

ABSTRACT

The theme of the following investigation project is: “Native Language Interference in learning English as a foreign language: An Analysis of Written Material produced by Spanish speaking students in Senior High school classes”. This was mainly carried out in the city of Quito and its purpose is to detect whether or not there is interference of the Spanish native language when students write texts in English.

I obtained seven tasks from twenty native Spanish students of sixth course to do this study. The tasks consisted of doing a composition, a free story tale, an essay, and a quiz. The research project was conducted in Cardinal Spellman Girls School, being the senior students, ranging from 16 to 17 year-old, the main target of it; in order to obtain a better view of the interference students have when they are writing in English.

The following investigation project is made up of a descriptive research focused on a qualitative and a quantitative approach, and also a comparative analysis, which allowed me to get a better description and understanding of common grammatical and lexical errors made by Spanish speaking learners. Therefore I have developed the following proposal which consists of the creation of techniques to reduce interference by improving semantic and syntactic structures.

INTRODUCTION

This project is called “Native Language Interference in Learning English as a Foreign Language: An Analysis of Written Material Produced by Spanish Speaking Students in Senior High School Classes”. It is based on the different aspects involved in the process of acquiring a new language. Studies on this topic have been developed on various theories from main Linguists and Researchers, such as: Schumann (1975), who states the theory of translation and form of a language acquisition; Kraschen (1984) and his studies on total immersion and the natural language acquisition, and finally the new reports from Herbert Puchta (2000) in the new advances on language acquiring.

It is also remarkable to mention that extensive research has already been done in other countries in the area of native language interference on the target language. Dulay (1982) defines interference as the automatic transfer, due to habit, of the surface structure of the first language onto the surface of the target language. On the other hand, Lott (1983) defines interference as errors in the learner's use of the foreign language that can be traced back to the mother tongue, and afterwards Ellis (1997) says that errors reflect gaps in the learner's knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct; therefore, mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance.

They also occur because, in a particular instance, the learner is unable to perform what he or she knows.

One restrictive aspect in this research is that due to the little knowledge on the different areas of linguistics and theories of learning English as a second language in our country, traditional teachers have tended to transmit the same obsolete methods they were taught causing an obstacle in the training of new ways to teach a language.

It is necessary to remark that after this research the group that was the target of my investigation tended to fall out into the same error trend showing a similar lack of knowledge or confusion, due to the interference that the environment surrounding them causes and the huge influence of their own language in the process of learning.

This research was done in order to obtain the Bachelor's Degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language. Additionally one aim of this project is to know which are the reasons and causes that impede that students master a new language more proficiently in every single and integrated skill. It will also help students and teachers in their ability to learn and teach a new language respectively.

For this reason a proposal was designed in order to provide techniques that will guide educators to help students achieve a better

understanding, and performance in the four main skills which are listening, writing, reading and speaking, considering them all important and at the same level of relevance.

The resources required for the following investigation were the libraries from San Francisco University, Quito, Fulbright Commission and the internet web sites on recent and former theories on linguistics.

The main obstacle I had was to find a school which allows me to work in the research. Many of them were not willing to help.

Therefore, it is very important for me to mention the Cardinal Spellman Girls School directed by the Congregation of Salesian Sisters, who were very kind and helpful.

It is necessary to emphasize that the following research tries to explain why and how students use a specific L1 or L2 structure when there is an error identified. And, also it intends to find out about why the structures of L1 interfere on L2 when judgements of semantic acceptability of sentences are made in L1 and L2.

For all these reasons and results, the most important goal of this research was to identify the level of interference of the native language on the writing abilities of learners of English as a foreign language.

The specific goals that I accomplished during this research work are the next:

- Determine the most frequent syntactic and semantic errors in writing in English through the analysis of some writing produced by the individuals selected in the sample. I carried out this goal with the tasks done by students in which I could analyze the most common errors.

- Develop some linguistic strategies to improve writing, and intend to help learners overcome to a certain extent the level of interference of Spanish linguistic habits. This goal was accomplished when I could provide teachers enough information to minimize interference by doing some writing activities.

- Develop the basis for further studies and inquire on first language interference. This research was achieved with the purpose of helping other researchers to recognize the interference that happens when people learn a second language.

METHODOLOGY

This project was divided into two parts, the first research phase is called “Theoretical Background” and second phase is called “Field Research”. The target population was the senior students from Cardinal Spellman Girls School whose ages vary from 16 to 17 years old. It is necessary to mention that this school is considered one of the best schools in the area, ruled by the Salesian Sisters, a Roman Catholic congregation dedicated to education and missionary work.

After having asked for authorization to the Headmistress of the institution, Mother Beatriz Navarro, the field research took place in the morning schedule at various hours of the day, for the period of time of 4 weeks, sampling the targeted group above mentioned.

The analysis of data was obtained by comparing and studying different tasks of writing exercises as essays, narrations, and tales about topics involving traditions like Christmas, imaginary stories, and formal topics such as future careers for essays. The students were given several instructions such as: topics, amount of words to be used, type of handwriting and the same tasks had to be written in Spanish and handed into their teacher the next day.

I asked the students to write the tasks in early periods of class, hence this can help in their concentration and awareness, it was also important to encourage them to perform their best by telling them that

the best works will be displayed and will be rewarded with an extra point in their scores.

After investigating the themes, it was easy to realize about the importance of the approaches and techniques which are applied in the language teaching process; that, somehow, could help teachers and students to get acquainted on how to use English as a communicative tool in their everyday-life situations, being these related to school, social life, work, and even leisure purposes.

Some of the tools that were used, as well, were copies with headings for the written tasks, markers, whiteboard, dictionaries, and a computer.

Once, the tasks were collected I proceed to count the errors, highlighting them with a marker in order to see clearly which are the ones more commonly made by the students. Then I classified the indicators with their errors in the grammatical and lexical variables to count the number of errors in each category in order to have the frequency and percentage of the data obtained.

In the next step, I did the pie charts with the frequency of errors; they show what proportion of cases fall into each of several categories.

The analysis of the multiple charts helped me to discover the common trend of errors among students. It showed basically that they were related to form or structure, in the aspects of grammar and lexicon.

The techniques used in the process of getting results and analyses were note taking, surveys and field research observation.

RESULTS

After collecting the information and sampling, it was necessary to analyze every single work and consequently some of the same mistakes were showing certain trend which will be analyzed in the following charts in a qualitative and quantitative way.

QUALITATIVE TABULATION

CHART ONE

Variable: Grammar Structure

Indicator: Prepositions

TYPES OF TASK	MOST COMMON ERRORS	EXAMPLES
Composition	Substitution	I knew I can count with him (on)
	Omission	Wait_ me at the exit door (for)
Story	Substitution	I saw a dog in the corner (on)
	Omission	Because_ Mario, everybody was mad (Because of Mario...)
Essay	Substitution	I went camping in a shiny and beautiful day (on)
	Substitution	It depends of what you think (on)
	Omission	We were tired because we traveled _a week (for)
Quiz	Substitution	It is written in the board (on) In February 19 th (on) He was right in the door (at)
	Omission	They have been waiting _ two months for Christmas.... (for)

Author: Paulina Proaño Pérez

Source: 6th year of the Cardinal Spellman High School students

CHART TWO

Variable: Grammar Structure

Indicator: Personal Pronouns

TYPES OF TASK	MOST COMMON ERRORS	EXAMPLES
Composition	- Omission	...then _opened our presents (we)
Story	- Omission	Paul was the scariest one, _ was shivering when _enter into the house. (He)
Essay	- Omission	When I go to the ranch_ have fun. (I)
Quiz	- Omission	In Christmas _ eat very much, play, dance with mi cousins and friends. (I)

Author: Paulina Proaño Pérez

Source: 6th year of the Cardinal Spellman High School students

CHART THREE

Variable: Grammar Structure

Indicator: Adjectives

TYPES OF TASK	MOST COMMON ERRORS	EXAMPLES
Composition	Order	I put a star big on top of the tree. (big star)
	Pluralization	They were some nices Christmas trees. (nice)
Story	Order	I opened the present small first. (small present)
	Pluralization	I remember the beautifuls Christmas eves we had. (beautiful)
Essay	Order	These are options very hard to choose (very hard options)
	Pluralization	We need to decide on practicals careers for our future (practical)
Quiz	Order	The Christmas best that I had was..... (best Christmas)

Author: Paulina Proaño Pérez

Source: 6th year of the Cardinal Spellman High School students

CHART FOUR

Variable: Grammar Structure

Indicator: Auxiliaries

TYPES OF TASK	MOST COMMON ERRORS	EXAMPLES
Composition	- Omission	He _not always come to work (does not)
		He _not lost the money, but he invested it (did not lose)
Story	- Omission	The Simpson's _not show a good example for..... (do not)
		Candy not had any friends in her school... (did not have)
Essay	- Omission	The people _not care about the skills but they only care about the money(do not)
		My dad _not let me study music ... (did not let)
Quiz	- Omission	I _not spent Christmas at home.... (do not)
		We enjoy the beach but we not go there last vacation (did not go)

Author: Paulina Proaño Pérez

Source: 6th year of the Cardinal Spellman High School students

CHART FIVE

Variable: Lexicon

Indicator: Use of False cognates

TYPES OF TASK	MOST COMMON ERRORS	EXAMPLES
Composition	-Inadequate use	My aunt couldn't lift her present because she is embarrassed . (pregnant)
Story	-Inadequate use	Actually , I have received my grades every week. (Currently)
Essay	-Inadequate use	People need to have resistance to study a career... (endurance)
Quiz	-Inadequate use	I assist to school every day (go/attend)

Author: Paulina Proaño Pérez

Source: 6th year of the Cardinal Spellman High School students

CHART SIX

Variable: Lexicon

Indicator: Invented words

TYPES OF TASK	MOST COMMON ERRORS	EXAMPLES
Composition	-Inadequate use	...after all it was an emergence! (emergency)
	-Inadequate useAnd now we have ambiental problems (environmental)
Story	-Inadequate use	"We went to the velorium ". (funeral)
Essay	-Inadequate use	Enfrenting a lot of problems (Facing)
Quiz	-Inadequate use	The three magic kings (The three wise men) I go to the orphanates (orphanage)

Author: Paulina Proaño Pérez

Source: 6th year of the Cardinal Spellman High School students

QUANTITATIVE TABULATION

CHART SEVEN

Variable: Grammar Structure

Indicator: Prepositions

Most common errors	Composition		Story		Essay		Quiz	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Substitution	14	87	7	65	12	85	5	50
Omission	2	13	4	35	2	15	5	50
TOTAL	16	100	11	100	14	100	10	100

Author: Paulina Proaño Pérez

Source: 6th year of the Cardinal Spellman High School students

CHART EIGHT

Variable: Grammar Structure

Indicator: Pronouns

MOST COMMON ERRORS	Composition		Story		Essay		Quiz	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Omission	10	100	11	100	13	100	2	100
TOTAL	10	100	11	100	13	100	9	100

Author: Paulina Proaño Pérez

Source: 6th year of the Cardinal Spellman High School students

CHART NINE

Variable: Grammar Structure

Indicator: Adjectives

MOST COMMON ERRORS	Composition		Story		Essay		Quiz	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Order	5	55	4	57	4	50	5	100
Pluralization	4	45	3	43	4	50	0	0
TOTAL	9	100	7	100	8	100	5	100

Author: Paulina Proaño Pérez

Source: 6th year of the Cardinal Spellman High School students

CHART TEN

Variable: Grammar Structure

Indicator: Auxiliaries

MOST COMMON ERRORS	Composition		Story		Essay		Quiz	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
- Omission	12	100	10	100	9	100	6	100
TOTAL	12	100	10	100	9	100	6	100

Author: Paulina Proaño Pérez

Source: 6th year of the Cardinal Spellman High School students

CHART ELEVEN

Variable: Lexicon

Indicator: Use of False Cognates

MOST COMMON ERRORS	Composition		Story		Essay		Quiz	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Inadequate use	7	100	6	100	5	100	5	100
TOTAL	7	100	6	100	5	100	5	100

Author: Paulina Proaño Pérez

Source: 6th year of the Cardinal Spellman High School students

CHART TWELVE

Variable: Lexicon

Indicator: Invented Words

MOST COMMON ERRORS	Composition		Story		Essay		Quiz	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
-Inadequate use	7	100	10	100	5	100	3	100
TOTAL	7	100	10	100	5	100	3	100

Author: Paulina Proaño Pérez

Source: 6th year of the Cardinal Spellman High School students

DISCUSSION

This section encloses three main parts; the first one is the theoretical background, which is a bibliographical research on Linguistics and the latest reports and advances. As a second point, the analysis of results show a clear idea on the investigation process, and finally, in the third part it is shown as a concluding point how the frequency of the interference of one's language takes place when learning another.

Theoretical Background

The objective of the present paper is to understand how the native language constitutes an obstacle to learn or use a second language in a creative way, indeed the more creative the use of the language is required, the greater the number of interferences is. In this way, it is necessary to define certain terms that are going to be used frequently in this document, such as:

Linguistics

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. It is a 'foundation' discipline in the sense that it bridges the social sciences, the natural sciences, and the humanities. Linguistics is an exciting field, not only because of its own achievements, but also because of its contributions to other fields. For example, linguistic anthropology is one of the four

sub disciplines of anthropology, and it has provided models of rigor in cultural anthropology.

Linguistics also has links with cognitive science, computer science, education, geography, history, literature, neurology, philosophy, psychology, sociology, speech therapy, and zoology.

