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LEXICAL ERRORS THAT STUDENTS
FROM JUNIORS 1B OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF PIURA MAKE
BECAUSE OF THE INFLUENCE OF
THEIR MOTHER TONGUE

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**LEXICAL ERRORS THAT JUNIORS STUDENTS FROM LEVEL 1B
MAKE BECAUSE OF THE INFLUENCE OF THEIR MOTHER
TONGUE**



**UNIVERSIDAD DE PIURA
FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN
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APPROVAL

The thesis titled *"Lexical errors that students from Juniors 1b of the University of Piura make because of the influence of their mother tongue"* presented by Rosa Guiuliana Mayo Chinga in accordance with the requirements of being awarded the Licensed Degree of Educational Sciences with a concentration in English language, was approved by the thesis director: Ángela Tejada Celi (M.A.Ed.) and defended on before a jury with the following members:

President

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DEDICATION

To God, for his love, protection and the strength and opportunity he gave me to continue improving my career path.

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INTRODUCTION

The notion of learners' errors has passed through different perspectives: from "a symptom of ineffective teaching" according to Behaviourists, to a process considered as "learning steps" (Torijano, 2004). The latter refers that errors are now a proof that real learning takes place through them, meaning that they are no longer considered as something that should be avoided or eradicated.

As errors are now a normal consequence of the learning process, the study of them was an interesting topic for us, and the reason to start a research that involves our students' learning process in order to discover what causes errors, so we can help them improve or avoid certain errors before they can even take place.

Based on our teaching experience, everything that students bring to the learning process affects it. Every factor of the second language learners' environment influences language learning such as the kind of input the students receive since it is vital for their progress. Another well-known factor is their mother tongue.

Mother tongue influence is a factor that causes errors in students' output. We consider beginners to be strongly connected to their first language, and therefore, they will become potential learners who might make more errors of this type.

Regarding the importance mother tongue has in students avoiding or making a certain type of mistake, which is the lexical one, we have

decided to conduct a study to explain some of these errors starter students make, with the aim to help future investigations on this field of study.

This study has four chapters. In the first chapter, we are going to explain the reasons why we are carrying out this study as well as its objectives, which are describing and analyzing our students' lexical errors.

In the second chapter, we are going to provide a theoretical framework to make the study easier to understand. Within the topics, a summary and explanations of Second Language Acquisition, factors that influence the learning of a second language, as well as the writing process are included.

In the third chapter, referring to the investigation methodology, we are going to present a general matrix of lexical errors which was used to explain the procedure for selecting our students' errors made by the influence of their mother tongue in order to analyze and categorize them according to their nature. Action plan charts are going to be explained as well as the instruments and techniques we used.

It is important to highlight that the application of diagnostic written exams based on our students' knowledge was crucial to get our students' errors.

Finally in the fourth chapter we are going to account for the conclusions, results and some recommendations of this study.

To conclude, the aim of this study is to help teachers understand the students' errors made by one of the factors that students bring: the negative influence of their mother tongue. Through the analysis of those errors, future researchers as well as classroom teachers can implement a pedagogical plan to avoid specific potential errors of starter and beginner students.

CHAPTER I

INVESTIGATION APPROACH

THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1. Problem description

English is the most spoken language around the world. According to the website Ethnologue, Languages of the world (2011), there are a total of 942,533,930 speakers, that is the reason why English is the preferred language to be learned. There are a lot of people who want to enjoy the benefits that speaking English carries.

There are some people who decide to study this language because they find it easier than others and one reason is a type of intelligence called Verbal- Linguistic, proposed by Gardner (1983). But, at some point in language learning, every learner would struggle with a specific topic of the language, it could be verb tenses, pronunciation of specific patterns such as the schwa sound, spelling mistakes and so on.

One of the reasons these problems arise is the influence of their mother tongue, in this case Spanish.

Learners tend to make a lot of mistakes in getting the right word in writing as well as speaking the language, and it is due to a lack of vocabulary and the influence of the Spanish language. Learners tend to resort to their mother tongue as a source of help and they come up with a new word, which is totally incorrect, to avoid silences in their speech or

to not leave blank spaces in their writings. Sometimes they use Spanish words to finish their productions. That's how we might find texts like these:

(1) *I have bad 'notes'.*

Or

(2) *The Internet has good 'contenin'.*

Or

(3) *When I was six years old I 'conocía' the Internet.*

In the first sentence above, the student uses an existing word in English, but he is not using it in the right context. The student wanted to say that his 'scores' at school aren't good, but he thought that 'scores' ('notas' in Spanish) is translated as 'notes' because of the similarity in morphology between 'notas' and 'notes'.

In the second sentence, the student made up a word based on the existing word in Spanish. He has not yet learned the word 'content' so he made it up.

Finally, in the third example, we can see how students borrow words from Spanish so they do not leave blank spaces.

These types of mistakes are extremely relevant to our study as they are examples of the mistakes our subjects made.

1.2. Problem statement

As we can notice, the acquisition of a second language, is involved in a series of errors to be learned from and one is caused by the influence of the first language (L1) of the learners.

During this investigation, lexical errors in written texts made by the influence of learners' mother tongue, Spanish, in the acquisition of a second language (L2), English, are being considered.

1.3. Justification for the study

Every language learner tends to make errors in their learning process, and avoiding them is crucial to master the language.

According to our field of study, we have selected second language learners, in this case English as a second language learners, to obtain errors in their production.

Regarding our two years of experience teaching English, we have decided to choose the writing skill instead of the speaking skill to be analyzed as we have realized that writing is one of the most problematic aspects when learning a language, since one of the learners' biggest mistake is to translate their writings from L1 to L2, and the ability to think in English when writing is an ability that is not achieved in the beginning of the learning process. Moreover, identifying written mistakes is easier than identifying mistakes in oral productions, especially if our subjects are starter students who are not used to producing oral texts, but short sentences in their second language.

We have also noticed that students tend to make different errors while writing such as: coherence, cohesion and word arrangement errors as well as spelling and lexical ones. But we preferred to choose only one type of error that students make while writing, so we did this investigation based on the lexical errors that are caused by the negative influence of the students' mother tongue because we have agreed that vocabulary errors of this type can lead to confusion, such as the ones we explained in the Problem description, and are frequently made among learners and could last in the learners' mind for a long time if they are not amended soon.

Finally, we have decided to conduct this investigation because it has important information for future research. This information is useful for teachers of the starter level from Juniors classes at Udep or any other teacher who teaches starter or basic levels because it shows which lexical errors starter students tend to make as well as the reasons why they make them, and therefore elaborate pedagogical activities to apply with their students in order to avoid the same type of errors.

1.4. Objectives

1.4.1. General objective

- Describe the lexical errors learners, from Juniors 1b of the University of Piura, make because of the influence of their mother tongue (Spanish).

1.4.2. Specific objectives

- Identify the types of lexical errors learners, from Juniors 1b of the University of Piura, make through the application of diagnostic written exams.
- Analyze the information obtained to categorize it into the types of lexical errors established: false cognates, coinages, calques and borrowings.

1.5. Background

1.5.1. Previous research based on the lexical errors English learners make

Marin (2013), "Análisis y Diagnóstico de Errores en Estudiantes de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera", published in the Brazilian magazine *Educação e Formação*.

The purpose of this article is to give the definition, description, categorization and diagnosis of errors to determine the level of the learners of English as a second language.

Marin (2013) investigates the errors in all their dimensions: spelling, punctuation, lexical, grammatical, syntax, and so on. In terms of lexical errors made by the influence of L1, he categorizes them in: false cognates, calques, borrowings and coinages. He also gives a wide explanation of the reasons of those errors and recommends not to check students' mistakes as soon as they make them, but to let themselves or their peers do it.

This investigation has taken some aspects that Marin as well as Carrió (2004) included in their publications such: the

categorization of the lexical errors made by the influence of the learners' mother tongue. Carrió's study (2004), is based on errors that foreign writers make on English scientific writings. There he determines the causes of these, by analyzing thirty articles written by Spanish researchers for international magazines. The aim of the article is also to determine the influences and reasons of the mistakes made, and the lexical aspects that should be reinforced.

A third investigation that contributes to our study belongs to Fernández (2006), with his book *Análisis de errores léxicos, morfosintácticos y gráficos en la lengua escrita de los aprendices polacos de español*.

