ional, stru_gling." Such errors may happen as in English, there exist doubled consonants such as ss, pp, tt, cc, mm, ch, sh, th, ph, ff that have a single consonant value, a designated phoneme for two consonants, whereas in Spanish the spellings of ch, ll, and rr are considered diagraphs representing a single sound. The cross-language correspondence of "c" may change to the English spelling of "c" or "ch," for example, **acoustic** and **stomach** which have the same phonology correspondence /k/. Additionally, both languages have the same spelling "ll" as in the words **llano** and **yellow**, yet such spelling in both languages differ from /ʎ/ + vowel sound to /l/. Besides, both languages share the spelling of "rr" as in the word **ferroelectrica** and **ferroelectric** though their phonology correspondence differ from /rr/ to the English allophone [ɾ]. For this reason, L2 students tend to omit the doubled letter in the above mentioned words.

Spelling misuse is another frequent error found in the research tool. Some of the errors most frequently found are the words "*responsable, foreing, cantribute, and efitient," in which the Spanish spelling pattern is carried into English. For example, the spelling "a" has been written instead of the English pattern "i" in the word **responsible** and "o" in the word **contribute**. This occurs as in the word responsible, the English phonemic representation of "i" is /ə/ which, for Spanish speakers, sounds like /ɑ/. Also, this change of phonemes happens in "*cantribute" in which Spanish speakers associate the spelling of "a" to the phoneme /ə/ since such sound is perceived as /ɑ/. The same happens with "*efitient"; generally, the Spanish spelling pattern of "c" /k/ changes to the English spelling and phonetic pattern "t"/ʃ/, but in this case, the spelling "c" is maintained. These errors happen because of the similar acoustic sounds that Spanish speakers perceive

Graph 6. Analysis of the data obtained from the Written Test in English Composition II, GroupI
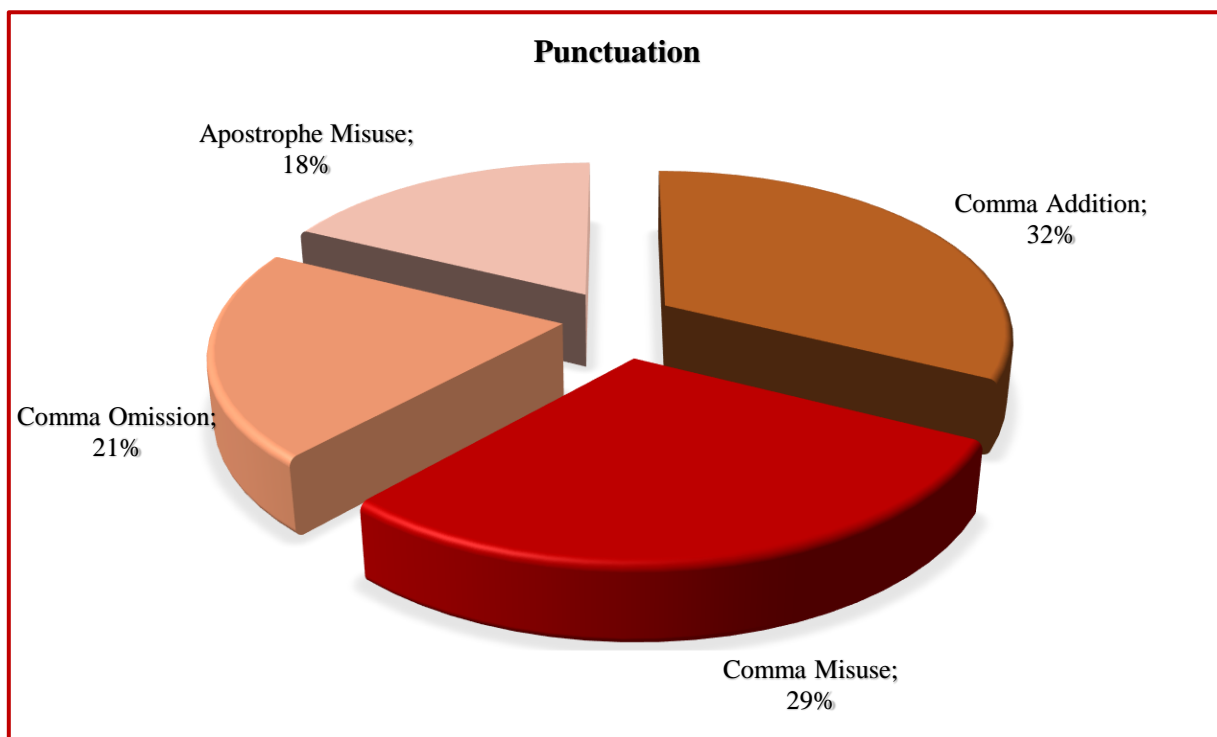
Punctuation

Apostrophe Misuse; 18%

Comma Addition; 32%

Comma Omission; 21%

Comma Misuse; 29%

Source: English Composition II students written test Transfer Errors Records-March 25, 2019

Comma addition is the transfer error that has more incidences. Some of the most frequent errors are "***They pay attention when a student failed the test, or** when they do not develop efficiently in class;" "***Marie always recollects information about society problems, especially aggression against women, and** accuses these issues." Such phenomenon may happen when adding a comma between the subject and its verb, phrases introducing a series of elements, and so on. Moreover, Spanish is not that restrictive with comma usage, contrary to English. For this reason, such errors reflect L2 students' incomplete internalization of comma usage in English.

In the same way, comma misuse has almost equal incidence. Errors such as "***Sometimes, students' behavior can tell teachers if students have a problem that is making students flank, for** example, there are especial cases in which students suffer aggression in their home;" "*** they say I can be a teacher, though** I do not like teaching; it is not my profession." This happens as in Spanish, independent clauses can be joined by commas, whereas, in English independent clauses must be joined by semicolons. For the Spanish writer, the use of comma is not that restrictive and used for signaling a brief pause in any part of the sentence. Also, this

indicates that L1 patterns in punctuation are transferred into L2 producing this error in comma usage.

Comma omission has a significant percentage. Some of the errors discovered in this instrument are "*for **example_** he/she must be opened to possible suggestion, avoid romantic attraction to a student, and any other possible action that can avoid troubles;" "*__Partially__ I believe I have the potential; it is possible, (...)." Regarding this, L2 students tend to omit the comma after an introductory phrase followed by a series of elements or adverbs of manner modifying the whole sentence when placed at the beginning of the sentence.

In apostrophe misuse, there is certain occurrence that affects students' improvement in writing. The frequent errors found in this aspect are the following: "*A good teacher should pay attention on **student's behavior";** "*the process of learning is not only about teaching numbers' associations, **word's abbreviation**, punctuation, Science or History." Apostrophe should be used after the pluralization of the noun (the owner) by adding **'s** when it refers to a general item. In conclusion, these problems reflect the poor management of the possessive case.

Students' Transfer Errors in Journals from English Composition II, Group II

The revision of the journals by researchers supports them to demonstrate the occurrence of Spanish-English transfer errors in English Composition II students' pieces of writing. Chomsky's language acquisition theory talks about how learners' imitation of what they hear in L1 develops habits in L2. Also, Beardsmore (1982) explains that many of the difficulties foreign language learners have with the lexicon and grammar of the target language are caused by the transfer of linguistic habits from the native language, which leads to errors and mistakes. This phenomenon was studied also with the journals written by English composition II students. In this research instrument, researchers realized the effects Spanish-English transfer errors have on English Composition II students' writing, and the most frequent Spanish-English transfer errors English Composition II students commit when writing.

Cummins (1981), with his famous "Iceberg Theory," states that the role of first language is essential for the acquisition of the second one, because through L1 learning, L2 becomes easier.

Graph 7. Analysis of the data obtained in Journals from English Composition II, Group II

Grammar

Source: English Composition II students' Journals Records-March 19, 2019

In this case, the most significant transfer error presented by students was in grammar aspects. The highest incidence of this grammar errors are preposition misuse and pluralization omission.

Preposition Misuse, for example, "*(…) do not go **at** the gym," instead of "**(…)** do not go **to** the gym.**"** Prepositions are function words that indicate how a noun or phrase relates to the rest of the sentence. ***At*** expresses location or arrival in a particular place or position *'they live at Paris Hotel'* and expresses the time when an event takes place *'the kids go to bed at seven o'clock.'* ***To*** expresses motion in the direction of (a particular location) *'we're going to the mall'* and expresses location, typically in relation to a specified point of reference "*five kilometers to the north of the site."*

Pluralization Omission, for example, "*I enjoy watching those kinds of **movie,"** instead of "I enjoy watching those kinds of **movies,"** "*(…) certain **way,"** instead of "(…) certain **ways,**" and "*(…) was **one of the best teacher** I had," instead of "(…) was one of the best **teachers** I had." ***One of*** implies that this nominal group must be in the plural form; quantifiers are words or phrases that tell *how much* or *how many.* Among the types of words and phrases that can be quantifiers are numbers, adjectives (all, several), prepositions (among, between), pronouns (these, those), and **nouns** with prepositional phrases (plenty of, a lot of, **one of**). When used with a countable noun, the noun form must match the plural quantifier.

Graph 8. Analysis of the data obtained in Journals from English Composition II, Group II

Spelling and Punctuation

Source: English Composition II students' Journals Records-March 19, 2019

Transferring the L1 patterns into L2 may lead to a problem not only in grammar but also in spelling. As for learning any language, the first thing the brain internalizes is the acoustic sounds of any new-learned word, which are automatically compared with the sound system of first acquired language.

One of the spelling errors with high incidence in students' journals is **spelling misuse**, for example, "*Abou**l**, *Insecur**s**, * par**c**ial" instead of **"**abou**t**, insecur**e** and par**t**ial.**"** When learners begin to see the similarities that both languages involve, they fall into a sequence of serious transfer errors as they think in their L1 before using the L2 by comparing **cognate spelling patterns.**

Also, students show **<u>punctuation</u>** problems in **comma omission**, for example, "*(…) to travel by **car by** buses or by motorcycles" instead of "(…) to travel by **car, by** buses or by motorcycles." "***<u>Also</u>** people decide to (…)" instead of "**<u>Also, people</u>** decide to (…)." Conjunctive adverbs are frequently used as initial terms; in this case, these words should be followed by a comma for clarity: ***Consequently, all*** *of the test people were re-examined*.

This information allowed researchers to realize that the problem exits even when students have enough time to think and write, and they continue having transfer errors in their writing. As mentioned in this research study, when people are learning L2, they need to convey ideas from one mind to another; the acquisition of language remains one of the most fascinating

aspects of human development, and when writing, people also interchange ideas to communicate one another.

Transfer errors produced in the written test from English Composition II students, Group II

"Word choice, lack of parallelism, subject-verb agreement are common errors committed by L2 students," said a teacher of English Composition II. An error is a fault that students can commit in writing because of the influence of L1. Chomsky said that L1 plays an important role in L2 as it already sets the structures, grammar, and vocabulary that change in another language; people have to learn with the same steps to be able to speak a second language.

English composition takes into account the knowledge related with spelling, grammar, and punctuation. That it is why, the information obtained from the written test reveals important evidence about the transfer errors that English composition students present when writing.

To analyze the incidence of errors, researchers present a division of the most common errors, being these in spelling: spelling misuse and spelling omission; in grammar: article addition, article omission, singular/plural verb misuse and pluralization omission; and in punctuation: capitalization misuse, capitalization omission and comma omission.

Graph 9. Analysis of the data obtained from the written test in English Composition II, Group II
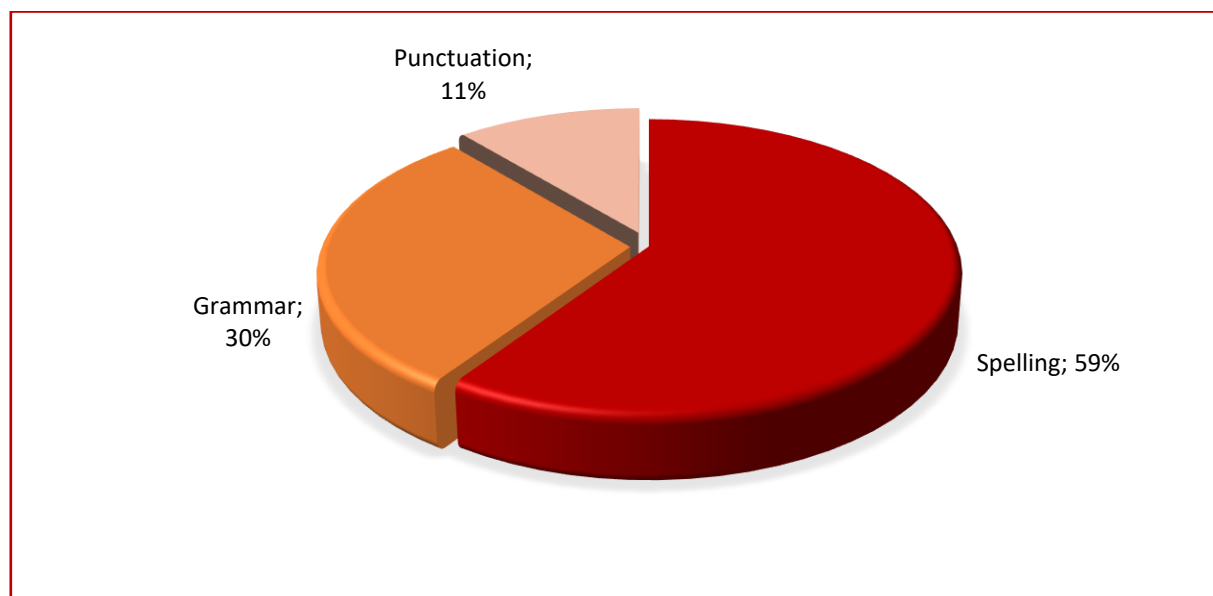
Source: English Composition II students written test Transfer Errors Records-March 25, 2019

The most significant Transfer error presented by students in this instrument was spelling with 123 spelling errors. To have a better idea on specific errors in students' writing, transfer errors are presented with their derivations.

Graph 10. Analysis of the data obtained from the written test in English Composition II, Group II

Grammar

- Pluralization Omission; 22%
- Article Addition; 22%
- Singular/ Plural Verb Misuse; 24%
- Article Omission; 32%
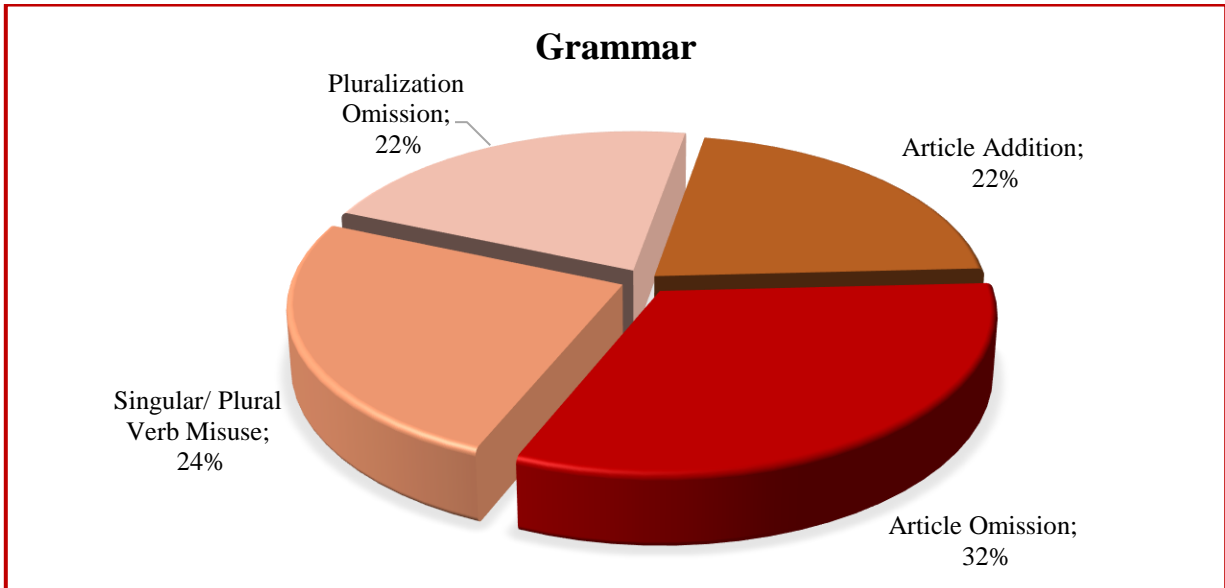
Source: English Composition II students written test Records-March 25, 2019

The graph shows the four most significant errors in grammar. **Article Omission**, for example, "*to **be teacher** is (…)" instead of "to be **a** teacher is (...)" In English, single countable nouns usually require a determiner *a, an, or the* when the determiner describes profession and occupation. While in Spanish, the indefinite article *un, uno, una* is not used when they describe profession, occupation or social status.

Also, another important aspect in the English language is the **inflection of the verb in the third person singular**, but students tend to omit the inflection of the verb, for example, "*He/she **catch,**" "*he/she **get,**" "***(…)** a student always **try** to pay attention," instead of "He/She **catches**," "he /she **gets,**" "(…) a student always **tries** to pay attention." Both languages (Spanish and English) have inflectional suffixes indicating gender, number, tense, and so forth, but each language has its own form of indicating irregularity. Such irregularity can be only shown by means of conjugation. Students presented ungrammaticality because they omit the inflection affix of the verb in third person singular.

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Graph 11. Analysis of the data obtained from the written test in English Composition II, Group II
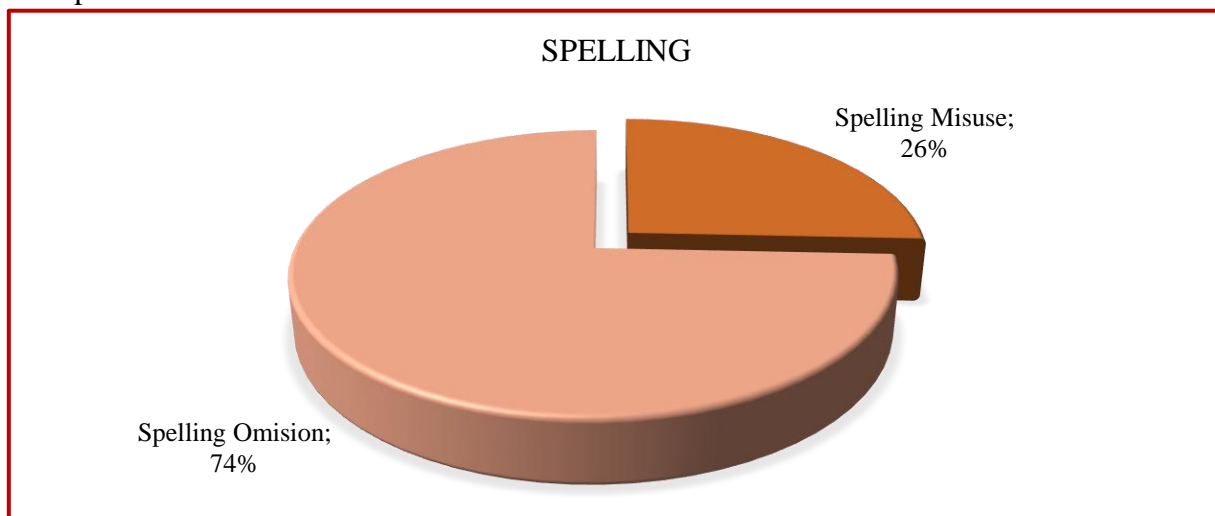
Source: English Composition II students written test Records-March 25, 2019

Errors such as sound-to-spelling and spelling-to-sound are likely to occur on second language learners. For instance, sound-to-spelling may occur when transferring L1 pronunciation patterns to the spelling of L2 words, and Spelling-to-Sound occurs when transferring the L1 spelling patterns to adapt them to the sound patterns of L2.

The graph shows the three most significant errors in Spelling, being the most predominant one **Spelling omission**, for example, "*exageration," "*aplicate," "*atraction," "*diferent," in place of "exageration," "*applicate," "*attraction," "*different." Such errors may happen as in English, there exist doubled consonants such as ss, pp, tt, cc, mm, ch, sh, th, ph, ff that have a single consonant value, a designated phoneme for two consonants, whereas in Spanish the spellings of ch, ll, and rr are considered diagraphs representing a single sound. The cross-language correspondence of "c" may change to the English spelling of "c" or "ch," for example, **culture** and **chemistry** which have the same phonology correspondence /k/. Additionally, both languages have the same spelling "ll" as in the words **lluvia** and **allusion**, yet such spelling in both languages differ from /ʎ/ + vowel sound to /l/. Besides, both languages share the spelling of "rr" as in the word **correlación** and **correlation** though their phonology correspondence differ from /rr/ to the English allophone [ɾ]. For this reason, L2 students tend to omit the doubled letter in the above mentioned words.

Also, **spelling misuse** has a big incidence of errors like "*deci**ti**ons" and "***ce**lect" instead of "deci**s**ions" and "**s**elect." There is a possible comparison of L1 pattern in L2 that students perform when writing. When learners begin to see the similarities that both languages involve, they fall into a sequence of serious transfer errors as they think in their L1 before using the L2 by comparing cognates spelling patterns.

Graph 12. Analysis of Transfer Errors in the written test from English Composition II, Group II

Punctuation

Comma Omission;35%

Capitalization Misuse ; 30%

Capitalizaion Omission; 35%
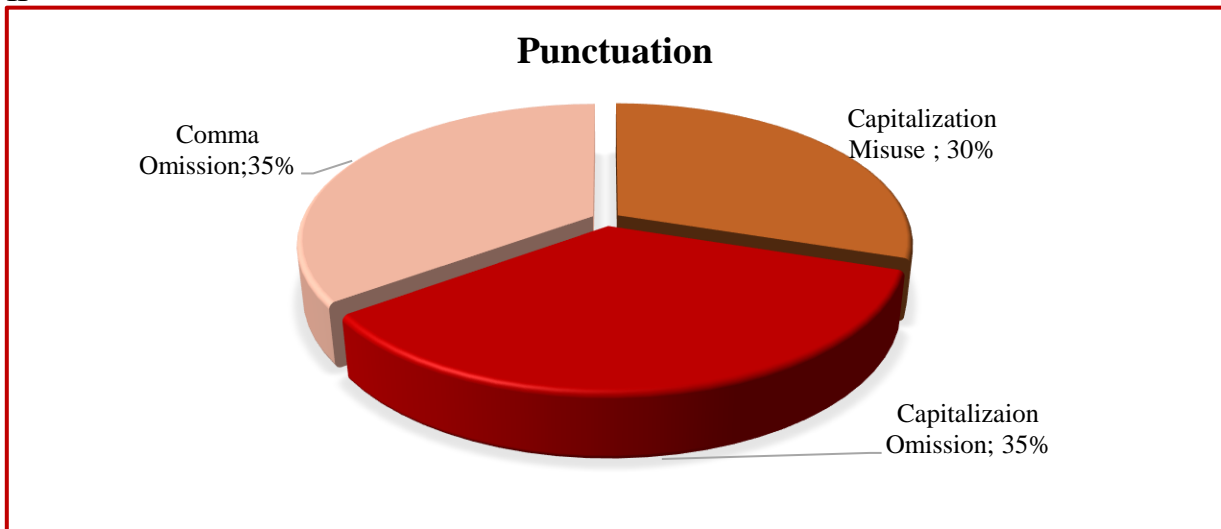
Source: English Composition II students' written test Records-March 25, 2019

The graph above shows the three highest incidences of punctuation errors; through this, researchers noticed relevant examples in comma omission, capitalization omission and capitalization misuse; for example, "*Having…is **normal but** people (…)" instead of "Having fun is **normal, but** people (…)," commas precede coordinating conjunctions when there are two main clauses, or a list of items. **Capitalization misuse** like "*(…) book**, It** helps us to (…)" in place of "(…) **book, it** helps us to (…)." The capitalization of letters occurs only at the beginning of first words in a sentence, in proper nouns or after a period; "*(…) content**, S**tep by **S**tep" instead of "(…) content, **s**tep by **s**tep." After commas, the capitalization is not required just if it is a proper noun; also, students have problems with **Capitalization Omission** as "*(…) they lov**e. when** a person gets (…)" in place of "(…) they love. **W**hen a person gets (..)," in this case the capitalization of the word is required as it follows a period.

This information allowed researchers to realize that the incidence of these errors are the main cause of poor writing of English Composition II students. Therefore, the result and

analysis of the first variable (**Spanish-English transfer errors in English written production**) shows that students really present problems when writing.

Graph 13. Analysis of the data obtained from Journal in English Composition II, Group III
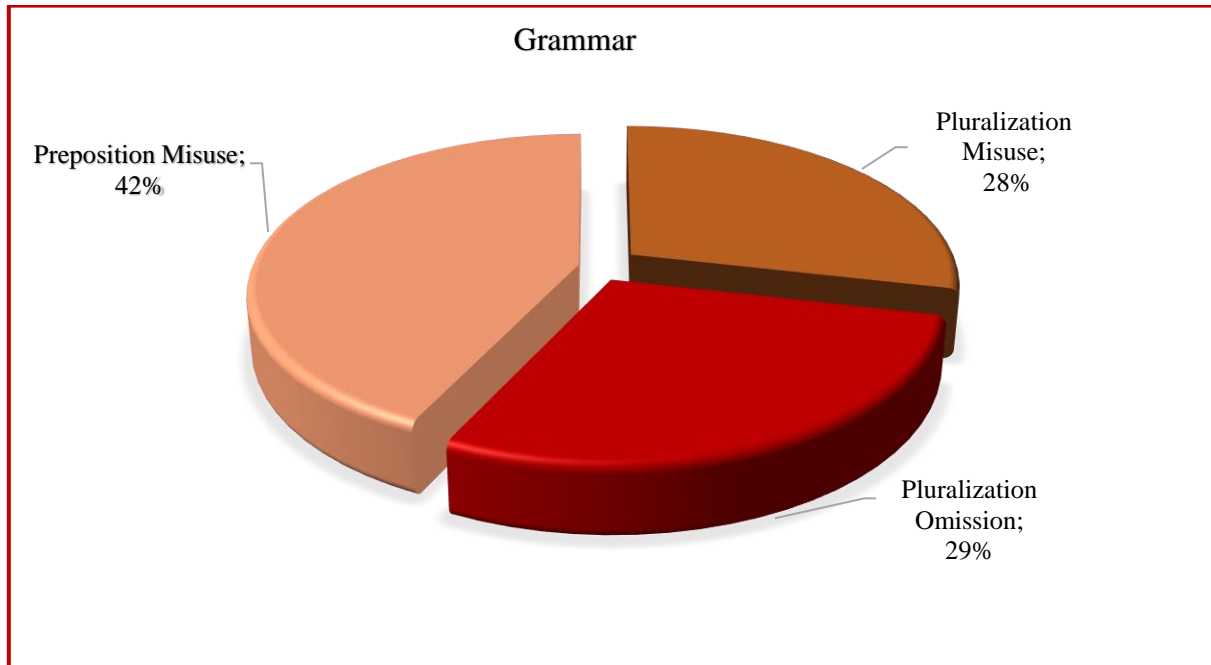
Source: English Composition II students' Journals Records-March 19, 2019

The transfer error with most incidence, regarding grammar, is preposition misuse. Preposition choice has a special purpose or usage depending on the writer's intention. Some of the examples frequently discovered in the paragraph compilation are "*students have to wake up early to be on time **on** class," "*students **in** the university have many problems." The preposition "on" indicates in contact with the surface, whereas "in" indicates containment. There are some other prepositions which have more than one designated meaning as in the case of "at" which can serve for location and time. Consequently, choosing the appropriate preposition is a problem for L2 learners since an inadequate choice can change the intended meaning. In the above examples, the meaning changes due to the designated meanings each preposition has. For this reason, it is a problem for L2 learners to know what preposition is the most appropriate for what they want to convey. For example, it is not the same to say "* He is **in** the Western Multidisciplinary Campus" than "He is at the Western Multidisciplinary Campus." The first one only conveys that the person is in such place not knowing the specific

place where he is, whereas the second one indicates that the person is in a specific point of the campus (specific indoor site), but his location is still unknown.

Pluralization omission and pluralization misuse are equal in occurrence. Generally, in pluralization omission, L2 learners are more likely not to pluralize the subject when talking about a general subject. For example, some of the most frequent errors found in this research instrument are "**student**_ face problems that increase their stress and fatigue," "*they have to deal with their problems if they want be good **professional_,**" and so on. Taking into account the written context in the sentence, it can be deduced the writer's intention. Thus, in the above examples, it could be assured that the writer intended to talk about a general subject as there is agreement with the third person plural verb and possessive adjective "their." Subsequently, through context, it can be asserted the lack of pluralization in the nouns in bold.

Regarding pluralization misuse, errors mostly occur in uncountable nouns. Some of the most common errors found in these tools are "*on **papers** or walls," "* children's **educations.**" Paper needs a unit to be counted; for such reason, it is added **"pieces of."** Education is an abstract noun which cannot be counted as well. As a result, L2 learners have to memorize those words making difficult the acquisition of L2 patterns.