Branches of linguistics

Some of the major areas in which linguists work are:

Phonetics is the scientific study of speech sounds, of how they are made (articulator phonetics), transmitted (acoustic phonetics), and received (auditory phonetics). Phonetics has broad applications in a number of areas, including speech recognition, speech synthesis, and forensic linguistics, speech therapy, and language instruction.

Phonology analyses how sounds are organized in a language (phonological structure) and attempts to discover the principles that govern sound systems in languages in general. Morphology examines the structure or form of words, how they are constructed of smaller units (called "morphemes") which have meaning (for example, *singer* is composed of *sing* + *er*).

Syntax investigates how words (and grammatical elements) are combined to form sentences, what speakers know about the grammatical structure of their language, how sentences are interrelated and what the general grammatical and cognitive principles are which explain these arrangements, relationships, and knowledge. However, in linguistics, syntax comes from Ancient Greek *συν-* *syn-*, "together", and *τάξις* *taxis*, which means "arrangement" making it as the study of the principles and rules for constructing sentences in natural languages. In addition to referring to the discipline, the term syntax is also used to refer directly to the rules and principles that govern the sentence structure of any individual language, as in "the syntax of Modern Irish." Modern research in syntax attempts to describe languages in terms of such rules. Many professionals in this discipline attempt to find general rules that apply to all natural languages. The term syntax is also sometimes used to refer to the rules governing the behavior of mathematical systems, such as logic, artificial formal languages, and computer programming languages.

Semantics, in general, is the study of the relationship between words and meanings. The empirical study of word meanings and sentence meanings in existing languages is a branch of linguistics; the abstract study of meaning in relation to language or symbolic logic systems is a branch of philosophy. Both are called semantics. The field

of semantics has three basic concerns: the relations of words to the objects denoted by them, the relations of words to the interpreters of them, and, in symbolic logic, the formal relations of signs to one another (syntax).

In linguistics, semantics has its beginnings in France and Germany in the 1820s when the meanings of words as significant features in the growth of language were recognized. Among the foremost linguistic semanticists of the 20th century are Gustaf Stern, Jost Trier, B. L. Whorf, Uriel Weinreich, Stephen Ullmann, Thomas Sebeok, Noam Chomsky, Jerrold Katz, and Charles Osgood. In the linguistics of recent years an offshoot of transformational grammar theory has reemphasized the role of meaning in linguistic analysis. This new theory, developed largely by George Lakoff and James McCawley, is termed generative semantics. In anthropology a new theoretical orientation related to linguistic semantics has been developed. Its leading proponents include W. H. Goodenough, F. G. Lounsbury, and Claude Lévi-Strauss.

In philosophy, semantics has generally followed the lead of symbolic logic, and many philosophers do not make a distinction between logic and semantics. In this context, semantics is concerned with such issues as meaning and truth, meaning and thought, and the relation between signs and what they mean. The leading practitioners have been Gottlob Frege, Lady Welby, Bertrand Russell, Otto Neurath,

Rudolf Carnap, Alonzo Church, Alfred Tarski, C. I. Lewis, Ludwig Wittgenstein, J. L. Austin, W. V. Quine, P. F. Strawson, Steven Schiffer, John Searle, H. P. Grice, Saul Kripke, Donald Davidson, and Gilbert Harman.

Since the publication of the influential *The Meaning of Meaning* (1925) by C. K. Ogden and I. A. Richards, semantics has also become important to literary criticism and stylistics, in which the way that metaphors evoke feelings is investigated and differences between ordinary and literary language are studied. A related discipline, general semantics (so called to distinguish it from semantics in linguistics or philosophy), studies the ways in which meanings of words influence human behavior. General semantics was developed by Alfred Korzybski. The key term in Korzybski's system is evaluation, the mental act that is performed by the hearer when a word is spoken. Among the most prominent followers of Korzybski are Stuart Chase, S. I. Hayakawa, and H. L. Weinberg.

Now, it is important to consider that the semantics background divides itself into four main sub-backgrounds: Lexical, Structural, Prototype and Statistical.

Lexical semantics is a subfield of linguistic semantics. It is the study of how and what the words of a language denote (Pustejovsky, 1995).

Words may either be taken to denote things in the world, or concepts, depending on the particular approach to lexical semantics.

The units of meaning in lexical semantics are lexical units. One can continually add new lexical units throughout one's life, learning new words and their meanings. By contrast, one can only easily learn the grammatical rules of one's native language during a critical period when one is young.

Lexical semantics covers theories of the classification and decomposition of word meaning, the differences and similarities in lexical semantic structure between different languages, and the relationship of word meaning to sentence meaning and syntax.

One question that lexical semantics explores is whether the meaning of a lexical unit is established by looking at its neighbourhood in the semantic net (by looking at the other words it occurs with in natural sentences), or if the meaning is already locally contained in the lexical unit. Another topic that is explored is the mapping of words to concepts. As tools, lexical relations like synonym, antonym (opposites), hyponym and hypernym are used in this field.

Logical positivism asserts that **structural semantics** is the study of relationships between the meanings of terms within a sentence, and how meaning can be composed from smaller elements. However, some

critical theorists suggest that meaning is only divided into smaller structural units via its regulation in concrete social interactions; outside of these interactions language may become meaningless.

Pragmatics is concerned with how the meaning of linguistic acts depends on the context in which they are performed. It looks at language from the point of view of the users and the choices they make, and constraints on those choices, in social interaction. (For example, pragmatics studies what can make the sentence "Can you open the door?" count as a question in one situation and as a request for action in another).

Discourse analysis examines how language is structured beyond the sentence and thus involves topic and comment, narrative structure, cohesiveness, written vs. spoken language, and conversational analysis.

Applied linguistics

Applied linguistics, as it is defined in the dictionary, is an interdisciplinary field of study that identifies, investigates, and offers solutions to language-related real-life problems.

If we try to go in deep on the analogy of the words; the term 'applied linguistics' refers to a broad range of activities which involve solving some language-related problem or addressing some language-

related concern. It appears as though applied linguistics, at least in North America, was first officially recognized as an independent course at the University of Michigan in 1946. In those early days, the term was used both in the United States and in Great Britain to refer to applying a so-called 'scientific approach' to teaching foreign languages, including English for nonnative speakers. Early work to improve the quality of foreign language teaching by Professors Charles Fries (University of Michigan) and Robert Lado (University of Michigan, then Georgetown University) helped to bring definition to the field as did the 1948 publication of a new journal, *Language Learning: A Quarterly Journal of Applied Linguistics*.

Today, the focuses of attention have continued to broaden. Today the governing board of AILA describes applied linguistics 'as a means to help solve specific problems in society applied linguistics focuses on the numerous and complex areas in society in which language plays a role. Apparently there is a consensus on, that the goal is to apply the findings and the techniques from research in linguistics and related disciplines to solve practical problems. To an observer, the most notable change in applied linguistics has been its rapid growth as an interdisciplinary field. In addition to foreign language teaching and machine translation, a partial sampling of issues considered central to the field of applied linguistics today includes topics such as language for special purposes

(e.g. language and communication problems related to aviation, language disorders, law, medicine, science), language policy and planning, and language and literacy issues. For example, following the adoption of English as the working language for all international flight communication by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), some applied linguists concerned themselves with understanding the kinds of linguistic problems that occur when pilots or flight engineers from varying backgrounds communicate using a nonnative language and how to better train them to communicate in English more effectively.

Communicative competence

It is a term in linguistics which refers to a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology and the like, as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately. The term was coined by Dell Hymes in 1966, reacting against the perceived inadequacy of Noam Chomsky's (1965) distinction between competence and performance. To address Chomsky's abstract notion of competence, Hymes undertook ethnographic exploration of communicative competence that included "communicative form and function in integral relation to each other" (Leung, 2005). The approach pioneered by Hymes is now known as the ethnography of communication.

It has also a lot of usages in education as it tells that the notion of communicative competence is one of the theories that underlie the communicative approach to foreign language teaching.

Canale and Swain (1980) defined communicative competence in terms of four components:

1. Grammatical competence refers to the words and rules
2. Sociolinguistic competence talks about appropriateness of the language
3. Discourse competence deals with the cohesion and coherence of the language
4. Strategic competence considers the appropriate use of communication strategies

A more recent survey of communicative competence by Bachman (1990) divides it into the broad headings of "organizational competence," which includes both grammatical and discourse (or textual) competence, and "pragmatic competence," which includes both sociolinguistic and "illocutionary" competence.[5] Strategic Competence is associated with the interlocutors' ability in using communication strategies (Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Lin, 2009).

Through the influence of communicative language teaching, it has become widely accepted that communicative competence should be the

goal of language education, central to good classroom practice.[6] This is in contrast to previous views in which grammatical competence was commonly given top priority. The understanding of communicative competence has been influenced by the field of pragmatics and the philosophy of language concerning speech acts as described in large part by John Searle and J.L. Austin.

Rhetoric

The definition of Rhetoric (from Greek ῥήτωρ, rhêtôr, orator, teacher) is generally understood to be the art or technique of persuasion through the use of oral, visual, or written language; however, this definition has expanded greatly since rhetoric emerged as a field of study in universities. In this sense, there is a divide between classical rhetoric (with the aforementioned definition) and contemporary practices of rhetoric which include the analysis of written and visual texts.

Classical rhetoric was a politically and ethically established style of teaching effective public speaking. The system was codified by Aristotle, Cicero, and Quintillian into five departments: 'invention,' 'arrangement,' 'style,' 'memory,' and 'delivery.' Aristotle identified three branches of rhetoric: 'deliberative'—legislative rhetoric, the purpose of which is to exhort or dissuade; 'judicial' or forensic rhetoric, which accuses or defends; 'epideictic' or panegyric rhetoric, which is ceremonial in nature and commemorates or blames.

Error analysis

Error analysis for ESL students involves:

- Analysis of errors in your writing
- Judging of the accuracy / appropriateness of your writing.
- Making the necessary changes to your work

We can identify 3 levels of errors in students' writing:

- Grammar (sentence level) errors,
- Paragraph level errors (problems with coherence within the paragraphs, summary sentences, linking phrases and other devices),
- Whole text level errors (introduction, thesis statement, direct linear text, etc)

Error analysis helps you to make your writing intelligible, make your ideas clear, and also gets higher marks (some subjects allocate a percentage of final mark to obtain accuracy in grammar or lack of errors).

Anyone can have an error, ideally every body does it. The advantage of this is that people can become better able to write in an acceptable way in the long run. In addition, you can write, evaluate and make required changes to your grammar independently without relying too heavily on other people for support.

The error analysis can be carried out by:

- Determining your most serious and frequent sentence error

- Deciding which ones to focus on first (it is senseless to expect to eradicate all problems immediately. However you can aim to reduce them).
- Developing a strategy for solving this particular problem, eg. For instance: Revising the particular grammatical structure, error by reading a reference book and doing some exercises, looking through your writing for examples of this structure or where you think this structure should be used, making corrections, taking note of any feedback from tutors, lecturers or other people who could read your writing.

Some of the typical errors made by ESL writers are:

- Articles: A mistake with the article - a, an the, or 0 (the “zero”article)
- Verb tense: A mistake with the verb tense.
- Subject Verb Agreement: The subject and verb do not agree in number e.g. *They is sleeping/He smoke.*
- Singular / Plural A mistake with number (singular and plural)
e.g. *I bought two book/one weeks ago.*
- Punctuation Capital letters, full stops, or commas missing.
- Word Class: The word is in the wrong class e.g. *She is unemployment.*
- Vocabulary: The wrong word is used. e.g. *She is married with an Australian.*

- Sentence structure: the sentence is not complete or perhaps is too long and needs to be reorganised.
- Spelling

One model that applies to both speaking and writing in a second language is Anderson's (1985) model of language production, which can be divided into three stages: construction, in which the writer plans what he/she is going to write by brainstorming, using a mind-map or outline; transformation, in which language rules are applied to transform intended meanings into the form of the message when the writer is composing or revising; and execution, which corresponds to the physical process of producing the text. The first two stages have been described as "setting goals and searching memory for information, then using production systems to generate language in phrases or constituents" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 42). Writers vacillate between these processes as they actively develop the meaning they wish to express in writing. Anderson's learning theory supports teaching approaches that combine the development of language and content knowledge, practice in using this knowledge, and strategy training to encourage independent learning (Snow, 2001).

In structuring information, the writer uses various types of knowledge, including discourse knowledge, understanding of audience, and sociolinguistic rules (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Organization at

both the sentence and the text level is also important for effective communication of meaning, and ultimately, for the quality of the written product (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1987). For instance, coherence problems may be due to not knowing how to organize text or how to store the relevant information. The transformation stage involves converting information into meaningful sentences. At this point, the writer translates or changes his/her plans into a mental representation of the goals, ideas, and organization developed in the construction stage. Revision is also part of this stage. As previously mentioned, revision is a cognitively demanding task for L2 learners because it not only involves task definition, evaluation, strategy selection, and modification of text in the writing plan (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996), but also the ability of students to analyze and evaluate the feedback they receive on their writing.

Due to the complex process of writing in a second language, learners often find it difficult to develop all aspects of the stages simultaneously. As a result, they selectively use only those aspects that are automatic or have already been proceduralized (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). In order to enhance or facilitate language production, students can develop particular learning strategies that isolate component mental processes. O'Malley and Chamot have differentiated strategies into three categories: metacognitive, such as planning the organization of written discourse or monitoring (that is, being aware of what one is doing and

responding appropriately to the demands of a task); cognitive, such as transferring or using known linguistic information to facilitate a new learning task or using imagery for recalling and using new vocabulary, and social/affective strategies, which involve cooperating with peers, for example, in peer revision classes.