The purpose of this book is to give a description of linguistics errors that Polish students from three different levels make on written texts. He also investigates the importance of the errors found, their origins and how to avoid them, giving pedagogical solutions, in order to help teachers with their materials when it comes to teaching. This research explains the sample compositions Polish learners wrote, as they were merely topics to write about, without the aim of making problems for the learners. Based on those characteristics, this investigation is relevant to us because this idea of choosing topics with the objective of making students write as much as they can without focusing on the mistakes they could make, was the basis for us to choose the topics, so our students could focus on writing.

CHAPTER II THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

2.1.1 Concept

We refer to it as the acquisition of a new language different from the first one.

Acquiring a language means being able to use it naturally for communicative purposes, and this is what every child does with their first language: mastering it.

But when it comes to acquiring a second language, some researchers make a distinction between the verbs "acquire" and "learn". Those authors say that acquisition involves an unconscious process while learning involves a conscious process. This difference is a theory of SLA proposed by Krashen (2009), which we are going to explain widely later.

This distinction seems to lie in the place where people learn a language: we acquire our first language because we are exposed to it every day and there is no chance not to acquire the new patterns we listen to. On the other hand we learn a second language because we have an intention to do it; and it happens in the majority of cases, in a classroom.

So, our concern is if our students will be able to acquire a language because of the fact that they are in a classroom with the objective to learn it.

Because of the different social environments in which every learner might be immersed when learning a second language, students have different contexts in which they learn the language.

In this research our subjects learn their second language, English, in a foreign environment, but it does not mean that every word they learn they do intentionally. There are some words and phrases they acquire because of the interaction with their classmates and the teacher.

Our objective is to lead our students to use the language naturally, and we are aware of the time it takes until learners can communicate effectively. To sum up, because of the nature of this study, SLA means the acquisition of a second language in a foreign environment.

2.1.2. Theories

SLA hypotheses are considered in the following study since they explain the factors involved in learning a second language (L2), in this case, English; and therefore help us understand our students' learning process.

The following hypotheses are based on Krashen's theory of SLA (Krashen, 2009; Krashen, 2013):

2.1.2.1. The acquisition – Learning Hypothesis

As we have briefly explained before, there is a difference between learning and acquiring, and Krashen explains it widely.

Krashen states that there are two different ways of developing ability in an L2, through learning it and through acquiring it.

This distinction is what Krashen (2009) has called "the most fundamental of all the hypotheses" (p. 13).

Regarding this hypothesis, it is important to know what the difference between Language acquisition and Language learning is.

Language acquisition takes place through a subconscious process. The learners do not realize that in fact they are learning new patterns and rules, but they do realize that they are using an L2 to communicate. This process is similar to what children do when they are acquiring their first language (L1). Parents do not explain the present simple or the past simple, the children acquire them through context, repetition and because their parents correct some of their errors. In this case, students who are acquiring an L2 have a "feeling" for correctness; they feel that a sentence sounds "right" or "wrong".

On the other hand, language learning takes place in a learning environment and it is a conscious process. The learners know they are learning an L2 and they make an effort to do their best. This process happens inside a classroom, so when they are learning the language they are learning new rules and patterns consciously and whenever they make a mistake they change their conscious version of the rule for the correct one.

As a result of the distinction between learning and acquisition, Krashen proposes his theory of SLA, resulting in his four other hypotheses.

2.1.2.2. The monitor hypothesis

The monitor hypothesis proposed by Krashen is one of the five hypotheses that explains how Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is developed; and it comes from the distinction between "Acquisition" and "Learning" explained above.

In this hypothesis, language acquisition and language learning are met in the process of developing an L2. It means that language acquisition does not only happen for children and language learning for adults, but they interact when talking about second language performance.

According to Krashen (2013), the ability to produce language fluently and easily is caused by what students have acquired (Language Acquisition) and the ability to edit that output is caused by the rules that students have consciously learned (Language Learning).

When we are about to say something in another language, the sentence pops into our mind, thanks to our subconsciously acquired competence. Then just before we actually produce the sentence, just before we say it, we scan it internally, inspect it, and use our consciously learned system to correct errors. Sometimes we realize that something we said is incorrect using the conscious Monitor (Krashen, 2013, p. 2).

We are going to explain what the conscious Monitor is. The Monitor is the consciously learned language, whose role is to correct the students' output. The Monitor works with the unconscious language to develop mastery in second language.

So, the learned system as well as the acquired system are important to achieve the SLA, but we enquire which one is more important or which one teachers should pay more attention to.

Based on Krashen's theory, acquisition and learning coexist in every learner, so both are important to get the language competence.

Researchers agree that students can use the monitor more when they are taking tests than when they are talking to a friend about a specific topic. What matters is why this happens.

It is very difficult to use the monitor. To do it successfully, Krashen (2013) has proposed three stringent conditions:

1. **The monitor user must know the rule.** This is very difficult to reach since linguistics have not described all the rules of a language yet; owing to this, authors of grammar texts know fewer rules than linguistics, so they write down only the rules they know. On account of this, language teachers teach only some of the grammar rules that are on texts. Moreover, students tend to forget easily some rules or they just can't use all the rules they know because they are complicated for them.
2. **The acquirer must be thinking about correctness, or focused on form.** It is difficult to think on what you are saying and how you are saying it in order to correct yourself at the same time.
3. **The acquirer must have time.** Regular conversation does not provide sufficient time to monitor. Only advanced acquirers can monitor, but not all their production, just a specific grammar rule. Advanced students have acquired a lot of basic grammar rules, so they just produce what they have stored.

On the other hand, learners who have special interests in the rules can take some time to monitor their speech.

In real conversations, it is hard to focus on errors mainly because the other person is trying to get the final message instead of identifying the errors made.

On the other hand, it is more feasible to imagine a learner using his/ her monitor when he is on a written or oral exam because then he is going to be evaluated.

Fernández (2006) emphasizes that we also need to keep in mind that learners use the monitor depending on their level

of cognitive development, age, personality and task completion. This will also vary if we are talking about a second or a first language. The use of the monitor will be more important in the former one.

Since the students in this research are children learning an L2, they will use their monitor more in the English class than in other Spanish classes because they have less time developing English than Spanish; and as a consequence they have less acquired words and rules to monitor later. This proves that the use of the monitor depends on the students' cognitive development and whether they are using it for first or second language.

We can also predict the order of students' grammatical structures. This is widely explained in the following Krashen's hypothesis.

2.1.2.3. The natural order hypothesis

"We acquire (not learn) the parts of a language in a predictable order. The order is not exact. Not every acquirer proceeds in exactly the same order. But the variation among acquirers is not extreme" (Krashen, 2013, p. 1-2).

Krashen says that there are some grammatical items that are acquired earlier than others and it is not due to the difficulty of them. There are some grammatical items that appear to be difficult for some linguistics, but they are acquired early by the students. For example, the –ing marker is acquired first than the third person singular –s.

This can be a problem to curriculum designers, who present rules from simple to complex.

In a compilation of Krashen made by the University of Southern California (2009), Krashen presents the following chart.

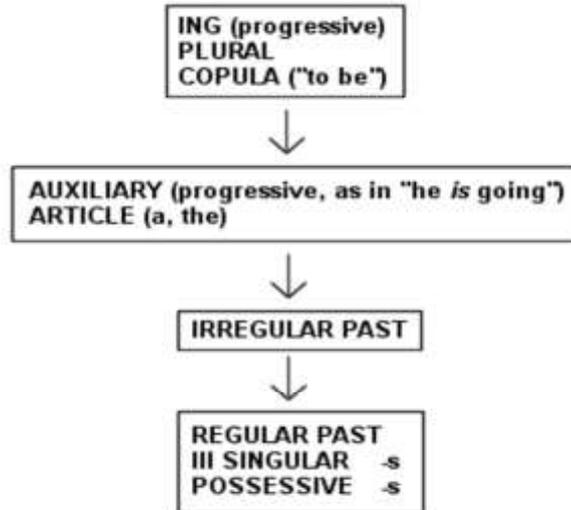


Chart N°1: "Average" order of acquisition of grammatical morphemes for English as a second language (children and adults) (Source: Krashen 2009, p. 13)

Krashen's work also says that the natural order cannot be changed. It means that teachers cannot switch the way students acquire a language by giving explanations, exercises and drills. A student will acquire a specific morpheme when he or she is ready to do it.