Graph 14. Analysis of the data obtained from Journals in English Composition II, Group III

Spelling

Spelling Misuse; 50%

Spelling Omission; 50%
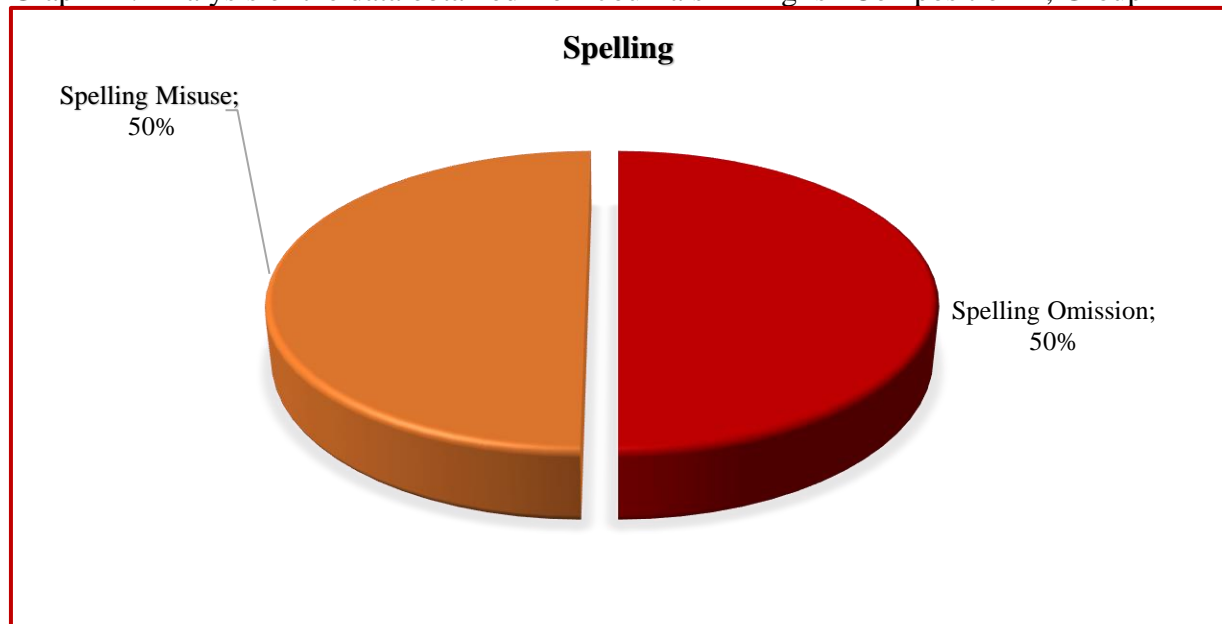
Source: English Composition II students' Journals Records-March 19, 2019

Either spelling omission or spelling misuse has the same incidence. The spelling errors about omission most frequently found in the research tool are "* **ilustrate**, **dificulties**." Such words reflect the omission of doubled letters, a special environment in English. Such errors may happen as in English, there exist doubled consonants such as ss, pp, tt, cc, mm, ch, sh, th, ph, ff that have a single consonant value, a designated phoneme for two consonants, whereas in Spanish the spellings of ch, ll, and rr are considered diagraphs representing a single sound. The cross-language correspondence of "c" may change to the English spelling of "c" or "ch," for example, **culture** and **chemistry** which have the same phonology correspondence /k/. Additionally, both languages have the same spelling "ll" as in the words **lluvia** and **allusion**, yet such spelling in both languages differ from /ʎ/ + vowel sound to /l/. Besides, both languages share the spelling of "rr" as in the word **correlación** and **correlation** though their phonology correspondence differ from /rr/ to the English allophone [ɾ]. For this reason, L2 students tend to omit the doubled letter in the above mentioned words.

Spelling misuse has the same occurrence. Some of the errors found in this area are "*for **instaed**", and "* At **last**." This intralingual error occurs with proper English words which have to be learned by constant practice. Thus, this also demonstrates insufficient practice of the environments of English.

Graph 15. Analysis of the data obtained from Journals in English Composition II, Group III
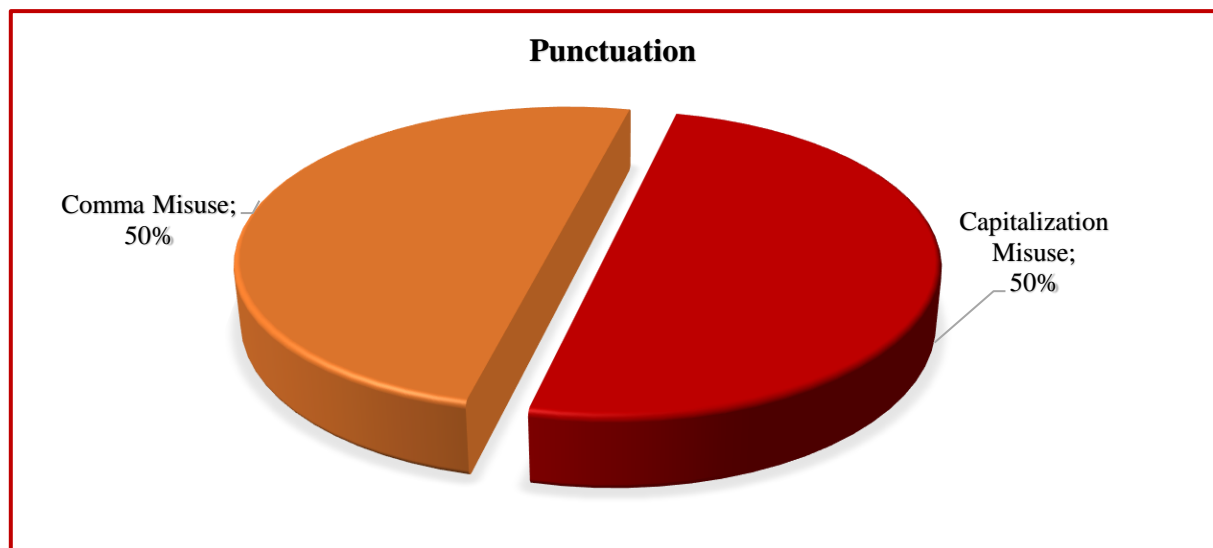
Source: English Composition II students' Journals Records-March 19, 2019

Capitalization misuse and comma misuse have equal incidence of errors. Though capitalization rules are mostly shared in both languages, L2 learners present problems in the management of those rules. For instance, some students committed errors like "*<u>U</u>niversity," "*<u>S</u>tudent, (…); <u>B</u>esides." This means that L2 learners still miss to internalize that capitalization is used for proper nouns, sciences (general matter), months and days (in English), at the beginning of sentences and so forth. This happens due to deficiencies in the punctuation patterns of the mother tongue. Moreover, this type of errors shows deficiency of the acquisition of the mother tongue.

L2 learners present problems due to the transference of L1 pattern regarding comma usage. In this tool, researchers found errors like "**Childhood hobbies are funny, and some of them are amazing<u>, **children like toys</u>**"; "***Children like academic hobbies<u>, **they learn another language such as English French or Italian,</u>**" among others. This error happens as Spanish allows the use of comma to separate independent clauses in a paragraph, whereas, in English, to separate independent clauses, it is used semicolon or period. The above examples clearly show evidence of the transference of L1 pattern with respect to comma usage.

Graph 16. Analysis of the data obtained from written test of English Composition II, group III
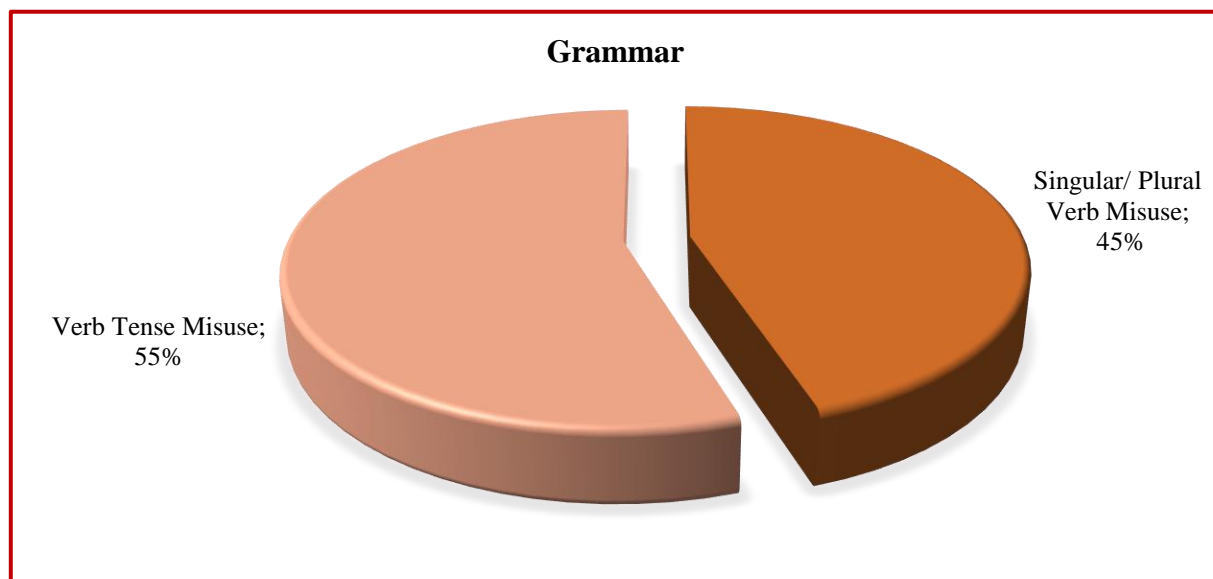
Grammar

Singular/ Plural Verb Misuse; 45%

Verb Tense Misuse; 55%

Source: English Composition II students Written Test transfer errors Records-March 25th, 2019

It can be observed that the most predominant errors are verb-tense misuse present in the following pattern * The wolves **bit** her all around her body; they **make** pieces of her body; Spanish and English show inflections of gender, person, tense, and mood, but each language has

its own form of indicating irregularity. Problems with tense shift occur when a writer moves from one tense to another inappropriately, combining different time frames within the same sentence. Furthermore, another error with more incidence was singular/plural verb misuse, for example, "***He look** suspicious, many **school have** some associations." In English the third person singular nouns present an inflection in the verb. The examples show that students committed errors by omitting –s or –es from the third person singular verb in their attempt to make the verb agree with the singular subject (he, she, it). In English, in the present tense, a verb changes its form only when its subject is in third person singular, whereas in Spanish, there are different inflections for verbs.

Graph 17. Analysis of the data obtained from written test in English Composition II, group III
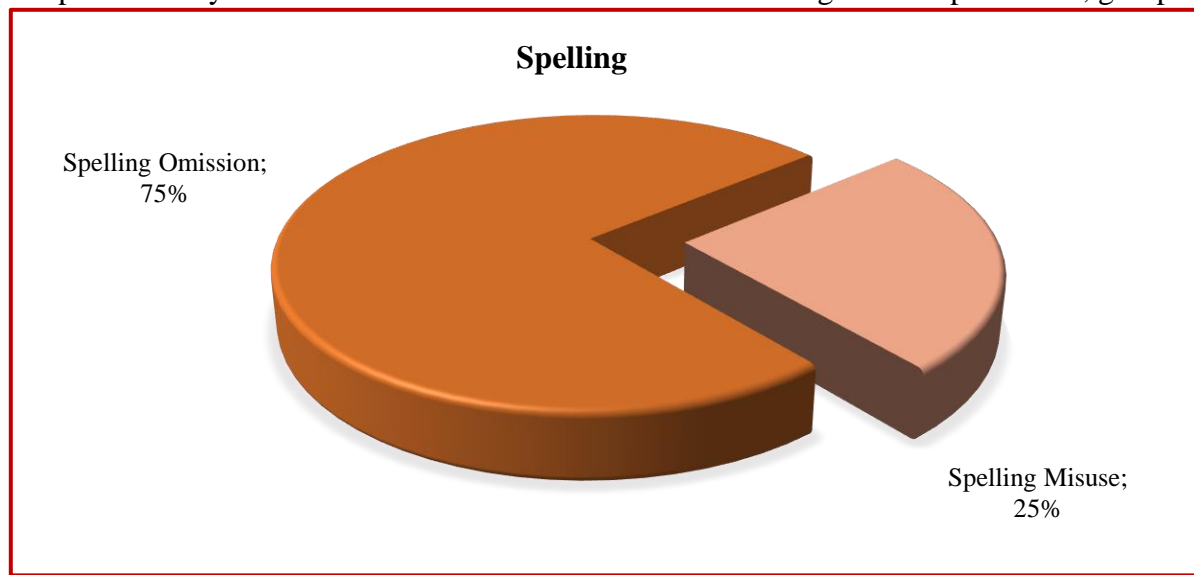
Spelling

Spelling Omission; 75%

Spelling Misuse; 25%

Source: English Composition II students Written Test transfer errors Records-March 25th, 2019

The most predominant error is spelling omission in which students omit necessary letters in the words. "***Ap_ropiate, commit_ed, at_ention, ef_icient, ap_lication.**" These examples are the most common transfer errors as a result of the interference that Spanish pattern has in the English pattern. Such errors may happen as in English, there exist doubled consonants such as ss, pp, tt, cc, mm, ch, sh, th, ph, ff that have a single consonant value, a designated phoneme for two consonants, whereas in Spanish the spellings of ch, ll, and rr are considered diagraphs representing a single sound. The cross-language correspondence of "c" may change to the English spelling of "c" or "ch," for example, **curious** and **chronicle** which have the same phonology correspondence /k/. Additionally, both languages have the same spelling "ll" as in

the words **calle** and **yell**, yet such spelling in both languages differ from /ʎ/ + vowel sound to /l/. Besides, both languages share the spelling of "rr" as in the word **correlación** and **correlation** though their phonology correspondence differ from /rr/ to the English allophone [ɾ]. For this reason, L2 students tend to omit the doubled letter in the above mentioned words.

Moreover, spelling misuse (substitution) was the second most frequent error in the written test produced by students. These errors were *__**responsable, pacient, insident;"**__ students wrote "**a**" instead of "**i**" with the word responsible; students followed a similar pattern of their language. This is caused due to the pronunciation of the word /rɪˈspɒn.sə.bəl/ instead of /rɪˈspɒn.si.bəl/. With the words "***pacient** and ***insident,**" students are attempting to write a word according to the L1 grapheme knowledge they have since in Spanish, words are usually written as they are heard. Students committed errors substituting **t** to **c** and **c** to **s**, this phenomenon frequently occurs as a result of nonsystematic rule for representing the /ʃ/ consonant with the /c/ or /t/ phonemes in the middle or final position.

Graph 18. Analysis of the data obtained from written test in English Composition II, group III
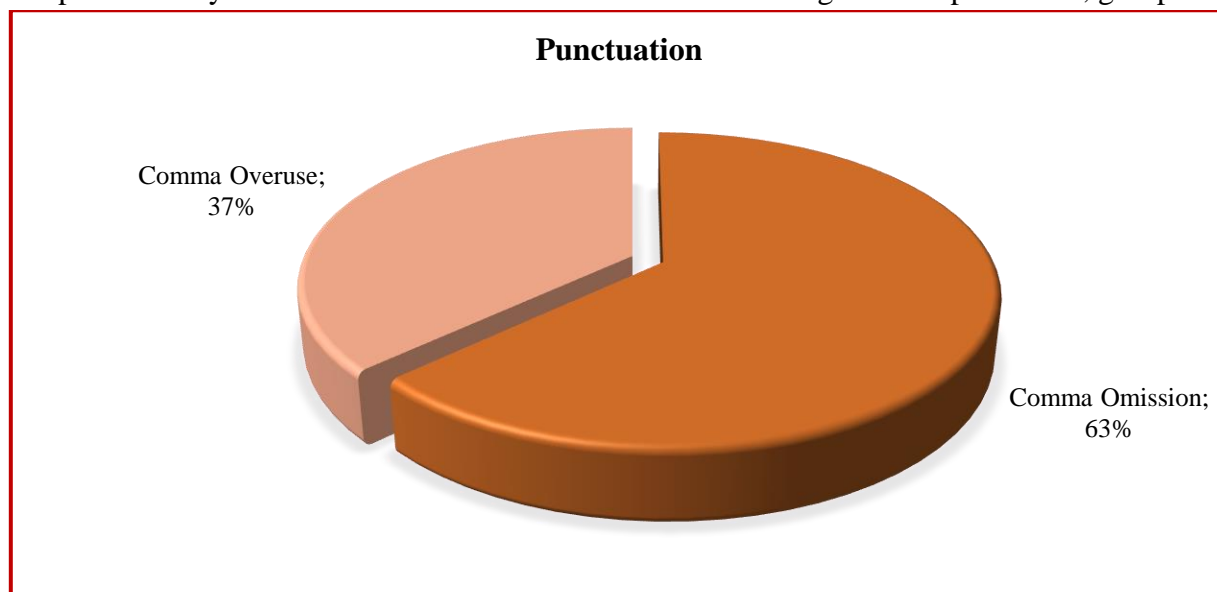
Punctuation

Comma Overuse; 37%

Comma Omission; 63%

Source: English Composition II students Written Test transfer errors Records-March 25th, 2019

Comma overuse and comma omission are the derivations of punctuation with the highest occurrence. ***His family and mine were friends__, before I was born, because of two people__** (comma overuse) the punctuation rule states that when the subordinate clause precedes the main clause, the comma is used as in the pattern [S[SubCl[SubConj][NP][VP]][,][IndCl[NP][VP]]].

However, if the main clause precedes the subordinate clause, the comma is omitted as in the following pattern [S[NP][VP][Ø][SubjC[Sub conj][S[NP][VP]]]. Although this last rule can be omitted depending on the intention writers want to transmit to the lector, the comma can precede the adverb clause if there is no connection with the following sentence.

Omission is **"*She was beautiful_ and she could walk nicely, For example, in composition students have to be aware;"** the punctuation rules state that before and, but, or, nor, for, so, and, yet (coordinating conjunctions) a comma is placed as in the following pattern [S[NP][VP][,][Coor. Conj][S[NP][VP]]]]. Moreover, if the introductory phrases or coordinating conjunctions do not affect the meaning of the sentence the comma can be omitted.

4.2. Discussion of results

Language acquisition is the process in which children acquire the first language; they acquire words by imitating and repeating adults' speech, unconsciously internalizing the meaning of the words. Around the same time, the child begins to understand gestures; that is, to associate people's gestures with emotional and even perceptual experiences. This understanding begins by connecting facial expression with states of emotion, recognizing, as people say, an angry or a cheerful expression. Then comes the association of deictic gestures with objects, the child's eyes follow the direction in which one points. At last words begin to be understood: aided, at first, by pointing gestures, the child begins to associate such sound-sequences as the nursery words for 'mother', 'father', 'good', 'bad', 'bed', or 'sleep' with the corresponding experiences.

Language learning, in contrast to language acquisition, is the process whereby humans pass the critical period. In Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics, Jack Richards, et al. (1985, p. 252) states that second language acquisition is, "the process by which people develop proficiency in a second or foreign language." The learning of L2 is consciously developed as the knowledge is acquired through a formal study in which learners internalize the knowledge needed to be able to communicate.

'Prior to Chomsky, linguists concentrated much of their efforts on describing the easily observable properties of language: the sound system, the vocabulary, and how some words are derived from others. Linguists in this tradition rarely looked at patterns of sentence structure,

which can be very abstract.' According to this idea, most of the properties that languages share cause that learners produce errors as in the case of the words that derive from another language as Spanish and English because there are some words that have the same pattern construction, but they do not share the meaning, so this has negative effects in students writing; furthermore, the pronunciation of words in English confuse learners since they write the pattern of the words as they listen to, such as **"*nee"** instead of **"knee"** as the letter "**k**" is silent and leads them to produce this kind of errors. Also, the patterns of sentences tend to confuse learners because the order of the part of speech changes in both languages.

The tools implemented during this research study helped researchers to prove the existence of Spanish-English transfer errors in English Composition II students' writing. These types of errors are produced as a result of the interference of speakers' L1 into L2 as Dechert (1983) and Ellis (1997) assert that the acquisition of an L2 that is extremely different from the speaker's L1 is a much more difficult process, therefore resulting in a stronger reliance on the learners' native tongue. L1 acquisition is absorbed from an unconscious process as people are acquiring the language naturally; however, this is not the case of L2 learners in which they acquire the new language through rules that make learning difficult causing dependence on L1. The dependence that most people do in both languages is extensive because they use the literal translation from the Spanish pattern; in the process of learning, students even compare grammatical and punctuation rules.

Graph 19. Global number of errors obtained from written tool and Journals in English Composition II groups 1, 2, and 3.

Global Incidence of Errors

Punctuation; 16%

Grammar; 19%
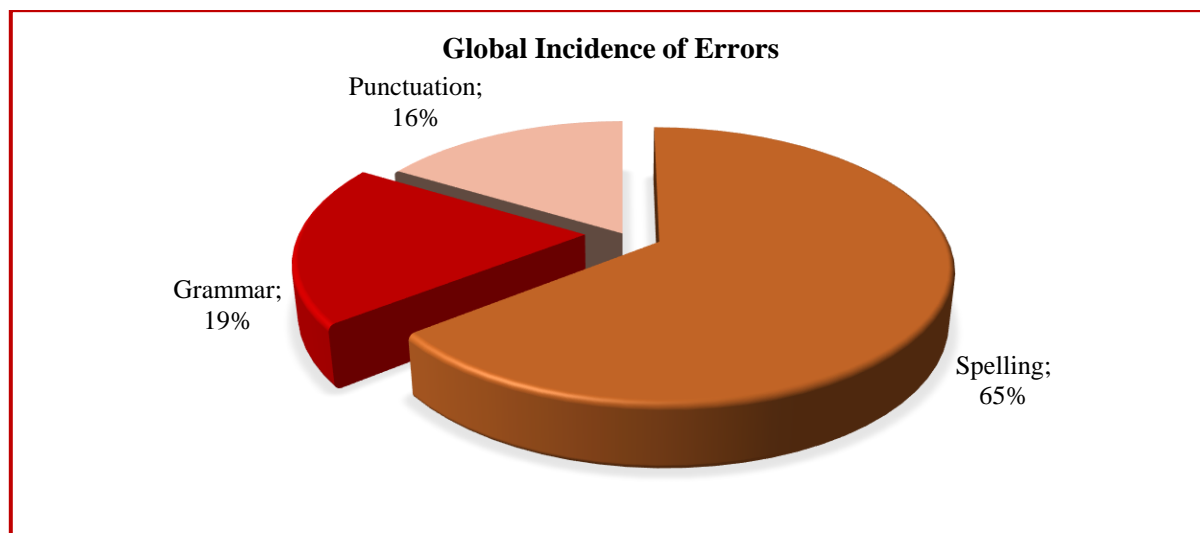
Spelling; 65%

Source: English Composition II students' Written Test Records-March 25th, 2019

Researchers observed that English Composition II students' most prominent type of errors were in Spelling, mostly in omission. Students omit letters in words that have similar pattern to Spanish as they mostly omit the double consonants that those words possess, such as "*__ilustrate__ and __dificulties__." Such words reflect the omission of doubled letters, a special environment in English. In comparison, Spanish and English have consonant correspondences which may differ in spelling, pronunciation or both. For example, ch, ll, rr are considered single consonant letters; however, such spellings differ in some aspects. The cross-language correspondence of "c" may change to the English spelling of "c" or "ch," for example, **case** and **character** which have the same phonology correspondence /k/. Additionally, both languages have the same spelling "ll" as in the words **llave** and **illustration**, yet such spelling in both languages differ from /ʎ/ to /l/. Besides, both languages share the spelling of "rr" as in the word **corrección** and **correction** though their phonology correspondence differs from /rr/ to the English allophone [ɾ]. These types of errors mostly happen with cognate or cross-language words.

Moreover, the research team noticed that the second type of error with more incidence was grammar like singular/ plural verb misuse, for example, **"*He __look__ suspicious, many school have** some associations.**"** In English the third person singular nouns present an inflection in the verb. The examples show that students committed errors by omitting **–s** or **–es** from the third person singular verb in their attempt to make the verb agree with the singular subject (he, she, it). In English, in the present tense, a verb changes its form only when its subject is in third person singular, whereas in Spanish, there are different inflections for verbs. Also, another error found was preposition misuse as in the following cases "*students have to wake up early to be on time __on__ class," "*students __on__ the university have many problems." The preposition "on" indicates in contact with the surface, whereas "in" indicates a location. There are some other prepositions which have more than one designated meaning as in the case of "at" which can serve for location and time. Consequently, choosing the appropriate preposition is a problem for L2 learners since an inadequate choice can change the intended meaning.

Lastly, punctuation in which the most common errors produced by students were "*They pay attention when a student failed the test__, or__ when they do not develop efficiently in class;" "*Marie always recollects information about society problem__s,__ especially aggression against

women, and accuses these issues." Such phenomenon may happen when adding a comma between the subject and its verb, phrases introducing a series of elements, and so on. Moreover, Spanish is not that restrictive with comma usage, contrary to English. For this reason, such errors reflect L2 students' incomplete internalization of comma usage in English.

As stated before, the teaching of Spanish-English transfer errors in L2 is of vital importance because through this knowledge, the student can transmit their ideas clearly and without problems. The incorporation of the teaching of transfer errors will help students to improve their writing. Each of the errors analyzed in this research study allowed researchers to say that students of English Composition I need the inclusion of the teaching of transfer errors and a comparison of their mother tongue with L2 for them to understand the process involved when learning L2 to decrease transfer errors in their pieces of writing.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Conclusions

Based on the information gathered through the analysis and interpretation of data on the study A Proposal to Incorporate the Teaching of Spanish-English Transfer Errors in English Composition I of Licenciatura en Idioma Inglés, Opción Enseñanza at the Western Multidisciplinary Campus of the University of El Salvador, Year 2019, researchers conclude:

1. Spanish-English transfer errors affect seriously students' pieces of writing. The primary cause of the existence of transfer errors in students' writing is the acoustic Spanish patterns transferred into English, leading to errors not only in pronunciation but also in writing.

2. Researchers could spot that the transfer errors with more frequency are primarily reflected on spelling and subsequently on subject-verb agreement, word choice, punctuation, article addition, article omission, Spanish patterns transference, run-on sentences, fragments, and so forth; English Composition II students frequently omit letters from the word patterns, with major incidence on cognate words, and produce transfer errors in grammar and punctuation, causing them to write disorganized pieces of writing.

3. The inclusion of transfer errors in English Composition I will help students to recognize the similarities that both languages share and to understand better the way both languages work by means of the reinforcement of spelling and grammatical aspects. This will also help teachers to know the origin of transfer errors for providing students with a different perspective of the occurrence of composition faults through teachers' explanations, examples and practices.

4. Having analyzed the results from students' written test and journals, the research team determined that students' writing problems are caused due to (1) the interference of their mother tongue in their L2 learning process, (2) the difference of Spanish-English spelling, punctuation and grammatical structures, and (3) lack of explanation of some aspects in phonology, morphology, and syntax to understand the occurrence of transfer errors.

5.2. Recommendations

The incorporation of the teaching of transfer errors is needed in the current English Composition I syllabus, so researchers consider appropriate to state the following recommendations:

For teachers

English Composition I teachers should compare both languages to make students aware of the writing problems that the interference of L1 has into L2, which prevent them from acquiring English effectively.

Teachers should incorporate Spanish-English transfer errors in English Composition I through the use of a model lesson plan provided in this research, which includes possible intervention activities for meeting students' needs.

Teachers should make a revision of the English Composition I topics contained in its syllabus to comprise similar topics to have more time for written practices.

For students

Students should study about Spanish-English transfer errors for them to distinguish the different grammatical, spelling, and punctuation rules of both languages as the insufficient knowledge prevents students from expressing clear ideas.

Students should create opening teaching support groups for studying topics that they find difficult to understand in class. Such collaborative technique will help students to share the knowledge acquired and to improve their writing by means of feedback. In this way, students will retain more about the subject matter and will identify the areas in which they need to improve.

For future researchers

Researchers should conduct an action research based on the teaching proposal of this study to corroborate students' improvement in their writing skill.

Researchers should conduct further research by creating a new methodology for teaching composition problems which can be comprised into a single content, helping teachers to gain more time for student practice.

They should conduct an investigation that considers the importance of teaching strategies outside the classroom as reinforcement for students.

5.3. Limitations

During the research process there were some limitations that caused difficulties for an efficient development of the data collection procedure: the selection of the sample and the disposition of the students.

Selecting the sample

Researchers decided to work with the three English Composition II groups as each of them were developed with a different environment and with different teachers providing diversity data for having reliable findings. However, at the moment of checking, ordering and analyzing the data, the population was too much to take out the information from students' pieces of writing.

Disposition of students to collaborate

Some of the students were unwilling to develop the written test maybe for distraction on personal matters or insufficient time for them to write and revise the paragraph precisely.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

VALIDATION SHEET

Date: _____

Name of validator: _____

Direction: check the appropriate box based on your rating.

Scale: **5**-Excellent   **4**-Very Good   **3-** Good   **2-** Needs Improvement   **1**- Poor

ITEM	5	4	3	2	1
1. Clarity of directions and items The directions and items are clear and understandable.					
2. Vocabulary level The vocabulary is suitable for participants.					
3. Language use The items are grammatically correct.					
4. Suitability of items The items fit with the variables and indicators to measure what they intend to measure.					
5. Accuracy of items					

Each item requires only one specific answer or measures one behavior.					
6. Scale/Rating The scales used or the response options provided for each item are appropriate.					
7. Attainment of purpose The instrument helps to fulfill the research objectives.					

Comments/Suggestions:

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX B

**UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR
WESTERN MULTIDISCIPLINARY
CAMPUS FOREIGN LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT**

DATE: _____

**A PROPOSAL TO INCORPORATE THE TEACHING OF SPANISH-ENGLISH
TRANSFER ERRORS IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION I OF LICENCIATURA EN
IDIOMA INGLÉS: OPCIÓN ENSEÑANZA AT THE WESTERN
MULTIDISCIPLINARY CAMPUS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR,
YEAR 2019**

OBSERVATION ADDRESSED TO ENGLISH COMPOSITION II STUDENTS AND
TEACHER, GROUP 2 OF LICENCIATURA EN IDIOMA INGLÉS: OPCIÓN
ENSEÑANZA

GENERAL OBJECTIVE: To improve English Composition I students' writing performance
by integrating the teaching of transfer errors

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT'S OBJECTIVES:
➢ **To detect the teaching of Spanish-English transfer error in teachers'
methodology.**
➢ **To corroborate the presence of transfer errors.**

DIRECTION: Write any aspect observed based on the below aspects.

Aspects to Observe		Notes
Methodology	Teacher's presentation of the English composition content	
	Implementation teaching techniques.	

	Feedback on composition and grammar aspects	
	Further aspects	
Transfer errors	Teacher's explanation of transfer errors	

	Students presenting transfer errors	
	Further aspects	

APPENDIX C

UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR
WESTERN MULTIDISCIPLINARY
CAMPUS FOREIGN LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT

A PROPOSAL TO INCORPORATE THE TEACHING OF SPANISH-ENGLISH TRANSFER ERRORS IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION I OF LICENCIATURA EN IDIOMA INGLÉS: OPCIÓN ENSEÑANZA AT THE WESTERN MULTIDISCIPLINARY CAMPUS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR, YEAR 2019

INTERVIEW ADDRESSED TO ENGLISH COMPOSITION TEACHERS OF
LICENCIATURA EN IDIOMA INGLÉS: OPCIÓN ENSEÑANZA

GENERAL OBJECTIVE: To improve English Composition I students' writing performance by integrating the teaching of transfer errors

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT'S OBJECTIVE:
  ➢ **To know teachers' understanding of Spanish-English transfer errors**
  1. Could you explain the difference between a transfer error and a mistake?

  2. What is transfer error and how do you define it?

  3. According to your experience, what are the most common Spanish-English transfer errors committed by English composition students?

  4. Do the English composition I lesson plans include the teaching of Spanish-English transfer errors?

  5. Why do you think they are not included?

  6. How does the exclusion of the teaching of transfer errors in the English composition lesson plans affect the students' writing performance?