Learner strategies can be effective, but they need to be internalized so that they can be utilized in adverse learning situations. For example, if an environment is perceived to be stressful or threatening, for example, writing as part of a job interview process, or performing under timed test conditions, learners' affective states can influence cognition. Emotional influences along with cognitive factors can account for achievement and performance in L2, to a certain extent. Schumann (1998) argues that affect may influence cognition through its role in framing a problem and in adopting processing strategies. He states that we very often use feelings as information: "When faced with a situation about which we have to make a judgment we often ask ourselves how we feel about it. We may also employ feelings when time constraints and competing tasks limit our cognitive capacities". This outcome may affect the way second language students perform when they are under stress.

Regarding to Odlin (1989) language transfer is another important cognitive factor related to writing errors. Transfer is defined as the

influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired. While Ellis (1994) considers that transfer involves the study of errors (negative transfer), facilitation (positive transfer), avoidance of target language forms, and their over-use. Behaviourist accounts claim that transfer is the cause of errors, whereas from a cognitive perspective, transfer is seen as a resource that the learner actively draws upon in interlanguage development (Selinker, 1972). In other words, "the L1 can have a direct effect on interlanguage development by influencing the hypotheses that learners construct" (Ellis, 1994, p. 342). According to McLaughlin, transfer errors can occur because:

Learners lack the necessary information in the second language or the attentional capacity to activate the appropriate second-language routine. But such an account says little about why certain linguistic forms transfer and others do not.

Despite the fact that L1 transfer is no longer viewed as the only predictor or cause of error at the structural level (since it is difficult to distinguish empirically between instances of communication and language transfer in research studies), a writer's first language plays a complex and significant role in L2 acquisition. For example, when learners write under pressure, they may call upon systematic resources from their native language for the achievement and synthesis of

meaning (Widdowson, 1990). Research has also shown that language learners sometimes use their native language when generating ideas and attending to details (Friedlander, 1990). In addition, contrastive studies, which have focused on characteristics of L1 languages and cultures, have helped us predict rhetorical error in writing. These studies have been valuable in our understanding of L2 writing development. However, many feel that these studies have also led to reductive, essentializing generalizations about ways of writing and cultural stereotypes about students from certain linguistic backgrounds (Fox, 1994; Leki, 1997; Spack, 1997). As a result, erroneous predictions about students' learning based on their L1 language and culture have occurred regardless of social factors, such as "the contexts, and purpose of their learning to write, or their age, race, class, gender, education, and prior experience" (Raimes, 1998, p. 143). In addition, learners are influenced by many global phenomena and are themselves continually changing with new experiences. In spite of these criticisms, though, an understanding of "difference among epistemological rhetorical and pedagogical traditions" (Kern, 2000, p. 176) and the impact of language transfer can be illuminating for an understanding of why learners make certain structural and organizational errors.

Input and interaction also play important roles in the writing process, especially in classroom settings. Some studies have indicated

that input, along with L1 transfer and communicative need may work together to shape interlanguage (Ellis, 1994; Selinker, 1972). Research has focused on four broad areas: input frequency, the nature of comprehensible input, learner output in interaction, and the processes of collaborative discourse construction. Writers need to receive adequate L2 input in order to form new hypotheses about syntactic and rhetorical forms in the target language. If students are not exposed to native-like models of written texts, their errors in writing are more likely to persist. Errors abound in peer review classes or in computer-mediated exchanges where learners read and respond to each other's compositions. Indeed, in many of my own classes, interlanguage talk or discourse is often the primary source of input for many learners. However, if the interaction, oral or written, allows for adequate negotiation of meaning, peer responses can be very useful. (See Pellettieri (2000) for what happens when learners respond to each other on the computer and read texts containing spelling and grammar errors).

We can see that writing in a second language is a complex process involving the ability to communicate in L2 (learner output) and the ability to construct a text in order to express one's ideas effectively in writing. Social and cognitive factors and learner strategies help us in assessing the underlying reasons why L2 learners exhibit particular

writing errors. For instance, the writing problems experienced by Spanish speakers living in the United States may be due to a multiplicity of factors, including the effects of transfer and interference from the Spanish language, and cultural norms (Plata, 1995). Spanish-speaking writers must undergo the task of cognitively exchanging the style of the Spanish language for that of English. For this transformation to happen, some students find that creating another persona, such as replacing their birth name with an English one; can help them to become more immersed in the target language and culture. In short, because learners are less familiar and less confident with structural elements of a new language, rhetorical and cultural conventions and even new uses of writing, writing in an L2 can have errors and be less effective than writing in L1 (Kern, 2000).

The difference between mistake and error is remarkable. The terms 'error' and 'mistake' are not synonymous. Papers on second language acquisition and courses in the field tell that there is a big difference between an error and a mistake in the second language classroom.

These are alluded to in Chapter 3 of Gass, Susan M. and Larry Selinker. 2001. *Second Language Acquisition, An Introductory Course*. Here, a distinction is made between an error and a mistake from an SLA perspective, where: "Mistakes are a kind to slips of the tongue. That is,

they are generally one-time-only events. The speaker who makes a mistake is able to recognize it as a mistake and correct it if necessary. An error, on the other hand, is systematic. That is, it is likely to occur repeatedly and is not recognized by the learner as an error"

Native language acquisition

Since we always speak the language of our parents, they must have helped us learn to speak our first language. But do you remember when your mother taught you the past tense? When your father laid down the rules for passive sentences? We don't remember these important moments of our childhood because they never occurred.

Our parents did not teach us how to walk and they did not teach us how to talk. Yet we learned from them. How can this be? Certainly there must have been a subtle, perhaps intuitive teaching process that neither our parents nor we were aware of. We begin by imitating what we hear our parents say as best we can, repeating random phrases. Our parents in subtle ways punish us for the childish speech errors we make (by not responding, correcting the error, among others) and reward correct phrases (by responding positively). As our speech improves, our parents respond more positively and less negatively.

In the first step it is needed to examine the assumption that children begin speaking by trying to repeat what they have heard their parents say it implies that the child never could say something that he doesn't hear previously, so mainly, the predisposition is the best strategy to getting success in the learning for a new language, however this is inexistent in childhood, despite this when a child grows up in contact with both languages, for example, a child of Latino parents and residents who speak Spanish in the United States, their children speak in Spanish at home and in English at school, it would seem confusing to them, but the child's brain is an open window, and allow them think in English at school and in Spanish at home.

Consequently, some research on the topic shows that while mothers often respond to the semantic content of what their children say ("No, that's not a doggie; it's a cow"), they very rarely respond to the grammatical status of their children's phrases. Indeed, when parents do respond to speech errors, they most often respond positively

In fact, parents themselves make grammatical errors when they speak. Despite the fact that children don't know when their parents are speaking grammatically and when they are making errors, all children grow up knowing, (if not always speaking) the language perfectly.

So how do we learn to speak? Recall the example, "He *hitted* me." Although *hitted* is not a word that children hear adults utter, it is wrong for an interesting reason: the verb, in a sense, has the "right" ending on it for the past tense. In other words, the only way a child learning language could make such an error is that he or she is learning a rule that derives past tense verbs from verb stems. What the child hasn't mastered at this stage is the exceptions to the rule. Still, it shows that children look for and learn grammatical rules from nothing more than the utterances they hear.

Notice also that the words in the erroneous phrases are all in the correct order. No child would say "go Daddy" for "Daddy is going" or "cookie mommy" for "Mommy's cookie". By the time a child begins putting two words together, he or she has already mastered the basic rules of syntax and applies them correctly even in their erroneous speech. It takes the child a little longer to master the rules of morphology.

The evidence then indicates that children do, in fact, absorb a massive number of sentences and phrases but rather than parrot them back, they abstract rules from them and create their own grammar which they then apply to create new utterances they have never heard before. Over the years from 2-6, when language is mastered, children

constantly adjust their grammar until it matches that of the adult speaker population.

This critical period between the ages of 2-6 suggests that (first) language learning, like walking, is an innate capacity of human beings triggered by a level of development more than feedback from the environment. That is, as long as a child hears a language—any language—when they reach this critical period they will learn it perfectly. If this is true, any child not hearing language during this period not only should not learn to speak but also should not be able to learn to speak. The ethical implications of research on this question are obvious. However, there have been a few tragic non-scientific bits of evidence that supports the innateness + critical period hypothesis.

The first bit of evidence comes from the so-called Wild Boy of Aveyron, Victor. Victor is the name given to a boy found roaming the woods of Aveyron in southern France toward the end of September 1799. He behaved like a wild animal and gave all indications that he had been raised by wild animals, eating off the floor, making canine noises, disliking baths and clothes. He also could not speak. He was taken in by Doctor Jean Marc Itard who had developed a reputation for teaching the deaf to speak. However, after years of work, Itard failed to teach Victor to more than a few lexemes.

A similar event unfolded in Los Angeles in November 1970 when a 13-year-old girl was discovered who had been isolated in a baby crib most of her life and never spoken to. She was physically immature, had difficulty walking and could not speak. Psychologists at UCLA spent years trying to teach "Genie", as they called her to protect her identity, to speak. While Genie did get to the point she could communicate, her speech never advanced beyond the kind of constructions we saw in the first set of examples above, the point where the language explosion in normal children begins. In other words, she could use words to the same extent as chimpanzees but could not manipulate grammar, as indicated in the prefixes, suffixes and 'function' words missing in the first set of examples above. At middle age she stopped talking altogether and was soon committed to a mental institution.

The evidence is not conclusive but all of it suggests that language is an innate capacity of human beings which is acquired during a critical period between 2- 6. After that period, it becomes increasingly more difficult for humans to learn languages, which explains why learning a second language is more difficult than learning a first one (or two or even three).

Foreign language acquisition

Foreign language aptitude, which Carroll (1973) defines as the "rate at which persons at the secondary school, university and adult level learn to criterion" (p. 5), has most recently been measured by standardized test such as the *Modern Language Aptitude Test* (MLAT) and the *Language Aptitude Battery* (LAB). According to Carroll (1973), there are three major components of modern aptitude tests. The first, phonetic coding ability is the ability to store new language sounds in memory. This component will not be of concern to us here. The other two components appear to relate directly to learning.

Grammatical sensitivity, the second component, is defined as "the individual's ability to demonstrate his awareness of the syntactical patterning of sentences in a language" (Carroll, 1973, p. 7). Carroll makes it clear that although performance on this component does not require the subject's actually knowing grammatical terminology; it does involve a conscious meta-awareness of grammar. Carroll contrasts this sort of knowledge of a language with the subconscious or tacit knowledge entailed in Chomsky's term "competence":

Although it is often said that linguistic "competence" in the sense defined by Chomsky (1965) involves some kind of "knowledge" of the grammatical rules of a language, this "knowledge" is ordinarily of our

conscious awareness. Nevertheless, some adolescents and adults (and even some children) can be made to demonstrate an awareness of the syntactical structure of the sentences they speak ... even among adults there are large individual differences in this ability, and these individual differences are related to success in learning foreign languages, apparently because this ability is called upon when the student tries to learn grammatical rules and apply them in constructing and comprehending new sentences in that language (pp. 7-8).

Grammatical sensitivity is tapped by the *Words in Sentences* subtest of the Carroll-Sapon MLAT, which asks the tested to pick out the words or phrases in one sentence that "does the same thing" in that sentence as a capitalized word in another sentence. Here is a famous example:

1. He spoke VERY well of you.
2. *Suddenly* the music became *quite* loud.

1 2 3 4

Most readers will see that the correct answer is "3".

A third component of aptitude is labeled "inductive ability". This is the ability to "examine language material, and from this to notice and identify patterns and correspondences and relationships involving either meaning or grammatical form" (Carroll, 1973, p. 8).

"A typical method of measuring this ability is to present materials in an artificial language in such a way that the individual can induce the grammatical and semantic rules governing that language" (Carroll, 1973). Carroll also suggests that it is probably through this factor "that foreign language aptitude is most closely related with general intelligence".

Inductive ability also appears to be conscious learning, in that its goal is the discovery of an explicit, abstract (set of) rule(s) by means of a problem-solving approach. The linguist uses the same process in writing a grammar from a corpus.

Pimsleur's summary of the components of language aptitude is quite similar to, but not identical with, Carroll's:

...the "talent" for learning foreign language consists of three components. The first is verbal intelligence, by which is meant both familiarity with words (this is measured in the *Language Aptitude Battery* by the "Vocabulary" part) and the ability to reason analytically about verbal materials (this is measured by the part called "Language Analysis"). The second component is motivation to learn the language.... The third component... is called "auditory ability"... (Pimsleur, 1966).

Thus, two of Carroll's components, inductive ability and grammatical sensitivity, and one of Pimsleur's components, verbal

intelligence, are hypothesized to relate directly to, or reflect, conscious language learning, the Monitor. The other parts of the aptitude batteries, in both cases, deal with auditory factors (which are not discussed here), and Pimsleur's motivation component forms an additional part of the LAB.

Attitudinal factors that relate to second language acquisition will be those that perform one or both of two functions. First, they will be factors that *encourage intake*. Others have said this before, for example: "motivational variables... determine whether or not the student avails himself of... informal language contexts" (Gardner, Smythe, Clement, and Glikzman, 1976). They are simply factors that encourage acquirers to communicate with speakers of the target language, and thereby obtain the necessary input, or intake, for language acquisition.

Also, attitudinal factors relating to acquisition will be those that enable the performer to utilize the language heard for acquisition. Simply hearing a second language with understanding appears to be necessary but is not sufficient for acquisition to take place. The acquirer must not only understand the input but must also, in a sense, be "open" to it. Dulay and Burt (1977) have captured this concept by positing the presence of a "socio-affective filter". Performers with high or strong filters will acquire less of the language directed at them, as less input is "allowed in" to the language-acquisition device. The presence of such a

filter, according to Dulay and Burt, may explain which of alternative models the acquirer will internalize (e.g. why children acquire the dialect of their peers rather than that of their elders), why acquisition prematurely ceases in some cases, and often what parts of language are acquired first. Thus, attitudinal factors relating to language acquisition will be those that contribute to a *low affective filter*.