All of this can cause problems for teachers who need to work with a syllabus given by the council of the school, university or language center; or they need to follow the topics given in the book. We believe that teachers must try every possible strategy to get the students to understand and achieve the proposed goals. We also believe that this will highly depend on the students' willingness to learn.

2.1.2.4. The input hypothesis

This hypothesis, according to Krashen (2013), is the centerpiece of Language Acquisition Theory, because it attempts to answer the question: How do we develop a language?

We have stated the idea that learners develop language skills through what they receive, in other words, through input. But do learners acquire everything they hear or see? Krashen establishes a notion: comprehensible input or $i+1$.

What Hatch (quoted by Krashen, 2009) stated is what teachers have thought for many years:

Our assumption has been that we first learn structures, then practice using them in communication, and this is how fluency develops. The input hypothesis says the opposite. It says we acquire by "going for meaning" first, and as a result, we acquire structure (p. 21).

The process of "acquiring a structure" depends on the correct input given, in other words, "comprehensible input".

Let us point out what comprehensible input is.

According to Krashen (2009) this input must be interesting and comprehensible. "We acquire, in other words, only when we understand language that contains structure that is a little beyond where we are now" (p. 21).

We think that the notion of comprehensible input clarifies that teachers have the task to provide the right input for their students in order to learn. This is important since this hypothesis sets teachers as probably being responsible for avoiding students' mistakes. We also believe that the amount of mistakes students tend to make, are due to other factors that influence students' second language acquisition and which we are going to explain next.

2.1.2.5. The affective filter hypothesis

This theory explains that there are affective factors that influence on comprehensible input.

If the student has no confidence or if he is anxious, the affective filter will block the input and therefore he will not understand it completely.

Our concern is what those affective variables are. Krashen (2009) has mentioned four factors that can influence the SLA:

- **Motivation.** We refer to motivation as having an inner or external desire to have the ability to speak an L2. Highly motivated students do it better than low motivated students.

- **Attitude.** We refer to attitude as one's behavior towards something or someone.
We think that the attitude students have towards English would be reflected on their language performance. If the students have a positive attitude towards English, then they would enjoy learning the language because they think that English is important. On the other hand, students who have a negative attitude towards English, they would not like to learn the language because they have the idea that English is difficult or boring.
We have to say that the way students behave towards learning the language is connected to previous ideas and opinions about English.

- **Anxiety.** We refer to anxiety as the state of feeling worry about uncertain future events; and this happens when a student thinks he/she is not fully proficient or he/ she cannot do it. Anxiety is related to students' performances. Horwitz (1986) has described three types of foreign language classroom anxiety:
 - **Communication Apprehension (CA).** It is the level of anxiety a student feels because of real or anticipated communication with another person. Some personality traits such as quietness, shyness, and reticence tend to precipitate CA.

- Test Anxiety. It is a psychological condition in which students feel distress after, during and/or after an exam; and it causes poor performance. Anxiety can be caused by: (1) Prior negative experience, (2) Worrying about how anxiety will affect, (3) Lack of preparation. (4) Poor time management, (5) Poor study habits, and (6) Lack of organization.
- Fear of negative evaluation. Students are concerned about others' opinions on their test performance and results. They want to cause proper social impression.

We share Horwitz's view about the previous types of anxiety but we also believe that they happen in any learning situation.

- Self-confidence. We assume that this is the most important affective variable. Students who trust in themselves succeed more because they like to take challenges and to use the language they are learning with no fear; and as a consequence, they practice the language more. The results are students with language proficiency.

All the affective variables explained above can prevent or facilitate the input to the language acquisition device.

Krashen (2013) highlights that every learner can receive the same comprehensible input, but their pace of learning is not the same. It means that acquiring the language depends on different factors such as the ones we have just explained and those factors would be in different quantity in every learner.

2.1.3. Factors that influence SLA

We believe it is important to know what factors (internal and external) influence our students' process of developing ability in an L2 since they will help us explain what causes our subjects to make errors, and also clarifies why we have selected just a group of subjects from the same level of English.

2.1.3.1 Internal factors

2.1.3.1.1 Age

The different ages in which students start learning an L2 influence their performances and process of learning.

There are several authors interested in the relation between the age and the proficiency in learning an L2. We are going to cite some of them.

Ellis (1994) explained that learners who start learning an L2 after puberty are unlikely to acquire a native speaker accent, but they can understand grammar and make proper relationships with the schemata of their L1. On the other hand, young learners are more susceptible to achieve mastery in the language with native accent. Let us point out why this distinction happens.

We have heard that children are superior to adults when it comes to learning a Second Language and this is due to the "Critical Period Hypothesis" (CPH).

This hypothesis was first established to explain how babies learn their mother tongue, but then research extended the concept for acquiring second languages.

This hypothesis says that there is an ideal period to acquire second languages so it is linked to a certain age. The Critical period will be the first years of a person's life.

Larsen – Freeman & Long quoted by Bista (2008) provided a better definition of CPH,

The Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) suggests that a period of time, between birth and somewhere around the age when a child enters puberty, exists in which the learning a second language can be accomplished more rapidly and easily than times falling outside of this period i.e. post puberty (p. 3).

We enquire if CPH determines the acquisition of a second language in all students and if adult learners have to resign themselves to speak a non-native accent of English; and if younger learners will do it better than them.

There are some authors that support the CPH while there are others that do not agree with that hypothesis based on their teaching experiences.

Bista (2008) described what other researchers have also researched about the topic.

For example, Johnson and Newport selected 46 Chinese and Korean people. They were grouped according to their age. The first group was between three to fifteen years old, and the other group was between seventeen and thirty nine years old. They were tested in rules of English on morphology and syntax. The result was that the second group did not have native - like language abilities.

Another research was made by Susan Oyama (1976). She studied 60 male Italian immigrants who started living in the USA at ages among six and twenty. The immigrants were tested in listening skills and American accent. She concluded that immigrants who started learning English before age 11 showed good comprehension skills, similar to native speakers.

On the other hand there are some researchers that support "the older = the better"

For example, Ashor and Price (1967) used 96 students from different grades to test in Russian language after three short trainings in which none of the students had previous knowledge of Russian. The result was that higher grades performed better than lower grades.

Singlenton (2003) has thought of three commonly advanced views based on the different perspectives with regard to CPH:

- after a certain maturational point the L2 learner is no longer capable of attaining native-like levels of proficiency;
- after a certain maturational point successful L2 learning requires markedly more effort than before this point; and
- after a certain maturational point L2 learning is no longer subserved by the same mechanisms that subserve child language acquisition (p. 8).

We think that the statements above do not determine our students' success since we have previously stated that there are other factors that might influence their progress such as the affective factors as well as cognitive level.

2.1.3.1.2. Aptitude

We refer to aptitude as innate abilities that people are born with. Regarding SLA, there are some students that have an aptitude to learn languages. We know that because of the Multiple Intelligences proposed by Gardner in 1983.

Students with language aptitude tend to succeed in learning a second language, although it does not mean that only students with language aptitude can learn a new language; in fact everybody can learn a second language but students with that ability differ from the others in terms of ease and speed.

There are two types of tests that measure language aptitude in students.

The language Learning and Testing Foundation explains the topic in its website: <http://lltf.net/aptitude-tests/what-is-language-aptitude/>

DR. John B. Carroll, conducted a five-year research in the 1950s to investigate language aptitude and how it could be measured. He concluded that the ability of language

learning is composed by four abilities apart from motivation and verbal intelligence.

- a) Phonemic coding ability: It is the ability to identify different sounds. Encode and decode different sounds.
- b) Grammatical Sensitivity: It is the ability to recognize the functions of different words in sentences.
- c) Inductive learning ability: It is the ability to deduce rules of a language from given sentences.
- d) Rote learning ability: It is the ability to remember associations between words and phrases in L1 and L2.

Carroll designed the Modern Language Aptitude Test to measure these four abilities.

DR. Paul Pimsleur was also a researcher who designed the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery; but this test was based on two main factors of language aptitude including motivation and study habits this time.

These components are:

- a) Verbal Ability: It is the ability to learn structures of a foreign language.
- b) Auditory Ability: It is the ability to hear and recognize sounds in a foreign language.

"Language aptitude in conjunction with motivation is a powerful factor in language learning (...) It is more important than contextual factors, which include teaching method, textbook used or teacher quality" (American Educational Research Association quoted by Language Learning and Testing Foundation, 2014).