  7. What approaches, methods, strategies and techniques do you use for teaching composition errors that include implicit transfer errors?

  8. Do you consider the approaches, methods, strategies or techniques you use are the most effective? Why? or Why not?

  9. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the approaches, methods, strategies and techniques you use?

  10. How can the teaching of Spanish-English transfer errors be included?

  11. Could you mention the best alternative forms to teach Spanish-English transfer errors in the composition classes and their possible benefits?

APPENDIX D

UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR
WESTERN MULTIDISCIPLINARY CAMPUS
FOREIGN LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT

A PROPOSAL TO INCORPORATE THE TEACHING OF SPANISH-ENGLISH TRANSFER ERRORS IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION I OF LICENCIATURA EN IDIOMA INGLES OPCION ENSEÑANZA AT THE WESTERN MULTIDISCIPLINARY CAMPUS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR, 2019

DIAGNOSIS STUDY

OBJECTIVE: To verify the presence of Spanish-English transfer errors in English Composition II students' journal and written test

Comparison of the Definition of Error and Mistake

Error	Mistake
It is a fault in competence resulting from the deviation of the norms of L2 due to lack of knowledge or by L1 interference. It is systematic, technical or formal, and it cannot not be easily corrected by the L2 learner.	It is a fault in performance resulting from physical or psychological conditions such as slips of the tongue, memory lapses, fatigue, and so forth. It is accidental, informal or casual and can be immediately corrected by the L2 learner or native speakers

Codes Used for Describing Written Faults

Fault		Description	Example	Relation to Composition
Code	Denotation			
Adj. Misp	Adjective Misplacement	Misplacement of an adjective or adjective phrase modifying the wrong subject	When going home, Peter found a <u>metal</u> woman's bracelet.	**Misplaced Modifier**
Adj. Or	Adjective Order	Disorder of adjectives within a series of adjectives	1. I bought an <u>American new small</u> T-shirt for you.	**Word Order**

Adj. Pl	Adjective Pluralization	Pluralization of adjectives	1. There are <u>differents</u> strategies for self-defense	**Pluralization Misuse**
Adv. Add	Adverb Addition	Addition of adverbs used as subordinate conjunctions which are not necessary	1. Since it was late, <u>therefore</u>, I did not attend the composition class.	**Adverb Addition**
Adv. Misp	Adverb Misplacement	Misplacement of an adverb or adverb phrase leading to an unintended meaning or separation of the verb with the object	1. I <u>only</u> sponsor $50.00 for Children Foundation 2. I drunk the juice I bought <u>slowly.</u>	**Misplaced Modifier**
Aptr. Add	Apostrophe Addition	Addition of the apostrophe in possessive pronouns	1. It<u>'</u>s spare parts are expensive.	**Punctuation; Pluralization**
Aptr. Misuse	Apostrophe Misuse	Misuse of the apostrophe possession of either a plural or singular noun	1. The English Grammar student<u>'</u>s pieces of writing are hard to analyze.	**Punctuation; Pluralization**
Aptr. Om	Apostrophe Omission	Omission of apostrophe possession of either a plural or singular noun	He went to <u>Usagi'</u> room	**Punctuation**
Art. Add	Article Addition	Addition of the article when not required	1. <u>The</u> dolphins are the most intelligent animals. 2. She is going to bring mine and <u>the</u> yours as well.	**Article Addition**

Art. Om	Article Omission	Omission of the article when the noun requires it.	1. There is __ banana on the table. 2. I went to __ restaurant next to the City Hall. 3. She is _ professor.	**Article Omission**
Cap. Mis	Capitalization Misuse	Misuse of capitalized letters when the noun is not proper or when it is not the initial letter of the sentence	1. Moreover, Students need to learn by themselves. 2. In summary, his said "And my last will is to eat shrimps."	**Punctuation**
Cap. Om	Capitalization Omission	Omission of capitalized letter at the beginning of the sentence or when the noun is proper	1. I consider the american are more liberal than the latin-american. 2. He has been in france. consequently, he visited the eiffel Tower. 3. "we are definitely dead," I said.	**Punctuation**
Col. Mis	Colon Misuse	Misuse of colons between the verb and object, when the sentence is incomplete, between a proposition and its object, or after	1. The most common typical dishes of El Salvador are: tamales and pupusas.	**Punctuation**

			certain exemplification phrases	2. The pupusas are made of: corn, cheese, and fried beans. 3. There are different types of teaching approaches such as: Communicative Approach, Grammar Translation Apporach, Audio-Lingual Approach, and so on.	
Com. Add	Comma Addition		Addition of a comma where it is not applicable or when it is overused	1. I went to the doctor, because I was sick. 2. She, gave, a kiss to him. 3. Yesterday, I went to the pharmacy, I bought some pills. 4. "I do not deserve it", she said, because he felt guilty.	**Punctuation;** **Comma Splice**
Com. Mis	Comma Misuse		Misuse of a comma inappropriately	1. I will do many activities on vacations, for example, I will go camping. . .. 2"I do not love you", he said.	**Punctuation;** **Comma Splice**
Com. Om	Comma Omission		Omission of the comma in specified environments such	1. Suddenly __ I heard a noise in the kitchen.	**Punctuation;** **Run-on Sentences**

		after adverbs in front positions, in a series of elements, and for separating clauses	2. I like to dance__ to sing _ to recite poems, and to act. 3. When I was young _ I used to play with my toys_ and I play sports. 4. She stated_ "I do not deserve it"	
Com. OU	Comma Overuse	Overuse of commas in complex list of elements	1. He will go with Phillip, his son, Anthony, his father, Paul, his friend, and Alfred, his boss.	**Punctuation; Comma Splice**
Conn. Mis	Connector Misuse	Misuse of Connector when changing the intended meaning	1. Yesterday, I was amazed with my research project; <u>however</u>, I will get a good grade.	**Word Choice**
Conn. Om	Connector Omission	Omission of connector in a series of sentences	1. I was eating__my mother was playing the violin.	**Word Choice**
Coor. C. Addition	Coordinating conjunction addition	Addition of an unnecessary coordinating conjunction when it already exists either a subordinate or coordinate conjunction	1. Because she was tired, <u>so</u> she did not go to school	**Coordinating Conjunction Addition**
Coor. C. Mis	Coordinating Conjunction Misuse	Misuse of coordinating conjunctions when introducing a sentence or when the	1. <u>And</u>, she continued fighting with herself. 2. She likes to watch movies, <u>and</u> she	**Sentence Fragment; Word Choice; Misplaced Modifier.**

		meaning is the unintended one	does not like to go to the cinema. 3. I prayed all the night. <u>But</u> <u>still</u>, I am doubting.	
Coor. C. Om	Coordinating Conjunction Omission	Omission of the coordinating conjunction "and" in a series of elements	1. She gave the impression of being tired, nostalgic, _ depressed.	**Coordinating Conjunction Omission**
Coor. C OU	Coordinating Conjunction Overuse	Overuse of coordinating conjunctions to join independent clause	1. When I arrived home, I took my cloth off <u>and</u> I took a shower <u>and</u> I had dinner <u>and</u> finally, I fell asleep <u>but</u> I wake up with the noise cats made on the roof.	**Over Coordination or Rambling Sentences**
Corr. C. Mis	Correlative Cojunction Misuse	Misuse of correlative conjunctions when missing its pair or when its content is unparalleled or not well-arranged in order	1. Neither <u>he comes</u> nor <u>he studies</u>. 2. Either you win <u>or</u> <u>I</u> lose. 3. You should either pay the loan <u>or</u> the company will charge you with a charge,	**Subject-Verb Agreement; Faulty Parallelism**
Dash Mis	Dash Misuse	Misuse of dashes when using space between before and after the dash	Acid fruit<u>s –</u> especially green magoes and green apples<u>- </u>are healthful for teeth.	**Punctuation**
-Ed. F Mis	-Ed Misuse	Misuse of –ed forms in adjectives or when such particle is	1. He <u>commited</u> to stay loyal to me.	**Verb Tenses; Word Choice**

		added to a verb requiring to be doubled the last consonant	2. The show was so bor<u>ed</u>.	
Ell. Mis	Ellipsis Misuse	Misuse of ellipsis when the dot group's space is not the appropriate one	1. Will all his fatigue and sickness<u>…</u> he stays positive. 2. He was born <u>on. .</u> <u>.in</u> United States of America. 3. On the way to France<u> , .</u> . . a famous French singer gave me his autograph.	**Punctuation**
Excl. Add	Exclamation Mark Addition	Addition of exclamation marks when not required	1. <u>¡</u> The teacher has prepared a pop quiz for today! 2. What?<u>!</u> He said.	**Punctuation**
Excl. Mis	Exclamation Misuse	Misuse of exclamation between quotations	1. She ,with a depressive face, said "I cannot believe what you are saying<u>!</u>"	**Punctuation**
Excl. OU	Exclamation Mark Overuse	Overuse of exclamation marks for emphasizing even more the exclamation	1. I have told you that one thousand times!<u>!!!</u>	**Punctuation**
Fl. Cog	False Cognate	Cognate words spelled alike with different meaning	1. She almost always <u>assists</u> to classes on time.	**Word Choice**

Frag.	Fragment	Sentence Fragment occurring when leaving the subordinate clause alone from the independent clause	1. They felt tired. <u>Because they walk long distances.</u> 2. <u>Lost in the forest</u>. 3. <u>Running as crazy.</u> 4. <u>Being a mother.</u> 5. <u>To get good grades.</u> 6. <u>The one wearing red boots.</u>	**Sentence Fragment**
F. Parall	Faulty Parallelism	A series of elements being unparalleled.	1. she acts not only wisely but also <u>friendly.</u>	**Faulty Parallelism**
Hyp. Mis	Hyphen Misuse	Misuse of a hyphen when joining an adverb with an adjective as a single unit	1. The idea was clearly<u>-</u> understandable when the teacher provided examples.	**Punctuation**
Hyp. Om	Hyphen Omission	Omission of the hyphen in compound words	1. His student ID number is the one thousand nine hundred forty_six. 2. The well_known company should reevaluate the ex_president.	**Punctuation**
Ing. F. Mis	Ing Form Misuse	Misuse of -ing forms conveying the wrong signification, when there is no -ing form after a preposition, when they are employed in a series of infinitives, or when the –ing forms	1. <u>Drinking coffee,</u> the dog approached. 2. I am thinking about <u>move</u> to another city. 3. He prefers to stay at home, to play video games, and <u>eating</u> food.	**Dangling Modifier; Word Order; Faulty Parallelism; Word Choice**

		are misemployed as adjectives	4. I really feel so <u>boring</u>.	
Inf. Misuse	Infinitive Misuse	Misuse of an infinitive conveying the wrong signification, when it is employed in a series of gerunds, or when it is misemployed after certain verbs requiring gerunds	1. <u>To get a gold medal</u>, the dog's training should be intensive. 2. She hates going out, eating junk food, <u>and to clean</u> the house. 3. I am looking forward to <u>see</u> you soon.	**Dangling Modifier; Word Order; Faulty Parallelism; Word Choice**
L.Sp. P	Literal Spanish Pattern	When the Spanish pattern has been literally translated	4. Either staying with my friends or <u>alone</u> is the same for me.	**Literal Spanish Pattern; Faulty Parallelism;**
Neg. Mis	Negation Misuse	Misuse of the negative form of the auxiliary verb	1. He <u>can not</u> believe that!	**Negative Misuse**
Pd. Mis	Period Misuse	Misuse of the period for incomplete sentences or when it is employed inside the parenthesis enclosing just some words and not a sentence	1. What is the a most important for me<u>.</u> 2.The teacher assigned different tasks (a guide, exercises, and a questionnaire<u>.</u>). 3. With all his fatigue and sickness…<u>.</u> he stays positive.	**Sentence Fragment; Punctuation**
Pd. Om	Period Omission	Omission of the period at the end of the sentence or at the	1. When she was giving birth (I was completely	**Punctuation**

		end of an complete sentence enclosed between parenthesis	astonished_), I literally fainted. 2. Finally, I arrived to my dreamed island…_	
Pl. Mis	Pluralization Misuse	Misuse of pluralization in nouns, pronouns, and determiners	1. I love to spend time with her<u>s</u> child<u>s</u>. 2. I made a loan of five hundred<u>s</u> dollars for homeless <u>persons</u>. 3. These phenomen<u>ons</u> are studied nowadays.	**Pluralization Misuse; Word Choice**
Pl. Add	Pluralization Addition	Pluralization of unnecessary words that causes errors	1. They were satisfactorys of the results. 2. There is one advantages.	**Pluralization Addition**
Poss. Mis	Possessive Misuse	Misuse of possessives	1. They stayed at the <u>house of Paola</u> during all the day. b 2. He was born in the <u>municipal hospital of Santa Ana</u>	**Possessive Misuse; Word Order**
Poss. Om	Possessive Omission	Omission of the possessive case when intending belonging	1. Dennis'_ house is near my house. 2. The <u>boy_</u> dog has been trained for helping blind people.	**Possessive Omission**

			3. Everybody__ presentations were creative. 4. Children_ games are funny.	
Prep. Add	Preposition Addition	Addition of a preposition when unnecessary	1. He called <u>to</u> his mother for asking for help. 2. He sent <u>to</u> Adriana a gift.	**Preposition Addition**
Prep. Mis	Preposition Misuse	Misuse of a preposition or a prepositional phrase in a wrong way	1. I went to talk <u>with</u> her for arriving to a single conclusion. 2. <u>On the way to school</u>, a dog was barking. 3. <u>For</u> what do you study?	**Word Choice; Dangling Modifier; Word Order**
Prep. Om	Preposition Omission	Omission of the preposition when being part of the verb	1. I finally arrived __ France. 2. As she is careless, she always looks __ her keys.	**Preposition Omission**
Pron. Add	Pronoun Addition	Addition of the pronoun when the noun does not requires it.	1. I meet a person **who** thanks to his profession <u>he</u> could be part. 2. Fernando who <u>he</u> loves playing basketball.	**Word choice**
Pron. Ant. Agreem	Pronoun antecedent Agreement	The pronoun that replaces the noun in the sentence must	1. President Margot declared his first decree.	**Word Choice**

		agree with the subject.		
Pron. Mis	Pronoun Misuse	Misuse of the pronoun when not referring to the right element	1. Look at the moon. Look at <u>her</u>! 2. She is the girl <u>which</u> I was talking by cellphone the last night. 3. The Grammar teacher <u>that</u> is there is very demanding.	**Word Choice**
Pron. Om	Pronoun Omission	Omission of the subject in the sentence	1. _ Is important to learn how to save money.	**Sentence Fragment**
Pth. Mis	Parenthesis Misuse	Misuse of the parenthesis when the group of words between parenthesis do not follow the relevant word or phrase	1. Using a combination of different teaching <u>(Grammar Translation, Communicative Approach, Audio-lingual Approach and so on)</u> <u>approaches</u> can improve students' writing skill.	**Dangling Modifier; Word Order**
Punc. Mis	Punctuation Misuse	The misuse of the correct punctuation	1. I used to play soccer; and my sister softball.	**Punctuation**
Punc. Om	Punctuation Omission	The omission of any punctuation in a series of sentences.	1. He plays the piano she eats vegetables my classmates do not like it.	**Punctuation**

Quant. Mis	Quantifier Misuse	Misuse of a quantifier which is not appropriate for the noun.	1. I have read <u>many</u> information about punctuation.	**Quantifier Misuse**
Quest. Add	Question Mark Addition	Addition of a question mark at the beginning of the statement	1. ¿Have you been there? 2. I would like to know where he bought that<u>?</u>	**Punctuation**
Quest. F. Omission	Question Formation Omission	Omission of the question form when omitting the auxiliary verb	1. ___ you think so?	**Word Order or Question Formation Omission**
Quest. F Mis	Question Formation Misuse	Misuse of the question form when the auxiliary verb is misallocated	1. Have you <u>do</u> study that before	**Word Order**
Quest. Mis	Question Mark Misuse	Misuse of the question mark when ending an ellipsis and belonging the group of words preceding	1. Among others things, he asked "what did I do wrongly . . . <u>?</u>" 2. How to get good grades? 3. Did he really say "I want to kiss you<u>?</u>"	**Punctuation; Sentence Fragment**
Quest. OU	Question Mark Overuse	Overuse of the question mark when being unnecessary	1. What did he say?<u>???</u>	**Punctuation**
Quot. Om	Quotation Mark Omission	Omission of a part of the quotations	1. She claimed, __Why did that happen to me?"	**Punctuation**
Quot. Mis	Quotation Mark Misuse	Misuse of the quotation mark when providing space	1.The word "_connotation_" includes people's perception rather	**Punctuation**

		between the group of words been quoted	than its own meaning	
Redundancy	Redundancy	Use of more words to express something	My old friend who I met when I was eight years old, and lived close to my house got married the last week	**Redundancy**
SC Miss	Semicolon Misuse	Misuse of the semicolon when independent ideas are not related, after exemplification phrases, before coordinating conjunctions or when separating dependent clauses from the independent one	1. She is going to bring me a cellphone; yesterday, I went to the hospital. 2. For going to school, you should be provided with a series of stuffs such as; books, notebook, and pens. 3. I love you; but you are too much cloying 4. He met Selena; who was one of my favorite singers.	**Punctuation**
Sc. Om	Semicolon Omission	Omission of semicolon after coordinating conjunctions	1. They did not arrive early however, they did not care.	**Punctuation**
Sp. Add	Spelling	A word being misspelled by adding an additional letter	1. She is especial for me.	**Spelling**
Sp. Mis	Spelling Misuse	A word being misspelled by the changing of a letter	1. She is the most responsable student in the class.	**Spelling**

Sp. Om	Spelling Omission	Omission of the spelling of a letter	1. Com_unicative Approach is widely used nowadays.	Spelling
S/P V Mis	Singular/Plural V Misuse	Misuse of the verb when verb refers to a singular noun	1. Those pieces of paper is found on my table. 2. A group prefer to eat after the game.	Subject-Verb Agreement
Sup. Add	Superlative Addition	Addition of the superlative form when the adjective or adverb has been already added the superlative particle	1. Diana is the most happiest person I have met.	Superlative Addition
Sup. Mis	Superlative Misuse	Misuse of the superlative form in adjectives or adverbs	1. He is considered as the most smart guy in this university. 2.Between, Alan and Stanley, Alan is the wisest. 3. I consider him friendlier than her.	Superlative Misuse.
VT Mis	Verb Tense Misuse	Misuse of the verb tense when there is a shift in tense, when it is not the corresponding tense or when an irregular verb has been misconjugated	1. She told me she was tired of me, and consequently, I say "You do not matter to me." 2. It rains heavily. 3. I catched the ball in the last minute of the game.	Shift in Tense; Verb Tense Misuse
Wc	Wordiness	The use of unnecessary words to express the meaning	1. Being a reader can be a situation in which we can learn a lot.	Wordiness

OCCURRENCE OF ERRORS FOUND ON JOURNALS OF COMPOSITION II STUDENTS FROM GROUP I			
GRAMMAR			
TYPE OF ERROR	**MEANINGFUL SEGMENT**	**JUSTIFICATION**	**EXAMPLE**
SINGULAR/PLURAL VERB MISUSE	I know that almost every <u>person</u> on earth <u>love</u> dogs.	The examples show at students committed errors by omitting –s or –es inflection from the third person singular verb in their attempt to make the verb agree with the singular subject (he, she, it). In English, in the present tense, a verb changes its form only when its subject is third person singular, whereas in Spanish, there are different inflections for verbs. Spanish speakers do not differentiate the three English categories of assertive forms such as "some" and "somebody," non-assertive forms such as "any" and "anybody," and negative forms such as "no" and "none" (Coe, 1987).	I know that almost every person on earth loves dogs.
	<u>All the people</u> in the train <u>was</u> as excited as I		<u>All the people</u> in the train <u>were</u> as excited as me.
	These shrimps tastes like a Chinese plate.		**These shrimps taste** like a Chinese plate.
	He look suspicious		**He looks** suspicious.
	The **sound seem** to be alive dancing and playing around		The **sound seems** to be alive dancing and playing around.
	This person have to play like that.		**This person has** to play like that.
	This have been happening since 2 years ago, but **nobody have** known who is the pianist		**This has been** happening since 2 years ago, but **nobody has** known who the pianist is
	It is a **ghost who come** to play the piano every Friday		It is a **ghost who comes** to play the piano every Friday
	Nobody want to go upstairs to the fourth floor.		**Nobody wants** to go upstairs to the fourth floor.
VERB TENSE MISUSE	He loved sharing with me how **he was started** to practice this kind of job.	Problems with tense shift occur when a writer moves from one tense to another inappropriately, combining different time frames within the same sentence obscuring writing. Tense refers to the form of the verb that indicates the time when the action happens.	He loved sharing with me how **he started** to practice this kind of job.
	The weather **was not** favorable, so the chilly clouds **kill** them		The weather **was not** favorable, so the chilly clouds **killed** them
	My grandpa really **loved** doing this job. **He spend** all his hours taking care of his bees.		My grandpa really **loved** doing this job. **He spent** all his hours taking care of his bees.

	They practiced meditation, sexual freedom and **use** of narcotics	The suffix –ed or –d marks the past tense of regular verbs, and irregular verbs change their form like: bought, swan, and so forth.	**They practiced** meditation, sexual freedom and **used** of narcotics
	A loud sound bothered me. **I was sit out** of my car		A loud sound bothered me. **I was sitting out** of my car.
	The wolves bit her all around her body; **they make** pieces of her body		**The wolves bit** her all around her body; **they made** pieces of her body.
	I decide to ask her why **she came**		**I decided** to ask her why **she came**
	The **water service was not** working. So, **they start** pushing me as if I were responsible		The **water service was not** working. So, **they started** pushing me as if I were responsible
	The place looked hospitable and peaceful; **it has** big transparent doors		**The place looked** hospitable and peaceful; **it had** big transparent doors
	I **was not able** to see more than what **it want** me to see.		I **was not able** to see more than what **it wanted** me to see.
	I just **could saw** its eyes.	The example show an error caused by writers in their intent to change the form of the verb in past without realizing that they use double verb in past. This type of errors usually happens as L2 students have not internalized adequately the grammar rules of English. English has auxiliary verbs that go before the subject and follow the main verb, not mattering if the question is either a yes-no or wh-question. For this reason, in English, subjects are considered as preverbal subjects.	I just **could see** its eyes.
SPELLING			
		Those examples are the most common transfer errors as a result of carrying Spanish patterns into	Appropriate Committed

SPELLING OMISSION	Apropiate, commited, saddnes, pasword	English generating a misspelled word as students may have not internalized that double consonants represent one sound. *pp* → /p/ *ff* → /f/ *tt* → /t/ *ss* → /s/ *cc* → /c/ *mm* → /m/ *bb* → /b/ *nn* → /n/ *dd* → /d/ *ll* → /l/ *gg* → /g/ *Note.* The only correspondence in both languages including spelling and pronunciation is **ch** since ll has correspondence in spelling Spanish English /y/ → /l/	Sadness password
	Squezing, e→ Ø amued, s → Ø realised, "z" instead of "s" **jouney, r → Ø** **tiket c → Ø** **obiously v→ Ø** **jelous, a→ Ø** **envous, I → Ø** **yeas r → Ø** **acquintances, a → Ø** **unfornately tu → Ø**	Writers produce this type of errors as in some words the letters of the word represent one sound or are silent, for example, ee→ /iy/ single sound ck→/k/ our→ /ɜ/ r →/#/ ai→ /eɪ/ The case of the S instead of Z may occur as a result of Spanish speakers carrying the Spanish S. In addition, the articulation of the words may affect students the way of writing.	Squeezing Amused Realized Journey Ticket Obviously Jealous Envious Years Time, responsible Acquaintances
	tame, responsable "I" instead of "a"		
PUNCTUATION			
COMMA OMISSION	If I could stay here for he<u>r</u> this story is no a fiction book with a happy ending.	The punctuation rules states that before and, but, or, nor, for, so, and, yet (coordinating conjunctions) a comma is placed as in the following pattern	If I could stay here for he<u>r</u> this story is no a fiction book with a happy ending.

	Usage started to shout_ but Kurose was not able.	[S[NP][VP] [,][coordinating conjunction] [S[NP][VP]]]].	Usage started to shout, but Kurose was not able.
	I had that feeling_ and the sound I had heard before confirmed.	However, writers omit the comma before coordinating conjunction presented in the following pattern [S[NP][VP] [Ø][coordinating conjunction] [S[NP][VP]]]].	I had that feeling, and the sound I had heard before confirmed.
	She transports me to a place that is different from reality and my cold sensation begins to calm down.		She transports me to a place that is different from reality, and my cold sensation begins to calm down.
	He asked where she lived_ but she said "I do not know"	Note: introductory phrases can be omitted when it does not affect the meaning. Introductory phrases containing gerunds, participles, or infinitives must be followed by a comma to prevent misinterpretation.	He asked where she lived, but she said "I do not know."
	He has changed and he is another person		He has changed, and he is another person.
	I was at school and my friend said to someone else that the boy we were observing was dead.	The comma can be omitted before coordinating conjunctions when it does not confuse the writer or when the comma is not needed.	I was at school, and my friend said to someone else that the boy we were observing was dead.
	They were not the ones that she wanted so she got really angry with me.		They were not the ones that she wanted, so she got really angry with me.
	My aunts had my Facebook account's password and they were going to know		My aunts had my Facebook account's password, and they were going to know.
	The first day_ I saw a man (…)		The first day, I saw a man (…)
	She was beautiful_ and she could walk nicely		She was beautiful, and she could walk nicely.
	He was seven years old and I was nine years old.		He was seven years old, and I was nine years old.
COMMA OVERUSE	His family and mine were friends, before I was born, because of two people	These errors occur when writers place a comma before the adverb clause which is an error in certain contexts, for example, [S[NP][VP][SubjC [,] [Sub conj[S[NP][VP]]]] should be the pattern as the following [S[NP][VP][Subj C[Sub conj[Ø][S[NP][VP]]]]	His family and mine were friends before I was born, because of two people (…)
	The same story happened, when I started high school the same story happened		The same story happened when I started high school the same story happened

My mother moved to another house**,** before I was born	If the adverb clause follows the main sentence, the comma is used, for example, [SubC[SubConj [S[NP][VP] [,] [S[NP][VP]]]	My mother moved to another house, before I was born
I was excited to know_, when my new adventure was going to start.		I was excited to know when my new adventure was going to start.
They continued talking, until I closed my eyes.	NOTE: the comma can precede the adverb clause if there is no a connection with the rest of the sentence.	They continued talking, until I closed my eyes.
I was obsessed to lost weight**,** while my 15 party became closer to the date.		I was obsessed to lost weight, while my 15 party became closer to the date.
The employe**e,** I do not remember his name, he was so kind	The writer intended to join two independent clauses with a comma producing a comma splice that occurs when two main clauses are joined with only a comma.	The employee, I do not remember his name whose name I do not remember.