The following summary of attitudinal factors will attempt to relate posited predictors of second language proficiency to these two functions.

Integrative motivation, defined as the desire to be like valued members of the community that speak the second language, is predicted to relate to proficiency in terms of the two functions. The presence of integrative motivation should encourage the acquirer to interact with speakers of the second language out of sheer interest, and thereby obtain intake. A low filter for integratively motivated acquirers is also predicted for similar reasons. In Stevick's terms (Stevick, 1976), the integratively motivated performer will not feel a threat from the "other" group (p. 113) and will thus be more prone to engage in "receptive learning" (acquisition), rather than "defensive learning".

Instrumental motivation, defined as the desire to achieve proficiency in a language for utilitarian, or practical reasons, may also relate to proficiency. Its presence will encourage performers to interact with L2

speakers in order to achieve certain ends. For the integrative motivated performer, interaction for its own sake will be valued. For the instrumentally motivated performer, interaction always has some practical purpose.

While the presence of integrative motivation predicts a low affective filter, the presence of instrumental motivation predicts a stronger one. With instrumental motivation, language acquisition may cease as soon as enough is acquired to get the job done. Also, instrumentally motivated performers may acquire just those aspects of the target language that are necessary; at an elementary level, this may be simple routines and patterns, and at a more advanced level this predicts the non-acquisition of elements that are communicatively less important but that are socially important, such as aspects of morphology and accent.

When the practical value of second language proficiency is high and frequent use necessary, instrumental motivation may be a powerful predictor of second language acquisition.

Personality factors are interrelated with motivational factors. Briefly, it is hypothesized that the self-confident or secure person will be more able to encourage intake and will also have a lower filter. Traits relating to *self-confidence* (lack of anxiety, outgoing personality, and self-

esteem) are thus predicted to relate to second language acquisition. H. D. Brown (1977) states a similar view: "Presumably, the person with high self-esteem is able to reach out beyond himself more freely, to be less inhibited, and because of his ego strength, to make the necessary mistakes involved in language learning with less threat to his ego". The less self-confident person may understand the input but not acquire, just as the self-conscious person may filter (or avoid) in other domains.

Empathy, the ability to put oneself in another's shoes, is also predicted to be relevant to acquisition in that the empathic person may be the one who is able to identify more easily with speakers of a target language and thus accept their input as intake for language acquisition (lowered affective filter). Empathy appears to interact with other attitudinal factors. Schumann (1975) suggests that "... the natural factors that induce ego flexibility and lower inhibitions (assumed to relate to increased empathy) are those conditions which make the learner less anxious, make him feel accepted and make him form positive identifications with speakers of the target language" .

Two other personality factors, not related to self-confidence, are also predicted to relate to success in second language. *Attitude toward the classroom and teacher* may relate to both acquisition and learning. The student who feels at ease in the classroom and likes the teacher may seek out intake by volunteering (he may be a "high input

generator"; Seliger, 1977), and may be more accepting of the teacher as a source of intake (for exceptionally clear discussion of this point, see Stevick, 1976, chapters 6-8). Positive attitudes toward the classroom and teacher may also be manifestations of self-confidence and/or integrative motivation and for this reason may also relate to acquisition. In addition, students who have an *analytic orientation* should do better in conscious language learning. Subjects who report themselves as more "analytic" or who show test behavior reflecting an analytic cognitive style (e.g. field independent) should do better in conscious learning, and might show a better attitude toward a more analytically oriented classroom, resulting in more acquisition (see above).

English as a second language

Language teaching practice often assumes that most of the difficulties that learners face in the study of English are a consequence of the degree to which their native language differs from English (a contrastive analysis approach). A native speaker of Chinese, for example, may face many more difficulties than a native speaker of German, because German is closely related to English, whereas Chinese is not. This may be true for anyone of any mother tongue (also called first language, normally abbreviated L1) setting out to learn any other language (called a target language, second language or L2). See also

second language acquisition (SLA) for mixed evidence from linguistic research.

Language learners often produce errors of syntax and pronunciation thought to result from the influence of their L1, such as mapping its grammatical patterns inappropriately onto the L2, pronouncing certain sounds incorrectly or with difficulty, and confusing items of vocabulary known as false friends. This is known as L1 transfer or "language interference". However, these transfer effects are typically stronger for beginners' language production, and SLA research has highlighted many errors which cannot be attributed to the L1, as they are attested in learners of many language backgrounds (for example, failure to apply 3rd person present singular -s to verbs, as in 'he make'). While English is no more complex than other languages, it has several features which may create difficulties for learners. Conversely, because such a large number of people are studying it, products have been developed to help them do so, such as the monolingual learner's dictionary, which is written with a restricted defining vocabulary.

Essentially in Linguistic, there is a lot of trouble to teach a different language to others, because of the difficult of the terms, the direct translation word to word or phrase to phrase that is pretended to do, it is not a good option because of the phonetics difficult by itself, each language has a guttural expression, it means, it has a position of the oral cavity and vocal cords in different ways to produce phonemes.

The human being from the beginning, it had communicated to each other and his first way was the guttural, it means, he had to imitate the sounds of nature and its phenomena and therefore, it began to express the first phonetic signs; these expressions, that little by little were taking shape, then they are translated into words, but the creation of words is what separates from one area to another really, for this reason, the remote communities had different expressions for the same object.

This is easily verifiable, when the same object was appointed orally by each community in the world, the word tree, for example, very common for all peoples in the whole regions of the planet, because most people have seen trees, arbitrarily begins, in a few sectors, to be called as follows:

Árbol – Spanish

Tree – English

Bot – german

Arbre – french

As you can notice, everyone in the different communities put a name to this object, this name is what is knew as arbitrary, because everyone did it in their own way, under this perspective, we can say that every simple thing was named according to the perception that each community had about it, this perception implies that you form a mental picture for the object and associate it whit the phonetic sequence called

that is called “word”, this is the reason why we talk about “thinking in Spanish, English, French...” which means that the priority to learn these terms in other languages, it must be to think about the objects in “a different language”. To make a relationship between the words and the idea that they represent, That is the difficult, we believe that we are thinking in English when we hear something in English but the truth is that our thoughts are translations instead of that, for leaving clear this subject, let’s think about the phrase "good afternoon", in your mind there is not an idea (it is already past noon) instead of that, immediately our brain said "buenas tardes", It means that you are not did thinking in English, you are translating from English to Spanish, this is the reason why we call the primary difficulty for learning a language is the interference from the native language.

Language interference

As it is expressed in the study directed by Richard Skiba, he states that Interference may be viewed as the transference of elements of one language to another at various levels including phonological, grammatical, lexical and orthographical (Berthold, Mangubhai & Batorowicz, 1997). Berthold et al (1997) define phonological interference as items including foreign accent such as stress, rhyme, intonation and speech sounds from the first language influencing the second.

Grammatical interference is defined as the first language influencing the

second in terms of word order, use of pronouns and determinants, tense and mood. Interference at a lexical level provides for the borrowing of words from one language and converting them to sound more natural in another and orthographic interference includes the spelling of one language altering another. Given this definition of interference, code-switching will now be defined and considered in terms of its relationship to this concept.

Crystal (1987) suggests that code, or language, switching occurs when an individual who is bilingual alternates between two languages during his/her speech with another bilingual person. A person who is bilingual may be said to be one who is able to communicate, to varying extents, in a second language. This includes those who make irregular use of a second language, are able to use a second language but have not for some time (dormant bilingualism) or those who have considerable skill in a second language (Crystal, 1987). This type of alteration, or code switching, between languages occurs commonly amongst bilinguals and may take a number of different forms, including alteration of sentences, phrases from both languages succeeding each other and switching in a long narrative. Berthold, Mangubhai and Bartorowicz (1997, pg 2.13) supplement the definition of code switching thus far with the notion that it occurs when 'speakers change from one language to another in the midst of their conversations'. An example of

code switching, from Russian to French, is "Chustvovali, chto le vin est tiré et qu'il faut le boire" meaning 'They felt that the wine is uncorked and it should be drunk' (Cook, 1991, pg 65). Further, Cook (1991) puts the extent of code switching in normal conversations amongst bilinguals into perspective by outlining that code switching consists of 84% single word switches, 10% phrase switches and 6% clause switching.

There are a number of possible reasons for the switching from one language to another and these will now be considered, as presented by Crystal (1987). The first of these is the notion that a speaker may not be able to express him/herself in one language so switches to the other to compensate for the deficiency. As a result, the speaker may be triggered into speaking in the other language for a while. This type of code switching tends to occur when the speaker is upset, tired or distracted in some manner. Secondly, switching commonly occurs when an individual wishes to express solidarity with a particular social group. Rapport is established between the speaker and the listener when the listener responds with a similar switch. This type of switching may also be used to exclude others from a conversation. Exclude those who do not speak the second language. An example of such a situation may be two people in an elevator in a language other than English. Others in the elevator who do not speak the same language would be excluded from the conversation and a degree of comfort would exist amongst the

speakers in the knowledge that not all those present in the elevator are listening to their conversation.

The final reason for the switching behavior presented by Crystal (1987) is the alteration that occurs when the speaker wishes to convey his/her attitude to the listener. Where monolingual speakers can communicate these attitudes by means of variation in the level of formality in their speech, bilingual speakers can convey the same by code switching. Crystal (1987) suggests that where two bilingual speakers are accustomed to conversing in a particular language, switching to the other is bound to create a special effect. These notions suggest that code switching may be used as a socio-linguistic tool by bilingual speakers.

From the above discussion, it may be concluded that code switching is not language interference on the basis that it supplements speech. Where it is used due to an inability of expression, code switching provides continuity in speech rather than presenting interference in language. The socio-linguistic benefits have also been identified as a means of communicating solidarity, or affiliation to a particular social group, whereby code switching should be viewed from the perspective of providing a linguistic advantage rather than an obstruction to communication. Further, code switching allows a speaker to convey attitude and other motives using a method available to those

who are bilingual and again serves to advantage the speaker, much like bolding or underlining in a text document to emphasise points. Utilising the second language, then, allows speakers to increase the impact of their speech and use it in an effective manner.

To ensure the effective use of code switching there are however two main restrictions, as developed by Poplack (1980), cited in Cook (1991). The first of these is the free morpheme constraint. This constraint suggests that a 'speaker may not switch language between a word and its endings unless the word is pronounced as if it were in the language of the ending' (Cook, 1991, pg 65). The example given by Cook (1991) to illustrate this constraint is creation of the word "runeando" in an English/Spanish switch. Cook suggests that this is impossible because "run" is a distinctively English sound. The word "flipeando", on the other hand, is possible since "flip" could be a Spanish word. The second constraint is referred to as the equivalence constraint. This constraint is characterised by the notion that 'the switch can come at a point in the sentence where it does not violate the grammar of either language' (Cook, 1991, pg 65). The example Cook uses to illustrate the equivalence constraint is a French/English switch with the suggestion that switches such as "a car americaine" or "une American voiture" are both unlikely as they are wrong in both languages. A switch "J'ai acheté an American car" (I bought an American car) is possible as both English

and French share the construction in which the verb is followed by the object.

Other researchers (Di Sciullo, Muysken & Singh, 1986; Berk-Seligson, 1986; Sankoff & Poplack, 1981) have also worked on generating similar specific linguistic constraints on patterns of code switching, with a general view to contribute to the work on language universals. On this basis, constraints provide a mechanism whereby two languages may be integrated together without causing interference in the conversation between two bilingual speakers.

A varying degree of code switching may also be used between bilingual conversationalists depending on the person being addressed, such as family, friends, officials and superiors and depending on the location, such as church, home or place of work (Crystal, 1987). The implication here is that there are patterns which are followed reflecting when it is appropriate to code switch with regard to addressee and location. These patterns are the established norm for that particular social group and serve to ensure appropriate language use. Milroy (1987) is a further proponent of this proposal with the observation that bilingual speakers attribute different social values to different codes, or languages. Since a different social value is associated with each code, the speaker considers use of one code more appropriate than the other with different interlocutors. Milroy (1987, pg 185) presents an example

of perceived appropriate use of a given language over another with regard to the conversational participant, by stating:

In the West of Ireland, Irish/English bilinguals will switch to English not only in addressing an English-speaking monolingual, but in the presence of such a person who in Bell's terms is an auditor - that is, a person ratified as a participant in the interaction (Bell 1984b:172)

A similar study was carried out by Gal (1979), as cited in Milroy (1987), who concluded that the participant in the conversation is the variable to which the others were subservient in a study of code switching. The notions of Gal (1979), Bell (1984) and Milroy (1987) suggest that code switching occurs naturally and unobtrusively such that it is not interference to language but rather a verbal mechanism of presenting an individuals' social standing with regard to a particular conversational participant. As such, code switching performs a socio-linguistic function.

Code switching may also be considered in relation to language acquisition. A number of theories have been postulated as to how an individual attains language and these will now be outlined. The first to be considered is that of Chomsky (1972; 1975; 1979) where he suggests that language acquisition takes place as the brain matures and exposure to the appropriate language is obtained. Chomsky also

suggests that people are aided by innate universal language structures and as children learn, they realise how to express the underlying universal structure according to their particular culture, as described by Bootzin, Bower, Zajonc and Hall (1986). From this point of view, addressees in conversations serve as facilitators of language development by means of exposing students to cultural elements required to express the universal structure appropriate to the cultural and social requirements of the individual. This biological theory is not accepted by behaviourists who suggest that language acquisition is a verbal behaviour which is an example of operant conditioning, as advocated by Skinner (1957). Behaviourists argue that individuals are reinforced by their own speech which matches the reinforcement of providers of affection during childhood. Further, grammatically correct constructions get desired results so the individual tends to repeat them. A point to note here is that the theories rely on exposure to appropriate samples of the language. The same is true when acquiring a second language.