We agree with this statement, and we also want to add that "motivation" depends on the teachers' role, too. Students' willingness to learn depends on their experiences while learning the language and the teachers' role is one of the factors in the students' learning environment.

2.1.3.1.3. Sex

Whether the learner is a boy or a girl, researchers have found that gender is another factor that we have to keep in mind since there are opposite views regarding who does it better, women or men.

In fact, we believe that both learners can do it well, and therefore master the language, but they differ in some specific abilities. Based on biological researchers, women can do it better in some of the four abilities that require learning English (writing, speaking, listening and reading) and men in others.

Biologically, the brain of a woman and a man functions in different ways. Researchers say that women tend to use both hemispheres of their brain; that's why women may be better communicators than men. They are also good at verbal, hearing and expression and their verbal expression ability and auditory perception are stronger than men, who use more their left hemisphere so they are better at motor skills than women. We assume that in this case, women have more opportunities to speak and practice the language since they have the need to talk.

According to some researchers women can memorize short term events better than men, so it is a great advantage when it comes to learning a second language because learning a second language demands a great effort to memorize new patterns, vocabulary, etc. (Wang, 2015). So, women can deal better with this fact than men.

In terms of differences in IQ, we have kept in mind that there are types of intelligences, and learning an L2 is connected to verbal intelligence. This type of intelligence does not discriminate among women or men, so a woman can do it as well as a man because of her ability in learning an L2.

There are also some medical researches that have studied how the brain of a woman and the brain of a man works differently.

Bryant, quoted by Wang (2015), explains that men have strong visual and spatial perception; and women have a great auditory perception of voice recognition and positioning, so women can get better results in listening comprehension.

Notwithstanding the biological sources, we strongly believe, based on our teaching experience, that there are some men that can have better results in listening comprehension or they can talk more accurately than some girls and this happens because of motivation, self- confidence, attitude, etc.

2.1.3.1.4 Motivation

Motivation is another factor that determines students' success since it is the proof to know if a student has a reason to learn the language.

It is a term used for many educational researchers and it is important to investigate what moves some students to learn another language.

Teachers are also interested in knowing what makes students learn a second language; and what makes others reject it; whereof they can find the core of many students' success or failure and therefore reverse it.

According to Gardner and Lambert (1972) there are two types of motivation:

- a) Integrative: Students who want to learn an L2 because they want to be part of the new community.
It is the case of a person who starts living in a foreign language and desires to learn the language to feel part of the community and be part of it.

- b) Instrumental: It is focused more on utilitarian aspects. For example, the learner has a desire to learn L2 because it is a mean to a more general objective for the learner. For example, a student studies English to get a promotion in his/ her job.

On the other hand, according to Gardner, there are also two types of motivation: language learning motivation and classroom learning motivation.

Language learning motivation is considered "not to be a trait, as some individuals contend, but it is a general characteristic of the individual that applies to any opportunity to learn the language" (Gardner, 2006, p. 2).

Classroom learning motivation, "refers to the motivation in the classroom situation, or in any specific situation. The focus is on the individuals' perception of the task at hand, and is largely state oriented" (Gardner, 2006, p. 3). This type of motivation is clearly influenced by many factors such as: the teacher, the class atmosphere, the course content, materials and facilities, and the characteristics of students.

We support the idea that any type of motivation the students have, the teachers' role is to raise their students' level of willingness to learn the language.

2.1.3.1.5. Learning strategy

Learning strategies are the strategies a student thinks of in order to learn a specific subject or topic easily and faster. These strategies vary from student to student since everybody has his own way of learning (learning style). The choice of learning strategies will depend on the learners' personality, type of intelligence and cognitive style.

We are going to state how relevant learning strategies are to our study.

According to Nisbet and Shucksmith (1986) "learning strategies are the processes that serve as the base for the accomplishment of intellectual tasks" (p. 45).

We can say that learning strategies have an important role in learning how to write in SLA: teaching learning strategies to our students has a great significance since L2 students need to know which processes to follow in order to master the writing ability in second language. The processes that need to be taught are: self- questioning, self- diagnosis and self- correctness. It means that our students need to do the same tasks that we, as teachers, do in order to detect their errors and be able to correct them. Thus, we will be helping our students become autonomous learners.

Furthermore, teachers need to teach the writing process (planning, drafting, editing and the final version) so students can accomplish the tasks accurately.

In this research, teaching the writing process was not one of the principal aims because, as we specified in chapter 1, the main objective of this investigation is identifying lexical errors, which has to do with the vocabulary/ lexical knowledge of our students; in that way we wanted our students to feel free when it comes to writing. As a consequence, we developed the idea: writing without thinking about the errors you are making.

Finally, we strongly believe that the learning of strategies is important to develop skills and abilities among our students and teaching them is crucial to reach this objective.

Identifying lexical errors could be the first step to make our students improve their second language skills, since the layout of the writings is as important as the content of it.

2.1.3.1.6. Personality

We refer to personality as the different patterns a person has that make him/ her unique. It means that they think and behave differently.

This means that two students cannot think the same or act the same; every student carries with him / her a way of reacting, behaving, wishing, manners to the learning process and those characteristics would affect the students' second language acquisition.

There are some personality characteristics that affect L2 learning:

a) Extroversion vs. Introversion:

The Indian Network for Health describes Extroverts and Introverts. They say extroverts tend to be social, practical, appear affectionate, informal, are good conversationalists, active and lively.

On the other hand, introverts prefer to remain isolated or in the company of very few people and they are more prone to thinking.

There are opposite views that explain that each type of personality might do it better than the other one when learning a second language.

Eysenck says that extroverts are disadvantaged learners compared with introverts because of several neuro-chemical phenomena in the human brain.

But many SLA theorists disagree with him. They say that extroverts are capable to learn a second language because of the characteristics of their personality.

We believe that because extroverts are social people, they can get involved in speaking activities easily, they can get a great amount of input and produce output. In this way, they can practice the target language (L2).

b) Self-esteem:

We refer to self- esteem as a belief in oneself, a belief to be able to do something.

This confidence is expressed in students' attitudes. In other words, if the students feel capable of doing a specific activity, they will do it and the results will be excellent, but if they do not feel capable, then that lack of confidence will be reflected on their bad results.

When this confidence is low, then it turns into a low self-esteem; and when the person has great confidence in him/herself, then we are talking about a high self-esteem.

Rubio (2007) explains that low self-esteem in students learning a second language is a big problem. Because it leads to avoid taking risks to acquire communicative competence and then they just drop out of the class.

We think that self-esteem affects every learning aspect of our life; not only learning a second language.

c) Inhibition:

"Inhibition is the set of defenses an individual builds to protect himself/herself" (Zafar and Meenakshi, 2012, p. 643).

Brown (2001) proposed the term Language Ego and he explains it as a new way of thinking, feeling, acting; in other words, a new identity that second language learners develop when they are learning a new language. He also argues that this new language ego intertwined with the second language learning creates a sense of defensiveness.

It is also considered to be an obstacle in the process of second language acquisition because the ego inhibits the process of making mistakes and learning; it also seems to be an insult and retreat the process (Zafar and Meenakshi, 2012).

We also think that inhibition is a negative factor that influences second language acquisition because it leads the student not to talk, to feel embarrassed if he/she makes a mistake. Therefore, it makes the student not to practice the language so, he/she will not get the language competence.

d) Risk- taking:

Risk-taking affects positively to Second Language Acquisition since it is the characteristic of a student who has to take risks without feeling fear to fail. It is more connected to speaking activities. Students are willing to participate in class putting into practice what they have acquired.

If risk- taking is a positive factor, we wonder what makes some students not to take risks.

We agree that personality is one reason but it also has to do with feeling comfortable with the learning environment the students are immersed. Some students do not take risks because of their partners' attitude towards them whenever their answer is wrong or they mispronounce a word, they have to deal with their partners' laugh or their teachers' reproach. In this case, we think teachers should cooperate in increasing students' level of risk- taking, so they would have more opportunities to practice the language and also, teachers should be able to establish a good learning environment in which the learners feel comfortable to participate.

e) Anxiety

We refer to anxiety as a state of worry for the uncertain future.

Hatfield (2015) explains the differences between the two types of anxiety proposed by Spielberger in the website *Livestrong*.

- State anxiety: it is a temporary condition. The student only perceives this in a specific situation, for assessments, talking time, etc. Something that represents a threatening situation.
- Trait anxiety: it is a permanent characteristic of a person. He/ She experiences state anxiety in almost every occasion and with a higher degree.