OCCURRENCE OF ERRORS FOUND IN WRITTEN TEST OF ENGLISH COMPOSITION II STUDENTS FROM GROUP I			
GRAMMAR			
ERROR	MEANINGFUL SEGMENT	JUSTIFICATION	RIGHT PATTERN
NEGATION MISUSE	I hate my **not** responsible teacher.	"Not" is part of the auxiliary and it signals negation. When used with an adjective, in English, there are some rules for forming negative adjectives. Example Adjectives that start with **r** adds negative affix "ir" as in: responsible→ irresponsible	my irresponsible teacher.
WORD CHOICE	In your writing, writers must have a parcial point of view without sending agressive messages in theirs **writtens**.	"Written" is the past participle of write and can act as a modifier. Prepositional phrases always take as an object a noun (the head word) and its modifiers. Additionally, adjectives in English are not pluralized Incorrect Correct Prep+ Adj. P Prep + NP	In your writing, writers must have a partial point of view without sending aggressive messages in their writings.
	Also, if that student is **arming** to become a teacher, she/he must (…).	"Arm" is a verb which means *to provide a weapon* to somebody. Therefore, such verb cannot take an infinitive phrase but a [+HUMAN] identity.	Also, if that student is planning to become a teacher, she/he must (…).
	Findings have collected information on the pros and cons of this freedom.	"Findings" is a [+ABSTRACT] and [-HUMAN] noun; consequently, it cannot perform the action of collecting information.	Researchers have collected information on the pros and cons of this freedom.
	Teachers also should teach abreviation and puntuation for students write as **accurately** as possible as they can.	"Accurately" in such phrase is an adverb and it does not fit in the parallel structure with the adjective "possible"	Teachers should also teach abbreviation and punctuation for students to write as accurately as possible.
	In brief, to **recolect** good grades will generate (…).	"Recollect" is a verb meaning to remember.	In brief, to get good grades will generate (…).
	In my life, I have never received agressions neither verbal no physical,	"Someone" is an indefinite pronoun used in affirmative statements. In negative statements,	In my life, I have received aggressions neither verbal nor

	and I have never accused **someone** because I think that (…).	indefinite pronouns like nobody and anybody, should be used.	physical, and I have never accused <u>anybody</u> because I think that (…).
	To have better grades, I have decided to asociate with friends to practice puntuation rules because that was my **fail** in the last exam.	"Fail" is verb. For forming the noun, it is added the suffix –ure to give the meaning "noun resulting from an action or state"	To have better grades, I have decided to associate with friends to practice punctuation rules because that was my <u>failure</u> in the last exam.
	When being in **parcials**, it was difficult to associate the info with his explanation.	"Partial" is an adjective meaning that the noun is not complete. In such case, partial is being used instead of exams.	When being in <u>exams</u>, it was difficult to associate the info with his explanation.
SPELLING			
SPELLING OMISSION	agression $\quad$ g → Ø exagerate $\quad$ g → Ø posible $\quad$ s → Ø agressive $\quad$ g → Ø acused $\quad$ c → Ø exageration $\quad$ g → Ø recolect $\quad$ l → Ø aplicate $\quad$ p → Ø eficient $\quad$ f → Ø acuse $\quad$ c → Ø asociation $\quad$ s → Ø exagerating $\quad$ g → Ø abreviation $\quad$ b → Ø asociating $\quad$ s → Ø exagerators $\quad$ g → Ø aggresive $\quad$ s → Ø recolecting $\quad$ l → Ø profesional $\quad$ s → Ø strugling $\quad$ g → Ø aplication $\quad$ p → Ø aditional $\quad$ d → Ø atention $\quad$ t → Ø sugestion $\quad$ g → Ø dificult $\quad$ f → Ø	In Spanish, it only exists the digraphs ch, ll, and rr which have no correspondence, while in English, there exist double consonants such as ss, pp,tt, cc, mm, ch, sh, th, ph, ff that have a single consonant value, for example: Spanish $\quad$ English $\quad\quad$ Phoneme s $\quad\quad\quad\quad$ ss $\quad$ = $\quad$ /s/ asociación $\quad$ association	a<u>gg</u>ression exa<u>gg</u>erate po<u>ss</u>ible a<u>gg</u>ressive a<u>cc</u>used exa<u>gg</u>eration reco<u>ll</u>ect a<u>pp</u>licate e<u>ff</u>icient a<u>cc</u>use a<u>ss</u>ociation exa<u>gg</u>erating a<u>bb</u>reviation a<u>ss</u>ociating exa<u>gg</u>erators aggre<u>ss</u>ive reco<u>ll</u>ecting profe<u>ss</u>ional stru<u>gg</u>ling a<u>pp</u>lication a<u>dd</u>itional a<u>tt</u>ention su<u>gg</u>estion di<u>ff</u>icult

	atracts $\quad$ **t** → Ø profesor $\quad$ **s** → Ø asociate $\quad$ **s** → Ø colect $\quad$ **l** → Ø attractive $\quad$ **t** → Ø aditionally $\quad$ **d** → Ø abreviate $\quad$ **b** → Ø		attracts professor associate collect attractive additionally abbreviate
	puntuation $\quad$ **c** → Ø demostrate $\quad$ **n** → Ø assigments $\quad$ **n** → Ø concious $\quad$ **s** → Ø	English has silent consonant letters represented by the symbol /#/ which occur due to these special combinations.	punctuation demonstrate assignments conscious
	_specially $\quad$ **e** → Ø	In Spanish, the vowel "e" before "s" is necessary to make the realization of pronunciation easier, while in English, the letter "e" before "s" is not necessary.	especially.
	beginers $\quad$ **n** → Ø	In Spanish, there is no double "nn" while in English, it is necessary to add another "n" to maintain the previous vowel sound. In Spanish, vowel spellings have consonant values, and it is not necessary to state environments. Simple vowel values are always spelled with single vowel letters, and complex values are always spelled with diphthongs.	beginners
SPELLING MISUSE	responsable, responsability,	The Spanish spelling pattern of "**a**"/æ/ is carried into English, instead of "**i**" /ə/ as for the Spanish students those sounds sound alike.	responsible, responsibility,
	Parcial	The Spanish spelling pattern of "**c**" /k/ and is carried to English, instead of "**t**" /ʃ/	partial
	Adquiring	The Spanish spelling pattern of "**d**"/d/ and is carried to English, instead of "**c**" /k/	acquiring
	Temp, foreing	The English lexicon already has its own written word.	Tend, foreign

	c<u>a</u>ntribute,	The Spanish spelling pattern of "**a**"/ɑ/ is carried into English, instead of "o" /ə/ as for Spanish students those sounds sound alike. English Spanish Result /ə/ ⟶ /a/ c<u>a</u>ntribute	c<u>o</u>ntribute
	efi<u>t</u>ient,	In some cases, the correspondences of Spanish words containing the lexeme "cien" is "tient" changing the "c" for "t", for example, patient.	ef<u>f</u>icient
PUNCTUATION			
COMMA ADDITION	Also, he has to have special attention to his puntuation in order to write correctly**. specially when the person is writing something important.**	The comma can be used before the adverb clause to give the necessary pause to avoid confusion and if the clause is non-essential or does not add relevant information. However, if it adds relevant information to the sentence, the use of comma should be avoided.	Also, he has special attention to his punctuation in order to write correctly **especially when the person is writing something important.**
	(…). They pay attention when a student failed the test**, or when they do not devolop efficiently on class.**	The comma should not be used if the coordinating conjunction joins equal elements; however, it is used before the coordinating conjunction to separate independent clauses.	(…). They observe when a student has failed the test **or when he or she not developed efficiently in class.**
	This does not accuse that the teacher should treat the students in an special way**, or should make a difference between one student and the other** because the other student may feel that (…).		This does not accuse that the teacher should treat the students in an special way **or should make a difference between one student and the other** because the other student may feel that (…).
	(…) because the other student may feel that the teacher did something bad**, like an agression to him**, and the student may feel aditional to the class, as an extra.	Commas are not used before prepositional phrases.	(…) because the other student may feel that the teacher did something bad **to him like an aggression,** and the student may feel additional to the class, as an extra.
	(…), they will not be totally involved**, like an abreviation**, you may understand it (in this case, the student) but not the whole thing as it has to be.		(…), they will not be totally involved. **Like an abbreviation**, you may understand it (in this case,

			the student) but not the whole thing as it has to be.
	(…), the only thing the teacher will recolect is an exageration from the students**, they will not be totally involved,** like an abreviation**, you may understand it** (in this case, the student) but not the whole thing as it has to be.	A comma cannot be used to separate independent clauses.	(…), the only thing the teacher will recollect is an exageration from the students**; they will not be totally involved,** like an abbreviation; **you may understand it** (in this case, the student) but not the whole thing as it has to be.
	Marie always recolect information about society problems especially agression against women**, and accuses these issues.**	A comma should not separate the subject of sentence with the verb phrase of the sentence.	Marie always recollects information about society problems especially aggression against women **and accuses these issues.**
	(…); they say I can be a teacher**, though I do not like teaching**, it is not my profession.	A comma is used when it is preceded by a subordinate clause following the structure: [S[SubCl[SubConj][NP][VP]] [,][IndCl[NP][VP]]]	(…); they say I can be a teacher **though I do not like teaching**; it is not my profession.
	(…), I do not like to show my abilities**, since, it can attract the wrong kind of people,** and I can be agressive with them, especially annoying people.	However, when the IC is first and then, the DC, the comma is not required. Note: The comma is used after introductory phrases in Standard English; however, it can be omitted when it does not affect the meaning.	(…), I do not like to show my abilities **since it can attract the wrong kind of people**, and I can be aggressive with them, especially annoying people.
COMMA MISUSE	"A large deal of teachers (…)of not applying the curriculum well"**,** stated a member of their student.	In a phrase with quotation marks, the comma is placed before the last quotation mark.	"A large deal of teachers … of not applying the curriculum well**,**" stated a member of their student.
	(…)**, for example, there are especial cases in which students suffer agression in their home.**	Spanish allows the comma to separate independent clauses in a paragraph while in English, to separate independent clauses, it is used semicolon or connectors.	(…)**. For example, there are especial cases in which students suffer aggression in their home.**
	(…)**, in addition a teacher must be able to catch the students attention, to be efficient at teaching, to (…).**		(…)**. In addition, a teacher must be able to catch the students' attention, to be efficient at teaching, to (…).**

	(…)**, for example, if a student acuses another student of (…).**		(…)**. For example, if a student accuses another student of (…).**
	This is not an exageration**, there are also some other details a teacher must pay attention to**;		This is not an exaggeration**; there are also some other details a teacher must pay attention to;**
	; they say I can be a teacher, though I do not like teaching**, it is not my profession.**		; they say I do not like teaching**; it is not my profession.**
	Partially I believe I have the potential**, it is possible.** Still, I have my attention in another job placements, but since I am a student and a responsible student**, I do not like to show my abilities, since, it can attract the wrong kind of people, and I can be aggressive with them, especially annoying people**.		Partially I believe I have the potential; **it is possible.** Still, I have my attention in another job placements, but since I am a student and a responsible student, **I do not like to show my abilities since it can attract the wrong kind of people, and I can be aggressive with them, especially annoying people.**
	(…), the posible attraction that some people feel to be in toxic relationships**, and we as future teachers need to apply all the knowledge we collect during our major in order to give efficient pieces of advice to our students.**		**(…),** the possible attraction that some people feel to be in toxic relationships**, and we as future teachers need to apply all the knowledge we collect during our major in order to give efficient pieces of advice to our students.**
COMMA OMISSION	This is not an exaggeration _there are also some other details (…).	A comma is needed for using introductory phrases and adverbs at the beginning of the sentence to avoid confusion.	This is not an exaggeration**; there** are also some other details (…).
	In adition, we need to know about some topics that are affecting our reality in a parcial or total way**, for example_** (…).		**In addition,** we need to know about some topics that are affecting our reality in a partial or total way. **For example,** (…).
	Partially_ I believe (…).		**Partially,** I believe (…).

	teachers acuse students of being lazy_ ignoring the possible causes	A comma is needed to intend that the gerund phrase is modifying the noun teacher rather than students.	Teachers blame students of being lazy, ignoring the possible causes
APOSTROPHE MISUSE	on **student's** behavior.	When the noun is plural and refers to something in general, the apostrophe should be used at the end of the word, for example, kids'toys, teachers' lesson plans, and so forth.	(…) on **students' behavior.**
	(…), **word's abbreviation**, punctuation, (…).		(…), **words' abbreviation**, punctuation, (…).
	(…) **students_ attention**, (…).		(…) **students' attention,** (…).
	Since one of the **teacher's characteristic** is to (…)		Since one of the **teachers' characteristic** is to pay attention to (…)
	(…) to gain his **student's attraction**.		(…) to gain his **students' attraction**.
	Teachers always pay attention on their **student's behavior** and (…).		Teachers always pay attention of their **students' behavior** and (…).

OCCURRENCE OF ERRORS FOUND IN JOURNAL COMPILATION OF COMPOSITION II STUDENTS FROM GROUP II			
Transfer Errors	**Meaningful Segment**	**Justification**	**Right Pattern**
SPELLING			
Spelling Misuse	Insecur**s** abou**l** par**c**ial	When learners begin to see the similarities that both languages involve, they fall into a sequences of serious transfer errors as they think in their L1 before using the L2 **by comparing cognates spelling patterns**. **True cognates are used as a strategy to write in L2 and it is** part of the positive transfer theory. English lexicon already has its own written word.	insecur**e** abou**t** par**t**ial
GRAMMAR			
Preposition Misuse	(…) do not go **at** the gym.	Prepositions are function words that indicate how a noun or phrase relates to the rest of the sentence. **AT** is used to indicate a point, place, or location, as an address, also to indicate a point of time, and to indicate a location or position on a scale, or in order while **TO** is used to express motion or direction toward a place, person, or thing approached and reached.	(…) do not go **to** the gym.
Pluralization Omission	I enjoy watching those kind of **movie** because (…) Nowada**y** Social networ**k**	In English when a singular countable noun follows the quantifier *one of* requires a plural noun. A quantifier is a word or phrase that tells us *how much* or *how many*. Among the types of words and phrases that can be quantifiers are: numbers, adjectives	I enjoy watching those kind of **movies** because… **Nowadays** Social networ**k**

		(all, several), prepositions (among, between), pronouns (these, those), and nouns with prepositional phrases (plenty of, a lot of, one of). When used with a countable noun, the noun form must match the plural quantifier.	
PUNCTUATION			
Coma omission	Having…is **<u>normal but</u>** people us find… It is considered as a good source of vitamins and **<u>minerals for</u>** that reason it is so vital for having a healthy diet. (…) to travel **by car buses** or motorcycles… (…,) but through the time___ it enrolled. **<u>Also sometimes</u>** people (…)	When a conjunctive adverb is used to link two independent clauses, it is preceded by a semicolon and followed by a comma. When a coordinating conjunction separates two main clauses or verbs, a comma precedes it. A subordinating conjunction introduces a dependent clause. A subordinating conjunction should not be followed by a comma. When an introductory phrase begins with a subordinating conjunction, there is a comma after the introductory phrase.	Having…is **<u>normal, but</u>** people us find… It is considered as a good source of vitamins and **<u>minerals, for</u>** that reason it is so vital for having a healthy diet. (…) to travel by **car, buses or** motorcycles… (…,) but through the time___ it enrolled. **<u>Also sometimes</u>** people (…)

OCCURRENCE OF ERRORS FOUND IN WRITTEN TEST COMPILATION OF COMPOSITION II STUDENTS FROM GROUP II			
Transfer Errors	**Meaningful Segment**	**Justification**	**Right Pattern**
SPELLING			
Spelling omission	Exa**g**erate a**b**reviation Profesión reco**l**ect A**s**ociating grammatica**l**y exa**g**eration e**f**icient A**cu**se commi**t**ing Profe**s**or a**d**itional Su**c**eed a**t**ention A**g**re**s**ive po**s**ible Co**l**ect su**c**eed A**g**ression a**s**ociate A**g**ression a**t**ention A**p**lícate reco**l**ecting A**t**raction profe**s**ionals Di**f**erent reco**l**ected **Apr**ove a**g**re**s**iveness A**p**lication a**s**ociation	One of the most common transfer errors as a result of carrying Spanish patterns into English is the omission of double consonants. In English there exist some specifications that say where letters can or cannot occur as in the following environments in which the double grapheme represents one sound: **Environment 2: (vowel) + CC** *pp* → /p/ *ff* → /f/ *tt* → /t/ *ss* → /s/ *cc* → /c/ *mm* → /m/ *bb* → /b/ *nn* → /n/ *dd* → /d/ *ll* → /l/ *gg* → /g/ These doubled consonants have a single consonant value, a designated phoneme for two consonants, whereas in Spanish the spellings of ch, ll, and rr are considered single graphemes. There are cognate words that may change in their spelling patterns, pronunciation, or both. The most common spelling transfer errors occur due to the inexistence of the same consonant doubled in exception of *cc, ll, rr, ch,* and so on.	**app**rove e**ff**icient a**tt**ention co**mm**it su**cc**eed, profe**ss**ional a**bb**reviation reco**ll**ect a**dd**itional a**gg**re**ss**ive, Exa**gg**erate grammatica**ll**y
	Know**ed**ge (l→ Ø) pu**nt**uate pu**nt**uality (c→ Ø) **Ca**racteristics (h→ Ø)	The omission of necessary letters in the English words become important when this omission is due to the interference of L1. Generally, students commit errors such as **Sound-to-Spelling and Spelling-to-Sound** when a phonetic pattern is carried over the L2 because of two main reasons: 1) to carry a phonetic pattern of L1 as the equivalent of a phoneme in L2 which does not exist in L1, and 2) when the phonemes are shared or	Know**l**edge Pun**c**tuate pun**c**tuality C**h**aracteristic Demo**n**strate Enviro**n**ment

	de**mos**trate envi**rom**ent (n→ Ø) Tech_iques sho_ter, (r→ Ø) effor_ (t→ Ø) sym_tom (p→ Ø)	exist in both languages but the spelling of L1 is carried to the spelling of L2.	tech**n**iques sho**r**ter Effor**t** Sym**p**tom
Spelling Misuse	Par**c**ial a**d**quired Respons**a**ble **ce**lect Deci**t**ions compl**it** Behaviori**ms** associ**c**tion questionn**ari**es irrespons**a**ble Profes**itio**n eff**ec**ient every kin**g** of paragraph	When learners begin to see the similarities that both languages involve, they fall into a sequence of serious transfer errors as they think in their L1 before using the L2 **by comparing cognates spelling patterns**. **True cognates are used as a strategy to write in L2** and it is part of the positive transfer. English lexicon already has its own written word.	par**t**ial a**c**quired respons**i**ble **s**elect comple**te** associ**a**tion profe**ss**ion irrespons**i**ble efficient decisions questionn**air**es behavior**is**m every kin**d** of paragraph
	GRAMMAR		
Article Addition	University of **the** El Salvador (…) It is important in **the** people´s life (…) these are **a** important characteristics	There exist two different types of articles that are used in writing to refer to a noun or group of nouns named definite and indefinite articles. In Spanish, nouns have gender (masculine/feminine). In Spanish, the indefinite article (un, uno, una) is not used before nouns describing profession, occupation or social status. The articles "the" and "a," need to have gender and number (specify singular or plural), and must agree correctly with the noun of the sentence. The articles 'a' and 'an' have the same connotation; the difference depends on the sound at the beginning of the next word.	University of _ El Salvador (…) It is important in people´s life (...) these are _ important characteristics
Article Omission	To **be teacher** is a good (…)		To be **a** teacher is a good (…)

Singular / Plural Verb Misuse	a teacher **have** to show (…) he/she **catch**…. he/she **get** (…) he **want** to become (…) **this** **attitudes are** (…) the student **have** to be (…) what cau**se** some students (…) he/she really **want** (…) if someone **want** (…) a person **want** (…) a student always **try** to pay attention (…) one characteristic that **define** (…)	Both languages (Spanish and English) have inflectional suffixes indicating gender, number, tense, and so forth, but each language has its own form of indicating irregularity. Such irregularity can be only shown by means of conjugation. In both languages, regular verbs are the ones in which the stem does not change and irregular verbs are the ones in which the stem changes. In English the third person singular has an inflection. The errors presented are ungrammatical because students generally omit the inflection affix of the verb in third person.	a teacher **has** to show (…) he/she **catches**… he/she **gets** (…) he **wants** to become (…) **these** attitudes **are** (…) the student **has** to be (…) what **causes** some students (…) he/she really **wants** (…) if someone **wants** (…) a person **wants** (…) a student always **tries** to pay attention (…) one characteristic that **defines** (…)
Pluralization Omission	certain **way** (…) was **one of the best teacher** I had one of the most special **characteristic** (…) (…) some **profession…** some students **problem** (…)	In English when a singular countable noun follows the quantifier *one of* requires a plural noun. A quantifier is a word or phrase that tells us *how much* or *how many*. Among the types of words and phrases that can be quantifiers are: numbers, adjectives (all, several), prepositions (among, between), pronouns (these, those), and nouns with prepositional phrases (plenty of, a lot of, one of). When it is used with a countable noun, the noun form must match the plural quantifier.	certain ways (…) She was one of the best **teachers** I have ever had. one of the most special **characteristics** (…) some **professions** (…) Some students **problems** (…)
PUNCTUATION			
Capitalization Misuse	I am a stude**nt At** the University to recollect information **about Hi**s students… Also**, They** (…) (**…); For** that reason, (…)	Capitalization occurs only in proper nouns, derivate, abbreviations, titles, etc. Moreover, the capitalization of the sentence happens in the first word of it, and if it follows a period, the first word is capitalized. This rule happens in both languages.	I am a student **at** the University to recollect information about **hi**s students (…) Also**, they** (…) (…**); for** that reason, (…)

	(…) do **it B**eing a (…) (…) born **For** the profe**ssi**on (…) On another hand**, For** being an efficient student (…) (…) Als**o, A** person life harder**; They** are		(…) do **it b**eing a (…) (…) born **for** the profe**ssi**on (…) On another hand**, for** being an efficient student (…) (…) Als**o, a** person (…) life harder**; they** are(…)
Capitalization Omission	(…) students´ **attention. the** teacher (…) (…) mistakes **we had. we** as students (…) of **study. he**/she (…) (…) in **class. spe**cially (…)		(…) students´ **attention. The** teacher (…) (…) mistakes **we had. We** as students (…) of **study. He**/she (…) (…) in **class. Spe**cially (…)
Comma Omission	**Also the** student (…) Moreover, depending on the profession they **take they** will show (…) for **example grammar** and (…) they have to do possible the learning proc**ess that** is why they need to collect the information (…) Als**o a** person (…) when finall**y** a person is a profession**al he**/she must (…)	When a conjunctive adverb is used to link two independent clauses, it is preceded by a semicolon and followed by a comma. When a coordinating conjunction separates two main clauses or verbs, a comma precedes it. A subordinating conjunction introduces a dependent clause. A subordinating conjunction should not be followed by a comma. When an introductory phrase begins with a subordinating conjunction, there is a comma after the introductory phrase.	**Also, the** student (…) Moreover, depending on the profession they **take, they** will show (…) for **example, grammar** and (…) they have to make the learning proc**ess** possible**, that** is why they need to collect the information (…) Als**o, a** person (…) when finally**,** a person is a **professional, he**/she must(…)

OCCURRENCE OF ERRORS FOUND IN JOURNAL OF ENGLISH COMPOSITION II STUDENTS FROM GROUP III			
GRAMMAR			
TYPE OF ERROR	MEANINGFUL SEGMENT	JUSTIFICATION	RIGHT PATTERN
PLURALIZATION MISUSE	on **papers** or walls.	Paper is an uncountable noun; therefore, it needs a quantifier. Consequently, to the plural noun of "paper" is **pieces of paper**.	(…) on **pieces of paper** or walls.
	children's **educations.**	Though the writer intended pluralization in "educations" due to the plural antecedent, "educations" is an uncountable noun.	(…) **children's education**.
PLURALIZATION OMISSION	(…) in addition, **student_** face problems (…).	The writer intended to use a plural subject indicated by the conjugation of "face" and the pronoun in third person plural.	(…). In addition, **students face** problems that (…).
	(…) if they want be a good **professional__.**	As the antecedent is a plural personal pronoun, then, "professional" should be as well in plural form. Therefore, the indefinite article "a" should be avoided.	(…) if they want to be _good **professionals**.
	On **vacation_,** people like to (…). On vacation, people like to do many activities, but some of them cannot afford quite expensive **venture_.**	The word "vacation" and "venture" should be in plural as the writer's intention is to talk about the subject in a general form.	**On vacations,** people like to do many activities, but some of them cannot afford quite expensive **ventures.**

PREPOSITION MISUSE	Different hobbies **to** different children	"To" is a preposition used to indicate goal however, the preposition "for" is more appropriate ____.	Different hobbies **for** different children
	; students have to wake up early to be on time **on** class because they live for away.	"On" is a preposition used to indicate *location in space*; however, the preposition "in" indicates *containment* which is more appropriate.	; students have to wake up early to be on time **in** class because they live for away
	; students have to wake up early to be on time on class because they live **for** away.	The writer intended to mean "faraway", but as the sound /ʌ/ in the adverb *far* and the sound /ɔ/ in the preposition *for* sound alike, the student produced such error	; students have to wake up early to be on time on class because they live **far** away.
	To samp up, Students **in** the university have many problems, but they have to deal with their problems if they want be a good professional.	"In" is a preposition used to indicate *containment*; however, the preposition "at" indicates *specific point in space* which is more appropriate.	To sum up, students **at** the university have many problems, but they have to deal with their problems if they want to be good professionals.
	For all those hobbies, childhood is the most enjoyable stage in people's lives.	The Spanish pattern of the word "Por" has been transferred to the spelling of English because they share most spelling elements.	**Because of** all those hobbies, childhood is the most enjoyable stage in people's lives.
	Small families in El Salvador have a better chance to overcome problems **to** living space, expenses and children's educations.	"To" is a preposition used to indicate *goal*; however, the preposition "of" indicates *possession* which is more appropriate.	Small families in El Salvador have a better chance to overcome problems **of** living space, expenses and children's education.
SPELLING			
SPELLING OMISSION	il̲lustrate l → Ø dif̲iculties f → Ø	As Spanish has just cc, rr, and ll as doubled consonants (considered as single phonemes),	il̲lustrate dif̲ficulties

		students tend to omit the following English environment:	
		Environment 2: (vowel) + CC	
		$pp \rightarrow$ /p/ $ff \rightarrow$ /f/	
		$tt \rightarrow$ /t/ $ss \rightarrow$ /s/	
		$cc \rightarrow$ /c/ $mm \rightarrow$ /m/	
		$bb \rightarrow$ /b/ $nn \rightarrow$ /n/	
		$dd \rightarrow$ /d/ $ll \rightarrow$ /l/	
		$gg \rightarrow$ /g/	
SPELLING MISUSE	for **instaed**, At **last**,	The student do not manage English environments	for **instance**, At **least**,
PUNCTUATION			
CAPITALIZATION MISUSE	(…) **U**niversity, **S**tudent, (…); (…); **B**esides,	Capital letters, in both languages, are used to begin a sentence or after a period in the paragraph. Additionally, capitalization occurs only in proper nouns, deities, abbreviations, titles, among others.	**u**niversity, student, …; **b**esides,
COMMA MISUSE	Childhood hobbies are funny, and some of them are amazing**, children like toys**	Spanish allows the comma to separate independent clauses in a paragraph while in English, semicolons or connectors are used to separate independent clauses	Childhood hobbies are funny, and some of them are amazing. **Children like toys**
	Children like academic hobbies**, they learn another language such as English French or Italian**		Children like academic hobbies; **they learn another language such as English French or Italian**
	Besides students spend much money in their transportation and food**, also**	A comma is used before coordinating conjunctions for joining independent clauses, following the structure:	Besides students spend much money in their transportation and

students spend money on unnessessary things.	[S[S[NP][VP] [,][coordinating conjunction] [S[NP][VP]]]	food**; also students spend money on unnecessary things.**
Beaches are good places for socializing and meeting new people; some of the places are known by the excellent discos, social dubs and bars that are situated close to beaches**, for example, Copacabana is a beach that every summer, receives millions of tourists that are looking for bars and parties.**	Moreover, a comma is used when it precedes a subordinate clause following the structure: [S[SubCl[SubConj[NP][VP]]] [,][IndCl[NP][VP]]]	Beaches are good places for socializing and meeting new people; some of the places are known by the excellent discos, social clubs and bars that are situated close to beaches. For example, Copacabana is a beach that every summer, receives millions of tourists that are looking for bars and parties.

OCCURRENCE OF ERRORS FOUND IN WRITTEN TEST II STUDENTS FROM GROUP III			
GRAMMAR			
TYPE OF ERROR	MEANINGFUL SEGMENT	JUSTIFICATION	RIGHT PATTERN
FAULTY PARALLELISM	A teacher must be responsible, efficient, and **show confidence** (//)	The derivational analysis consists of studying the affixes and suffixes that can change the stem from one part of speech to another. The writer intended to write a series of adjectives; however, he or she produced an unparalleled construction, moving from the preceding adjectives to a verb phrase whose equivalent is confident. Spanish has even more suffixes that are inflectional that indicate grammatical parts of speech.	A teacher must be responsible efficient, and confident.
	The special characteristic of demonstrating her (nouns) intelligent, efficient, attention <u>and application</u> (//)	The writer intended to write a series of adjectives; however, he or she produced an unparalleled construction, moving from the preceding adjectives to nouns-whose equivalent are intelligence, efficiency, attention, hard worker. **Her** is a possessive pronoun that just modifies the noun. Note. False cognates are words or structures transfer from L1 to L2 which cause errors like the word "*application" equivalent to Spanish "aplicada" which in English will be **hard working**. Usually the transfer of this false cognate makes students to express ambiguous meaning. Moreover, **her** in this case is used as an object which take nouns.	The special characteristic of demonstrating her intelligence, efficiency, attention, hard worker.

	Good students have the characteristics **of attention and being responsible** (//)	These prepositional phrases lack parallelism as they do not follow the same structure. In this case, the verb that is close to the preposition becomes –ing form which is describing something about someone. The writer intended to write a series of adjectives; however, he or she produced an unparalleled construction, moving from the noun **attention** to a prepositional phrase whose equivalent is being **attentive.** Note. The noun becomes an adjective.	Good students have the characteristics of being attentive and responsible.
PRONOUN MISUSE (POSSESIVE ADJECTIVE)	A student demonstrated to <u>their</u> professor that <u>she</u> was studying	In this case, the possessive adjective is modifying the noun punctuation; this possessive adjective **his** does not have an antecedent because it does not agree with the noun **students,** causing an error since the possessive adjective have to agree with the noun it modifies. In English, the possessive adjectives his, her, and their tell whether something belongs to a male, a female or plural noun However, in Spanish, the possessive adjective **su** has different meanings (her, his, its, their).	A student demonstrated to his or her professor that she or he was studying
	Special students get good grades in <u>his test</u>		Special students get good grades in <u>their</u> test.
	<u>Teacher</u> has to give **their** an especial attention		Teachers have to give them special attention.
	Students can be aggressive if teachers try to help them with **his** punctuation.		Students can be aggressive if teachers try to help them with their punctuation.

	Being <u>a student</u> is not as easy as many people think. <u>They are</u> supposed to know many things	The pronoun does not have an antecedent agreement with the noun, which is an error caused by an ambiguous reference in which the reader is unsure of the meaning of a pronoun that can refer to any of the previous antecedents used.	Being a student is not as easy as many people think; she or he supposes to know many things
	<u>They</u> cannot do anything for the associations that <u>protect children.</u> (There is no a previous equivalent to **children** as the noun previous mentioned was (**students**)	Singular antecedents are referred by singular nouns and plural antecedents by plural nouns.	People cannot do anything against students as they have rights.
SINGULAR/PLURAL VERB MISUSE	Many **school have** some associations	In English the third person singular nouns present an inflection in the verb. The examples show that students commit those errors by omitting –s or –es from the third person singular verb in their attempt to make the verb agree with the singular subject (he, she, it). In English, in the present tense, a verb changes its form only when its subject is in third person singular, whereas in Spanish, there are different inflections for verbs.	Many schools have (schools have) some associations.
	One characteristic of an efficient teacher is that **she or he apply** good techniques in class because **he or she love** the profession.		One characteristic of an efficient teacher is that <u>she or he applies</u> good techniques in class because <u>he or she loves</u> the profession.
	All the characteristics that a responsible **student have** (…)		All the characteristics that a responsible student has (…)
	All those things that **teacher say** (…)		All those things that teachers says (…)
	People does not have to accuse their teachers because of their bad grade		People do not have to blame their teachers because of their bad grade.
SPELLING			

SPELLING OMISSION	Profetion, diference, proffesor, agretion, eficient, adicional, agression, eficient, excelent, asociations, agression,atention, eficient, aplication, acuse, posible, exageration, profesor, adicional, recolect, posible, adittional, agressions, exagerate, recolecting, proffesionals, colect, profesionals, exagerate, recolect, agression, eficient, acused, **accusse**, abrevation, atention, profesor, atraction, colect, atention, abreviation,asociation, eficiency, diferenciate, dificulties, aggresion, reccolect, asociate, aply, aditional, posible, recolect, acused, eficiently, atraction, **proccess,adittional, profetion,**	Those examples are the most common transfer errors as a result of carrying Spanish patterns to English, generating a misspelled word as students may have not internalized that double consonants represent one sound. *pp* → /**p**/ *ff* → /**f**/ *tt* → /**t**/ *ss* → /**s**/ *cc* → /**c**/ *mm* → /**m**/ *bb* → /**b**/ *nn* → /**n**/ *dd* → /**d**/ *ll* → /**l**/ *gg* → /**g**/ *Note.* The only correspondence in both languages including spelling and pronunciation is **ch**, since ll has correspondence in spelling Spanish English /y/ → /l/	profession recollecting difference professional professor collect aggression abbreviation efficient efficiency additional differentiate excellent difficulties associations apply application attraction accuse process possible additional exaggeration profession recollect transmitted
	Puntuation c → Ø demostrate, n→Ø methos, d → Ø caracteristics, h→Ø thecniques, ch → Ø **efficent, i→ Ø**	c→/k/→# h→# ie→ /ə/ In this case, the errors produced are the omission of necessary letters in the words. This may occur due to the bad articulation of the words that students possess in which they write the words as they are listened to. As the letters	punctuation demonstrate methods techniques consequences characteristics responsible develop

		in the words are not silent/#/ consonant as in some cases. The placement of **"e"** is called **empty syllable carrier** as it serves to provide syllabicity. Generally, students commit spelling errors because of the pronunciation of some words that have similarities to words in Spanish.	efficient patient incident demonstrate
	insidente, [s] instead of [c] **responsable,** "I" instead of "a" **pacient, "t" instead of "c"** consecuences, q instead of c	With the word responsible, students follow a similar pattern of their language. This is caused due to the pronunciation of the word /rɪˈspɒn.sə.bᵊl/ instead of /rɪˈspɒn.si.bᵊl/, and ***pacient** in this case students are attempting to construct a word based on their knowledge of grapheme-phoneme, substituting **t** with **c,** the errors occur as a result of having no systematic rule for representing the /ʃ/ consonant with the [c] or [t] phonemes in the middle or final position. Omitting [a] and [c] [v] mute vowel and consonant because students write the way they articulate.	
		PUNCTUATION	
CAPITALIZATION MISUSE	For examp<u>le, The </u>student was good in *puntuation.	Capitalization occurs in proper nouns, derivate, abbreviations, titles, etc.	For examples, the student was good in punctuation.
	between the<u>m. o</u>ther student saw them	Moreover, the capitalization in the sentence happens in the first word of it, and if it follows a period, the first word is capitalized. This rule happens in both languages. However, students forget the capitalization of those words, and	Between them. Other student saw them.
	The principal called the <u>student's responsabl**e. t**</u>he student's father hit the *professor		The principal called the students' guarantor. The student's father hit the professor.