Although switching languages during a conversation may be disruptive to the listener when the speaker switches due to an inability to express her/himself, it does provide an opportunity for language development. As may be derived from discussion above, language development takes place through samples of language which are

appropriate and code switching may be signalling the need for provision of appropriate samples. The listener, in this case, is able to provide translation into the second language thus providing learning and developing activity. This, in turn, will allow for a reduced amount of switching and less subsequent interference as time progresses. These principles may also be applied in the second language classroom.

Cook (1991) asserts that code switching may be integrated into the activities used for the teaching of a second language. Cook describes the Institute of Linguistics' examinations in Languages for International Communication test as one which utilises code switching. At a beginner level, students may use the second language for obtaining information from material such as a travel brochure or a phone message to answer comprehension questions in the first language. At advanced stages, the student may be required to research a topic and provide a report in the first language. This approach is one which uses code switching as a foundation for the development of a second language learner who can stand between the two languages and use whichever is most appropriate to the situation rather than becoming an imitation native speaker (Cook, 1991).

Cook (1989) provides another method of using code switching as a second language teaching tool through reciprocal language teaching. This method requires students to switch languages at predetermined

points pairing students who want to learn each other's languages. Thus the students alternate between the two languages and exchange the roles of student and teacher. A similar system may also be used whereby the teacher uses code switching by starting the lesson in the first language and then moving into the second and back (Cook, 1991). This makes the lesson as communicative as possible and is similar to the 'New Concurrent Approach' presented by Rodolpho Jacobson, outlined in Cook (1991). The approach gets teachers to balance the use of languages within each lesson with the teacher allowed to switch languages at certain key points, such as during important concepts, when students are getting distracted, during revisions or when students are praised and told off. On this basis, switching may be used as an effective teaching strategy for second language learning.

There is however a means for viewing code switching as language interference, particularly from a teaching perspective. Prucha (1983) examines how language usage is determined by consideration of extraindividual and extralinguistic purposes, or social needs, taking a 'sociofunctional' approach to the study of language. Prucha is of the opinion that all of linguistic reality is determined by certain purposes, programs or aims reflective of societal needs. As a result, social needs have caused an evolution of language and language communication. This proposition relates to the notion that language acquired by an

individual will have an effect on the society in which the individual participates (Clark & Clark, 1977; Winner, 1977; Dodd & White, 1980) as successful societal functioning demands an adaptable, thinking and autonomous person who is a self-regulated learner, capable of communicating and co-operating with others (Birenbaum, 1996). Acquisition of these skills is addressed by Cherryholmes (1993) and others (Percy and Ramsden, 1980; Moore, 1988), with a consideration of reciprocal teaching. Cherryholmes (1993) adapts a definition by Vygotsky (1978) suggesting that cognitive development takes place as students undertake activities in the presence of experts, or teachers, coming to eventually perform the functions by themselves. This allows the student to become autonomous over a period of time whereby the teaching is reciprocated from the teacher to the student. In terms of societal consequence, the teaching-learning activity would then produce individuals who are able to participate in society independently. These concepts applied to reciprocal teaching/learning, as presented by Cook (1991) above, would suggest that a use of code switching in the classroom would provide for a bilingual norm whereby code switching is seen to be acceptable method of communication. Students then would feel comfortable switching languages within normal conversations providing for a bilingual society. In turn, those who were not bilingual may be disadvantaged as they would not be able to communicate as effectively as those who were not. Perhaps a societal expectation of

currency is bilingualism and this may be a foundation for the high degree of languages other than English programs existing in all levels of schooling. In this situation the environment is set whereby interference may occur as the societal norm moves to the inclusion of code switching and the degree of bilingualism increases. Interference may occur in this instance by monolingual speakers who attempt to use a second language for a social reason such as solidarity or bilingual speakers attempting to integrate the second language into the first to be understood by monolingual speakers.

However, from another perspective, code switching means that the two languages are kept separate and distinct which creates a barrier to interference. This is on the basis that if an individual code switches, he/she will not try to make up their own variations of the words they are unable to correctly say thus preventing interference at a phonological level. Language would also not be subject to using them out of grammatical context and would not be subject to interference at a lexical level or with orthography.

Code switching may be viewed as an extension to language for bilingual speakers rather than interference and from other perspectives it may be viewed as interference, depending on the situation and context in which it occurs. This conclusion is drawn from the notions that switching occurs when a speaker: needs to compensate for some

difficulty, express solidarity, convey an attitude or show social respect (Crystal, 1987; Berthold, Mangubhai and Bartorowicz, 1997). The switching also occurs within postulated universal constraints such that it may be integrated into conversations in a particular manner (Poplack, 1980; Cook, 1991). On this basis, given that it occurs within a particular pattern, potential for code switching to interfere into a language exists. It has also been outlined above that code switching may facilitate language development as a mechanism for providing language samples and may also be utilised as a teaching method for teaching second languages (Cook, 1989; 1991). Again, scope for code switching to cause interference in a language exists if it is not utilised carefully as a teaching method. It may be concluded then, that when code switching is to compensate for a language difficulty it may be viewed as interference and when it is used a socio-linguistic tool it should not.

Analysis and Description of Results

I have gotten data and have analyzed the native language interference in learning English as a foreign language in the written material produced by Spanish speaking students in senior high school classes. For these reasons I applied two variables: grammar structure and lexicon, which have been analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively.

Concerning to the facts related to the direct variable of grammar and proper structure, it is determined that students use prepositions in the same way as they do in Spanish. Students simply translate the sentence from Spanish to English without considering any English grammar rules.

Example:

*Yo sabia que yo podía contar con el/I Know I can count with him

*Yo vi un perro en la esquina/I saw a dog in the corner

However, some grammar structures still remain the same from one language to other, making the transmission of the message possible as it is seen in the following:

*I work in Quito

*Yo trabajo en Quito.

There are many grammar structures that do not correspond to any similar way to the form of the Spanish language. Even translating the message word after word makes it complicated to get the message across:

*Espero que te haya ido bien *I hope that you have gone well

Even though the grammar form may not show any positional mistake, people would not understand what the speaker is trying to transmit to the listener; such statements need higher structural base or cultural background knowledge, depending on where the language is spoken:

*Espero que te haya ido bien *I hope you had a good time

To write in another language is not a mere fact of translating words. There are specific grammatical rules in every language; therefore, we cannot write something in a foreign language, in this case, English, as it is written in Spanish.

To go on with the analysis of errors made by the students I found that the proper use of prepositions is the indicator in which the learners tend to have more errors. Therefore, I like to introduce the English grammar rule for the proper use of prepositions:

Prepositions link subject and verb to a time or place expression (Welter, 2010) and are used in these situations:

- **at** for a PRECISE TIME and place
- **in** for MONTHS, YEARS, CENTURIES and LONG PERIODS
- **on** for DAYS and DATES

According to writer Brian Welter (2010) ESL students can avoid errors by following the rules about prepositions. These rules must be learned and practiced, since preposition use varies widely across languages.

Because prepositions often do not carry meaning in themselves, as in the expression *go on strike*, ESL students tend to use them incorrectly. They also do this because native speakers say prepositions quickly and softly, often linking the preposition to another word, as with *kind of*, which sounds like, *kinda*.

Examples:

- Stay at and stay in: I stayed at my grandma's house and I stayed in my grandma's house refer to two slightly different scenarios.
- The first sounds like the person lodged at her grandma's, but went about her business as usual, while the second sounds like she did not leave the house because it was too cold.
- *I have arrived in Vancouver at the train station* is correct, as is: *I am in the train station at the information counter*. They are both correct.

At indicates a more specific location than *in*. (Welter, 2010).

In Spanish the use of prepositions of place and time and specifically *in*, *on* and *at* are used with one single word *en* for every context, contrary to English in which every of these prepositions are used in different contexts as we can observe in the examples above.

When Spanish students write in English they use the preposition *in* instead of *at* , or *on* because the word *en* in Spanish is used to express time and location in any context.

To understand better how to use prepositions in a proper way we should remember also that a preposition is followed by a "noun". It is never followed by a verb.

By "noun" we include:

- noun (dog, money, love)
- proper noun (name) (Bangkok, Mary)
- pronoun (you, him, us)
- noun group (my first job)
- gerund (swimming)

Continuing with the analysis of the tasks made by the students I could observe structure grammar errors of substitution and omission. In chart 1, there is an error of substitution: "*I knew I can count with*

him”, the student simply writes the sentence following the grammar pattern in Spanish, which turns out to be wrong.

In Spanish it is written: “puedo contar **con** él”, the Spanish preposition **con** is used; and the students translate word by word the whole statement when the right preposition to be used in English should be **on**. Because of their environment, the students relate the idea of the new language with their own, and transmit the message with the mistake included. However, if they had been born in the United States or other English speaking country, they would not make such mistake. Nonetheless, it is necessary to remark that many English native speakers tend to have problems with the use of prepositions.

In the second example “*Wait __me at the exit door*”, there is an omission of the preposition *for*; since students would simply translate this sentence from Spanish into English in their heads, which would be: “*Esperame en la puerta de salida*”, in our native language the use of the preposition *for* is not needed to write the sentence, it is just said: “*esperame*”. It is not *espera para/por mi*. Therefore they translate the sentence as it is in Spanish, when it should be: *wait for me at the exit door*. In the same way as in the last example, students make this mistake because they keep translating one language into another word by word.

Corresponding to the task Story Tale; in the example number one: “*I saw a dog in the corner*”, which comes from the Spanish: “*vi un perro en la esquina*” the mistake is given by the wrong use of **in** instead of **on**, caused by the common interference from Spanish translating the word *en* into *in*.

In the example: “*He was right in the door*”, there is an interference mistake when translating the original sentence from Spanish: “*El estaba en la puerta*”, when the right way to say such sentence should be: “*He was right **at** the door*”, because the word *right* changes the meaning because it means one specific place; *at* is used when we want to determine a precise place or time. **In** also refers to be enclosed, and for this reason it could not be written *He was right in the door*.

Concerning to mistakes involving **Pronouns**, as it is expressed in the second chart, we can see in the first sentence, as in the example above:“*then __ opened our presents*” the omission of pronouns as we do it in Spanish. In our language, we always omit the pronoun and people say simply: “*Y entonces abrimos nuestros regalos*”.

In English, there is a different situation because the rule is: “Subject + Verb + Complement”, but the learners omit the subject because in

Spanish is not used. Therefore, in this case, Spanish speakers tend to write in English in the same way as they would do it in Spanish. It is important to remark that even though these both languages come from the same Latin root, they do not follow the same patterns of structure.

In the same chart the example two: *Paul was the scariest one* “__was shivering when __entered into the house”, in a similar way as the last examined example, there is an omission of the pronoun **he** because in Spanish people say: “*estaba temblando cuando entró a la casa*” and there is no presence of the noun nor the pronoun.

When analyzing the third chart, regarding to the indicator: **Adjectives**, it is easy to see in the first sentence: “*I put a star big on top of the tree*”, a common error students make is observed, because learners translate the phrase word by word from Spanish into English: “*puse una estrella grande encima del árbol*”; and they do not apply the grammar rule that says: “Adjectives in English language are used before the noun”.

This could be only corrected if the students mastered the grammar rule in which tells that any adjective will precede a noun unless it goes after the verb to be, e.g.: *a big car, the car is big*. This happens because the interference between these two languages differ enormously

concerning to the fact of the use of adjectives and so on, students when translating from one language to another they do it word by word giving the instance for the mistake to happen.

In the example “*I opened the present small first*”, this means in Spanish: “*abrí el regalo pequeño primero*”. This happens because of the interference caused by translating the text word by word and it is necessary to remark that the adjective always precedes the noun in English, so the right way to express the preceding statement should be: “*I opened the small present first*”.

In the example two from chart three: “*these are options very hard to choose*” which comes from the Spanish: “*estas son opciones muy difíciles de escoger*” as it was stated in the preceding paragraph, it is easy to recognize that the interference happens due to the fact that if we translate word by word the position of the adjective goes right after the noun in Spanish when such rule is not applied in the English language. Consequently the correct expression would be: “*These are very hard options to choose*”.

One of the main interferences comes from the fact that contextualized translation is a common trend students use to perform in a different language. Therefore, in the last two examples, even

though the phrase: **“options very hard”** makes sense inside the statement, and even if many native speakers would use it like that, the statement is all wrong, provided that the structure does not follow the rule of noun preceded by adjective. And for the last example: *“The Christmas best that I had was...”* as well, the contextualization when translating something makes students commit that mistake, despite the fact that even in Spanish language the phrase is not correctly said, which most likely comes from: *“la mejor Navidad que tuve fue cuando”*. Consequently it should have been written as: *“the best Christmas that I have ever had was when.”*

In the chart four concerning to **Auxiliaries**, the idea of structures that may not have a direct translation from one language to another has always been the main factor of concern in Linguistics. The idea of having auxiliary words to express tense or different situations or conditions tends to be the most complicated area to assimilate for beginning learners and even hard to master for upper intermediate students.