Researchers have also classified anxiety in terms of its usefulness to SLA:

- Debilitative Anxiety (harmful anxiety)
- Facilitative Anxiety (helpful anxiety)

Facilitative anxiety is a useful anxiety because it keeps you alert not to fail in your learning process (Brown, 2000 cited by Zafar and Meenakshi, 2012).

We suggest that it is important for teachers to have in mind that anxiety causes bad effects in SLA, as we have previously mentioned in the Affective Filter Hypothesis. For example: there are students that feel anxious when they are evaluated or when they are going to express their thoughts in front of their partners because they think others would judge them.

2.1.3.1.7 Language transfer

We consider it as the influence of the learners' native language in a second language acquisition.

Language transfer is also known as L1 interference, linguistic interference, cross meaning and cross linguistic influence.

Based on the influence that exerts in Second Language Acquisition, there is positive transfer and negative transfer. Positive transfer occurs when the influence results in correct language production. On the other hand, negative transfer occurs when the influence leads to error.

Influence on SLA is classified in terms of morphology, syntax and phonology.

According to Torijano (2004), language transfer has its origins in the Behaviorism with Skinner's "Verbal Behavior". Behaviorism establishes that learning a new language is a matter of habits formation; it means that learners learn a language by repeating correct phrases or words until they learn them unconsciously.

Hence, if a language is a set of habits, learning a second language will be affected by those habits of the previous language. Language transfer means the interference of existing linguistic knowledge (of the L1 or another well studied language) into the acquisition of another language. (Torijano, 2004)

According to Ellis (1994) Behaviorists say that regarding learning a new language (new habits), the old habits must be unlearned, so they are replaced by the new ones.

Given this point, Baralo (cited by Torijano, 2004) establishes a difference between a learner that learns his first language and a learner that learns a second language. He says that the latter needs to forget the linguistic knowledge of the L1 in order to acquire a new language. We differ from the behaviorists' view since we think that there is some linguistic knowledge that is universal since it helps the learner make connections between what he already knows and the new information.

For this reason, we support the idea that language transfer does not always have a bad influence. There is some linguistic knowledge from L1 that interferes in the L2 learning positively while others affect negatively. To point out, a positive transfer would be the plural formation of nouns as it is the same in English and Spanish. For example, singular nouns in both languages are added '-s' or '-es' to form the plural form. On the other hand, a negative transfer would be the well-known false cognates or false friends. This type of error refers to two words from L1 and L2 that have similarity in morphology but differ in meaning, so this leads to error. For example, in this study, we have identified errors that our students have made. A clear example within this type of error is: bad '*notes*' '*notes*' when the student wanted to say '*bad scores*'. The similarity between the Spanish word '*notas*' and *notes* in English, led the student to make a mistake.

Because of the aim of this study, all the lexical errors that our participants made, due to the influence of their

mother tongue -Spanish- are going to be explained and therefore classified and analyzed in the following chapters.

As a conclusion, we agree with Torijano (2004) who defines language transfer as a strategy that learners use when they do not know a word, phrase or structure because of a lack of knowledge in the target language, so they use existing linguistic knowledge from their L1 as their solely resource. This is mostly used when there are similarities between the two languages (L1 and L2).

2.1.3.2. External Factors

2.1.3.2.1. Input and interaction

We must say that input is crucial in second language learning since it is what learners receive to be acquired.

We consider input as the core of SLA, and its complete and proper acquisition is determined by every factor we have mentioned so far. It means that not everything the learner receives is going to be acquired, that depends on the learner's personality, self-esteem, environment, cognitive level, etc.

Corder (1967) distinguished "input" and "intake". Input is the language a learner is exposed to, and intake is the part of the input which was internalized by the learner. That's why the type of input a learner receives is very crucial in his/her learning process.

Ellis (1994) explains some hypotheses based on input: Input frequency, Ungrammatical Input and Formulaic Speech.

- *Input Frequency*: It says that the more frequency in which input is delivered, the higher probability the learner will notice it; and therefore acquire it. On the other hand, something that is infrequent would be unlikely to be noticed by the learner.

- *Ungrammatical Input*: The fluent use of language is not grammar.
- *Formulaic Speech*: It answers the question: How do learners learn formulas? "Ellis suggested that the formulas are learnt because of the high frequency of certain patterns and routines in the input" (p. 272).

On the other hand, input and interaction are closely related. We consider interaction as the relationship existed between the learner and the teacher.

2.1.3.2.2. Social context

We refer to social context as the environment in which the learners are immersed while learning the language.

This background affects the learner learning process in different rates according to the type of background the students are in. For example, the students' access to different cultural goods such as books, dictionaries, computers; and the learners' relationships with teachers, parents, siblings will have an impact on what and how the learners learn the language (Lopez et al., 2014).

We highlight that the contexts are different in every learning situation.

Pishghadam (2011) points out that teachers need to keep in mind that language instruction must be understood and connected with social class, since it is comprised by the number of close friends, presence of the two parents at home, number of siblings, extracurricular activities, church attendance, etc. All of these factors are connected with the students' academic achievement.

He concluded that students whose social background is connected with poor families and as a consequence present lack of cultural goods, as opposed to the students who belong to a high level of social class, can also have great success in education.

With reference to second language learning, which is what we are mainly concerned with here, we agree with his former point of view because students who belong to a well-educated context have more opportunities to succeed in the language since they have all the materials required compared to those whose poor social class does not permit it.

2.1.3.2.2.1 Natural versus Educational settings

The social context of the students is divided in Natural and Educational settings.

In the natural setting, the learners learn the language through direct communication without having in mind the rules of the language. It is not important to master the language, but to be able to interact with others. We can connect this to the reality of immigrants who usually "pick up" the language and their objective is to be understood rather than speaking grammatically correct.

According to Ellis (2004), formal education takes place in Educational setting. It has an emphasis on the mastery of the subject matter. Knowing the language rules consciously is its objective.

He also explains that Natural setting and Educational setting have a correlation between acquisition and learning, stated by Krashen. The former is related to natural setting since the students learn the language subconsciously through communication; and the latter is related to educational setting because the students learn the language through the attention to linguistic forms.

D' Anglejan (1978), cited by Ellis (1994), has noted that the correlation between educational settings and formal instruction depends on the pedagogical approach. As in the Traditional Approach, in which there is an explicit teaching of the language, learners do not have a lot of opportunities for informal learning since the teachers have the role to correct the students' mistakes in grammar whenever it occurs. On the

other hand, in Innovative Approaches, informal instruction is encouraged.

In conclusion, there is no necessary connection between the settings (natural and educational) and the type of learning (formal and informal) since learners in natural settings can resort to conscious learning to put into practice some specific grammar points; but it may have an influence on the strategy students adopt.

Another assumption is that students who learn the second language in natural setting may have a great possibility to reach higher levels of L2 proficiency than students who learn in an educational context.

To finish, Ellis (1994) points out that the relation between learning outcomes and settings are of doubtful value. He explains that we need to examine what factors within each setting are the most important to succeed in mastering an L2.

Because of what it is said above, we think that motivation and the purpose of learning, are crucial factors that influence on mastering the language. It is important to know what moves the learner to learn the language because there can be learners that can be immersed in a natural setting with all the necessary tools to master the language, but they do not put all their effort to learn the language despite the fact they are in an English speaking country. In that case, those students do not have a strong purpose to learn the language, it could be because their jobs do not require a high level of English.

On the other hand, a learner in an educational setting without as many opportunities as the others can achieve the language competence because, in contrast to the others, he has a strong purpose to do it.

2.1.3.2.2.1.1. Natural contexts

According to Judd (1978), cited by Ellis (1994), there are three types of contexts in natural L2 learning settings: Second language learning in majority language contexts, Second language learning in official language contexts, Second language learning in international contexts.

2.1.3.2.2.1.2. Educational contexts

There are four broad types of educational contexts: Segregation, Mother tongue maintenance, Submersion, and Immersion; and Ellis (1994) considered a fifth type which is the foreign language classroom.

Because of the aim of this research, we are going to consider only one of the types mentioned above.

2.1.3.2.2.1.2.1 The language classroom

Because of the matter of this research, we have considered important to take into account one of the types of Educational context which is the Language classroom. As it is the place where formal education takes place, the factors within them are crucial to understand the learning process.