	It is difficult for students. teachers need to help them to improve	they generally capitalize words that follow commas, which is an error.	It is difficult for students. Teachers need to help them to improve
	The ability to develop cognitive skills. that is, to know how to apply the lessons		The ability to *develop cognitive skill**s. Th**at is, to know how to apply the lessons
	. another example, most teachers prefer multitasking activities.		. Another example, most teachers prefer multitasking activities.
	. additionally, other teachers prefer recolecting some data		**. A**dditionally, other teachers prefer recolecting some data
	To be a teacher is very difficult becaus**e** **T**he students do not pay attention.		To be a teacher is very difficult because the students do not pay attention.
	. in addition, most students do not pay attention in classes.		**. I**n addition, most students do not pay attention in classes.
COMMA OMISSION	Students have to be aware of punctuation_ and if it is possible to abbreviation	The comma is placed before coordinating conjunctions as they join two independent clauses. The following structure is presented: [S[NP][VP] [,] [coordinating conjunction] [S[NP][VP]]]] When the adverb clause is attached to the main clause, the comma is used. [SubC[SubConj [NP] [VP] [,] [NP[VP]]] however, if the adverb clause goes after the main sentence the following pattern is used. [S[NP][VP[Subj C[Sub conj[S[NP][VP]]]] Note: The comma is used after introductory phrases; on the other hand, if the phrase does not affect the meaning of the sentence the comma can be omitted.	Students have to be aware of punctuation, and if it is possible to abbreviation.
	When they are learning_ and it is because each of them has		When they are learning, and it is because each of them has
	For example, in compositio**n s**tudents have to be aware		For example, in composition, students have to be aware.
	If you want to be a teache**r y**ou need some qualities		If you want to be a teacher, you need some qualities.
	You must hav**e s**o you will apply them in the teaching process		You must have, so you will apply them in the teaching process.

APPENDIX F

UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR WESTERN
MULTIDISCIPLINARY CAMPUS
FOREIGN LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT

DATE: _____

A PROPOSAL TO INCORPORATE THE TEACHING OF SPANISH-ENGLISH TRANSFER ERRORS IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION I OF LICENCIATURA EN IDIOMA INGLÉS: OPCIÓN ENSEÑANZA AT THE WESTERN MULTIDISCIPLINARY CAMPUS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR, YEAR 2019

GENERAL OBJECTIVE: To improve English Composition I students' writing performance by integrating the teaching of transfer errors

DIAGNOSIS STUDY ADDRESSED TO ENGLISH COMPOSITION II STUDENTS OF LICENCIATURA EN IDIOMA INGLÉS: OPCIÓN ENSEÑANZA

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT'S OBJECTIVE:
To assess students' management of spelling correspondences in their pieces of writing

PART I- SPELLING

DIRECTION: Write a short paragraph incorporating and translating all the following words into English.

Responsable	estudiante	demostrar	profesor	atención	asociación
especial	especialmente	posible	profesión	aplicación	aplicar
característica	agresión	puntuación	diferencia	parcial	eficiente
adicional	recolectar	atracción	acusar	abreviación	exageración

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____.

PART II-GRAMMAR

DIRECTION: Translate the following sentences into English.

<u>Articles</u>

1) Los delfines son considerados los animales más inteligentes del mundo.
   _____

2) Haré mi comida y la tuya también.
   _____

3) Mi padre es arquitecto.
   _____

4) Tengo una sorpresa para ti.
   _____

<u>Gender</u>

5) Mira la luna. Mírala.
   _____

6) Mira la ballena. Mírala.
   _____

<u>Number</u>

7) Los otros niños participaron como niños pobres en el drama.
   _____

8) Esos papelitos son para el juego.
   _____

9) Ahorro doscientos dólares cada año.
   _____

<u>Pronouns</u>

10) Creo que Ana no es mexicana. Es española.
    _____

11) Después es más difícil estudiar si tienes novio o novia.
    _____

12) La niñera que tengo en mi casa cocina bien delicioso.
    _____

<u>Adjectives</u>

13) Roberto vio dos grandes camisas azules y dos camisas viejas rojas de algodón grandes
    en el supermercado y compró las azules.
    _____
    _____

<u>Prepositions</u>

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14) ¿Quién asesinó a Monseñor Romero?

      _____

15) ¿Para qué vinieron?

      _____

16) Después de comer, haré mis tareas.

      _____

Possessives

17) Mis hijos son hiperactivos. Los suyos son más educados.

      _____

18) Por favor, muéstrenos el carro de Luis.

      _____

Question Formation

19) ¿Estudiaste para el examen de francés?

      _____

Negation

20) Mario no encontró su teléfono.

      _____

21) No deseamos salir con esas personas porque son deshonestas.

      _____

Verb Tenses

22) Nos vemos el lunes.

      _____

23) ¡Mira! ¡Nieva!

      _____

Passive Voice

24) Se habla español aquí.

      _____

DIRECTION: If the sentence is grammatically correct place the word "CORRECT" or if the sentence is ungrammatical, place the word "INCORRECT" and arrange it to its correct form.

Word Order

1) Arrived very late the teacher this morning (_____)

      _____

2) John belongs to the Club of Soccer of Dallas. (_____)

      _____

3) Adriana was all the morning stuck in the traffic. (_____)

      _____

4) Mathew has been carrying to the school his toys before leaving on vacations. (_____)

_____

5) I started last week working on a new assignment. (_____)

_____

6) John sent a gift to Robert. (_____)

_____

DIRECTION: Complete the spaces in blank by choosing the most appropriate answer in the parentheses.

False Cognates

1) We did not enjoy the graduation_____ (absolutely/ at all).
2) The government has_____ (inverted/ invested) a lot of money in the new scheme.
3) I could not agree more. That is a very_____ (sensible/ sensitive) idea.
4) All my immediate family live in England, but I have a lot of _____ (parents/relatives) in Costa Rica.
5) Josue works at the Central Bank in Canada. He is _____ (a counter/ an accountant.
6) She could not _____ (remember/ record) the day we met for the first time.
7) It is forbidden to talk to the bus _____ (conductor/ driver).

DIRECTION: Circle the best option between the parentheses.

a) I have not been studying too much (actually/lately).

b) Answer/Attend the telephone!

c) Mary goes to a particular/private school near her house.

d) His aptitude in the cine was (molesting/annoying) me.

e) They have worked in the (factory/fabric) over 15 years.

APPENDIX G

SYLLABUS EVALUATION RUBRIC

CRITERIA	EFFECTIVE	EMERGING	BASIC
VISUAL APPEAL	Visually appealing. Text and visual content supplement and reflect one another. Draws students' attention to key areas of the syllabus.	Uses images related to the course content, outcomes, or goals.	Clearly laid out with identifiable sections and headers.
COURSE OVERVIEW	Explains in accessible language how the course fits with students' other educational efforts and also explains the course's usefulness and relevance.	Includes discussion of course goals, but provides little sense of course's larger connections to curriculum or to students' long-term interests.	Repeats description from curriculum
STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES	Syllabus contains student learning outcomes expressed as specific actions/skills and indicates what is expected from students in measurable terms	Syllabus contains student learning outcomes, expressed as specific actions/skills and indicates what is expected from students in measurable terms. Some outcomes are implicitly related to one another and are in alignment with assignments and course policies.	Syllabus contains a category for student learning outcomes that broadly indicates what successful students will be able to do by the end of the term. Outcomes may not be measurable, clearly related to one another, or in alignment with assignments and policies.
STUDENTS' PROFICIENCY OF ENGLISH	Syllabus contains adequately level of English, so	Syllabus vocabulary is complicated for students to	Syllabus activities are not proper for students' English proficiency.

	students are able to comprehend the course content, activities, and evaluations	understand the course content	
STUDENTS' PROCESS OF LEARNING	Activities and evaluations are created to boost students to be immersed in their own process of learning.	Activities and evaluations are created for knowing students' understanding of topics.	Activities and evaluations do not make students aware of their learning.
STRATEGIES TO SUPPORT THE EXTENSION OF THE LEARNING (STUDENT LEARNING NEEDS, PREFERENCES, INTERESTS, LEARNING STYLES, INTELLIGENCES, AND CULTURES)	Strategies purpose in the syllabus is designed to be adapted to any type of learning style (cognitive style, personality learning style, and sensory learning style). The activities cover students need and preference.	Strategies purpose in the syllabus are not adapted for all type of students' learning style, but it covers most of students' needs when practicing to correct and recognize problems.	Strategies purpose in the syllabus are created for students practices
COHERENCE BETWEEN ACTIVITIES AND TESTS	Activities and evaluations are closed related to help students to be in a comfort zone.	Activities and evaluations are not related. Activities are designed for students' management of the content.	Activities and evaluation seek to evaluate the content of the course.
CONTENT OF THE SUBJECT PREPARES STUDENTS FOR FUTURE REQUISITES IN ANOTHER SUBJECT	Satisfactorily meets the learning aims.	Moderately meets the learning aims.	Does not meet the learning aims.
DEMONSTRATE MORE IMPLICIT			The topics are just presented.

KNOWLEDGE OF THE TOPIC	The topics presented in the syllabus have more details explaining the sub-topics inside the main one.	The topics presented in the syllabus do not demonstrate more knowledge that the ones given.	
IMPLIED CONCEPTION OF KNOWLEDGE	The topics submitted in the syllabus imply a different perception of the content giving more details for covering students' needs.	The conception in the topics is superficial. It shows what it needs to be taught.	The topics give emphasis in more information
DEPTH OF CONTENT/ PROVIDED PRECISE EXPLANATION OF KEY CONCEPTS.	The syllabus provides a detailed description of the structure of the subject's contents.	The syllabus provides a poor description of the contents' aspects.	There is no explanation of the key contents.

APPENDIX H

UNIVERSIDAD DE EL SALVADOR
FACULTAD MULTIDISCIPLINARIA DE OCCIDENTE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT
ENGLISH COMPOSITION I SYLLABUS

I.   GENERALITIES

1. SUBJECT: ENGLISH COMPOSITION I – G2
2. INSTRUCTOR: LIC. DARLENE BRENDHALY MATA MARROQUÍN
3. PRE-REQUISITE: ENGLISH GRAMMAR I
4. HOURS PER TERM: 80
5. HOURS PER WEEK: 5
6. DURATION OF SEMESTER: 16 WEEKS
7. DURATION OF EACH CLASS: 50 MINUTES
8. CREDITS: 4
9. SEMESTER: II/2018
10. SCHEDULE: Monday from 6:45 to 8:25 – E0
          Wednesday from 6:45 to 8:25 – 3N
          Friday from 6:45 to 7:35 – 2B

2. COURSE DESCRIPTION

English Composition I is the first subject in which the students of Licenciatura en Idioma Inglés, Opción Enseñanza will have the opportunity to develop their English writing skills. Students will gradually develop the different abilities they need to be able to write sentences and paragraphs effectively. For this purpose, all students taking this subject will be asked to do intensive individual writing, so they can learn to express themselves through effective writing. They will also do group writing and will share their points of view and discuss about their opinions with their classmates. The student's role is crucial for this subject since they are the protagonists of their own learning process. Throughout the course, they will be exposed to different material, hand-outs, photocopies, and in-class and out-class tasks for them to submit punctually and responsibly. The teacher will assign an activity to be done in class; this means students have to use the class time effectively. Students work, cooperation and collaboration will be assessed daily. It also includes their involvement, active class participation, punctuality, and submission of homework assignment at the appointed time and following the guidelines already provided by the instructor of the course.

3. STUDENT'S MATERIALS TO BE USED IN AND OUT OF CLASSES:

- Handouts, english english or english spanish dictionaries, notebook, pens/pencils, eraser, highlighters, markers
- Laptops (to be announced), usbs
- Bond paper, color paper, scissors, masking tape.

4. COURSE OBJECTIVES

A. General Objectives:

At the end of this course, SWBAT:

- identify sentence faults and arrange them accurately

- write effective, clear and complete sentences

- write short paragraphs in order to apply the basics

B. Specific Objectives:

At the end of this course, SWBAT:

- identify and correct sentence flaws

- write effective sentences in English

- use different types of English sentences adequately

- write unified and coherent paragraphs

- use different types of methods of paragraph development to express their ideas in English

5. COURSE CONTENTS

UNIT I: Main Sentence Faults

1. Sentence Fragments
2. Comma Splices and Run-on Sentences
3. Rambling Sentences
4. Overloaded Sentences
5. Mixed and Illogical Constructions
6. Faulty Parallelism
7. Dangling Modifiers
8. Misplaced Modifiers
9. Shifts (in person, mood, tense, voice)
10. Wordiness

UNIT II: Sentence Coordination and Subordination

1. Faulty Coordination
2. Over Coordination
3. Faulty Subordination
4. Over Subordination

UNIT III: SENTENCE VARIETY

1. Sentence Length and Structure
2. Avoiding Strings of Brief and Simple Sentences
3. Interest and Emphasis

1. Cutting empty words and phrases
2. Avoiding Unnecessary Repetition
3. Simplifying Groups of Words and Sentences

UNIT V: PARAGRAPH WRITING

1. Definition
2. Characteristics
3. Main Elements

6. METHODOLOGY

The English Composition I course will be taught using methodological strategies that will help students interact among themselves and learn cooperatively. At the same time, individual work will as well be promoted so that students can learn to be independent. Students will also have the opportunity to use collaborative learning so that they can share their opinions with their classmates. Students will be required to carry out tasks in and outside the class. For instance, they will be asked to submit a journal entry every single week. The instructor will add student to a cloud using the application of Google Drive in order to have discussions with students. They will write comments and paragraphs through that means. The teacher will indicate a time and date for students to follow this procedure. In addition, as they will have pop quizzes, they will take place any time. It is not the teacher's responsibility to inform students the date and time for this examination. It can be a written practice, some research on a topic, a mini presentation, a group work task, or a traditional written exam. Pop quizzes will not be made up whatsoever. Furthermore, the nature of the subject demands students to craft some paragraphs and correct mistakes in writing, so it will require students to be punctual, neat, and responsible of their own work. The teacher is just a facilitator.

7. PRINCIPLES OF THE PROCEDURES OF THE PROFESSOR DARLENE MATA ARE THE FOLLOWING:

7.1. AXIOLOGICAL COMPONENT

- The classroom is a space to share culture.
- Nobody can be discriminated or damaged written or verbally by his or her gender, age, social status or beliefs.
- All people in the classroom are anxious to learn actively.
- All people need to optimize the time of this course.
- Respect is one of the fundamental values in this course.
- Interaction between professor and students and students among themselves is expected in this course.

7.2. EDUCATION OF PHILOSOPHY COMPONENT

- Centered-student learning environment will take place in this course.

- Class participation is the based to guarantee students' learning.

- Students' opinions will be respected by all the students and professor.

- The objectives of the course are related to the evaluations of the semester.

- Evaluations in this course are to develop students' abilities.

- All homework assignments are designed to achieve the objectives of the course, in this way students' learning.

7.3. FORMAL COMPONENT

- Professor and students are to be punctual to classes.
- No changes in the schedule will be made. It will be as it is established in the generalities.
- Attendance will be taken into consideration in two or three periods of the class. Students will sign twice or thrice, that is to say in the first, the second, and third hour.
- If there is a necessity to ask for permission to miss a class, the students will write a note and deliver it a day before the absence to the professor in charge of the subject.
- Students will deliver homework assignments **only in class time** and classroom assigned to teach that day. Homework assignments will not be delivered to English Composition II social service student, at least the professor authorizes the so.
- All homework assignments delivered at my office will not be taken into account as homework. (special cases)
- All homework assignments have to be given back only to the student being evaluated.
- The professor will pick up homework assignments during the **first ten minutes** of each class. If a student gets late, he or she will have the chance to deliver it until next class. If the student misses that class, homework assignments cannot be now handed in.
- The professor will deliver homework assignments already checked five minutes before the class finishes.
- Students will add two title pages in all written or oral homework assignment. The format of the title page is in **appendix A.**
- Students will hand in all homework assignments in a color folder the group agrees the very first day of classes.
- Students will get a notebook for the journal entries.
- Students will hand in a journal entry every week with its revised version. The notebook to be used for the journal will be covered with the same color paper of the folders and wrap it with transparent plastic. Students need to write their names on the cover of such a notebook to be identified quickly.
- The professor will give the journals back to students eight days after they delivered it to the professor. It will include all the suggestions to write it better in the next entry with a new one. The topics for the journals can be free or the professor will announce the topics to consider.
- When delivering typed homework assignments, use font Arial, size 12 and double space.
- All hand written homework assignments have to be with blue or black ink.
- Cell phones must be in vibration mode during the class.
- Students who are not enrolled in the subject cannot participate of the course. (friends, boyfriend, or girlfriend)
- All written tests must be solved with the students the same day tests are given back.

7.4. GREEN COMPONENT

- It is necessary to save money as families, so it is not a must to buy expensive resources to deliver homework assignments in this course.
- Students may deliver homework assignments in reusable pages, folders, or notebooks, among other resources.
- When printing homework assignments, students may print them using ecoprint option or other options that help to conserve the environment.
- When illustrating an event or so, students may draw or cut instead of printing pictures. This is to save paper and money.

8. COURSE EVALUATIONS

N°	EVALUATIONS	PERCENTAGE	DATES
1	**First Written Test** This is a written test in which students are presented sentences or paragraphs in order to be corrected, that is to say, avoiding sentence faults. The professor will indicate any other elements as necessary.	**15%**	Monday Sept. 24th
2	**Second Written Test** As in the first written test, the second one will contain topics studied during the second phase, and the professor will indicate any other elements to include as necessary.	**20%**	Wed. Oct 24th
3	**Weekly Journal Entry, in and out class tasks** Students will hand in a journal entry every week with the revised version. The professor will let students know when it is a free topic or an assigned one. This topic has to be an interesting one to students.	**15%**	During the semester
4	**Final Written Test** The professor will indicate the topics to include in this test.	**25%**	Wed. Nov 26th
5	**Pop Quizzes** Pop quizzes will include oral or written evaluations, considering all the material students have. These evaluations are not announced in advance.	**5%**	During the semester

6	**Oral Presentations** In groups of four, students will prepare an oral presentation of the following topics: 1. Faulty Coordination 2. Over Coordination 3. Faulty Subordination 4. Over Subordination 5. Sentence Length and Structure 6. Avoiding Strings of Brief and Simple Sentences 7. Interest and Emphasis 8. Cutting empty words and phrases 9. Avoiding Unnecessary Repetition 10. Simplifying Groups of Words and Sentences Students need to prepare a 30 minute oral presentation, and they are expected to be asked by the teacher and classmates. Material, visual aids, and quality of content will be evaluated. Students will present a report with the information they searched and the examples of their own.	**10%**	Monday Nov 12th Wednesday 21st
7	**Formative Assessment** Aspects to consider: Attendance, punctuality, responsibility, homework assignments presented on due time, in-activities, attitudinal behavior: class participation, engagement in class, active learning, helpful attitude with classmates, helpful attitude and responsibility in group-work assignments, respectful attitude with classmates and teacher.	**10%**	During the semester
	TOTAL	**100%**	
8	Make-up Test (All the course material will be included in this test.)	**----**	Monday Dec. 5th

9. COURSE BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Gorrel and Laird. Modern English Handbook. Fourth Edition.

- Hacker, diane. A Handbook for Writers. Second Edition.

- Hefferman, James A. W. & John Lincoln. WRITING—A College Handbook. Second Edition.

- Zimmer, Lanham stewrt. College English and Communication. Third edition.

APPENDIX I

UNIVERSIDAD DE EL SALVADOR
FACULTAD MULTIDISCIPLINARIA DE OCCIDENTE
FOREIGN LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT

UNDERGRADUATE WORK

A PROPOSAL TO INCORPORATE THE TEACHING OF SPANISH-ENGLISH

TRANSFER ERRORS IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION I OF LICENCIATURA EN IDIOMA

INGLÉS, OPCIÓN ENSEÑANZA AT THE WESTERN MULTIDISCIPLINARY CAMPUS

OF THE UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR, YEAR 2019

SUBMITTED TO OBTAIN THE DEGREE OF

LICENCIADA EN IDIOMA INGLÉS, OPCIÓN ENSEÑANZA

PRESENTED BY

DIANA CAROLINA ALVARADO PLEITEZ

ADRIANA MARIBEL GARCÍA AGUILAR

PAOLA ALEJANDRA MARTÍNEZ DE GUTIÉRREZ

THESIS ADVISOR

MASTER JOSÉ RIGOBERTO CORLETO BERGANZA

OCTOBER, 2019

SANTA ANA, EL SALVADOR, CENTROAMÉRICA

ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH COMPOSITION I SYLLABUS

This analysis is made based on the rubric for analyzing the syllabus (APPENDIX G) following the requirements a syllabus must comply with. With respect to visual appeal, the syllabus is considered to have incomplete design. To paraphrase, it needs to reorganize the sections and headings to make them identifiable and appealing for the lector. Regarding the course overview, the syllabus is characterized as emerging since the course objectives do not extend widely to the curriculum of the major, that is, the long-term purpose. However, it states that English Composition I is designed for students to learn the basis for developing a good writing. Indeed, English Composition I helps students to correct and identify a myriad of grammatical errors such as fragments, subject-verb agreement, run-on sentences, rambling sentences, misplaced modifiers, among others, which affect them to express their ideas for academic and professional purposes.

Additionally, students' learning outcomes is broadly explained in the syllabus. It generally describes what students will be able to do at the end of the course. It states that English Composition I provides students with the correct use of verb, sentence structure, parallelism and many composition principles used in writing. Also, it implies that writing is an important skill that L2 learners must expand; this skill is usually compared with speaking because if students are not able to establish a good conversion, they are not able then to write clearly.

Concerning students' proficiency of English, one of the aims of the syllabus is to be adapted to students' English proficiency; this is with the purpose of helping students to understand the information, activities and evaluations that will be applied during English Composition I. Such consideration classifies the syllabus as emerging as it is designed in some way to cover students' English proficiency. The syllabus also defines that the methodology teachers implement in the class will depend on the needs they want to accomplish at the end of the course. Though the syllabus declares, it gives students the freedom to look for data which will benefit their process of learning as not all students have the same learning style; it lacks from more teaching strategies to meet each student needs, preferences, interests, among others. In other words, the syllabus does not state the strategies to be used in difficult situations such as problems with students requiring special attention, which categorized this syllabus as having a basic design. Moreover, researchers consider that the role of the teacher in most of the subjects

is to be the facilitator and not to give all the material to students. During the analysis of the syllabus, teachers included activities to observe the progress that students have so that teachers can give them feedback in the problems that students find more complex. In relation to this criterion, coherence between activities and tests, the syllabus was evaluated as emerging as activities are somehow related to help students to reach the learning objectives in general.

The strategies and methods that teachers choose for the teaching of English Composition I must be designed to support the sub-topics that may arise during the course without taking into account that they are not part of the accomplishment of the objectives. Teachers have to be aware that their plans can change because of time or because of students' poor understanding of the topic. Besides, because of the limited time English Composition I and English Composition II have, teachers need to look for strategies to extend students' learning outside the class.

The activities that teachers propose in the syllabus have to give students the opportunities to work alone, with pairs and in groups. Some students prefer to work with people as they generally learn from others. In addition, collaborative learning is a good strategy for students to enhance their writing with their classmates to cover problems that they have to overcome. The English Composition I syllabus presented considerable strategies to cover students' learning style and capability; the written test is one of the evaluations chosen by teachers to see the performance of students in the subject and the aspects that teachers have to continue working on.

During the investigation, researchers noticed that most topics included in the syllabus need to be comprised as they are closely related, affecting the assigned time for the subject. Researchers considered that incorporating the topics will help students to understand in a flow and will help teachers to work carefully for covering any fault that may arise. Such aspects could have a certain impact in students learning as students' inductive knowledge would be increased. The activities show coherence with the evaluations that are to be administered throughout the subject.

In summary, English Composition I prepares students to take English Composition II; the difference among them is that one trains students on how to identify and correct grammatical problems and the other one makes students put into practice what they have learned in the first

one. After passing both subjects, students are asked to have a proper writing proficiency since it is supposed that they have the basis to do it. Furthermore, the topics presented in English Composition I contained implicit knowledge from other subjects that are grammar, linguistics, morphology and syntax.

English Composition I covers faulty coordination, over coordination, faulty subordination, over subordination, sentence length and structure, avoiding strings of brief and simple sentences, interest and emphasis, avoiding unnecessary repetition, simplifying groups of words and sentences. The poor perception of the topics that involve English Composition I may lead to the poor management of the topics to be developed. Composition problems are closely related with the interference that L1 has on L2. L2 learners, while writing, produce errors like faulty parallelism, subject-verb agreement, omission of the noun or verb, and others. This occurs because Spanish people omit the subject without affecting the meaning of the sentence, which in English is incorrect because Spanish is a null subject language and English is non-null subject language. In order words, English does not permit the omission of the subject, except in the imperative sentences. To use a certain teaching approach superficially may limit students' learning process.

Through the analysis of the syllabus researchers could notice that Spanish-English transfer errors are implicit in the syllabus but not as the way they were expected because transfer errors are seen as superficial problems that learners do not know the origin of them. Those topics presented in the syllabus provide basic key concepts instead of going deeply into the roots of composition problems.

With the desire of improving the way of presenting the topics, researchers created a model of the syllabus to comprise similar topics and for including the transfer errors with more incidence taken from the diagnosis study.

PROPOSAL MODEL OF THE ENGLISH COMPISITION I SYLLABUS

English composition curriculum prepares learners to meet the English language proficiency in writing. In order to accomplish this, the English Composition I syllabus develops subject matters on faulty constructions which affect students' writing. ESL writing instruction begins early to support the development of increased vocabulary and improved thinking skills. Writing is used as a concrete evidence of individual achievement and serves to enrich comprehension of both written and spoken language at all levels. The model of the proposal syllabus was taken from English Composition I syllabus 2018 (APPENDIX H).

Additionally, the syllabus provides students with information about the subject matter, approach, methods and activities to be implemented along the course. However, researchers agreed that the syllabus needs reorganization as some contents can be comprised into a single theme. Therefore, researchers present the new model for the English Composition I syllabus which reorganizes the target contents adding the transfer errors with more incidence such as pronoun misuse; faulty parallelism; singular/plural verb misuse; verb tense misuse; comma omission, addition, misuse; spelling omission, misuse; word choice; apostrophe misuse; capitalization misuse, omission; pluralization omission, misuse; preposition misuse; article omission and addition, and negation misuse found during the research study remaining the following organization shown below.

Moreover, researchers consider that some transfer errors are involved in composition faults, for example, comma omission, addition and misuse in comma splice and run-on sentences, and as a result, such fact gives room to the syllabus reorganization. In other words, this model does not change the actual syllabus as the focus and reorganization is the only variation made. It is necessary to emphasize that researchers made the proposal based on the errors with more incidence mentioned above.

The transfer errors incorporated in the target contents have a specific allocation for achieving the aim of this proposal. They are allocated in the target contents with the purpose of reinforcing L2 acquisition since in such way, the learning of the target language patterns will be facilitated. For this reason, researchers have incorporated the activities including transfer errors in the contents already established in English Composition I syllabus as shown below.

In the course content "Sentence Fragments," researchers suggest to incorporate the teaching of the transfer errors: spelling misuse and omission, and capitalization. This inclusion has been developed in this section as researchers consider that spelling misuse and omission could fit in this topic since it introduces the basic patterns for starting writing. Indeed, researchers reflect that teachers could make a brief pause to introduce spelling transfer errors produced by the interference that L1 has into L2 since students are asked to start recognizing and revising errors.

Concerning "Faulty and over Coordination & Rambling sentences," researchers propose to include the transfer errors: comma omission, misuse, addition, and overuse. Such inclusion has been made with the purpose of making a comparison of Spanish and English punctuation patterns in comma usage. Additionally, researchers reflect that those transfer errors are more suitable in this part as they are in some extent the cause of faulty and over coordination and rambling sentences.

Researchers, in "Mixed and Illogical construction," think that the transfer errors: apostrophe, article, pluralization omission and addition, preposition misuse and omission are more appropriate to be encompassed in this section since those errors generally affect the readers' interpretation of the message.

Regarding "Faulty parallelism," researchers, considering the transfer error "faulty parallelism" from the findings, analyzed that this error is the same composition fault. Therefore, researchers consider that in this composition content, it is exactly where the error of faulty parallelism should be given emphasis by providing its corresponding explanation, for example, the change from noun to adjective or vice versa.

In "Wordiness" which is generated due to the excessive use of words for expressing the same idea, researchers integrated the transfer error: word choice. This allocation was implemented as researchers evaluate that students need reinforcement when choosing the right word in a given context because researchers in the data processing found that students do not know how to use the proper word which resumes a group of words with the same meaning. In this manner, teachers can counteract this phenomenon as students will strengthen their L2 vocabulary.

In respect of "Shift in person, mood, tense, and voice," researchers appraised that the proposal of activities of transfer errors: verb tense misuse, and singular/ plural verb tense are more appropriate in this segment as they estimate that students need to improve their management on verb tense; for example, they do not conjugate the present tense of third person singular.