In the first examples there is an error of omission, there is no auxiliary: *“He not always come to work”* and *“he not lost the money, but he invested it”* both coming from the Spanish language: *“El no siempre viene a trabajar”* and *“el no perdio el dinero sino que lo invirtió”*; for each type of tasks, the use of the auxiliary comes totally unnecessary, since

the way the speaker may translate these phrases from Spanish word by word produce interference, and they would make a total sense, even if the speaker was communicating with a foreigner who knew nothing in Spanish. However, it is necessary to mention that the right way to write both statements will be: *“He does not always come to work”* and *“he did not lose the money, but he invested it”* respectively.

In the same way the examples: *“Candy not had any friends in her school”*, *“my dad not let me study music”*; which refer to past activities, are as seen, transferred directly from Spanish: *“Candy no tenía amigos en su escuela”* and *“mi padre no me dejó estudiar música”*, without caring about the right structure or form that the past needs in regular statements and the essential function that the auxiliary takes. Thus it is more than necessary that students own the formal knowledge and rules on how to use properly the auxiliaries, mainly those ones who will have no translation into Spanish and for them to be able to know that the right way to write both sentences is: *“Candy did not have any friends in her school”*, and *“my dad did not let me study music”*.

The mistakes come from the interference that happens when learners translate context word by word since the use of auxiliaries does not exist in Spanish.

Auxiliary verbs are used more often in English than they are in Spanish, since Spanish is able to use conjugation to indicate tenses that sometimes are expressed in English with auxiliary verbs. For example, the future tense in English uses the auxiliary verb "will" as in "I will study." But Spanish needs no auxiliary verb in this case, as the future is expressed through a verb ending: estudiaré. English also uses the auxiliary verb "do" to form many questions, as in "*Do you study?*" Such an auxiliary isn't needed in Spanish: ¿Estudias?

It is considered that **false cognates** also refer to mistakes in the variable lexicon, because it has been observed the influence of the first language that happens when students of the second language read, hear and write words that have similar spelling in both languages, but they have a totally different meaning in English.

It should be said that the use of cognates makes the learning of a language more appealing and easier; due to the fact that the words that appear similar in writing in the students' L1 tend to be more familiar and easy to learn. It will also avoid inconveniences of interpreting meaning of words, because learners will just simply consider the word that is closest in appearance to the one unknown as its more approximate meaning.

Since learners commonly, in their will of acquiring language and making themselves understand, they write any word that seems familiar

to them, as it is seen in the example of *Actually*, which could be taken as the word in Spanish *Actualmente*, so there is an inadequate use, but to refer to such word the right translation would be *Nowadays/Currently*; even when the sentence of the example has no mistake of structural kind at all, its sense is totally different from the one that the speaker wanted to announce. And, in the same way it would happen with the words: “Embarrassed (meaning ashamed) with *embarazada*”, resistance (meaning endurance) with “*resistencia*” and “assist (meaning help) with *asistir*”. This being the reason for all of the exercises to go properly said as:

*My aunt couldn't lift her present because she is pregnant

*Currently, I have received my grades every week

* People need to have endurance to study a career

* I attend to school every day

Therefore it is stated that, even though many words have similar spelling, they also have to be differentiated, because as it was stated before, even when these two languages – English and Spanish- come from the same Latin root, and some words sometimes happen to be cognates, students need to see that it will not always happen so and the use of certain lexis will have to be discriminated.

In the next chart which refers to **Invented words**, it is necessary to remark that due to the fact that EFL beginning learners lack of vocabulary and sometimes, they are in front of situations in which they will have to use words in order to fulfill the idea of a statement; many, in desperation, need to come up with words that have no sense or sometimes may mean something close to what the idea is about. In the first exercise to confuse emergency and emergence comes from the similarity of the words and the word *emergencia* in Spanish. It is seen that the word emergence is closer in appearance to *emergencia*, so people tend to make this error because of the interference of both languages.

In the example two: “*we have ambiental problems*”, the word ambiental does not exist in English, and as another result from the aspect explained before, such errors can be made too, because the interference that one language produces into another or due to the lack of vocabulary from the student an inadequate use of words is produced.

In several situations, learners will use words that, as a result of their imagination, will follow certain grammatical trend, but they will not exist in their basic form; such is the case of *Enfrenting* which may have a gerund form, and if the word existed, it would be correctly applied; nonetheless, such word has not yet been approved by any English

dictionary. Even though there are words that being cognates could have been used such as: *confrontation/confronting*.

Some other words will also come from a cultural background and beliefs interference, in the last example: “*The three magic Kings*”; we know that the three men mentioned were the ones who visited Jesus when baby, but in Spanish due to the Catholic context these men were some sort of wizards, on the other hand, most English speaking countries are protestant and for them those three men were wise men from the eastern side of the world, so they should have been mentioned as the “Three Wise Men”. Such mistakes tend to happen because of the lack on knowledge of the English culture.

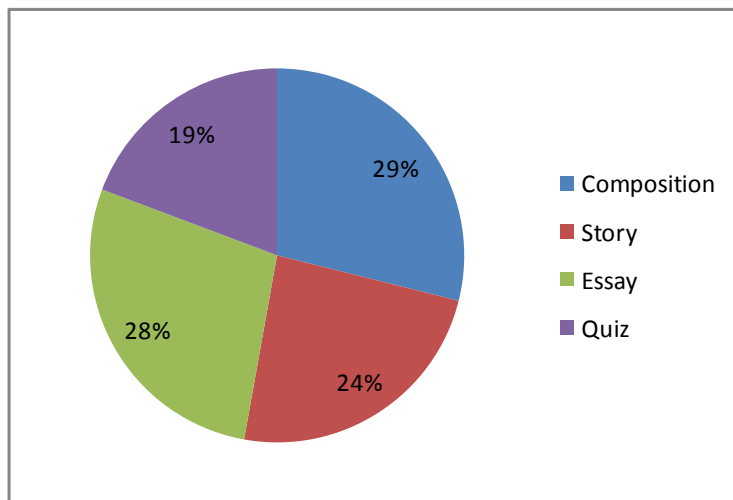
The level of English in the Cardinal Spellman Girls School is very good due to the fact that teachers emphasize very much in English grammar, and also the students have other subjects in English such as Literature and Geography among others. I think that it is the reason I did not find any mistakes regarding word order and articles, (except word order in adjectives). In articles, the students seem to be clear in the correct use of definite as indefinite articles because this grammar rule was overcome during the basic grades.

Comparative Analysis

After having collected and tabulated all the information, it is possible to compare the amount of errors in the variables: grammar and lexicon, by the use of the following charts:

VARIABLE: GRAMMAR STRUCTURE

Composition	29%
Story	24%
Essay	28%
Quiz	19%
Total	100%



It is easy to realize from the graphs that in the variable grammar structure most of the errors were found in composition with **29%** because even it is a topic they are familiar with, they did the task without enough time because their teacher gave them just the last 20

minutes of her hour to finish it. Also the students were nervous because it was the first time that they saw me and had to work on these tasks.

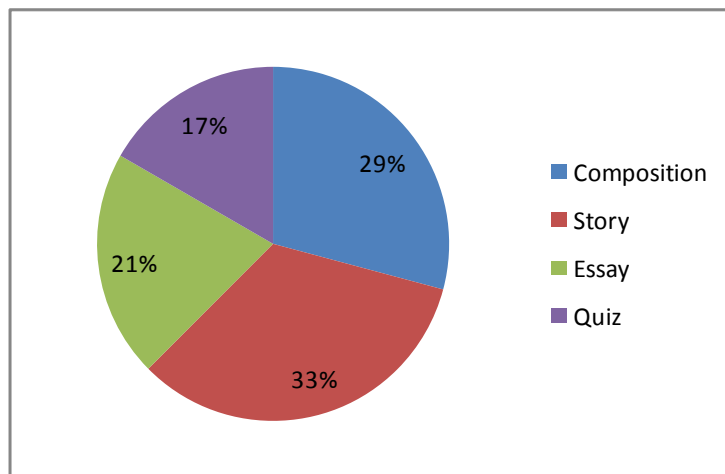
Second, we have a similar percentage in **essay** with **28 %**, in which it can be noticed that the lack of vocabulary and learners' deep connection with their own language interfered in their normal way of writing. Although students could look up in the dictionary or Internet, they did not take advantage of these resources and the results were reflected in the tasks.

Stories are in the third position with **24 %**, due to the fact that there might not have been enough time to complete the task; since creating a story demands imagination and longer working time to create ideas; students were not able to finish the assignment or finish it poorly.

The last indicator with **19 %** belongs to **quiz**; due to the fact that many learners practically know how to express their ideas and they were more confident answering the twenty questions. On the other hand, they needed less vocabulary because the sentences were easier to structure.

VARIABLE: LEXICON

Composition	29%
Story	33%
Essay	21%
Quiz	17%
Total	100%



In relation to variable Lexicon, I could see that students rely on their vocabulary and they simply use familiar words to them, giving it for granted that they are correct.

The highest percentage is showed in **story tale** with **33%**. This is because students rely on their knowledge when writing this type of tasks, due to the fact that they needed to use more complex grammatical structures and more vocabulary. I could notice that the lack of vocabulary forced learners to invent words.

Regarding to **composition**, it has **29** % that denotes the misuse of the right vocabulary in the students' narration style and the use of false cognates as right ones, or making up words.

In relation to **essay** with **21%**, I could deduce that students write with fewer errors, due to the fact that this topic was done at home with more time and less pressure. On the other hand, learners could investigate new words in dictionaries and in my opinion they enjoy doing these tasks.

Finally the **quiz** with **17** % showed the less amount of errors when students expressed their ideas in a free way and they have to write short and concrete answers.

Conclusions

After having analyzed many concepts of language interference and some written material I have obtained the following conclusions:

- The analysis of written material is a source that has allowed me to recognize the existence of Spanish interference when we write.
- Learners had problems finding the right preposition when using them with verbs, adjectives or expressions because of the interference of their native language and its application in English.
- It tends to be hard for students to state sentences in the right order due to the interference provoked by the position of adjectives in Spanish when these ones are translated into English.
- Learners have difficulty in understanding the use of auxiliaries, since they do not exist in their native language.
- False cognates were used by the students; these were originated by the assumption of similar words in English and Spanish language.

- Since students lack of enough vocabulary, they make the same mistake by inventing words using Spanish roots and special endings such as: tion, sh, etc.
- It is inferred that students need to write appropriately, but also they need to be in contact with the language so that the process of learning turns appealing and more enjoyable, making them feel identified with the language they are trying to acquire and also encouraging them to be more proficient and more skillful at it.
- Teenagers feel more comfortable when they are writing about topics they are related with or which are less formal. This explains why there is a higher amount of production of language in the types of narration style such as: stories and compositions. However these two still showed a high amount of mistakes made.
- There is always going to be interference from the person's first language due to the lack of a constant interaction with a second language environment because of the limitations learners have to face in the process of acquiring a language.

- I created a workshop in order to guide teachers and learners to minimize the level of interference when they teach and learn English as a second language, and they will be able to apply some strategies with the purpose to reduce interference.

PROPOSAL

1. INFORMATIVE DATA

Title:	“THECNQUES TO REDUCE INTERFERENCE BY IMPROVING SYNTACTIC AND SEMANTIC STRUCTURES”
School:	Colegio Cardenal Femenino Spellman
School year:	6 TH course of High School
City:	Quito
Province:	Pichincha
Author:	Paulina Proaño Pérez
Beneficiaries:	High School Teachers

2. INTRODUCTION

In this high school most of the teachers are not native speakers of English language, although they have a good level of English and they have been qualified to teach this language. Spanish teachers and students need to minimize the interference by developing exercises in

the four skills, and I consider that writing is one of the most important one, and the research proposed by UTPL is according to this skill.

I have done a proposal for teachers in order to realize the interference that exist when people learn a new language by doing useful and amusement workshop.

3. OBJECTIVES

General Objective

To develop writing strategies for teachers in order to reinforce grammar structures and vocabulary with their students by reducing interference.

Specific Objectives

To recognize English grammar structures.

To apply the English grammar structures.

To analyze written dialogues in order to get unknown words and increase vocabulary.

To develop logical statements by minimizing interference.

4. STRATEGIES

I developed a workshop for teachers which include activities that will be applied in the four skills.

The first strategy is brainstorming to find possible topics to write, then listing the best topics, and finally reading and examining written models.

5. ACTIVITIES

The activities will last 90 (each hour last 45 minutes) minutes from Monday to Friday. On the last day, the teachers and I will evaluate the results of the activities applied.

Through the development of this workshop, teachers will reinforce the knowledge in grammar structures by minimizing interference of their native language.

First Day: (Monday)

Title of text: **Bird Problems**

Type of text: English Composition

Strategy: To develop listening, speaking and writing skills

Activity 1: Free Writing

[illegible]

Activity 2: Listen and talk in pairs

performance by two native English speakers and talk about this theme in pairs.

Bird Problems

Voice 1 Since the beginning of time, one animal has amazed humans. This animal sings beautiful songs. It lives on every continent of the planet. It comes in many different sizes and colors. Its form suggested new technologies to human inventors - like airplanes. What animal is it? It is the bird. But life is not always easy for these winged creatures. And people are often to blame.

Voice 2 Birds are amazing animals, but bird populations are very sensitive. Many things can affect them. And for the past fifty years, populations of birds in many areas have been growing smaller. Some scientists have said that up to twelve percent of bird species are in danger of dying off. This means that many kinds of birds may soon disappear.

Voice 1 But what is causing bird populations to drop? Scientists say that there are many reasons why this is happening. But the main reason is loss of habitat. The birds are losing their homes.

Voice 2 Birds live in many different kinds of places - in forests, and fields, villages and cities. But when these areas change, the birds have to change too. People change these habitats in many ways - by cutting down forests, by making new farm land, by building cities and roads in new places. These are not always bad activities. But they do change the areas for birds.