To give a wider explanation of the language classroom in the English learning process we are going to cite Ellis.

He says that the language classroom is "A setting where the target language is taught as a subject only and is not commonly used as a medium of communication outside the classroom. In this sense it includes both 'foreign' language classrooms (...) and 'second' language classrooms" (Ellis, 1994, p. 227).

In this regard the context of our study belongs to a foreign language classroom because in this country English is not spoken either as a first or second language. Our students are exposed to the language only inside the classrooms.

According to Gardner and Clement (1990), cited by Ellis (1994), there are two contextual aspects that are important in regard to language classroom settings: the learning situation and the level of support of parents.

He explains that in the learning situation, the relationship between teachers and students is crucial, and it depends on the approach that is used. There are two approaches: The traditional and the innovative one. In the case of traditional approaches, the teacher acts as a "knower" and the learner as an "information seeker"; in the case of innovative approach, in which the target language is learned because of social reasons, the teacher is seen as the "producer" or "referee", and the learner as an "actor" or "player".

We prefer the innovative approach as the ideal approach since we support the idea of seeing the learner as the center of his learning process. Despite our belief that the teachers' role is limited in this type of approach, we strongly feel that input is very important, and it is valid enough only if it gets students produce new patterns. We also think that the teachers' role varies depending on the level of the class they are teaching.

Ellis explains that in regard to the influence of parents, this influence is positive if parents monitor the children's curricular activities and if they encourage their learning.

2.1.4. Similarities between English and Spanish

From our point of view, the reason why students make mistakes in learning English might be because of the similarities between the two languages. Students tend to make mistakes since

they think some aspects of the second language as well as some words might happen as in their mother tongue.

On the other hand, English and Spanish seem to be two totally different languages. Spanish learners might find the language more difficult than their native language since Spanish verbs are more difficult to conjugate, and its nouns and adjectives have gender and number.

Cantos and Sanchez (2011) point out that difficulty and easiness of a particular language is based on its superficial structure or formal structure, which is more noticeable than other aspects of the language such as the organization of the statements or discourse.

Furthermore, Spanish and English learners might find some words similar to their native language, and the reason for this is set on their origins. English and Spanish are two different languages that have their origins in the same family tree.

2.1.4.1. Origins

Penny, R. (2002) explains that Spanish and English are different languages but they have their origins in the same family tree: *The Indo- European language*. This language was spoken 5,000 years ago in the area of the Black Sea. Speakers of the Indo – European spread all over Europe, they lost contact and as a consequence, fragmentation was the result.

There are nine surviving branches of the Indo – European family: Indo-Iranian, Slavonic, Germanic, Italic, Baltic, Hellenic, Armenian, Albanian and Celtic.

The Italic branch had different members as Oscan, Umbrian, Faliscan, and the most prominent one: Latin. These languages were spoken for many years until they were replaced by Latin. This process of assimilation lasted from the fourth century BC until the first century AC.

The spread of Latin reached a lot of territories in the Mediterranean world. This migration evolved into the family of related dialects known as the Romance language family. The most prominent members of the family are French, Occitan, Italian, Romanian, Romansh, Catalan, Portuguese and Spanish.

Spanish came from the Romance Language and it came from the Latin, which is one of the branches of the Indo-European language.

English has its origins in England – Europe but it has changed a lot through the History.

The English language belongs to the Germanic branch of the Indo –European family. English has suffered a lot of modifications to reach the language it is now. It has passed from Old English to Middle English and Modern English; and the Latin entered to the language through the three periods.

In 54 – 54 BC the Romans arrived to Britain and some words from Roman merchants and soldiers were copied such as *win (wine)*, *candel (candle)*, *belt (belt)*, *weall (wall)*.

In 597, the arrival of St. Augustine and the introduction of Christianity into Saxon England brought more Latin words such as *church*, *bishop*, *baptism*, *monk*, *eucharist* and *presbyter*.

Around 878 AC Danes and Norsemen invaded England and English got many Norse words.

In conclusion, although English and Spanish belong to different branches of the Indo- European languages both grew and developed in the same geographic and cultural unit of Europe.

2.1.4.2 Similarities in morphology

Spanish and English have some similar aspects in morphology, word order in sentences, phonology, etc. Regarding the objectives of this research, the morphology aspect is going to be considered.

Because these two languages have received Latin influence in their development, some English and Spanish words share the same suffix, and therefore the word receives the same connotation. For example:

Etymology

From Latin *-ista*, from Ancient Greek *-ιστής* (*-istēs*).

Suffix

-ista *m, f*

1. **-ista**; one who follows a principle.

Example: *optimista* ("optimist")

2. Indicates one that practices a profession of the noun stem;

Example: *periódico* ("newspaper") *periodista* ("journalist")

The same happens with the Latin suffix *-ion*, which denotes

"nouns" as *colonization* in English and *tripulación* in

Spanish.

There are also some words that are almost written the same and they also have the same meaning. These are called "cognates".

Grzega (2005) has included English in a list of Romanic languages made by Klein/Stegmann (2000). We are only going to only include cognates between English and Spanish in the list below.

Spanish	English
Arte	Art
Comprender	Comprehend
Daño	Damage
Entero	Entire
Mayo	May
Letra	Letter
Maestro	Master
Miembro	Member
Monte	Mount
Orden	Order
Parte	Part
Puro	Pure
Entrar	Enter
Rayo	Ray

Chart N° 2: Spanish and English cognates. (Source: The Role of English in Learning and Teaching European Intercomprehension Skills by Klein/Stegmann.)

2.2. Error in Second Language Acquisition

2.2.1. The error in SLA

We have considered important to include the concept and the types of errors and its misconceptions through time, as the objective of this investigation is based on the analysis of some students' errors. First we need to know what an error is.

Ellis (1994) explains that not only second language learners make errors in terms of language production, children who learn their L1 make errors, too; and these are called "transitional forms". Adult native speakers' errors are called "slips of the tongue" whereas L2 learners' errors are generally viewed as "unwanted forms"

Torijano (2004) states that if a learner of a second language makes an error in front of a native speaker of the target language, then two possible actions will happen:

- (a) He/ She will be misunderstood.
- (b) The student will be embarrassed.

Any of these possible situations lead to a lack of communication. But in fact, native speakers do not pay attention to how we say it, but what we are trying to say. This real fact is difficult to be accepted by the learner since they are used to be monitored by a teacher who tries to listen to every error he / she makes.

What Torijano highlights is the value of "communicativeness" rather than "correction". He demonstrates it with the following example:

A foreigner asks for information in this way:
'Perdona que le molestaa, ¿dónde está el estación de tren?'

Our answer would be giving him the way to get to the train station, instead of correcting the mistakes. In this real situation, "communicativeness" is what really matters.

Torijano (2004) explains why people see error as an obstacle. He says that this wrong idea is due to the personal conditioning of the student, who is afraid of making mistakes because they do not want to sound ridiculous. This is also linked to the theory of affective filter that H. Dulay and M. Burt created.

Another reason falls on the attention given to the linguistic aspects of the target language. It means that the learner focuses more on the structures and vocabulary than on the message itself.

We support Torijano's view and we also believe that he is confirming what we have already said: personality influences the students' process of learning. For instance, students with extrovert personality do not care about making mistakes and errors as well as students with high self-esteem, they have confidence in their capacity of doing things right.

In 1967, Corder (cited by Torijano, 2004) classified two different attitudes towards errors made by second language learners: on one hand, the error is seen as something that should be avoided; and it is caused by the learners' fault, or the teachers' fault. On the other hand, the error is something inevitable that helps the learning process.

2.2.1.1 The error as an indication of failure

It has been viewed as an indication of failure since ancient times.

Kramer (quoted by Torijano, 2004) says it started in the Sumerian Civilization, in which there were schools with the figure of "a person in charge of a whip". His role was to punish the students who made mistakes.

We have previously said that Behaviourists considered learning a new language as learning new habits and forgetting the old ones, so they considered the error "as the interference of a previous habit, caused by the Mother tongue, in the development of a new habit (L2), that should be completely eliminated" (Torijano, 2004, p. 17).

Maicusi and Carrillo (1999) say that behaviourists viewed error as a symptom of "ineffective teaching" and they believed that the only way to overcome them is by supplying correct forms; giving intensive drilling and over-teaching.

In conclusion, behaviourists had a negative view of errors and they tried to help learners to avoid them, but the strategies they used were not the best.