I. GENERALITIES

1. **SUBJECT: ENGLISH COMPOSITION I**
2. **GROUP:**
3. **INSTRUCTOR:**
4. **PRE-REQUISITE: ENGLISH GRAMMAR I**
5. **HOURS PER TERM: 80**
6. **HOURS PER WEEK: 5**
7. **DURATION OF SEMESTER: 16 WEEKS**
8. **DURATION OF EACH CLASS: 50 MINUTES**
9. **CREDITS: 4**
10. **SEMESTER:**
11. **SCHEDULE:**

II. COURSE DESCRIPTION

English Composition I provides the basis for students to recognize, avoid and stop committing errors that decreases their proficiency in writing. This subject introduces students the errors that most of them commit and a variety of ways to fix them. Moreover, it provides explanation about the comparison of spelling and grammatical patterns of Spanish and English causing transfer errors, such as faulty parallelism, shift in tense, person, mood and voice, mixed and illogical construction, and so forth. Errors are caused by carrying Spanish patterns into English writing resulting in serious grammatical and semantical problems. For this reason, English Composition I is an important subject that trains students to immerse in their writing skill, a difficult ability which requires much dedication. The inclusion of transfer errors will provide an overview of English and Spanish patterns that influence students' writing which will help students to produce correct sentences and paragraphs. At the end of the course, students

will have an improvement in their process of writing since they will identify, avoid and fix the errors that affect them. Throughout the course, students will be exposed to different material, hand-outs, photocopies, and in-class and out-class activities for them to submit punctually and responsibly. Those activities will be created for students to practice. Students' work, cooperation and collaboration will be assessed daily. It also includes their involvement, active class participation, punctuality, and submission of homework assignments at the appointed time and following the guidelines already provided by the instructor of the course.

III. STUDENT'S MATERIALS TO BE USED IN AND OUT OF CLASSES:

Appendixes, photocopies, notebooks, pens/pencils, eraser, highlighters, markers, bond paper, color paper, scissors, masking tape, whiteboard, projector, computer, worksheets

IV. COURSE OBJECTIVES

A. General Objectives:

At the end of this course, SWBAT:

- internalize Spanish and English spelling and grammatical patterns
- recognize the differences between Spanish and English structures
- identify sentence faults and arrange them accurately
- write effective, clear and complete sentences
- write short paragraphs in order to apply the basics

B. Specific Objectives:

At the end of this course, SWBAT:

- identify and correct sentence faults
- write effective sentences in English
- use different types of English sentences adequately
- write unified and coherent paragraphs
- use different types of methods of paragraph development to express their ideas in English
- apply correct punctuation patterns in their pieces of writing
- to increase accurate lexicon to make their writing proficient

V. COURSE CONTENTS

UNIT 1. MAIN SENTENCE FAULTS

- **Sentence Fragments**

Suggested content structure to incorporate transfer errors: spelling misuse and omission, and capitalization

- **Faulty and over Coordination & Rambling sentences**

Suggested content structure to incorporate transfer errors: Comma omission, misuse, addition, overuse

- **Run-on sentences &Comma splice**:

Suggested content structure to incorporate transfer errors: Comma omission, misuse, addition, overuse

UNIT 2. FAULTY CONSTRUCTION

- **Dangling, Squinting, and Misplaced Modifiers**
- **Mixed and Illogical construction**

Suggested content structure to incorporate transfer errors: Apostrophe, article, pluralization omission and addition, preposition misuse and omission

- **Faulty Parallelism**

UNIT 3. CONCISENESS IN WRITING

- **Wordiness**

Suggested content structure to incorporate transfer errors: Word choice

- **Overloaded sentences**
- **Shift in person, mood, tense, voice**

Suggested content structure to incorporate transfer errors: Verb tense misuse, singular/ plural tense misuse, pronoun and negation misuse

VI. METHODOLOGY

Methods, approaches, and techniques are an essential part in the classroom as the learning process can be a hard part for students that are acquiring new knowledge. Researchers agree to apply the eclectic approach as it does not limit the use of different strategies and methods since it gives room to personalize learning according to students' needs. Being able to master the writing skill is not an easy task, so it is required to have certain management of aspects in phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. When learners do not internalize the target language structure appropriately; they commit errors that are usually fossilized, preventing them from having a good performance in their writing skill. Researchers focus on included reading activities as reading and writing are skills that are connected among them. Through reading, students are able to increase their lexicon and are exposed to sentence structures. Besides, it provides students with sources for them to expand their imagination. Also, researchers implemented the inductive method to introduce learners to the target content as well as the deductive method to make students correct and identify fault constructions in sentences after presenting the target content. Furthermore, collaborative learning is applied as group and pair work has been used for making students interact among them; it is worthy to mention that group or pair work can be adopted depending the kind of activity that teachers want to apply being either a speaking or writing activity. Also, the grammar translation method is used in some activities for making students be aware of the different structures of Spanish and English.

INTRODUCTION OF THE PROPOSAL

This proposal has been designed in order to incorporate the teaching of Spanish-English transfer errors in English Composition I at the Western Multidisciplinary Campus as English Composition II students face problems due to the influence that L1 has over L2 at the moment of writing. Researchers will incorporate some activities in allusion to transfer errors found in students' writing. Researchers will create a model lesson plan departing from a handout given by an English Composition II teacher. In the lesson, they will add proposal activities that teachers may include in or out the class for students to have a reinforcement of the topic. The interventions of the proposal activities will be included in a precise moment of the lesson so that teachers can make students aware of the influence that L1 has on L2.

The activities are related with the transfer errors with more occurrence, such as pronoun misuse; faulty parallelism; singular/plural verb misuse; verb tense misuse; comma omission, addition, misuse; spelling omission, misuse; word choice; apostrophe misuse; capitalization misuse, omission; pluralization omission, misuse; preposition misuse; article omission and addition; negation misuse found in students' pieces of writing. Since the beginning of the research study, researchers could not have access to the macro lesson plan. So, they decided to make a model of a lesson plan from the target content provided in the handout, including activities about sentences fragments in which transfer errors are immersed. In the lesson, researchers included proposal activities with the aim of improving students' writing skill.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PROPOSAL

The proposal is designed for the Foreign Language Department and for English Composition I teachers and students as this subject prepares students to start writing academic paragraphs and essays. Indeed, this proposal is necessary because of the occurrence of errors and mistakes that researchers found in English Composition II subject.

The Spanish-English transfer errors do not have the adequate focus in the teaching of English Composition I. Besides, the management of this problem is needed to improve students' writing because students commit serious errors; they compare the same pattern of L1 with L2. This produces consequences in their writing since there are some patterns in Spanish that do not fit in English.

Researchers designed a proposal of a model lesson plan taking as a topic the content of sentence fragments already settled in English Composition I syllabus; they included proposal activities of transfer errors so that teachers can continue following the same structure that researchers gave. Each activity has been incorporated in order to make students aware of the most common transfer errors that they may commit when they write and to show students to what extent they are allowed to compare both languages.

APPROACH TO THE NEED

The influence that L1 has on L2 is considerable because the comparison of them leads to transfer errors as L2 learners fill the gasps with the L1 patterns. The interference of L2 has shown that foreign language learners tend to be highly dependent on L1 structures and vocabulary, especially when producing similar responses in the target language.

In order to comprehend and explain aspects and effects that L1 carries into L2 and to understand better what may lead to a transfer error, it is necessary to address to matters such as lexicon acquisition (phonology), word formation (morphology), grammatical structures (syntax), and meaning of words (semantics). The errors mentioned before were found in the writing performance of students; however, the ones taken into account were the errors and mistakes with more frequency like pronoun misuse; faulty parallelism; singular/plural verb misuse; verb tense misuse; comma omission, addition, misuse; spelling omission, misuse; word choice; apostrophe misuse; capitalization misuse, omission; pluralization omission, misuse; preposition misuse; article omission and addition; negation misuse.

All the components of the topics above are studied in different subjects; however, the complexity of each one makes students to have difficulties to understand and to put into practice all the knowledge at the moment of writing. Moreover, this proposal aims to improve students' writing and to have a good command of their knowledge; by means of these proposal activities students are going to differentiate the sentence constructions of both languages.

DESCRIPTION OF THE BENEFICIARIES AND STAFF

English Composition I gives the basis needed to avoid errors at the moment of writing. English has complex series of rules that students must follow, and the omission or overuse of any structure, punctuation, or word lead to errors that clutter writing.

Teachers' aid in English Composition I and II becomes highly important because they are the tools that provide students the essential data so that students know the problems that they have to avoid at the moment of writing. Also, teachers must be aware of correcting all types of errors that students have before internalizing those faults in order to avoid giving feedback on the same problems over and over.

The beneficiaries will be English Composition I students since they use writing for academic and professional purposes. If students were more conscious of the importance of the knowledge acquired in each subject, they could integrate the most important information to put it into practice at the moment of writing. The implementation of transfer errors will make students conscious of the interference that their mother tongue has in L2.

PROPOSAL OBJECTIVES

General Objective

- To provide English Composition I teachers with the proposal teaching activities for counteracting Spanish-English transfer errors in students' writing

Specific Objectives

- To compare Spanish and English spelling, grammar and punctuation patterns
- To implement activities including Spanish-English transfer errors to raise students' awareness
- To present Spanish and English patterns for students to distinguish both languages' rules

Since writing represents a means to learn and reinforce skills, ESL students must know and realize that the ability to write is crucial in their process of the language learning and that they will become more effective writers once they comprehend that writing is a process, and as a process, it has stages that can be identified and elements that must be learned. Thus, the teachers' role is to provide learners with methods, materials, activities, and tasks necessary to understand those stages to engage actively. In addition, Grabe (2009) and Ahn (2014) believed that among language learning skills, writing has been consistently referred to as a complicated skill particularly for non-native speakers of English due to the fact that they are not exposed to the language as native speakers. Tangpermpoon (2008) explained that the reason for this was that during writing production, students of English as a foreign language (EFL) are required to focus on different tasks such as choosing proper words, using correct grammatical patterns and spelling.

Writing is a difficult task for non-native speakers; the complexity that writing contains produces that students have problems at the moment of expressing their ideas. Non-native speakers have to learn new structures that usually are different from their mother tongue making the process of writing unpleasant. As Tangpermpoon mentioned that the most complicated thing about writing for L2 learners is that they have to care about composition principals; through this research study, researchers could prove that the most frequent errors that students commit while writing were in the areas of grammar, spelling and punctuation because students avoid the spelling of double consonant like **appropriate**, **accurate**, **apply**, among others. It is also true that most students face difficulties as they are not exposed to the language.

It is important to point out that in most EFL classes, reading and writing activities or tasks are usually interdependent. Instructors frequently use writing to check reading comprehension, or they use reading to prepare students for the writing task. This is because instructors often want to provide their students with comprehensible input or with models for their writing tasks. Regarding this former aspect, Eisterhold et al. (1990) mention that it is necessary to refer to the reading and writing abilities in the L1 and L2 of EFL or ESL learners to determine the relationships across languages. They claimed that literacy skills can transfer across languages, but that the pattern of this transfer is different for the two language groups. They found out that

the reading ability gives the hint to transfers patterns more easily from the L1 into L2 than the writing ability and that the relationship between reading and writing skills varies for the two languages. It is worthy to mention that reading provides students with different types of abilities since they are able to learn vocabulary and structures. In allusion to this idea, the differences that both languages share may be established so that students do not commit Spanish-English transfer errors which cause them to have a poor writing.

Even though the main focus of composition is not reading, reading becomes an important skill to develop and to practice for students to have enough comprehensible input, which will benefit them in their process of learning and writing. As stated in Nunan, Rivers and Tamperly (1978, p.187), reading serves many purposes; for example, one of the reasons of reading is to obtain information; another is to get instructions on how to perform some tasks. These are the purposes that apply to composition since reading is necessary before writing. However, as Goodman (cited by Gollasch, 1975) states, reading is a receptive process; it is a psycholinguistic process that starts in the linguistic surface representation encoded by a writer and decoded by the reader. There is thus an essential interaction in reading between language and thought, a two-way process.

Reading and writing are two skills that are linked. Reading is one of the skills that provides students a way to discover new things by expanding their imagination which makes them have a different perspective at the moment of writing; students also can be aware of the function of some words because every word is used in its own context. It is recommended that students develop a good reading skill to study English structures and to acquire lexicon.

Widdowson, as cited in Grabe et al. (1996), claims that reading is considered as the process of combining textual information with the interpretation a reader gives to the text. In this view, the reading process is not just a matter of extracting information from the text. Rather, it is one in which the act of reading activates a range of knowledge in the reader's mind that he or she uses, and that, in turn, may be redefined and extended. Reading then is viewed as a kind of dialogue between the reader and the text. It can be said that reading is an interpretive process because of the interaction that occurs between the reader and the text. This interactive approach emphasizes that meaning is not present in a text waiting to be decoded. Thus, many ESL writing courses are based on the premise that "writing competence results somehow from exposure to

reading, and that good readers make good writers" (Carson, 1993, p. 85). Hughey et al. (1983) state that: writing is an efficient tool that helps ESL students to reinforce other language skills.

ACTIVITIES

The proposal activities have been included specifically in certain parts of the of the target content with the purpose of reinforcing students' spelling and capitalization patterns of the target language. The eight activities included in this proposal have been especially designed for students' needs; they have been adapted from books and academic pdf documents about composition such as "Steps in Composition, Fourth Edition" written by Lynn Quitman Troyka and Jerrold Nudelman, "Glencoe English" written by Yvonne Kuhlman and Joyce Bartky, "Chapter 5 Select the Correct Word and Spell it Right," and "Sentence Fragments" created by Texas State University- San Marcos.

Each activity has especially been allocated in certain moments of the target content, for example, after explanations and certain activities to reinforce English spelling and capitalization patterns to counteract transfer errors by means of sentence fragment exercises. Each activity presents its specific objectives and directions for teachers and students. Besides, the directions for teachers include suggestions of how to address transfer errors.

Richards (1971), when trying to identify the causes of competence errors, came up with three types of errors: **interference errors**, which reflect the use of elements from one language to the other, **intralingual errors**, subdivided into errors due to overgeneralization, incomplete application of the rules or the false concept and third **developmental errors** when the learner builds hypothesis about the target language based on limited experience.

On the other hand, these proposal activities are focused to address interference errors or transfer errors, and they have been taken out from experts' theories of composition. In summary, these activities will help teachers to counteract transfer errors observed in class in students' writing.

RESOURCES

The material that teachers will use for implementing this proposal is an appendix, photocopies and any other resources he or she considers necessary.

The activities included in this proposal will not last more than 5-10 minutes. The activities are designed for teachers to comprise them when they observe a problem caused by Spanish-English transfer errors or to add further explanation.

BUDGET

The research team who designed this proposal did not include a budget as they did not implement the proposal. English Composition I teachers will have the choice to use the proposal model of the lesson plan which includes transfer errors in English Composition I.

WARM-UP (10 MINUTES)

"RACE BOARD GAME"

Objective:

To make students write sentences by activating students' background knowledge about parts of speech and by practicing spelling

Words:

Communication (noun)	Patient (adjective)
Aggressive (adjective)	Play (verb)
Especially (adverb)	Create (verb)
Student (noun)	Professional (adjective)
Responsible (adjective)	Punctuality (noun)
Acquire (verb)	Coffee (noun)

Teacher's directions: Ask students to form two lines in front of the board and give a marker to the first students of each line. Explain to them that they have to write a sentence with the word you will provide and that they have to pass the marker to the following student. The group which gets more correct sentences will win the game.

Note: The activity presented above can be used as an introduction to spelling transfer errors and to observe students' sentence constructions.

PRESENTATION (30 MINUTES)

PROPOSAL ACTIVITY 2 (APPENDIX 1/ MATERIALS FOR STUDENTS)

"INTONATION PATTERNS"

Objectives:

To identify simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences

To emphasize the pauses and intonation according to the punctuation and intonation marks in the paragraphs

Direction: Read the following passage attentively and emphasize the intonation, and respect punctuation at the moment of reading

According to a University study, your intelligence can actively be affected by the position of your body. For example, when you are standing, your mind may function so quickly that when somebody asks you a question, you fail to consider your answer carefully and may often blurt out the wrong response. In addition, you may have trouble remembering where you left your scissors or umbrella, for when you are standing, you can expect your memory to be at its worst. On the other hand, you suppose that you were a soldier waiting anxiously for news of the enemy's location or a costumer being tending to buy an unnecessary item. In this instance, standing would help to give you a feeling of absolute control over the situation.

When you are lying down, your thoughts will probably come together slowly, but they are likely to be creative. In a resting position, you also listen very carefully and receive suggestions with an open mind. Faced with a problem, you are apt to weigh one argument against another and make any necessary estimates before reaching an intelligent decision. Of course, it is simply not possible to lie down everything you have some highly important thinking to do. So you might try sitting, which will give you somewhat similar results.

Teacher's Direction: Ask students to go to the Appendix 1. Have students read the passage in pairs. Later, read the paragraphs for students to be focused on the intonation. After, show students the intonation pattern of each sentence by showing the pauses depending on the punctuation marks (**Appendix 2 of Materials for Teachers**), and finally, explain the type of sentence it is.

Note. By means of this proposal activity, the structure of a sentence and sentence fragment can be initially explained. For further information of sentence structure and fragments, the **Appendix 1** of "Materials for Teachers" can be employed.

LANGUAGE NOTES (60 MINUTES)

What is a sentence?

A sentence is a related group of words that conveys a complete message. It begins with a capital letter and ends with a period. It contains a subject and a predicate. The subject is the word or group word that who or what the sentence is about. The predicate is the word or word group that tells what the subject does or is about. Look at the following sentences.

1. SUBJECT   PREDICATE   2.   SUBJECT   PREDICATE

   My aunt   works.   She   is a philosopher.

In sentence 1, My aunt is the subject, a noun. The predicate is works, a verb. In sentence 2, She is the subject, and is a philosopher is the predicate.

A sentence has at least one combination of a subject and a verb; it is called a clause. A sentence can have more than one clause. The sentence, for instance, "My aunt works, and she is a philosopher." has two clauses.

What is a sentence fragment?

A fragment is a group of words that looks like a sentence, but it is not. A capital letter begins the group of words, and a period ends it. But between the capital letter and the period, some part that is necessary has been left out or put in a wrong form, resulting in a fragment. A sentence fragment is a serious error in composition.

Here are some example of what fragments are and how they look like:

- ➢ The skinniest boy in town.
- ➢ Following the blue arrows.
- ➢ Because you loved me.
- ➢ The boy who wears glasses.
- ➢ Is raining cats and dogs.
- ➢ When my mother was in high school.
- ➢ And left the packages on the bus.

All these examples look like sentences. All begin with a capital letter and end with a period, and they all give information. Some of them even have a subject and a predicate. But none of them is complete. Here are some other examples of fragments that are likely to crop up in your themes. As you are studying these examples, notice that not one of these fragments make sense if you read it by itself. It does not make sense unless you read it as a part of the sentence that comes right before.

FRAGMENT: John gave a report on Louis Agassiz. The well-known naturalist and teacher.

REVISED: John gave a report on Louis Agassiz, the well-known naturalist and teacher.

FRAGMENT: Then the two boys out the puppy in box. And hid the box in the basement.

REVISED: Then the two boys out the puppy in box and hid the box in the basement.

FRAGMENT: Finally Marie got disgusted and walked out. Slamming the door behind her.

REVISED: Finally Marie got disgusted and walked out, slamming the door behind her.

What is wrong with a sentence fragment?

They seem improvised and arbitrary, and as if the writer could only know and then form a complete thought. Though sentence fragments can sometimes enhance a passage, they are just as like as to break it into disconnected pieces. For that reason, they are generally not accepted in college essays, and you should avoid them.

Note. To take advantage of double spelling presented in the examples above, assign students **Worksheet 1** (Appendix 2) of "Materials for Students." Employ **Part E** of Appendix 1 of "Materials for Teachers" to give feedback about spelling if necessary.

Spotting and correcting sentences

A fragment occurs whenever you do these three things:

- You begin a group of words with a capital letter.
- You conclude this group of words with an end mark—either a period [.], question mark [?], or exclamation point [!].
- You neglect to insert a main clause somewhere between the capital letter at the beginning and the end mark concluding the word group.

To be able to correct a sentence fragment, first you have to recognize it. How can you say a group of words is a sentences or just a fragment? There are some tips for you to identify them.

1. **Make sure the "sentences" have a subject and a predicate. A sentence has a subject and a predicate. A group of words lacking the subject, the predicate or both and punctuated like a sentence is a fragment. Look at these examples.**

The skinniest boy in town.

This is certainly a sentence fragment because it has no predicate. You are told just who, but what else is said about this person? We do not really know. To fix it, you must supply a predicate.

The skinniest boy in town studies high school.

My new shoes.

This is not a sentence either. This could be the subject of the sentence as well as an object. In this case, we will take it as an object. It lacks a subject and a verb. We can fix it providing a subject and the verb.

I really love my new shoes.

2. **If a sentence has a subject and a predicate, does it start with a subordinating conjunction?**

Because you loved me.

This group of words is a clause because it has its own subject and predicate. In a conversation it could be the answer of a question with why. Because is a subordinator, and it makes the whole clause subordinate. In formal written English a subordinate clause cannot stand by itself. It must be connected to a main clause.

I am everything I am because you loved me.

Subordinators include such words as: as, when, since, because, although, if, after, where and all the subordinating conjunctions

3. **If the sentence has a subject and a predicate, does it start with a pronoun, such as who or which?**

Which I chose for you.

This group of words is a clause, but it begins with a relative pronoun. They always modify something. They act like adjectives. They modify an antecedent, so they need that antecedent to make sense.

These are the books which I chose for you.

4. **If the sentence has both a subject and a verb, does it start with a noun or an adjective clause?**

The ex-president of El Salvador who stole millions of dollars.

The group of words beginning with "who" is an adjective clause, with the ex-president of El Salvador as an antecedent. The antecedent must be included or connected to the main clause.

The ex-president of El Salvador who stole millions of dollars has not been caught yet.

PROPOSAL ACTIVITY Nº 3 (APPENDIX 3/ MATERIALS FOR STUDENTS)

"FAULTY CAPITALIZATION"

Objectives:

To help students internalize capitalization rules by identifying and revising proper nouns and nationalities lacking capitalization

To make students avoid capitalizing common nouns

*Direction***:** Each of the following paragraphs contains one fragment. Make it into a complete sentence, rewriting when necessary. Additionally, revise faults in the omission of capital letters and in the misuse of capitalization in common nouns.

1. *pancho villa, the mexican revolutionary General, leading the last army that successfully invaded the United States in march 1916 at columbus, New mexico. He was chased by General pershing and general-to-be George patton, but he got away from them in the Mountains. In fact, he had escaped capture many times during the long mexican Revolution. After he retired to a ranch in durango, mexico, he was ambushed and killed in 1923.*

2. *between 1940 and 1973 the Central intelligence agency (CIA) secretly funded a Nationwide series of harmful mid-control Experiments. The People used in the Projects were not informed of the risks they were taking. According to CIA data obtained through the Freedom of Information Act and testimony at a 1977 Senate committee hearing. The Program had been meant to develop Chemicals that would protect people against Communist Brainwashing Techniques.*

    1) Revised: **P**ancho **V**illa, the **M**exican revolutionary **g**eneral, led the last army that successfully invaded the United States in **M**arch 1916 at **C**olumbus, New **M**exico. He was chased by General **P**ershing and general-to-be George **P**atton, but he got away from them in the **m**ountains. In fact, he had escaped capture many times during the long **M**exican

Revolution. After he retired to a ranch in **D**urango, Mexico, he was ambushed and killed in 1923**.**

*2) Revised***: B**etwe**e**n 1940 and 1973 the Central **I**ntelligence **A**gency (CIA) secretly funded a **n**ationwide series of harmful mid-control experiments. The **p**eople used in the **p**rojects were not informed of the risks they were taking. Ac**c**ording to CIA data obtained through the Freedom of Information Act and Testimony at a 1977 Senate committee hearing, the **p**rogram had been meant to develop **c**hemicals that would protect people against Communist **b**rainwashing **t**echniques.

Teacher's directions: Ask students to go to the Appendix 3.

> *Note.* To reinforce capitalization uses, ask students to go to Worksheet 2 (Appendix 4) of "Materials for Students."

Source: Adapted from Steps in Composition, Fourth Edition. Troyka, L., Nudelman, J. (1986,1979,1972), p.

IMPORTANT:

- **Recognizing intonation patterns may help you avoid some types of fragments in your writing.**
  1.   We saw that.
  2.   We saw that movie.
  3.   We saw that movie on TV last night.
- **The best way to avoid fragments, however, is to recognize the structural differences between sentences and non-sentences. Remember that a complete statement is an independent unit containing at least one subject and predicate.**
- **Not all fragments are to be avoided. Some types of fragments are standard. Exclamations, as well as questions and their answers, are often single words, phrases, or subordinate clauses written as sentences. For example:**

- **Why? Because governments cannot establish heaven on earth.**

- **Where does Peg begin a mystery story? On the last page. Always!**

- **Written dialogue that mirrors speech habits often contains grammatically incomplete sentences or elliptical expressions within the quotation marks. Occasionally, professional writers deliberately use fragments for rhetorical effect. For example:**

The American grain calls for plain talk for the unvarnished truth. Better to err a little in the cause of bluntness than soften the mind with congenial drivel. Better a challenging half-truth than discredited cliché. – Wright

Despite their suitability for some purposes, sentence fragments are comparatively rare in formal expository writing. In formal papers, sentence fragments are to be used –if at all – sparingly and with care.

1. Do not carelessly capitalize and punctuate a phrase as you would in a sentence.

EXAMPLES HOW TO REVISE FRAGMENTS

FRAGMENT	REVISED
1. Henry smiled self-consciously. **Like a politician before a camera**. (an isolated phrase)	1. Henry smiled self-consciously, like a politician before a camera. (fragment included in the precedent sentence) OR Henry smiled self-consciously. He looked Like a politician before a camera. (fragment made into a sentence)
2. Soon I began to work for the company. **First in the rock pit and later on the highway.** (prepositional phrases)	2. Soon I began to work for the company, first in the rock pit and later on the highway. (fragment included in the preceding sentence)

3. He will have a chance to go home next weekend. **And to meet his new stepfather.** (infinitive phrase)	3. He will have a chance to go home next weekend and to meet his new stepfather. (fragment included in the preceding sentence)
4. Astronauts venturing deep into space may not come back for fifty years. **Returning only to discover an uninhabitable planet**. (participial phrase)	4. Astronauts venturing deep into space may not come back for fifty years. They may return only to discover an uninhabitable planet. (fragment made into a sentence)
5. The children finally arrived at camp. **Many dancing for joy, and some crying for their parents.** (absolute phrase)	5. The children finally arrived at camp. Many were dancing for joy, and some were crying for their parents. (fragment made into a sentence)

PROPOSAL ACTIVITY Nº 4 (APPENDIX 5/ MATERIALS FOR STUDENTS)

"APPLYING HOMOPHONES IN SENTENCE FRAGMENTS"

Objective:

To make students create accurate sentences by choosing the correct spelling in the context provided

*Direction***:** Write the best option that fits in the sentence fragment in the space provided and fix the sentence fragment.

hear	principle	their	piece	whether
peace	weather	two	here	
principal	too	there	to	

1. The _____ theme of the novel.

_____

2. To bring _____ to the world.

_____

3. Many _____ of physics!

_____

4. Gave her schedule _____ me.

_____

5. Will wait _____ for my friends.

_____

6. _____ to stay at home or go out.

_____

7. To _____ the radio.

_____

8. Watching _____ much TV.

_____

9. _____ privilege to vote against the amendment.

_____

10. Consulted _____ dictionaries.

_____

11. A _____ of cake with coffee.

_____

12. The _____ for this coming week.

_____

13. Is over _____.

Teacher's directions: Ask students to go to the Appendix 5.

Note. By means of this activity, spelling transfer errors caused by phonemic similarity can be explained so that students are careful when using homophones. Use **Part E** of Appendix 1 of "Materials for Teachers" to make a review about spelling if necessary.

Source: Adapted from Adapted from Steps in Composition, Fourth Edition. Troyka, L., Nudelman, J. (1986,1979,1972), p. 51, 52

EXERCISE I:

Eliminate each fragment below by including it in the adjacent sentence or by making it into a sentence.

1. They enjoy reading a few types of novels. Such as science fiction.
2. The pampered Dennis finally left home. Earnestly seeking to become an individual in his own right.
3. It is wise to ignore her sarcasm. Or to make a quick exit.
4. She did not recognize Gaby. His beard gone and hair cut.
5. Luisa likes to pretend that she is very old. And to speak of the "days of her youth."
6. They will visit our campus soon. Maybe next month.
7. These commercials have a hypnotic effect. Not only on children but on adults too.
8. A few minutes later. A news bulletin interrupted the show.
9. Erick just stood there speechless. His face turning redder by the minute.
10. He killed six flies with one swat. Against the law of averages but possible.

2. Do not carelessly capitalize and punctuate a subordinate clause as you would in a sentence.

EXAMPLES HOW TO REVISE FRAGMENTS

FRAGMENT	REVISED
1. Thousands of young people became active workers in the community. **After this social gospel had changed their apathy to concern.** (subordinate clause)	1. Thousands of young people became active workers in the community after this social gospel had changed their apathy to concern. (fragment included in the preceding sentence)
2. I didn't know where he came from. **Or who he was.** (subordinate clause)	2. I didn't know where he came from or who he was. (fragment included in the preceding sentence)
3. I was trying to read the directions. **Which were confusing and absurd.** (subordinate clause)	3. I was trying to read the directions which were confusing and absurd. (fragment included in the preceding sentence)

EXERCISE II:

1. I decided to give skiing a try. After I had grown tired of watching other people fall.
2. Peter believes that everyone should go to college. And that all tests for admission should be abolished.
3. Many students were obviously victims of spring fever. Which affected class attendance.
4. Paula faints whenever he sees blood. And whenever he climbs into a dentist's chair.
5. I am making a study of cigarette advertisements. That use such slogans as "less tar, more taste" and "the lowest in tar and nicotine."

3. Do not carelessly capitalize and punctuate any other fragment (such as an appositive or a part of a compound predicate) as you would in a sentence.

EXAMPLES HOW TO REVISE FRAGMENTS

FRAGMENT	REVISED
1. The new lawyer needed a secretary. **A secretary with intelligence and experience.**	1. The new lawyer needed a secretary with intelligence and experience.
2. He lost the gold watch. **The one which had belonged to his grandfather.**	2. He lost the gold watch, the one which had belonged to his grandfather. (fragment included in the preceding sentence) **OR** He lost the gold watch which belonged to his grandfather.
3. Sarah was elected president of her class. **And was made a number of the National Honor Society.** (detached part of a compound predicate)	3. Sarah was elected president of her class and was made a number of the National Honor Society.