Voice 1 Some birds react well. For example, some birds live very well in cities. But others do not. They cannot find new places to make their homes, nests. So they may stop breeding and having babies. They may not be able to find their usual kinds of food. And often they also lose their usual kinds of protection. They can no longer hide in their usual places.

Voice 2 As cities expand, wild lands grow smaller. And there are fewer places for some kinds of birds to live.

Voice 1 Another problem facing birds is change in temperature. Many birds migrate. As the seasons change, they travel from cold areas to warmer areas. But global warming is changing this. As winters become warmer, birds migrate at different times, and to different places. Birds depend on particular foods when they arrive at a new place. If the birds arrive too early, that food may not be there.

Voice 2 This is a big problem for birds. Many birds eat only very particular foods. That is one reason birds have many different shapes and sizes. Some birds have

long thin beaks to help them drink liquid from flowers. Other birds have strong beaks for breaking open seeds and nuts. Many birds only eat a few particular things. If these things, such as plants or insects, disappear, then so do the birds.

Voice 1 But birds are not only affected by large problems like global warming and changing habitats. Smaller things can also affect birds.

Voice 2 Scientists have found that light from cities can affect birds. Large cities create a lot of heat and a lot of light. At night, skies are bright around many cities. And this light affects migrating birds.

Voice 1 But the light is not the only problem. The large city buildings are dangers to birds. When birds migrate, they travel along particular paths. These paths are often based on light from the moon and stars. But when birds come close to large cities, these paths must change. The bright lights of the tall city buildings pull the birds off their paths.

Voice 2 Sometimes the birds crash into the buildings at night. But even if they do not hit the buildings, they may become lost. They may fly around the buildings until they become very tired. In the morning they try to escape the city. But the buildings are still dangerous. Birds cannot see glass well - often, they will fly right into glass windows

Voice 1 Joanna Eckles works for a group called Project Bird Safe in Minneapolis Minnesota. She talked about her work with a local radio station:

Voice 3 “We are working with the building owners, managers, and workers to get the lights turned off. This will let the birds migrating through to pass over without getting trapped in the city.”

Voice 2 More cities around the world are turning the lights off during migration season. This will give birds a better chance at staying on the right path.

Voice 1 But turning lights off is not the only way people are helping birds. In Kazakhstan, scientists are recovering land that was damaged by cows. This area is now a good place for birds to live. This is part of a larger plan by international groups to protect bird areas. For example, all through Asia, people are working with government officials to protect the homes of water birds.

Voice 2 Around the world, groups are also protecting birds in Important Bird Areas, or IBA's. An IBA is a special area of land. Birds depend on these areas for raising their babies. And they depend on these areas for food. And migrating

birds depend on these areas as a safe place to stop along their travels.

Voice 1 Laws do not force land owners to protect the IBA land. Most land owners choose to protect the IBA's because they know that these areas are special and important. But what makes these areas important?

Voice 2 To be an IBA, an area must meet particular conditions. For example, an IBA may provide a habitat to an endangered kind of bird. That is, an IBA may be the home for birds that are in danger of disappearing completely. Or, an IBA may be the home for migrating birds, or shorebirds on the edge of an ocean. And finally, an IBA may be the home for birds who can only live in a very particular area.

Voice 1 Creating special areas for birds will help the bird populations to recover. Turning off lights at night can help them survive. People threaten the future of birds, but we can also work to help them. We can help the birds to continue singing their songs.

Activity 3: Compare the Heard, and Answer the Questions

I began to ask teachers about the Topic for the purpose of analyzing the interference that they have when repeating what they heard by the native English speakers.

The oral questions were the following:

- 1) Where do birds live?
- 2) What do some scientists consider about birds?
- 3) What happen with the birds when the temperature and the season change?
- 4) Why do birds have different shapes and sizes?

5) Can light affect birds? Why?

6) What happen with the birds in the large city buildings?

7) Where does *Joanna Eckles* work?

8) *What did she talk in a local radio station?*

9) What are scientists doing in Kazakhstan? Why?

10) What is an IBA?

Second Day: (Tuesday)

Title of text: **Working for Peace**

Type of text: English Composition

Strategy: To develop listening, writing and reading skills

Activity 1: Read and Write

I gave to teachers a text about “**Toyohiko Kagawa: Working for Peace**”. I asked them to read about it, and to circle three main ideas, to underline five support ideas and write them down.

Toyohiko Kagawa: Working for Peace

Voice 2 Toyohiko Kagawa was a pacifist. He believed that people should be peaceful and not use violence. However, he also disagreed with the authorities on a number of issues. He protested against the unfair treatment of

the poorest people. Remaining peaceful during these protests was often difficult.

One example of this was in 1921. Kagawa was protesting with some factory workers. They wanted more rights for themselves. But then the authorities put him in prison. When he came out of prison he found some people in the group had started to act violently. Kagawa explained what happened next:

Voice 3 'The next day thousands of workers with stones and bars walked towards the factory. Police and guards surrounded the factory with guns and swords. They waited for the attack. I did not know what to do. So, I went to a bridge where the group had to cross. I stood there and prayed. When that big group of men came up to me I was too sad to speak. So I just stood there praying. "God let there be peace". Then a miracle happened. They all stopped. Then they turned and went away!'

Voice 1 Later in Kagawa's life violence became a much bigger issue. In 1937, Japan went to war with China. And Kagawa believed that Japan would soon go to war with the United States as well. So, Kagawa travelled to the United States for a meeting with Christians in that country. When he returned he had not given up hope of peace. He wanted to tell the Japanese government about what he had learned in the United States. Kagawa said,

Voice 3 'I went to the parliament and urged them to be peaceful and not go to war. I told them that I had just come from America. I said I knew that the American people wanted peace - and so did the Japanese people. But it did not do any good. On December 7th, 1941 I felt like all the lights had gone out. My heart was broken.'

Voice 2 On December 7th, 1941, the Japanese bombed Pearl Harbor - an American Navy Base in Hawaii. This marked the beginning of Japan's involvement in World War Two. Kagawa continued to speak about the need for peace. But people started to think that he was wrong to talk this way. Japan was fighting in a major war. The government needed the people's support. People said that Kagawa was betraying his country. Kagawa said,

Voice 3 'During the war the government asked me to keep quiet. They asked me to resign from all my activities. I could only take small services in my own church. By this time, I had written one hundred and thirteen [113] books. All of these books, except my poems, were banned.'

Voice 1 Later, Japan started to lose the war. This made life particularly difficult for Kagawa. Magazine writers started to attack Kagawa again in their writing. Kagawa said,

Voice 3 'They wrote as if I was betraying my country. People started to imagine what would happen if Japan lost the war. They said that the country would lose its leader - the emperor. They said that the new president would be me. Then Nagasaki was destroyed by the atom bomb. After that, one of the government officials warned me that the army wanted to kill me. He said I should leave Tokyo immediately. I ran away into the forests. I lived there for four or five months. It was about a hundred and fifty [150] kilometers north of the city.'

Voice 2 World War Two ended in 1945. After the war Japan became a very different country. The ruler of Japan, the Emperor, lost many of his powers. People also now thought very differently about the Emperor. Before this time, people believed the Emperor was a living god. But after the war the Emperor had to admit he was just a man. Then the Emperor invited Toyohiko Kagawa to visit him. He wanted Kagawa to help him serve his people better. Kagawa said,

Voice 3 'I talked for almost two hours. I told the Emperor that he must get close to the people and fill them with the desire for democracy and justice. I told him that a man or nation can only bring peace to the people through serving. About a week later the Emperor appeared in public for the first time. He visited me at a settlement I had established in Tokyo. It served twenty thousand [20,000] war refugees. This settlement was similar to others that I had helped establish. These were in many of the larger cities and country areas of Japan.'

Voice 1 After the war Japan created a new constitution. This was based around the idea of peace and non-violence. The constitution makes it illegal for the country to declare war on another country. This has helped Japan to change a lot. The country has become one of the most peaceful and richest countries in the world.

Voice 2 Toyohiko Kagawa died in 1960. He was seventy one [71]. During his life he saw his country change. It was once divided and at war. But Kagawa helped it to become a country that believes in non-violence and peace. Kagawa said that such ideas of peace are very important for everyone.

Voice 3 'When you use violence you may force an enemy to admit defeat. But he does so against his will. After using violence you must destroy the enemy. Or you must continue to make the enemy believe you will use violence again - and you must make sure that the enemy will not attack you back. A better way is to win the enemy through love. Love is the only way to defeat greed and self-interest. When these feelings are defeated you achieve the path for understanding. Then there is no need for violence.'

Tree Main Ideas:

1) _____

2) _____

3) _____

Five Support Ideas:

1) _____

2) _____

3) _____

4) _____

5) _____

Activity 2: Getting the Meaning from the context

I asked teachers to get the meaning of words in context, and underline the word closest to the meaning of each word.

1) Toyohiko Kagawa was a pacifist. He believed that people should be **peaceful** and not use violence.

a) Interesting

b) Passive

c) Happy

2) He protested against the unfair **treatment** of the poorest people.

a) Behavior

b) Use

c) Scarcity

3) Police and guards **surrounded** the factory with guns and swords

a) Analyzed

b) Ensured

c) Encircled

4) When he returned he had not given up hope of **peace**.

a) Harmony

b) Intensity

c) Propriety

5) On December 7th, 1941, the Japanese **bombed** Pearl Harbor

a) Attacked

b) Made

c) Participated

6) People said that Kagawa was **betraying** his country

a) Preparing

b) Reading

c) Revealing

7) They asked me to **resign** from all my activities

a) Give out

b) Give up

c) Give in

8) All of these books, except my poems, were **banned**

a) Read

b) Forbidden

c) Cut

9) I **ran away** into the forests. I lived there for four or five months

a) Escaped

b) Was

c) Did

10) The constitution makes it **illegal** for the country to declare war
on another country

a) Against the law

b) Right

c) Open

Activity 3: Find Adjectives and Write Antonyms

I asked participants to find 20 adjectives and write their antonyms.

	Adjectives	Antonyms
Voice 2	_____	_____
Voice 1	_____	_____
Voice 2	_____	_____
Voice 1	_____	_____
Voice 3	_____	_____
Voice 1	_____	_____
Voice 3	_____	_____
Voice 2	_____	_____
Voice 1	_____	_____

Voice 2	_____	_____
Voice 2	_____	_____
Voice 1	_____	_____
Voice 3	_____	_____
Voice 2	_____	_____
Voice 1	_____	_____
Voice 2	_____	_____
Voice 2	_____	_____
Voice 1	_____	_____
Voice 3	_____	_____
Voice 2	_____	_____

Third Day: (Wednesday)

Title of text: **Dancing with Disability**

Type of text: English Composition

Strategy: To develop writing, speaking and reading skills.

Activity 1: Encircle, underline and rewrite

I asked teachers to encircle ten subjects and to underline ten objects pronouns in the article “**Dancing with Disability**”. Then teachers rewrite the ten sentences and replace the subject by personal pronouns.

Dancing with Disability

Voice 1 Two long, red pieces cloth hang down the center of the performance area.

Two people dance together between them. They climb and move on the cloth. They turn and hang in the air. This dance takes place both on the ground and in the air. But there is something different about the female dancer. She does not look like most other dancers. She has no legs!

Voice 2 Today's Spotlight is on The GIMP Project. The GIMP Project is a group of people who would not normally be considered dancers. They are missing legs, or an arm, or have nerve diseases. They would not have a place in any other dance group. But as part of The GIMP Project, they have found a way to accept who they are and make something beautiful.

Voice 1 The word "gimp" was chosen as a name because it has several meanings. It can mean a long piece of cloth. It can mean to have a fighting spirit. It can also be a term for a person who cannot walk correctly. Usually it is unkind to call a person a "gimp". But part of what The GIMP Project is trying to do is to question what people think it means to be different.

Voice 2 Heidi Latsky watches her dancers go through their dances. She started

The GIMP Project. She stops the dance and offers a new idea. She joins the dancers to show what she is trying to say. Heidi Latsky has been a professional dancer for many years. She has both designed dances and taught dancing to other people. She is respected in the New York dance community. With GIMP, she wanted to try something different. She says:

Voice 3 "People go to dance events to see what they cannot do themselves. Dancers are often seen as limitless. Disabled persons are often seen as basically unable. Bringing these two groups together in GIMP questions normal ideas of dance, performance, and body image. GIMP's special mix of arms and legs offers an uncommon beauty. It examines the ways we are often identified or defined by our bodies."

Voice 2 A performance by GIMP is not like any other kind of dance show. The people watching cannot forget that the dancers are different. But GIMP is still a real dance show. It is still a performance. Heidi Latsky explains how this can be true:

Voice 3 "GIMP is about beauty. Not an easy and common beauty, but a more unexpected one. It is a beauty that comes from taking a risk. We show each person's special beauty. In GIMP, both watchers and performers know they are being watched. This leads to a change in thinking. It leads to a deep sense that the way we see the world has changed."

Voice 1 But who would want to do what these dancers do? A disabled person

often has people look and point at him. Why then, would they want to get up in front of people and dance? Why would anyone want to be watched like this?

Well, it is exactly because they are watched by people they do not know that makes them want to dance. One dancer from GIMP is Lawrence Carter-Long. He has cerebral palsy, a condition that makes it difficult for him to walk normally.

He says:

Voice 4 "Disability in our culture is permitted to encourage people. We are permitted to be heroes. We are sometimes permitted to be weak and useless.

What we are not permitted to be is creative."