Stevick (cited by Torijano, 2004) explains this behaviour. He says that students prefer to communicate what they think they can say without making mistakes, rather than communicate what they want to. In this case, they are more focused on "accuracy" than "communicativeness".

We believe that students also have the misconception of viewing the error as an indication of failure because they were educated with that wrong idea since they were little. To eradicate this misconception we need to start from us, teachers, we need to have in mind that our goal is to make the students capable of expressing themselves in their second language and that mistakes are part of the process. We think teachers should provide confidence in them and explain that mistakes are not wrong. Therefore, students would not be anxious or afraid of making mistakes.

2.2.1.2 The error as an indication of progress

On the other hand, there is a positive view of errors that is supported by different researchers; and that appeals to us as the ideal conception.

Corder (1967) says that errors could be significant in three ways:

- (1) They provide the teacher with information about how much the learners have learned.
- (2) They provide the researcher with evidence of how language was learnt.
- (3) They provide the learner with devices to learn the language.

In the first one, teachers can take advantage of errors by thinking on new strategies in order to avoid the students make similar errors in the future.

In the last one, errors are seen as opportunities for the learners to prove their hypotheses of the target language.

Chomsky also has a positive view of errors: "Error- as-progress" conception. He explains that second language learners form hypotheses about the target language rules, so then, they can prove and modify them.

Torijano (2004) adds that another term that proves the positive influence of errors in learning a language is the concept of "learning step", which views errors as the proof of SLA. Making errors is the evidence that learning and progress are taking place.

He also reflects on the circumstances in which these "learning steps" have to be evaluated by teachers. In this case, it is difficult to have a positive view of errors if the amount of these are high because it means that the actual level of students is low.

Torijano (2004) has classified the errors in different types according to their nature. We consider them important for our investigation because we need to know that some mistakes our students make are not always errors and some of them do not occur because of the lack of knowledge.

To sum up, we strongly believe that the attitude "Error as an indication of failure" has positioned in students' subconscious.

The reason for that belief is the experiences we got from our study. As we are going to explain in the next chapter, we asked students from juniors level to produce some pieces of writings and we found out that the majority of them were worried about making mistakes as they continuously asked for the revision of some words, sentences or the whole task before they handed their pieces of work in. This happens due to pedagogical reasons. Students are used to receiving a score on their homework, oral participations, exams, etc.; and then, the evaluation is based on the number of errors the students have made. In other words, students wait for a number to measure their knowledge; and as many errors they have, their scores would be low, so making mistakes is seen as a failure.

In conclusion, we stand for the attitude of "Errors as an indication of progress" and to make our students believe in

that attitude we need to change our way of correcting and checking our students' work.

2.2.2. Types of Errors

We question if the lack of knowledge of every rule is considered an error. We have clarified that errors do not happen only because of the lack of knowledge. There are many factors that influence the developing of inability in the language.

Torijano (2004) describes the following "unusual behavior of the language":

Error:

Error occurs because of the lack of knowledge of the language. It means that when a second language learner makes an error, it happens because he/ she has not learned the language form yet.

It is also defined as "a deviation from the norms of the target language" (Ellis, 1994, p. 51).

Mistake:

A mistake occurs when learners fail to perform their competence (...) mistakes are performance phenomena and are, of course, regular features of native - speaker speech, reflecting processing failures that arise as a result of competing plans, memory limitations, and lack of automaticity (Ellis, 1994, p. 51).

Torijano explains the meaning of mistake through an example: There are L2 learners who know that some verbs are followed by 'to' as 'want to', 'need to' and 'ought to'; so having in mind this form, a student can say '*I must to go to the shops*'. And he can continue making the same mistake until he discovers the correct form (we use '*must*' without 'to') or somebody tells him the correct form. Once he knows it, he might alternate between '*He must go*'... and '*he must to go*'.

Lapse:

It is caused by the brain activity itself, due to the lack of concentration, failure of the memory, tiredness, etc. So, it is not related to the existing knowledge of a specific language form.

2.2.3. Theory of Error Analysis

We have considered important to include the theory of Error Analysis because the aim of our study is focused on the errors learners of a second language make and the contributions of this theory help us to understand them.

Error Analysis is considered an important branch in Second Language Acquisition as we have mentioned before. Errors can inform teachers about the students' actual learning process and therefore prevent potential errors that students may encounter. But Error Analysis cannot be studied properly without the notion of Contrastive Analysis.

2.2.3.1. Contrastive Analysis (CA)

According to Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis "errors occur as a result of interference when the learners transfer native language habits into the L2" (Maicusi and Carrillo, 1999, p. 169). We have explained that there are positive and negative transfer due to the similarities and differences between the first and the second language. The relevant contribution of Contrastive Analysis to language teaching is the "delimitation of second language structures which obstruct learning" (Maicusi and Carrillo, 1999-2000, p. 170).

For Nickel, the contribution of Contrastive Analysis is the practical grammar taken from the differences mentioned. Its objectives are summarized in Theovan Els (cited by Akbar Khansir, 2012):

- a) Providing insight into similarities and differences between languages.
- b) Explaining and predicting problems in L2 learning.
- c) Developing course materials for language teaching.

Its last objective has a great contribution to learner and learning process, researchers have summed up that it allows the development of efficient strategies to face errors, since it was well explained that positive and negative transfer can occur due to the similarities and differences of the mother tongue and the target language. For example, Bose (cited by Akbar Khansir, 2012) added that teachers can plan remedial teaching based on students' written compositions. Ferguson (cited by Akbar Khansir, 2012) says that a careful contrastive analysis of the two languages offers an excellent basis for the preparation of instructional materials, the planning of courses and the development of actual classroom techniques. He also says that all the mistakes learners make when producing the language happen because of his / her native language which is refused by Mackey who says that the L1 is not the only influence on L2 and therefore not all the learners with the same L1 make the same mistakes.

CA was criticized by the proponents of Error Analysis who argued that it was only focused on the differences between L1 and L2. However, they state that there are more factors that contribute to language learning process, like the factors we mentioned previously.

Contrastive Analysis declined in the 1970 and was replaced by other explanations such as Error Analysis.

2.2.3.2 Error Analysis

Error Analysis also focuses on learners' errors as the Contrastive Analysis, but it has an opposing point of view.

Error Analysis has defined errors as a deviation from the norm of the target language, it clarifies that interference from the learners' L1 is not the only reason to make errors in the target language.

Another intake of Error Analysis is the difference between error and mistake. Error takes place when there is

lack of knowledge whereas the mistake comes up when learners fail to perform their competence.

We have consulted two different authors and have found the following categorization:

On one hand, Richards (1970) classified errors in SLA as:

- a) Overgeneralization: it consists in applying a learned rule to many other structures. For example, the overgeneralization of the past simple of regular verbs to irregular verbs. '*She readed*' or '*I breaked*' instead of '*I read*' and '*I broke*'.
- b) Ignorance of rule restriction: "Closely related to the generalization of deviant structures, is failure to observe the restrictions of existing structures, that is, the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply" (Richards, 1970, p. 9).
- c) Incomplete application of rules: It means a failure to fully develop a structure.
- d) False Concepts hypothesized: It happens when the learner does not understand a distinction in the target language.

On the other hand, Dulay and Burt (cited by Ellis, 1994) classified three categories of errors:

- a) Developmental: Errors that are similar to L1.
- b) Interference: Errors that reflect structure of L1.
- c) Unique: Errors that are neither developmental nor interference.

Regarding this investigation, we agree on Dulay and Burt's classification, because we have classified our students' errors within developmental and Interference errors.

On one hand, there are some researchers as Akbar Khansir (2012) who states that Error Analysis helps identify learners' linguistic difficulties and needs, so it has several implications in the classroom:

- a) Devising remedial measures.
- b) Preparing a sequence of target language items in classrooms and textbooks with the difficult items coming after the easier ones.
- c) Making suggestions about the nature or strategies of second language learning employed by both first and second language learners.

On the other hand, Maicusi and Carrillo (1999) state that Error Analysis was criticized because of its weaknesses in the methodological procedures. It has only explained SLA as a collection of errors.

Regarding the treatment of errors, teachers should consider the localization, identification and correction of them. A lot of teachers just identify them, but it is important to discover why it was made, because not all of them should be treated in the same way. The teacher shouldn't correct the students' mistakes all the time. The key is to help students become conscious of their errors and motivate them to discover why they have made them and how they can avoid repeating them.