EXERCISE III:

Eliminate each fragment below by including it in the preceding sentence or by making it into a sentence.

1. My roommate keeps all her shoes, scuba gear, books, and clothes in one closet. The worst disaster area in campus.
2. According to Macaulay, half –knowledge is bad. Even worse than ignorance.
3. The group met during the summer and made plans. And decided on the dates for action in the fall.
4. The hydraulic lift raises the plows out of the ground. And lowers them again.

5. I had a feeling that some sinister spirit brooded over the place. A feeling that I could not analyze.

Comments about the topic:

_____

_____

_____

_____

I learned:

_____

_____

_____

_____

I need to improve:

_____

_____

_____

_____

CONTROLLED PRACTICE (25 MINUTES)

Pre-activity (5 minutes)

PROPOSAL ACTIVITY Nº 5 (APPENDIX 6/ MATERIALS FOR STUDENTS)

"IDENTIFYING AND REVISING FAULTS IN CAPITALIZATION"

Objective:

To make students recognize, arrange and avoid faults in capitalization

Direction: Read the following passage, and fix fragments and capitalization problems.

THE WEEKEND COOK

My dad works in a bank. he works there. From monday to friday. He helps people. He counts money, and he uses the Computer. His job is important. Is an important man at the Bank.

dad also works at home. On weekends he cooks dinner. Usually he fixes italian food. On Saturdays he makes Spaghetti. On Sundays he makes pizza. Sometimes he fries chicken or fixes chinese food. My mother watches and helps. She cuts the vegetables. She tosses the salad. I wash the dishes.

Some people say it is strange. For a man to cook. My dad enjoys his hobby. Cooking relaxes him. His father was a weekend cook, too.

Revised:

My dad works in a bank. **H**e works there from **M**onday to **F**riday. He helps people. He counts money, and he uses the **c**omputer. His job is important. He is an important man at the **b**ank.

Dad also works at home. On weekends he cooks dinner. Usually he fixes **I**talian food. On Saturdays he makes **s**paghetti. On Sundays he makes pizza. Sometimes he fries

chicken or fixes **C**hinese food. My mother watches and helps. She cuts the vegetables. She tosses the salad. I wash the dishes.

Some people say it is strange for a man to cook. My dad enjoys his hobby. Cooking relaxes him. His father was a weekend cook, too.

> *Note.* This proposal activity can be done outside the classroom. If necessary, make a review on capitalization rules presented in **Part D** of Appendix 1 of "Materials for Teachers."

Teachers' Directions: Ask students to go to the Appendix 6. Ask students to identify and revise words lacking capitalization.

Source: Adapted from Developing Writing, Writing Skills Practice Book for EFL, Beginning/Intermediate Level. Peterson, P. 1982
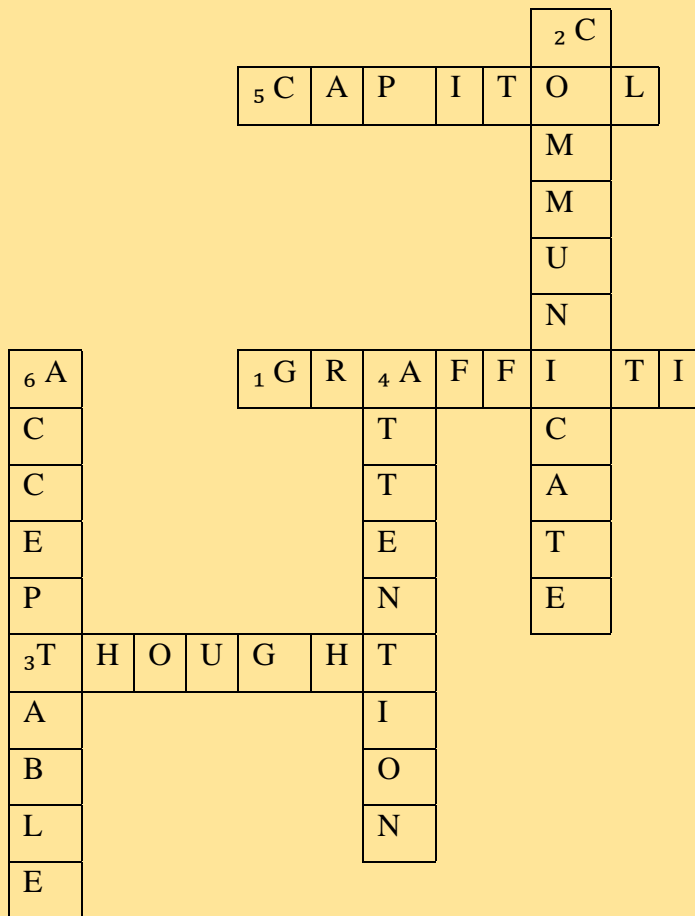
During activity (10 minutes)

PROPOSAL ACTIVITY Nº 6 (APPENDIX 7/ MATERIALS FOR STUDENTS)

"DOUBLE SPELLING APPLIED IN SENTENCE FRAGMENTS"

Objective:

To make students internalize double spelling by integrating it in grammatical and meaningful sentences

> *Direction***:** First, using the definitions given as clues, fill in this puzzle. Second, place the right word from the puzzle in the space provided in the paragraph with the help of the context given, and third, find and revise the sentence fragments.

Crossword grid:

```
                    ₂C
          ₅C A P I T O L
                    M
                    M
                    U
                    N
₆A        ₁G R ₄A F F I   T I
C            T      C
C            T      A
E            E      T
P            N      E
₃T H O U G H T
A            I
B            O
L            N
E
```

ACROSS

1. Words or drawings scratched or painted on a wall _____

2. The act of thinking about or considering something, an idea or opinion, or a set of ideas about a particular subject _____

DOWN

2. To share information with others by speaking, writing, moving your body, or using other signals_____

4. Notice, thought or interest _____

5. The building in which the US Congress meets _____

6. Satisfactory and able to be agreed to or approved of

_____, those scribblings and drawings on walls that you have passed about every day of your life, are one of the oldest methods used by people to _____. In fact, such wall writings were popular over two thousand years before Christianity; Greek workers whose lives were spent building the Great Pyramid at Giza. Left their signatures on this Egyptian monument. The ancient Italian city of Pompeii has some of its walls marked up with pieces of graffiti too. They're well-preserved clues to the past because in 79 A.D. a volcano exploded. And then buried the city under volcanic ash, which protected the graffiti from the weather for many hundreds of years.

Whether these wall markings are found in ancient Pompeii or in modern America. They fall into three principal categories. The principal behind the most common type, identity graffiti, is the graffiti writer's desire to call _____ to his or her name in a society where most people feel lost in the crowd. The example you're probably most familiar with is "Kilroy was here." Another reason for identity graffiti was pointed out by a high school principal. Who found that a teacher who's busy to hear what students are saying encourages them to scrawl their names on their desk tops in revenge. The second type of graffiti offers a message or opinion. For example, the _____, "There will be peace with or without people," was written on a wall of the _____ in Washington, D. C. There, someone also wrote: "Of course I smoke. It's safer than breathing!" The final type of graffiti is decorative and colorful artwork; it can be seen throughout New York City. Often called the graffiti capitol of the world, where several young people have formed an organization, United Graffiti Artists, to sell their art. Thus, graffiti are becoming an _____ form of communication that will likely survive periodic cleanups and paint jobs.

Revised:

GRAFFITI, those scribblings and drawings on walls that you have passed about every day of your life, are one of the oldest methods used by people to COMMUNICATE. In fact, such wall writings were popular over two thousand years before Christianity; Greek workers whose lives were spent building the Great Pyramid at Giza left their signatures on this Egyptian monument. The ancient Italian city of Pompeii has some of its walls marked up with pieces of graffiti too. They're well-preserved clues to the past because in 79 A.D. a volcano exploded and then buried the city under volcanic ash, which protected the graffiti from the weather for many hundreds of years.

Whether these wall markings are found in ancient Pompeii or in modern America, they fall into three principal categories. The principal behind the most common type, identity graffiti, is the graffiti writer's desire to call ATTENTION to his or her name in a society where most people feel lost in the crowd. The example you're probably most familiar with is "Kilroy was here." Another reason for identity graffiti was pointed out by a high school principal who found that a teacher who's busy to hear what students are saying encourages them to scrawl their names on their desk tops in revenge. The second type of graffiti offers a message or opinion. For example, the THOUGHT, "There will be peace with or without people," was written on a wall of the CAPITOL in Washington, D. C. There, someone also wrote: "Of course I smoke. It's safer than breathing!" The final type of graffiti is decorative and colorful artwork; it can be seen throughout New York City, often called the graffiti capitol of the world, where several young people have formed an organization, United Graffiti Artists, to sell their art. Thus, graffiti are becoming an ACCEPTABLE form of communication that will likely survive periodic cleanups and paint jobs.

Teacher Directions: Ask students to go to the Appendix 7. Provide feedback on spelling transfer errors and capitalization if necessary.

> *Note.* This proposal activity is attractive for students as they use their critical thinking for solving the puzzle. Additionally, they can reinforce spelling; this activity can serve to verify students' sentence construction up to this point of the lesson.

Source: Adapted from Steps in Composition, Fourth Edition. Troyka, L., Nudelman, J. (1986,1979,1972), p. 53,76

SEMI-CONTROLLED PRACTICE (25 MINUTES)

Pre-activity (5 minutes)

PROPOSAL ACTIVITY Nº 7 (APPENDIX 8)

"APPLYING CAPITALIZATION RULES"

Objective:

To make students identify and revise capitalization misuse and omission implied in sentence fragments

Direction: Identify the words with omission and misuse of capitalization; then fix the sentence fragments.

1. Before edgar allan Poe wrote *The Murders in the Rue Morgue.*

_____

2. the ancient egyptian on pillows make of stone.

_____

3. While He was entertaining his Step son one rainy day.

_____

4. records show that roderigo de Triana, A crewnman of Christopher Columbus' ship the nina.

_____

5. Because a Shrew has poisonous Saliva.

_____

Teachers' Direction: Ask students to go to the Appendix 8. Have students to identify words with faulty capitalization and ask them fix the sentence fragments.

> _Note._ This proposal activity can be assigned as an extra work. This activity aims to make students be aware of capitalization rules. Generally, they do not use capital letters at the beginning of sentences and capitalize common nouns.

Source: Adapted from Steps in Composition, Fourth Edition. Troyka, L., Nudelman, J. (1986,1979,1972), p. 168-170

During activity (5 minutes)

PROPOSAL ACTIVITY Nº 8 (APPENDIX 9)

"PRACTICING DOUBLE SPELLING"

Objective:

To make students recognize, arrange and avoid double spelling omission

Directions: Identify and correct the misspelled words in the following paragraph. Then, underline sentence fragments.

Sherman J. Alexie Jr. was born in October 1966. He is a Spokane/Coeur d'Alene Indian and an American writer, poet, and filmmaker. Alexie was born with hydrocephalus, or water on the brain. This condition led doctors to predict that he would likely sufer long-term brain damage and posibly mental retardation. Although

Alexie survived with no mental disabilities. He did suffer other serious side efects from his condition that plagued him throughout his childhood. Amazingly, Alexie learned to read by the age of three, and by age five he had read novels such as John Steinbeck's The Grapes of Wrath. Raised on an Indian reservation, Alexie often felt alienated from his peers due to his avid love for reading and also from the long-term effects of his ilness. Which ofen kept him from socializing with his peers on the reservation. The reading skills he displayed at such a young age foreshadowed what he would later become. Today Alexie is a prolific and sucesful writer with several story anthologies to his credit. Notably The Lone Ranger and Tonto Fistfight in Heaven and The Toughest Indian in the World. Most of his fiction is about contemporary Native Americans who are influenced by pop culture and pow wows and everything in between. His work is sometimes funny but always thoughtful and full of richness and depth. Alexie also writes poetry, novels, and screenplays. His latest colection of stories is called War Dances, which came out in 2009.

Revised:

Sherman J. Alexie Jr. was born in October 1966. He is a Spokane/Coeur d'Alene Indian and an American writer, poet, and filmmaker. Alexie was born with hydrocephalus, or water on the brain. This condition led doctors to predict that he would likely **suffer** long-term brain damage and **possibly** mental retardation. Although Alexie survived with no mental disabilities. He did suffer other serious side **effects** from his condition that plagued him throughout his childhood. Amazingly, Alexie learned to read by the age of three, and by age five he had read novels such as John Steinbeck's The Grapes of Wrath. Raised on an Indian reservation, Alexie often felt alienated from his peers due to his avid love for reading and also from the long-term effects of his **illness**. Which **often** kept him from socializing with his peers on the reservation. The reading skills he displayed at such a young age foreshadowed what he would later become. Today Alexie is a prolific and **successful** writer with several story anthologies to his credit. Notably The Lone Ranger and Tonto Fistfight in Heaven and The Toughest Indian in the World. Most of his fiction

is about contemporary Native Americans who are influenced by pop culture and pow wows and everything in between. His work is sometimes funny but always thoughtful and full of richness and depth. Alexie also writes poetry, novels, and screenplays. His latest **collection** of stories is called War Dances, which came out in 2009.

Teachers' Directions: Ask students to go to the Appendix 9. Ask students to read the passage to recognize the omission of double spelling and to identify and fix sentence fragments.

Note. This proposal activity can be used to verify students' acquisition of consonant correspondences up to the lesson. Provide feedback about it if students present problems concerning double spelling (Appendix 1 of "Materials for Teachers." **Part E**).

Source: Adapted from Successful Writing, Creative Commons, 2012, p.188

Post-activity (15 minutes)

PROPOSAL ACTIVITY Nº 9 (APPENDIX 10)

"BRAINSTORMING"

Objective:

To compare and summarize information about spelling and capitalization uses

Direction: Watch the following videos and take notes about spelling, capitalization and sentence fragments. Then, discuss your ideas in pairs.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rtSu_QTX8JQ

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gbG2jyI8600

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZxKUWoNfetE

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=66HewSHioAo

BRAINSTORMING:_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

___

Teachers' Directions: Ask students to go to the Appendix 10. Have students check the videos to reinforce the topics already studied; also, give them time to discuss the ideas gotten from the video.

Note. By means of this activity, the teacher realizes to what extent students have comprehended the information already presented in the language notes. Moreover, videos are good resources for covering any need according to students' learning styles and are useful tools since they are not time-consuming if applied as outside activities.

FREE PRACTICE (25 MINUTES)

Pre-activity (10 minutes)

PROPOSAL ACTIVITY Nº 10 (APPENDIX 11)

"APPLYING CAPITALIZATION PATTERNS"

Objective:

To make students use capitalization and spelling rules properly

Direction: Write a short paragraph using proper and common nouns. Be careful with fragments

```
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
```

Teachers' Directions: Ask students to go to the Appendix 11. Ask students interchange their pieces of paper with another classmate to check their use of capitalization and spelling. At the end, ask some students to share some of the errors they found in the pieces of writing.

> *Note.* In this activity, pair work can be employed. This activity helps the teacher to evaluate the areas in which students need more reinforcement.

During activity (10 minutes)

PROPOSAL ACTIVITY Nº 11 (APPENDIX 12)

"WRITING CROSS-LANGUAGE WORDS"

Objective: To make students use cross-language words in sentence construction

Direction: Write the correct translation for each Spanish word and create sentences. Be careful with fragmenting sentences.

Spanish word	English translation	Spanish word	English translation	
aplicación		estadio		
suficiente		fontana		
garantia		contribución		

Sentences:

1._____

2._____

3._____

4._____

5._____

6._____

Teachers' Directions: Ask students to go to the Appendix 12. Check if students avoid fragments and transfer errors in spelling omission and misuse.

Note. The aim of the activity is to evaluate if Spanish has interference in students' English writing. For further practice on spelling, use Worksheet 3 (Appendix 13) of "Materials for Students."

Source: Adapted from Comparing English and Spanish Patterns in Phonology and Orthography. Regents publishing company Inc, 1977, p.170- 173.

Post-activity (5 minutes)

PROPOSAL ACTIVITY Nº 12 (APPENDIX 14)

"DO YOU UNDERSTAND SENTENCE FRAGMENTS?"

Objective:

To make learners properly use spelling according to the context by allowing them to write a short paragraph explaining a procedure about their preference

Direction: Find the sentence fragments and check spelling and capitalization.

Thanks for your inquiry. About the pear of read shoes featured in our Catalog. The shoes are died to match the dress that is shown on the same page. Many people order both and like to were them together.

The shoes are on sail. if you'd like to bye this item. You must first pay the balance on your overdoe account. We are not aloud to ship you knew merchandise until you pay your pass doe bill.

Revised:

Thanks for your inquiry about the pair of **red** shoes featured in our **c**atalog. The shoes are dyed to match the dress that is shown on the same page. Many people order both and like to **wear** them together.

The shoes are on sale. **I**f you'd like to **buy** this item, you must first pay the balance on your **overdue** account. We are not **allowed** to ship you **new** merchandise until you pay your past **due** bill.

Teacher's Directions: Ask students to go to the Appendix 14. Ask students to revise the spelling of homophones. Then, ask students to write a similar procedure based on the example given.

Note. The activity helps students to be involved in their own learning process.

*Source***:** Retrieved from: http://ewriteonline.com/wp-content/uploads/2011/05/06_Chapter5Ewrite.pdf

WRAP-UP (15 Minutes)

PROPOSAL ACTIVITY Nº 13 (APPENDIX 15)

"FIXING FAULTS IN CAPITALIZATION OMISSION AND MISUSE IN SENTENCE FRAGMENTS"

Objectives:

To identify, fix and avoid spelling and capitalization errors

To revise sentence fragments

*Direction***:** First, identify spelling and capitalization faults and then, rewrite fragments to make them complete sentences. Some of the word groups may already be complete; if the word group is complete, put a period at the end and write nothing else.

1. When the convict was released from pris**i**on

_____

2. Misunderstanding her **S**tudent's explanation

_____

3. Sales people who are rude to **there** customers

_____

4. A **M**agazine listing best-selling computer software

_____

5. Before **acepting** the soap opera star's invitation to **diner**

_____

6. In order to make lasting **friendchips**

_____

7. If you ignore your teeth**,** they might disappear forever

_____

8. After the **chocking** facts are revealed

_____

9. Michael **j**ackson, a popular and talented entertainer

_____

10. A sample of water from the **poluted** river

_____

11. Spilling your **cofe** on your boss's desk

_____

12. Whoever jogs at least **to** miles a day

_____

13. The average telephone conversation lasts five minutes

_____

14.The **F**irst person who landed on the moon

_____

15. The sexy **N**ovel about life in a small town

_____

16. A **R**obot that can cook your dinner

_____

17. Exhausted from **speking** and driving all night

_____

Teacher's Directions: Ask students to go to the Appendix 15. Provide feedback on grammar, punctuation and spelling patterns if necessary.

> _Note._ This activity integrates all the capitalization and spelling transfer errors and helps summarize the lesson.

Source: Adapted from Steps in Composition, Fourth Edition. Troyka, L., Nudelman, J. (1986,1979,1972), p. 82, 83

HOMEWORK (10 MINUTES)

PROPOSAL ACTIVITY Nº 14 (APPENDIX 16)

"WORKSHEET 4 (SENTENCE FRAGMENTS)"

Objective:

To verify students' acquisition of English spelling and capitalization patterns by summarizing sentence fragments

UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR

WESTERN MULTIDISCIPLINARY CAMPUS

FOREIGN LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT

ENGLISH COMPOSITION I

STUDENT'S NAME: _____

GROUP: _____

EXERCISE I

Directions: Each of the 15 items in this self-test is in two parts. In the spaces to the right of each item, indicate whether each part is a fragment (F) or sentence (S).

Examples:

a. Not really knowing what to do. So running away from home. <u>F</u>

b. I studied for hours. Preparing myself for the next test. <u>F</u>

c. We jogged around the park. We covered five miles in 40 minutes. <u>S</u>

1. Startled by the loud noise of the engine. I dropped the wrench and jumped out of the way. _____

2. George was standing on the corner. Watching all the cars go by. _____

3. Rex gathered some dry twigs. And tried to start a fire for us. _____

4. All of us waited at the door. To let the man in the wheelchair by. _____

5. Written by a Black poet. Who had spent many years in the ghetto. _____

6. I have wanted to drive a race car. For as long as I can remember. _____

7. Even though Mr. Harvey is more than seventy years old. He enjoys watching young, active children. _____

8. She gave me her phone number. So I could call her later. _____

9. Without spilling a drop on the driveway. Jill drained the oil from her car. _____

10. Our instructor gave us a mid-semester test. Which was not as difficult as we had expected. _____

11. Merely by giving him a gentle tap with a newspaper. Skippy can be controlled quite easily. _____

12. He grinds his teeth only during his sleep. Never while studying or watching TV. _____

13. Ms. Barns has a very low, soft voice. She plans to use an amplifier during her speech. _____

14. He asked me to check my figures with the clerk. The usual procedure in matters of this sort. _____

15. After a long day of hard classes. A student needs a good rest. _____

EXERCISE II

Directions: Place a √ if the group of words is a correct sentence. If a group of words does not make a complete thought, place an X after it and rewrite it as a sentence in the space provided. Check capitalization and spelling.

1. When the rest of the class rushed out into the sunshine. ____

_____

2. Up in the library, **i** ran through the required chapters in the two **diferent** books, and they differed on several points. ____

_____

3. The opinion that when times are thoroughly bad a wise man will merely stand by the wall. _____

ANSWERS FROM EXERCISE I:

1. F S/ 2. S F/ 3. S F/ 4. S F/ 5. F F/ 6. S F/ 7. F S/ 8. S F/ 9. F S/ 10. S F/ 11. F S/ 12. S F/13. S S/ 14. S F/ 15. F S

ANSWERS FROM EXERCISE II: 1. X 2.√ 3. X 4.√ 5. X 6.√ 7. X 8.√ 9.√ 10. X

Teacher Directions: Ask students to go to the Worksheet 4 (Appendix 16 of Materials for Students). Verify students' acquisition of spelling and capitalization patterns. Provide feedback if needed.

Note. This activity can help teachers to know students' level of acquisition of capitalization and spelling patterns. Besides, it can be implemented inside or outside the class.

Source: Adapted from https://gato-docs.its.txstate.edu/jcr:026dc257-5171-4314-9cfc-c5c4a8884b6a/Sentence%20Fragments.pdf

PROPOSAL APPENDIX

<div style="border:2px solid #c0632a; background:#e59866; text-align:center; font-weight:bold;">

MATERIALS FOR TEACHERS

</div>

Objective:

To give teachers a hint of the topic of interest

APPENDIX I

PART A. TRANSFER ERRORS

TRANSFER ERRORS - LANGUAGE ACQUISITION ROLE IN WRITING

Language acquisition refers to the capability that human beings have to perceive and comprehend a language as well as to use it properly. Chomsky's language acquisition theory talks about how learner's imitation of what they hear in L1 develops habits in L2. The interference occurs when students try to fill knowledge "gaps" in the target language (English) using their native language structures. Cummins (1981), with his famous "Iceberg Theory," states that the role of first language is essential for the acquisition of the second one, because through L1 learning, L2 becomes easier; as Lado (1957, p. 2) says those elements of a foreign language that are similar to the learner's native language will be simple for the learner to learn, whereas those elements of a foreign language that are different to the learner's native language will be difficult for him or her to acquire.

This theory is divided into two parts: positive and negative transfers. The first one, positive transference, is seen when the structure of both languages is the same and so the interference of linguistic patters can result in correct language production, sometimes called "true cognates." True cognates are used as a strategy to write in L2, and it is part of the positive transfer theory. Conversely, as Krashen (1981) pointed out, "negative transference" is frequently discussed as a source of errors; this means that students transfer words or structures that are not the same in both languages, otherwise known as "false cognates." Beardsmore (1982) explains that many of the difficulties foreign language learners have with the lexicon and grammar of the target language are caused by the transfer of linguistic habits from the native language, which leads to errors and mistakes.

Linguists make the difference between error and fault. A fault is an act characterized by a lack of respect for rules and standards set by linguists, but the error means a response or behavior of learners who do not match the response and the expected behavior. Furthermore, Brown (2000) states that a mistake refers to a performance error that it is, a failure to utilize a known system correctly while an error is a noticeable deviation from adult grammar of a native speaker reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner. Ellis (1997) establishes that errors reveal gaps in the learner´s knowledge. Likewise, as Selinker (1969) indicates, errors are significant in three respects: (1) errors are important for the language teacher because they indicate the learner's progress in language learning; (2) errors are also important for the language researcher as they provide insights into how language is learned; and (3) finally, errors are significant to the language learner as he or she gets involved in hypothesis testing.

Types of Errors

Interlingual errors (transfer errors)

Interference, language transfer, and cross-linguistic interference are also known as interlingual errors. Corder (1981) states that these kinds of errors occur when the learner's habits (patterns, systems, or rules) interfere or prevent him or her to some extent from acquiring the patterns and rules of the second language.

Intralingual errors

Richard (1974: 6) states intralingual interference refers to items produced by learners which reflects not the structure of mother tongue, but generalization based on partial exposure of the target language.

The occurrence of transfer errors involves the study of certain aspects such as lexicon acquisition (phonology), word formation (morphology), grammatical structures (syntax) and meaning (semantics).

PART B. SENTENCE STRUCTURE

There are different types of sentence structure as simple sentences have two basic grammatical parts, the subject and the predicate. The subject functions as the noun that performs

the action or noun about which something is said (the noun and all words associated with it), and the second part predicate (the verb and all words associated with it). Complete subject + complete predicate [pattern for simple sentences] **[S[NP][VP]]**

PART C. SENTENCE FRAGMENTS

Sentence	Fragment	Phrase
It begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, exclamation mark, or a question mark in case of questions. It must be a complete thought.	It is a piece of information that is punctuated as a sentence but lacks some of the characteristics of a complete sentence. It lacks some of the grammatical features.	It is a group of words that does not include a subject and a verb.

Note. For some people, a fragment is a clause; however, it can also be a phrase.

When using subordination, the dependent clause is attached to an independent clause to provide information about the relationship between the clauses. There are three types of dependent clauses: adverb, adjective, and noun clauses.

Types of Sentence Fragments

1. Subordinate clause: It contains a subordinate conjunction such as although, since, despite, because, in order that, unless, and so on or relative pronouns such as which, that, whose, and so on but cannot stand alone as a complete sentence.
Example: Before I decided to stay definitely in Spain.

Way to fix it by using punctuation: After the main clause, it does not need punctuation. Before the main clause, it needs a comma. Also, with relative clauses, no punctuation is needed; however, if the relative clause adds non-essential elements (unnecessary information to understand meaning), the comma can be used.

Revised: I traveled around the world for more than 10 years before I decided to stay definitely in Spain, or before I decided to stay definitely in Spain, I traveled around the world for more than 10 years.

2. **Appositive clause:** It is a word or group of words that renames or clarifies a noun.

Example: Whom I borrowed my Science book.

Way to fix it by using punctuation: With appositive clauses, comma is used.

Revised: My friend, whom I borrowed my Science book, did not go to school anymore.

3. **Participle phrase:** It begins with a regular or irregular verb's participle and acts as adjectives

Example: Tired of walks.

Way to fix it by using punctuation: If the participles phrase is after the main clause, punctuation is not needed; however, if it is before the main clause, a comma is need.

Revised: Tired of walks, we finished our journey.

4. **Gerund phrase:** It is a phrase which begins with a word ending in –ing formed by a verb

Example: Writing every day.

Note. The difference between a present participle phrase and a gerund phrase is that the present participle phrase acts as adjectives while gerund phrases acts as nouns. They are different parts of speech.

Way to fix it by using punctuation: It does not need punctuation

Revised: Writing every day is how I can succeed in this subject.

5. **Verb phrase:** It contains a verb phrase and lacks a subject.

Example: And drunk soda at night.

Way to fix it by using punctuation: It does not need punctuation

Revised: Yesterday, I ate pizza and drunk soda at night.

6. **Prepositional Phrase:** It contains a preposition plus a noun phrase.

Example: On the table.

Way to fix it by using punctuation: It does not need punctuation.

Revised: Your keys are on the table.

PART D. CAPITALIZATION

CAPITAL LETTERS	Capitalize the first word of a sentence and proper nouns.	Ellos compraron un nuevo departamento en Francia el pasado verano. Margarita fue una persona muy amable.	[Similar use in both languages]	They bought a new department in France last summer. Margarita was a friendly person.
	Capitalize names of countries	colombiano salvadoreño	Derivative words from proper names are usually capitalized	Colombian Australian
	Capitalize subjects, languages, titles	Mi materia favorita era Literatura I. Mis compañeros disfrutaron leer Orgullo y Prejuicio	In titles of books, plays, students' pieces of paper, and so on, capitalize the first and last words and all other words except articles,	The watchman was a person who reduced the crime in Toronto. The Paradise and Wonderful Night

		prepositions, and conjunctions.	in Venice by Ad. P.
It is not used in the same context	It is not used in the same context	Capitalize the pronoun I and the interjection O (but no oh, excepts when it starts the sentence)	I baked bread. I used to play the piano.

Writers face a lot of difficulties in capitalizations because they tend to capitalize every single word; however, after knowing some of the uses of capitalization they must know that mostly proper nouns are capitalized.

In the case of the use of the Capital letter, both languages present similarities in the use of it. In Spanish the pronoun I (yo) is not capitalized, if it does not begin the sentence.

PART E. SPELLING

Spelling problems are sometimes apparently connected to pronunciation problems, and sometimes seem to arise because of the transference of the spelling pattern of Spanish into English. This spelling errors are known as "spelling-to-sound" in which it is transferred the relationship between written and spoken form of native language patterns and "sound-to-spelling" in which words sound alike or partially alike but may have different spelling in the two languages. Spelling problems in English has to do with orthography patterns.

According to Stubbs (1986: 6), there are three main types of spelling rules that occur in descriptions of English spelling conventions: 1) Correspondence rules, 2) Adaptation rules, 3) Graphotactic rules (or letter-distribution rules which specify which letters can or cannot occur.

Note. Only surface aspects related to the most common spelling errors are included.