Voice 1 The dancers of GIMP are trying to break down the idea of what limits them. They are trying to show that the limits most people put on them are not real limits. Through GIMP they show that they can dance. If someone without legs can dance, it raises a question. What else can disabled people do that able-bodied people think they cannot? Again, here is Lawrence Carter-Long:

Voice 4 "This is no safe, controlled mix of dance and disability. It is a collision.

This is two worlds come crashing together that are not supposed to exist together."

Voice 2 Katherine Long is a GIMP dancer from England. She was born with no upper leg joints, no knee caps and no left arm. She talks about dancing in front of people:

Voice 5 "When I put myself out there, I am inviting people to look at me. I am controlling the looking. But when I am on the street I am not inviting people to look at me. But they look anyway. Dancing puts me into a bit more of a controlled situation. I try to encourage people to think about the way they look at different bodies and their own body. They do not know how to react. They do not know what to say. I think they are so surprised that they often need time to process it. They need time for their brains to take in what they have seen - what they have been a part of as an audience."

Voice 2 GIMP is trying to give people the space to look and to ask questions. GIMP wants them to understand that just because people look different, that does not mean that they cannot make something beautiful and wonderful. Heidi

Latsky says:

Voice 3 "The goal of GIMP is to honour each person's particular way of moving. To make a dance that speaks to who they are, to their weaknesses and to their strengths and their personalities. Like Lawrence who has a very particular way of walking. I cannot change the way he walks. There is so much movement in the way he walks that is almost like music. It has added something that I could never do. He just does it naturally."

Voice 2 All people have limits. For the dancers of GIMP, their limits are clear and easy to see. But every person is limited by something. It could be fear, or intelligence, or for some, the situation of their life. Some people deny their limits. Other people fight against them. But some people, like the dancers of GIMP,

accept who they are and decide to make something beautiful.

1) _____

2) _____

3) _____

4) _____

5) _____

6) _____

7) _____

8) _____

9) _____

10) _____

Activity 2: Unscramble the following sentences

I asked teachers to put in order the following statements

- 1) Dance two people together them between. They and move on
the climb cloth.

2) Their watches her Heidi Latsky dancers go dances through. She Project the started GIMP.

3) She designed has both and taught dances dancing to people other. Is community the respected in New York dance She.

4) Go People to events dance to what they see do themselves cannot.

5) Are Dancers seen often as limitless? Unable often persons seen as basically are Disabled.

6) Different people dancers watching the cannot that the are forget.

7) It a taking beauty is that from a comes risk. show person's special beauty We.

8) Anyone why want to watched be like this would? Well, is exactly they are because watched by they people do that not it makes them to dance know want.

9) Of dancers GIMP The are to trying break the down idea what limits them of.

10) to I people try own encourage to about think way the they look different at bodies their and body.

Activity 3: Compare the sentences and write the correct one

I asked teachers to work in pairs and to compare the sentences that were put in order with the sentences in the article, and write the correct one.

1) _____

2) _____

3) _____

4) _____

5) _____

6) _____

7) _____

8) _____

9) _____

10) _____

Fourth Day: (Thursday)

Title of text: **Make Music. Make Health**

Type of text: English Composition

Strategy: To develop listening, writing and reading skills

Activity 1: Listen and Write

I asked teachers to listen to the dialogue about “**Make Music Make Health**” performance by two native English speakers, and write a summary of this theme (at least 200 words).

Make Music. Make Health

Voice 1 Crowds of people gather. The hot sun shines on the dusty earth. There is a sense of excitement in the air. The people stand in a circle, watching

with wonder. In the middle of the circle, music players sing and play their guitars. They move their bodies to the strong music beats. The people are watching a musician, Feliciano dos Santos! He is playing with his music group Massukos. It is a famous group - especially in Mozambique! And today they are visiting an area in the far north of Mozambique - Niassa. Only one dirt road connects Niassa to the rest of the country! The people here are poor and live in difficult conditions. There is not much to bring popular music groups to Niassa! So what brings Feliciano dos Santos here?

Voice 2 Feliciano dos Santos may have travelled the world - but Niassa is his home. He was born there in 1964. Santos grew up in a village with no clean water. Human waste infected water and food - so diseases spread quickly and often. When Santos was a very young child he caught the disease poliomyelitis, or polio. Polio is spread through infected water and food. The disease invades a person's nervous system. It left Santos with one leg shorter and thinner than the other.

Voice 1 People in Santos' village did not understand diseases and sicknesses. They formed opinions about Santos' mental health based on his physical condition. He said:

Voice 3 'When people see a man with a physical problem they think he also has a problem in his head.'

Voice 1 However, Santos proved their ideas to be completely untrue. He worked hard, and decided to become a music player. He had loved music since he was a child. People around him questioned if he would succeed. But he continued without their support. He began to earn money from his music - and he began to get famous.

Voice 2 Today, Santos is part of the music group Massukos. Massukos is popular! The group sold over eighty thousand [80,000] copies of their first music record! But Massukos is not like average music groups! They do not only sing about love and life! They also design songs especially for communities in country areas like Niassa. The words to this song are very unusual:

*Voice 3 Let us wash our hands.
Let us wash our hands.
For the children to stay healthy,
For the mothers to stay healthy
We build latrines.*

Voice 1 Yes Massukos is singing about latrines. A latrine is a kind of toilet! The song encourages people to wash their hands after they go to the toilet. It is also explaining that they need to have well built toilets! Communities in Niassa know Santos for his unusual songs! He sings about things other people do not even talk about - sanitation! Everything to do with human waste and public health. Poor sanitation has been a big cause of disease in many places - including Santos' home area, Niassa.

Voice 2 Santos and Massukos members are doing more than singing about sanitation problems. They are part of an aid group called 'Estamos'. In English that means 'We are'. Santos set up this group in 1994. The group works to provide clean water and safe sanitation. Santos said:

Voice 3 'Mozambique has severe health issues such as malaria, meningitis, typhoid, death of babies... Many of these are related to water-borne bacteria. The government is trying to solve these issues. In Estamos, we are doing everything we can to teach people about what they can do to help.'

Voice 2 One way they are doing this is with the eco-san toilet.

Voice 1 A bamboo house protects the eco-san toilet from the hot sun. Walk in, and you will see two large square holes in the ground - pits. But they are not just pits dug in the earth. Villagers have built brick material inside and around the pits. This means that waste does not touch the earth, only the bricks. This stops the human waste from infecting the ground water that people use. At the side of the pits there is ash - from cooking-fires. After a person uses the toilet, he or she covers the waste with a handful of grey ash. This prevents the pit from smelling. And it prevents flies from gathering. Also, touching the ash makes people think to wash their hands! When one pit is full, they use the other pit. Santos explains that after six months, the ash turns the human waste into a natural fertilizer!

Voice 2 Human waste is not good as a fertilizer because it contains bacteria and other organisms that spread diseases. However, the process of mixing it with the ash and leaving it for a long time makes all the difference. The harmful organisms die and leave good fertilizer. It does not even smell bad.

Voice 1 Santos and his music group are very serious about their work. Santos said:

Voice 3 'When we perform we make the most of the time. We talk about sanitation-related issues. We write songs about sanitation. We also talk about HIV and how to prevent it. We do not only talk about these issues. We serve as

an example, since we are part of Estamos.'

Voice 1 In 2008, Santos received an award for his sanitation work in Mozambique. The award was the Goldman Prize. The idea of this prize is to recognize environmental heroes at the community level. Santos and Estamos have helped thousands of people in hundreds of villages get clean water and sanitation.

Voice 2 It is hard work being a local health worker by day and a singer by night! But Santos and his music group are not strangers to difficulties. They have lived through sixteen years of war in Mozambique. In fact, the name of their music group comes from these experiences. After the war, the group saw that people were hungry for something to heal their crushed spirits. They wanted their music to provide some of this healing. And so they named their group Massukos - the name of a local fruit. This fruit is full of liquid, and tasty to eat. It helps satisfy a hungry mouth! Santos hopes their music will do the same for people's minds and spirits. He said:

Voice 3 'People need this music. So when their spirit is hungry, they will come to it.'

Summary:

Activity 2: Look unknown Words and Write Synonyms

I explained teachers a little bit about this theme. Then, I gave them the context of the composition and I asked to look for 20 unknown words. Teachers had to find the meaning of these ones in the dictionary English - English and write synonyms of each of them.

	Word	Synonym
Voice 1	-----	_____
Voice 1	-----	_____
Voice 2	-----	_____

Voice 1	-----	_____
Voice 1	-----	_____
Voice 2	-----	_____
Voice 1	-----	_____
Voice 3	-----	_____
Voice 2	-----	_____
Voice 1	-----	_____
Voice 3	-----	_____
Voice 2	-----	_____
Voice 1	-----	_____
Voice 1	-----	_____
Voice 2	-----	_____
Voice 3	-----	_____
Voice 1	-----	_____
Voice 1	-----	_____
Voice 1	-----	_____

Activity 3: True or False

I asked teachers to write T (True) or F (False) according to the statements:

- 1) Do they move their bodies to the strong music beats? ()
- 2) Feliciano dos Santos may not have travelled the world: ()
- 3) Does the disease invade a person's nervous system? ()
- 4) Is Santos part of the music group Nirvana? ()
- 5) Does the song encourage people to wash their hands after they go to the toilet? ()
- 6) Does not Mozambique have severe health issues such as malaria, meningitis, typhoid, death of babies? ()
- 7) Does not a bamboo house protect the eco-san toilet from the hot sun? ()
- 8) Does Santos explain that after six months, the ash turns the human waste into a natural fertilizer? ()
- 9) Is human waste is good as a fertilizer because it contains bacteria and other organisms? ()

10) Does Santos write songs about sanitation, HIV and how to prevent it? ()

TEST FOR TEACHERS

Name:

Course:

***ANSWER THESE QUESTIONS ACCORDING TO THE TOPICS
THAT WERE ANALYZED IN THIS WEEK:**

**1) Read the next paragraph and write the main idea and three
support ideas:**

Voice 1 Since the beginning of time, one animal has amazed humans. This animal sings beautiful songs. It lives on every continent of the planet. It comes in many different sizes and colors. Its form suggested new technologies to human inventors - like airplanes. What animal is it? It is the bird. But life is not always easy for these winged creatures. And people are often to blame.

Voice 2 Birds are amazing animals, but bird populations are very sensitive. Many things can affect them. And for the past fifty years, populations of birds in many areas have been growing smaller. Some scientists have said that up to twelve percent of bird species are in danger of dying off. This means that many kinds of birds may soon disappear

MI:

.....

SI:

SI:

SI:

2) Getting the Meaning from the context

a) Toyohiko Kagawa was a pacifist. He believed that people should be **peaceful** and not use violence.

1) Interesting

2) Passive

3) Happy

b) Police and guards **surrounded** the factory with guns and swords

1) Analyzed

2) Ensured

3) Encircled

c) On December 7th, 1941, the Japanese **bombed** Pearl Harbor

1) Attacked

2) Made

3) Participated

d) People said that Kagawa was **betraying** his country

1) Preparing

2) Reading

3) Revealing

e) All of these books, except my poems, were **banned**

1) Read

2) Forbidden

3) Cut

3) Find 4 Adjectives in the following text and write 4 sentences with their antonyms:

Two long, red pieces cloth hang down the center of the performance area. Two people dance together between them. They climb and move on the cloth. They turn and hang in the air. This dance takes place both on the ground and in the air. But there is something different about the female dancer. She does not look like most other dancers. She has no legs!

Adjectives**Sentences with Antonyms**

4) Read the next text and answer true or false according to the statement:

Make Music. Make Health

Voice 1 Crowds of people gather. The hot sun shines on the dusty earth. There is a sense of excitement in the air. The people stand in a circle, watching with wonder. In the middle of the circle, music players sing and play their guitars. They move their bodies to the strong music beats. The people are watching a musician, Feliciano dos Santos! He is playing with his music group Massukos. It is a famous group - especially in Mozambique! And today they are visiting an area in the far north of Mozambique - Niassa. Only one dirt road connects Niassa to the rest of the country! The people here are poor and live in difficult conditions. There is not much to bring popular music groups to Niassa!

So what brings Feliciano dos Santos here?

- 1) Does the hot sun shine on the dusty earth? ()
- 2) Do the people sit in a circle watching with wonder? ()

- 3) Do soccer players sing and play their guitars? ()
- 4) Are Massukos visiting an area in the far north of Mozambique – Niassa today? ()
- 5) Does only one dirt road connect Niassa to the rest of the country? ()

6) WORKING CALENDAR

October 12 – October 16 2009

Theme: Thecniques to reduce interference by improving Sintactic and Semantic Structures
General Objective: Develop writing strategies for teachers in order to reinforce grammar structures and vocabulary with their students by reducing interference.

Specific Objectives	Strategies	Activities	Resources	Time	Day
1) Recognize the English Grammar Structure	Develop listening, speaking & writing skills	Free Writing, Listen & Talk, Compare the heard & answer the questions.	Article, Cd taped, performed by Native English Speakers	90 minutes for the three activities	12-Oct
2) Apply the English Grammar Structures	Develop listening, writing & reading skills	Read & Write, Getting Meaning from the context, Find Adj & Write Antonyms	Article	90 minutes for the three activities	13-Oct
3) Analyze written dialogues	Develop writing, speaking & reading skills	Encircle, underline & rewrite; Unscramble sentences; Compare & Write right sentences	Article	90 minutes for the three activities	14-Oct
4) Develop logical statements by minimizing interference.	Develop listening, writing & reading skills	Listen & Write, Look unknown words & Write Synonyms, True or False	Article, Cd taped, performed by Native English Speakers	90 minutes for the three activities	15-Oct
Evaluation	Evaluation	Evaluation	Evaluation	90 minutes for the four activities	16-Oct

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ANNEXES