Different vowel value correspondences in Spanish – English cognates

	Correspondences in Spanish and English			
1	**Vowel letter or vowel combination**			
	Spanish Simple vowel		**English complex value**	
a	/ɑ/	Cable	/ey/	cable
e	/e/	Extremo	/iy/	extreme
i	/i/	Biblia	/ay/	bible
	Spanish Simple vowel		**English (different) Simple vowel**	
a	/ɑ/	Banco	/æ/	bank
o	/o/	Objeto	/ɑ/	object
u	/u/	Justo	/ə/	just
	Spanish complex value		**English simple value**	
au	/aw/	Auto	/ɔ/	auto
ai	/ay/	Aire	/ɛ/	air
	Spanish complex value		**English (different) Complex vowel**	
ay	/ay/	Playa	/ey/	play
eu	/ew/	Feudal	/uw/	feudal
2	**Spanish single value vs. English vowel combination**			
a	/ɑ/	Falta	/aw/	fault
U	/u/	Fruta	/uw/	fruit
O	/ɔ/	Doble	/ʌ/	double
3	**Spanish vowel combination vs. different English single vowel**			
Ai	/ai/	Vainilla	/ə/	vanilla
I	/ɪ/	Prisión	/ə/	prison
4	**Spanish single value vs. different English single vowel**			

A	/ɑ/	tabaco	/ə/	tobacco
O	/ɔ/	Japón	/æ/	Japan

English has the following combination of letters considered as single consonants.

Combination of letters

Ch	much, attach	/mʌʧ/ , /ətæʧ/
Ph	telegraph, autograph	/teligræf/ , /ɔtəgrɑf/
Sh	wash, crush	/wɑʃ/ , /krʌʃ/
Th	path, earth	/pɑθ/ , /ɛrθ/

There are different correspondences of constants letters in Spanish-English cognate words.

Consonant correspondence Spanish vs. English

Consonant Correspondence	Phoneme	Word		Consonant Correspondence	Phoneme	Word	
p vs. pp	/p/	aplicación	application	c vs. que	/k/	Opaco	opaque
t vs. tt	/t/	atacar	attack	c vs. sc	/s/	ciencia	science
c vs. cc	/k/	oculto	occult	c vs. sch	/s/	Cisma	schism
b vs. bb	/b/	abreviación	abbreviation	g vs. gu	/g/	garantía	guarantee
d vs. dd	/d/	adicto	addicted	g vs. gue	/g/	Plaga	plague
g vs. gg	/g/	agravar	aggravate	gü vs. gu	/gw/	ungüento	unguent
f vs. ff	/f/	suficiente	sufficient	k vs. kh	/k/	Kaki	khaki
s vs. ss	/s/	esencia	essence	n vs. gn	/n/	reinado	reign
m vs. mm	/m/	comentar	comment	qu vs.k	/k/	Parquet	park

n vs. nn	/n/	anotación	annotation	r vs. rr	/r/	huracán	hurricane
l vs. ll	/l/	colección	collection	s vs. ps	/s/	Salmo	psalm
cu vs. qu	/kw/	cuota	quota	v vs. b	/b/	automóvil	automobile
f vs. ph	/f/	frase	phrase	x vs. cs	/ks/	éxtasis	ecstasy
c vs. ch	/k/	carácter	character	z vs. c	/s/	Plaza	place
c vs. k	/k/	banco	bank				

The problem of transfer errors, specifically the ones involving spelling, does not occur due to their similarities but to their differences in phonology, for example, a common written transfer error for L2 students is the word "respons**a**ble" (Spanish pattern) intended for the English pattern **"responsible"**; in other words, the pattern of spelling "**a**" is brought into English by using "**a**" instead of "**i**" as presented below.

Spelling and sound pattern of "a" carried to English

responsable (Spanish)	respons**i**ble (English)
Spanish spelling pattern carried: "a"	transfer error: "respons**a**ble" instead of "respons**i**ble"

Note. The sound pattern of Spanish is adapted to conform to the English sound and spelling pattern.

This happens as the phoneme /a/ is taken as the equivalent of schwa /ə/ which does not exist in Spanish. Additionally, they differentiate in their phonetic characteristics.

Transfer error "es" carried into English Spelling

Spanish Sound Pattern	English Spelling Pattern	Transfer error
Spanish spelling pattern carried: /e/ representing the	- **s**tudent /studənt/	Transfer error: "**es**" Examples: - **e**student /ɛstudənt/

spelling of "e" usually at the beginning of a word. Example: - estudiante - espacio	- **s**pace /spes/	- **e**space /ɛspes/

Note. The English consonant cluster /**st/** and /**sp**/ at the beginning of words leading to the spelling of "**est-**" and "**esp-**" in English.

The change of the initial "st-" and "sp-" into "est-" and "esp-" in English words occurs when Spanish speakers bring out the sound pattern /est/ and /esp/ to provide syllabicity because in their native language, the consonant clusters /st/ and /sp/ at the beginning of words do not exist.

Spelling Patterns in both Languages

Both vowel phonemes are equal in both Spanish and English		
Spanish spelling pattern	English Spelling Pattern	
Examples:	Examples:	
demostrar	demostrate	(omission of "n")
Posible	posible	(omission o "s")
professor	profesor	(omission o "s")
profesión	profesion	(omission o "s")
aplicación	aplication	(omission o "p")
atención	atention	(omission o "t")
característica	caracteristic	(omission of "h")
agresión	agression	(omission o "g")

puntuación	puntuation	(omission of "c")
comunicación	comunication	(omission of "m")
diferencia	diference	(omission of "f")

Note. The cross-language correspondences vary in their prosody.

In Spanish, there is no duplication of the same consonant letter, but in English, there are cross-language spelling correspondences consisting on the duplication of the same consonant.

To summarize, sound-to-spelling transfer errors occur when a phonetic pattern is carried over the L2 because of two main reasons: 1) to carry a phonetic pattern of L1 as the equivalent of a phoneme in L2 which does not exist in L1, and 2) when the phonemes are shared or exist in both languages but the spelling of L1 is carried to the spelling of L2. Furthermore, sound-to-spelling transfer errors are closely related with orthography which may include spelling patterns; however, this study will focus just on the ones in which transfer errors are common to happen.

APPENDIX 2

INTONATION

Sometimes speakers may mislead their listener or their audience since they are repeatedly using high rising intonation at the end of speech chunks producing that the sentences become irritating and confusing. Listeners can also get confused because they cannot distinguish between what information is finished and what is not. The speaker may also give the impression of seeking feedback or approval and therefore lacks confidence. To get a feeling of how this works, look the position of the arrow, for example;

I went to the lecture ↗/ it was great↗/ the lecturer was clear ↗/

she asked if we had questions↗/ but everyone just sat there↗/

If you do not finish off with a falling intonation at some point, the listener is left 'hanging', waiting for the 'story' to end. Now try a different intonation:

I went to the lecture↘/ it was great↘/ the lecturer was clear ↘/ she asked if we had questions↘/ but everyone just sat there ↘/

Many linguistics distinguish among the following intonation patterns:

- Rising Intonation means the pitch of the voice rises over time [↗]
- Falling Intonation means that the pitch falls with the time [↘]
- Dipping or Fall-rise Intonation falls and then rises [↘↗]
- Peaking or Rise-fall Intonation rises and then falls [↗↘]

Another obstacle that second language may encounter is intonation problems. Intonation is so important because people convey meaning, emotions and attitude through it. The meaning of an utterance may change depending on what word a person decides to stress. Lantern Fish (2007) gives the following examples on how meaning can change depending on the stressed word.

- ✓ I did not say you stole my red hat. (Someone else said it, not me.)
- ✓ I **did** not say you stole my red hat. (Strong anger.)
- ✓ I did not say **you** stole my red hat. (I was not accusing you.)
- ✓ I did not say you stole my **red** hat. (You stole my blue hat.)

Ryan, an English teacher and professional accent coach, mentions that a common intonation pattern used by native English speakers is a rising tone. She explains that in this pattern the pitch rises and stays high at the end of the sentence. Americans use rising intonation with yes-no questions or when they express surprise. The interrogative form of the simple present tense and the verb "be" require a rising tone. This type of intonation uses 2-3 patterns.

Wright & McGillivray (1996) represent intonation differently. They use a line that goes up or down depending on the pitch change. They state that the interrogative form of the verb "to be" shows a rising tone or 2-3 patterns. However, when the coordinating conjunction "or" is used the noun or adjective attached will show a falling tone.

- Is this a pen?
- Are those books?

- Is this your brother or cousin?

For an acoustic study of parentheticals, pitch is the primary prosodic feature to be investigated as parentheticals in English are found to exhibit a lower-leveled and narrower pitch range than the surrounding sentence constituents (Bolinger, 1989, p. 186; Cruttenden, 1997; Crystal, 1969;Grosz & Hirschberg, 1992;Kutik et al., 1983;O'Shaughnessy, 1990;Wichmann,2000). Pitch refers to the perceptual sensation of the frequency of vocal fold vibrations.

Note. Such intonation patterns give the hint to determine whether clauses begin or stop. By means of this, the explanation of types of sentences and fragments can be initially taught.

Source: Retrieved from: https://www.uts.edu.au/sites/default/files/Pronunciation%204%20-%20Intonation%20%26%20Connected%20Speech%20(MaryAnn).pdf

https://dspace.library.uvic.ca/bitstream/handle/1828/2768/parantheticals_ChristelB_MA.pdf;sequence=1

Objective:

To provide students with a variety of practice for improving their writing skill

APPENDIX 1

"INTONATION PATTERNS"

Direction: Read the following passage attentively and emphasize the intonation, and respect punctuation at the moment of reading

According to a University study, your intelligence can actively be affected by the position of your body. For example, when you are standing, your mind may function so quickly that when somebody asks you a question, you fail to consider your answer carefully and may often blurt out the wrong response. In addition, you may have trouble remembering where you left your scissors or umbrella, for when you are standing, you can expect your memory to be at its worst. On the other hand, you suppose that you were a soldier waiting anxiously for news of the enemy's location or a costumer being tending to buy an unnecessary item. In this instance, standing would help to give you a feeling of absolute control over the situation.

When you are lying down, your thoughts will probably come together slowly, but they are likely to be creative. In a resting position, you also listen very carefully and receive suggestions with an open mind. Faced with a problem, you are apt to weigh one argument against another and make any necessary estimates before reaching an intelligent decision. Of course, it is simply not possible to lie down everything you have some highly important thinking to do. So you might try sitting, which will give you somewhat similar results.

Source: Adapted from Steps in Composition, Fourth Edition. Troyka, L., Nudelman, J. (1986,1979,1972), p. 148

UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR
WESTERN MULTIDISCIPLINARY CAMPUS
FOREIGN LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT
ENGLISH COMPOSITION I

STUDENT'S NAME: _____

GROUP: _____

EXERCISE 1

Objective: To detect any different misspelled and double consonant word in the following paragraph

Direction: Read the dialogue below and underline the misspelled words.

Sherman J. Alexie Jr. was born in October 1966. He is a Spokane/Coeurd'Alene Indian and an American writer, poet, and filmmaker. Alexie was born with hydrocephalus, or water on the brain. This condition led doctors to predict that he would likly suffer long-term brain damage and possibly mental retardation. Although Alexie survived with no mental disabilitys, he did suffer other serious side effects from his condition that plagud him throughout his childhood. Amazingly, Alexie learned to read by the age of three, and by age five he had read novels such as John Steinbeck's The Grapes of Wrath. Raised on an Indian reservation, Alexie often felt aleinated from his peers due to his avid love for reading and also from the long-term effects of his illnes, which often kept him from socializeing with his peers on the reservation. The reading skills he displaid at such a young age foreshadowed what he would later become. Today Alexie is a prolific and sucessful writer with several story anthologeis to his credit, noteably The Lone Ranger and Tonto Fistfight in Heaven and The Toughest Indian in the World. Most of his ficion is about contemporary Native Americans who are influenced by pop culure and pow wows and everything in between. His work is sometimes funy but always thougtful and full of richness and deph. Alexie also

writes poetry, novels, and screenplays. His latest collection of storys is called War Dances, which came out in 2009.

EXERCISE II

Objective: To select the correct homonym word in the context

Direction: Complete the following sentences by selecting the correct homonym.

1. Do you agree with the underlying _____(principle, principal) that ensures copyrights are protected in the digital age?

2. I like to _____(where, wear, ware) unique clothing from thrift stores that do not have company logos on them.

3. Marjorie felt like she was being _____(led, lead) on a wild goose chase, and she did not like it one bit.

4. Serina described _____(witch, which) house was hers, but now that I am here, they all look the same.

5. Seeing his friend without a lunch, Miguel gave her a _____ (peace, piece) of his apple.

6. Do you think that it is healthy for mother to talk about the_____(passed, past) all the time?

EXERCISE III

Objective: To recognize the different uses of homonyms words

Direction: Write sentences using the following homonyms words. Be careful with the use.		
Principle, Principal	Lead, Led	Patience, Patients
Where, Wear, Ware	Lessen, Lesson	Threw, Through

APPENDIX 3

"FAULTY CAPITALIZATION"

*Direction***:** Each of the following paragraphs contains one fragment. Make it into a complete sentence, rewriting when necessary. Additionally, revise faults in the omission of capital letters and in the misuse of capitalization in common nouns.

3. *pancho villa, the mexican revolutionary General, leading the last army that successfully invaded the United States in march 1916 at columbus, New mexico. He was chased by General pershing and general-to-be George patton, but he got away from them in the Mountains. In fact, he had escaped capture many times during the long mexican Revolution. After he retired to a ranch in durango, mexico, he was ambushed and killed in 1923.*

4. *between 1940 and 1973 the Central intelligence agency (CIA) secretly funded a Nationwide series of harmful mid-control Experiments. The People used in the Projects were not informed of the risks they were taking. According to CIA data obtained through the Freedom of Information Act and testimony at a 1977 Senate committee hearing. The Program had been meant to develop Chemicals that would protect people against Communist Brainwashing Techniques.*

Source: Adapted from Steps in Composition, Fourth Edition. Troyka, L., Nudelman, J. (1986,1979,1972), p. 84-85

UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR
WESTERN MULTIDISCIPLINARY CAMPUS
FOREIGN LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT
ENGLISH COMPOSITION I

STUDENT'S NAME: _____

GROUP: _____

EXERCISE 1

Direction: Write five proper nouns for each common noun that is listed. The first one has been done for you.

Common noun: people	Common noun: things	Common noun: animals	Proper nouns
mother			

Source: Adapted from https://2012books.lardbucket.org/pdfs/successful-writing.pdf?fbclid=IwAR1omxqKuIJf9JlV4lMtAdZUCgVxpE5KgaeraGKUvSxUANCbKTa2gIkt9kw

EXERCISE 2

Direction: Edit the following paragraphs by correcting the capitalization.

david grann's the lost City of Z mimics the snake-like winding of the amazon River. the three distinct Stories that are introduced are like twists in the River. First, The Author describes his own journey to the amazon in the present day, which is contrasted by an account of percy fawcett's voyage in 1925 and a depiction of James Lynch's expedition in 1996. where does the river lead these explorers? the answer is one that both the Author and the reader are hungry to discover.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

APPENDIX 5

"APPLYING HOMOPHONES IN SENTENCE FRAGMENTS"

*Direction***:** Write the best option that fits in the sentence fragment in the space provided and fix the sentence fragment.

hear	principle	their	piece	whether
peace	weather	two	here	
principal	too	there	to	

1. The _____ theme of the novel.

_____

2. To bring _____ to the world.

_____

3. Many _____ of physics!

_____

4. Gave her schedule _____ me.

_____

5. Will wait _____ for my friends.

_____

6. _____ to stay at home or go out.

_____

7. To _____the radio.

_____

8. Watching _____ much TV.

_____

9. _____ privilege to vote against the amendment.

_____

10. Consulted _____ dictionaries.

_____

11. A _____ of cake with coffee.

_____

12. The _____ for this coming week.

_____

13. Is over _____.

_____

APPENDIX 6

"IDENTIFYING AND REVISING FAULTS IN CAPITALIZATION"

Direction: Read the following passage, and fix fragments and capitalization problems.

THE WEEKEND COOK

My dad works in a bank. he works there. From monday to friday. He helps people. He counts money, and he uses the Computer. His job is important. Is an important man at the Bank.

dad also works at home. On weekends he cooks dinner. Usually he fixes italian food. On Saturdays he makes Spaghetti. On Sundays he makes pizza. Sometimes he fries chicken or fixes chinese food. My mother watches and helps. She cuts the vegetables. She tosses the salad. I wash the dishes.

Some people say it is strange. For a man to cook. My dad enjoys his hobby. Cooking relaxes him. His father was a weekend cook, too.

Source: Adapted from Developing Writing, Writing Skills Practice Book for EFL, Beginning/Intermediate Level. Peterson, P. 1982

APPENDIX 7

"DOUBLE SPELLING APPLIED IN SENTENCE FRAGMENTS"

Direction: First, using the definitions given as clues, fill in this puzzle. Second, place the right word from the puzzle in the space provided in the paragraph with the help of the context given, and third, find and revise the sentence fragments.
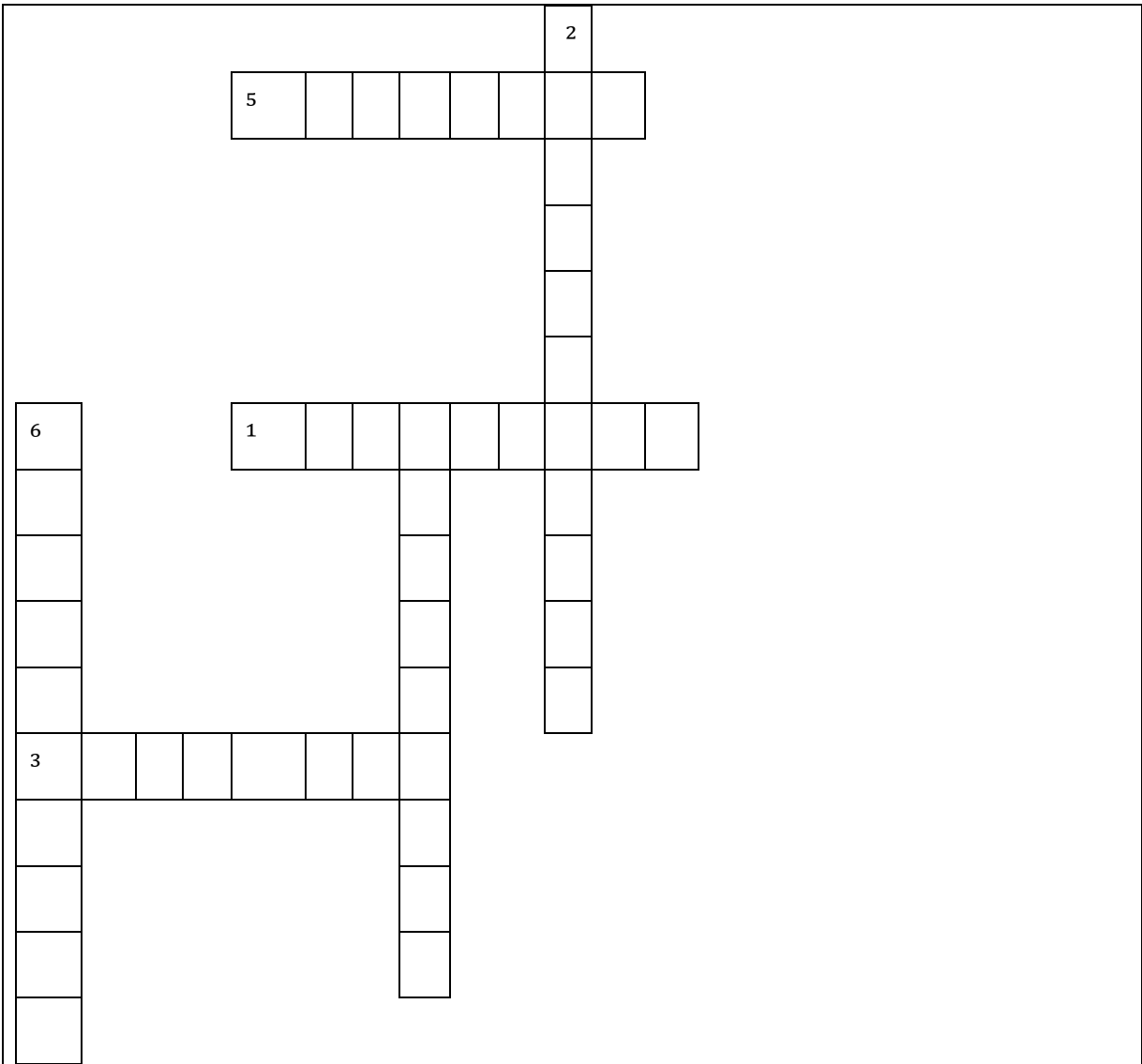
ACROSS

1. Words or drawings scratched or painted on a wall _____

3. The act of thinking about or considering something, an idea or opinion, or a set of ideas about a particular subject

_____

DOWN

2. To share information with others by speaking, writing, moving your body, or using other signals_____

4.Notice, thought or interest _____

| 5. The building in which the US Congress meets _____ | 6. Satisfactory and able to be agreed to or approved of _____ |

_____, those scribblings and drawings on walls that you have passed about every day of your life, are one of the oldest methods used by people to _____. In fact, such wall writings were popular over two thousand years before Christianity; Greek workers whose lives were spent building the Great Pyramid at Giza. Left their signatures on this Egyptian monument. The ancient Italian city of Pompeii has some of its walls marked up with pieces of graffiti too. They're well-preserved clues to the past because in 79 A.D. a volcano exploded. And then buried the city under volcanic ash, which protected the graffiti from the weather for many hundreds of years.

Whether these wall markings are found in ancient Pompeii or in modern America. They fall into three principal categories. The principal behind the most common type, identity graffiti, is the graffiti writer's desire to call _____ to his or her name in a society where most people feel lost in the crowd. The example you're probably most familiar with is "Kilroy was here." Another reason for identity graffiti was pointed out by a high school principal. Who found that a teacher who's busy to hear what students are saying encourages them to scrawl their names on their desk tops in revenge. The second type of graffiti offers a message or opinion. For example, the _____, "There will be peace with or without people," was written on a wall of the _____ in Washington, D. C. There, someone also wrote: "Of course I smoke. It's safer than breathing!" The final type of graffiti is decorative and colorful artwork; it can be seen throughout New York City. Often called the graffiti capitol of the world, where several young people have formed an organization, United Graffiti Artists, to sell their art. Thus, graffiti are becoming an _____ form of communication that will likely survive periodic cleanups and paint jobs.

Source: Adapted from Steps in Composition, Fourth Edition. Troyka, L., Nudelman, J. (1986,1979,1972), p. 53,76

APPENDIX 8

"APPLYING CAPITALIZATION RULES"

Direction: Identify the words with omission and misuse of capitalization; then fix the sentence fragments.

1. Before edgar allan Poe wrote *The Murders in the Rue Morgue.*

_____

2. the ancient egyptian on pillows make of stone.

_____

3. While He was entertaining his Step son one rainy day.

_____

4. records show that roderigo de Triana, A crewnman of Christopher Columbus' ship the nina.

_____

5. Because a Shrew has poisonous Saliva.

_____

Source: Adapted from Steps in Composition, Fourth Edition. Troyka, L., Nudelman, J. (1986,1979,1972), p. 168-170

APPENDIX 9
"PRACTICING DOUBLE SPELLING"

Directions: Identify and correct the misspelled words in the following paragraph. Then, underline sentence fragments.

Sherman J. Alexie Jr. was born in October 1966. He is a Spokane/Coeur d'Alene Indian and an American writer, poet, and filmmaker. Alexie was born with hydrocephalus, or water on the brain. This condition led doctors to predict that he would likely sufer long-term brain damage and possibly mental retardation. Although Alexie survived with no mental

disabilities. He did suffer other serious side efects from his condition that plagued him throughout his childhood. Amazingly, Alexie learned to read by the age of three, and by age five he had read novels such as John Steinbeck's The Grapes of Wrath. Raised on an Indian reservation, Alexie often felt alienated from his peers due to his avid love for reading and also from the long-term effects of his ilness. Which ofen kept him from socializing with his peers on the reservation. The reading skills he displayed at such a young age foreshadowed what he would later become. Today Alexie is a prolific and sucesful writer with several story anthologies to his credit. Notably The Lone Ranger and Tonto Fistfight in Heaven and The Toughest Indian in the World. Most of his fiction is about contemporary Native Americans who are influenced by pop culture and pow wows and everything in between. His work is sometimes funny but always thoughtful and full of richness and depth. Alexie also writes poetry, novels, and screenplays. His latest colection of stories is called War Dances, which came out in 2009.

Source: Adapted from Successful Writing, Creative Commons, 2012, p.188

APPENDIX 10

"BRAINSTORMING"

Direction: Watch the following videos and take notes about spelling, capitalization and sentence fragments. Then, discuss your ideas in pairs.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rtSu_QTX8JQ

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gbG2jyI8600

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZxKUWoNfetE

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=66HewSHioAo

BRAINSTORMING:_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

APPENDIX 11

"APPLYING CAPITALIZATION PATTERNS"

.

Direction: Write a short paragraph using proper and common nouns. Be careful with fragments

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

APPENDIX 12

"WRITING CROSS-LANGUAGE WORDS"

Direction: Write the correct translation for each Spanish word and create sentences. Be careful with fragmenting sentences.

Spanish word	English translation	Spanish word	English translation
aplicación		estadio	
suficiente		fontana	
garantia		contribución	

Sentences:

1._____

2._____

3._____

| 4._____ |
| 5._____ |
| 6._____ |

Source: Adapted from Comparing English and Spanish Patterns in Phonology and Orthography. Regents publishing company Inc, 1977, p.170- 173.

APPENDIX 13

WORKSHEET 3

UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR
WESTERN MULTIDISCIPLINARY CAMPUS
FOREIGN LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT
ENGLISH COMPOSITION I

STUDENT'S NAME: _____

GROUP: _____

General Direction: Answer correctly what is required.

EXERCISE I

Direction: Write the correct translation for each word.

e.g.: Spanish word: actual; English translation: current, present-day; English word: actual; Spanish translation: real, efectivo.

Spanish word	*English translation*	*English word*	*Spanish translation*
Americano		American	
asistir		assist	
bombero		bomber	
codo		code	
disgusto		disgust	

dormitorio		dormitory	
embarazada		embarrassed	
grosería		grocery	
largo		large	
molestar		molest	

EXERCISE II

Direction: write a sentence using the words above. In both languages.

	English	*Spanish*

1. _____ _____
2. _____ _____
3. _____ _____
4. _____ _____
5. _____ _____
6. _____ _____
7. _____ _____
8. _____ _____
9. _____ _____
10. _____ _____

EXERCISE III

Direction: Translate the following words into the correct spelling and mention the error, if the word has correct writing write **'C'**

Spanish spelling pattern	English Spelling Pattern	Answer
diferencia		
demostrar		
posible		
professor		
profesión		
aplicación		
atención		
característica		
agresión		
puntuación		
comunicación		

APPENDIX 14

"DO YOU UNDERSTAND SENTENCE FRAGMENTS?"

Direction: Find the sentence fragments and check spelling and capitalization.

Thanks for your inquiry. About the pear of read shoes featured in our Catalog. The shoes are died to match the dress that is shown on the same page. Many people order both and like to were them together.

The shoes are on sail. if you'd like to bye this item. You must first pay the balance on your overdoe account. We are not aloud to ship you knew merchandise until you pay your pass doe bill.

*Source***:** Retrieved from: http://ewriteonline.com/wp-content/uploads/2011/05/06_Chapter5Ewrite.pdf

APPENDIX 15

"FIXING FAULTS IN CAPITALIZATION OMISSION AND MISUSE IN SENTENCE FRAGMENTS"

Direction: First, identify spelling and capitalization faults and then, rewrite fragments to make them complete sentences. Some of the word groups may already be complete; if the word group is complete, put a period at the end and write nothing else.

1. When the convict was released from pri**s**ion

_____

2. Misunderstanding her **S**tudent's explanation

_____

3. Sales people who are rude to **there** customers

_____

4. A **M**agazine listing best-selling computer software

_____

5. Before **acepting** the soap opera star's invitation to **diner**

_____

6. In order to make lasting **friendchips**

_____

7. If you ignore your teeth**,** they might disappear forever

_____

8. After the **chocking** facts are revealed

_____

9. Michael **j**ackson, a popular and talented entertainer

_____

10. A sample of water from the **poluted** river

_____

11. Spilling your **cofe** on your boss's desk

_____

12. Whoever jogs at least **to** miles a day

_____

13. The average telephone conversation lasts five minutes

_____

14.The **F**irst person who landed on the moon

_____

15. The sexy **N**ovel about life in a small town

_____

16. A **R**obot that can cook your dinner

_____

17. Exhausted from **speking** and driving all night

_____

APPENDIX 16
WORKSHEET 4
"SENTENCE FRAGMENTS"

UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR
WESTERN MULTIDISCIPLINARY CAMPUS
FOREIGN LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT
ENGLISH COMPOSITION I

STUDENT'S NAME: _____

EXERCISE I

Directions: Each of the 15 items in this self-test is in two parts. In the spaces to the right of each item, indicate whether each part is a fragment (F) or sentence (S).

Examples:

a. Not really knowing what to do. So running away from home. <u>F</u>

b. I studied for hours. Preparing myself for the next test. <u>F</u>

c. We jogged around the park. We covered five miles in 40 minutes. <u>S</u>

1. Startled by the loud noise of the engine. I dropped the wrench and jumped out of the way. _____

2. George was standing on the corner. Watching all the cars go by. _____

3. Rex gathered some dry twigs. And tried to start a fire for us. _____

4. All of us waited at the door. To let the man in the wheelchair by. _____

5. Written by a Black poet. Who had spent many years in the ghetto. _____

6. I have wanted to drive a race car. For as long as I can remember. _____

7. Even though Mr. Harvey is more than seventy years old. He enjoys watching young, active children. _____

8. She gave me her phone number. So I could call her later. _____

9. Without spilling a drop on the driveway. Jill drained the oil from her car. _____

10. Our instructor gave us a mid-semester test. Which was not as difficult as we had expected. _____

11. Merely by giving him a gentle tap with a newspaper. Skippy can be controlled quite easily. _____

12. He grinds his teeth only during his sleep. Never while studying or watching TV. _____

13. Ms. Barns has a very low, soft voice. She plans to use an amplifier during her speech. _____

14. He asked me to check my figures with the clerk. The usual procedure in matters of this sort. _____

15. After a long day of hard classes. A student needs a good rest. _____

EXERCISE II

Directions: Place a √ if the group of words is a correct sentence. If a group of words does not make a complete thought, place an X after it and rewrite it as a sentence in the space provided. Check capitalization and spelling.

1. When the rest of the class rushed out into the sunshine. ____

_____

2. Up in the library, **i** ran through the required chapters in the two **diferent** books, and they differed on several points. ____

_____

_____

3. The opinion that when times are thoroughly bad a wise man will merely stand by the wall.

_____
_____