When errors should be corrected is a question that varies according to the instruction that a learner receives. In form focused instruction, errors are corrected frequently. However, in a communicative competence teaching, only the errors which seem to obstruct communication are corrected.

We believe that basic level students should receive more help from their teachers in identifying the errors since they do not have enough knowledge to do it by themselves. On the contrary with intermediate and upper level students who are in the way of becoming autonomous learners, teachers should avoid giving the answers whenever they are

incorrect. Instead, they can lead them to the correct answer giving clues or asking them to think of the correct answer one more time. Basic students are not autonomous learners yet, but they will be in the near future, so teachers have the task of thinking of the right time when to start developing autonomy in their students as "independent learners" since it is one of teachers' goals.

In conclusion, we support the idea that error making is crucial in the learning process and it should be viewed in a positive way, as an opportunity to improve the target language.

2.2.4. Error as a learning strategy

Torijano (2004) explains that a strategy is an operation made by an L2 learner in her/his internal process of acquiring the language when there is not enough knowledge of a specific form of the L2. Generally, the student uses some of his/her L1 rules so that he/she can fulfill communication needs. According to Corder (1967), the study of errors provides wide information about "how an L2 is acquired and the strategies used to learn an L2", so it would be beneficial to know how students learn what we teach.

2.2.4.1. Learning strategies

We think it is important to remember that strategies are conscious ways the students apply in order to learn something better and faster.

Ellis (cited by Torijano, 2004) classifies the strategies in: "social strategies" and "cognitive strategies". "Social strategies" take control of the interaction. In the first stages of the L2 acquisition, the learner uses memory to learn phrases that ease communication. On the other hand, "cognitive strategies" are used to give creative constructions based on acquired rules.

2.2.4.2. Communication strategies

They happen when a learner tries to solve a difficulty in the communication process. According to Torijano (2004) the learner has two options:

- a) Avoid errors.
- b) Face them and take risks.

The first one is not a risky strategy. The learner selects to reduce the message in order to avoid difficult structures. He can decide not to speak any more; or to modify or reduce the message. The result can be incomplete phrases. We do not consider it as a productive strategy since it leads to an absence of learning.

In the second one, the learner feels confident to ask for help to the interlocutor. These strategies are divided into "cooperative" and "non-cooperative".

There are also "non-verbal" strategies like gestures, drawings, etc.; and "linguistic" strategies that reflect the errors directly. The latter can be divided in "interlingual" strategies: they occur because of L1 transfer and translation; and "intralingual": substitution of one form for another one, paraphrase, inversion of words, etc.

The difference between learning strategies and communication strategies lies on their use. The former is used to learn and to develop an L2 proficiency; and the latter is used to solve a communication problem immediately.

2.2.4.3. Strategies in the classroom

According to Torijano (2004) the two essential parts of Second Language Acquisition are: The learning process and the teaching process. He says that both parts need to do their tasks in order to succeed in the language.

The fundamental feedback between learners and teachers are affected by two agents:

- a) Teachers' incapability to transmit what they know.
- b) Students' incapability to acquire what teachers teach them.

To know what strategies take place in the classroom, we need to bear in mind that every teacher has a particular way to teach and every learner is different from each other, as a result they also have different strategies to put into practice in order to learn the L2.

Therefore, the choice of strategies to be used by the teacher in class should be influenced by the students' learning strategies; and the teacher must be aware of the way his or her students learn. Torijano (2004) develops potential strategies that can be used:

- a) Preparation process strategies.
- b) Operation process strategies.
- c) Control process strategies.
 - a) This strategy consists on preparing all the necessary activities that lead to learning.
 - b) This strategy leads to develop a sense of high self-esteem and confidence among the learners. The aim is to get students use what they learn no matter the errors they can make.
 - c) This strategy consists on control the students' learning process with constant monitoring of their process. We think there exists a connection between monitoring and correcting errors since the former has the role to observe the learners' process and therefore know if the students are doing well or not and; in that way correct their mistakes. This monitoring process will vary depending on the students' level of English.

2.2.5. Causes of Errors

Errors are caused by students' or teachers' fault. Here are some causes described by Torijano (2004):

2.2.5.1. Distraction

We refer to distraction as a state of not being completely focused on the learning process.

We have explained before that one factor that prevents SLA success is caused by "Affective Filter" which is a series of emotional elements. Those elements are: "motivation", "confidence" and "anxiety".

Students' motivation is related to the type of activity, the way in which it is presented, the days and hours spent, the previous and post activities used for that activity. In that way students would be engaged or discouraged to the learning process.

One reason why students are distracted is the lack of motivation and it is related to the teacher's work. The way in which he or she presents the topic, the materials and the tasks will influence students' interest in the class.

2.2.5.2. Translation

This is one of the principal causes that makes errors happen.

Torijano (2004) says that it consists on the literal translation of word by word of idiomatic expressions or sentences of the students' L1. This process leads to students making "crass errors" since they do not follow the rules and these prevent communication.

Spanglish is an example of errors caused by translation. A common example is:

'Tengo que vacunar la carpeta'

The correct sentence will be: *'Tengo que pasar la aspiradora a la alfombra'* Making the former an example of crass error.

The correct translation is: *'I have to vacuum the carpet'*, but in the example above, the student translated *'vacuum'* for *'vacunar'* and *'carpet'* for *'carpeta'*.

Mostly, errors caused by translation occur in written tasks, when the learner is asked to communicate something on written form and he or she is incapable of doing it because of the lack of knowledge of the rule. That's why the learner needs to resort to his/her mother tongue.

These types of errors also occur in spoken form. In which the students claim translation as a communication strategy.

We pondered if translation and L1 interference are the same. In the interference process students use L1 knowledge to supply their lack of L2 knowledge. This process seems to be the same as translation since students resort to their mother tongue to translate the words they do not know, but, in fact they are not the same. Torijano makes a distinction between them.

He explains that "interference" is an unconscious process while "translation of L1" is a conscious process made by the learner and used as a strategy.

2.2.5.3. Errors caused by overgeneralization

We refer to overgeneralization as the generalization of a grammatical rule to cases where students think can apply them, but in fact those "rules" are not correct. For example: there can be an overgeneralization of the rule of plural nouns in the case of *'childs'*; the learner must think that the addition of the "s" to make plural nouns apply to every word.

In the next chapters more types of errors will be shown.

2.2.5.3.1. Incomplete application of the rules

According to Richards (1970), it means the students' incapability to use a learned rule in all the necessary contexts. For instance, a student who was taught the correct form of questions but continues using the statement form to ask questions, or he just adds question words at the beginning of the sentence.

He says that there are two possible causes for the incomplete application of rules: the use of questions in class and communication.

The former one occurs when the learner needs to answer questions by repeating all of it or part of it. The latter occurs when the learner realizes that he can establish communication without all the proper forms, it means that some incorrect forms of the language cannot break the communication.

2.2.5.3.2. Error caused by language creativity

According to Torijano (2004) English learners that are not in touch with the English community tend to make errors because of their lack of knowledge. As a consequence, they turn to their creativity to create new hypotheses based on learned rules and previous experiences. This is used as a desire to improve the language, and, as well as a communicative strategy.

He thinks teachers should reward the students' attempts when using L2 because they are able to produce a statement using their creativity, and as a way to avoid students' fear to produce errors.

2.2.5.4. Interference

Interference, as we explained before, is the influence of the students' L1 on the acquisition of an L2. This influence can lead to success (positive transfer) when the interference results in a correct production and this happens due to the similarities between the languages. However, the L1 interference can lead the students to make mistakes (negative transfer) as in the case '*I am embarrassed*' when the Spanish learner wants to say '*I am pregnant*'. This happens because of the confusion of '*embarazada*' ('*pregnant*' in Spanish) with '*embarrassed*' (which is the correct word in English) because of the similarities in morphology between the two words.

We believe interference happens among basic, pre-intermediate students and some intermediate students since they are starting learning the language and they have little knowledge of the L2. They resort unconsciously to their mother tongue to fill that lack of knowledge. We also believe those students are more connected to their mother tongue because they do not accept English as their second language yet, and therefore it is still difficult for them to "think" in English.

L1 interference can produce mistakes in every aspect of the students' learning process, such as grammar, pronunciation, sentence agreement, etc., but we have chosen only the lexical aspect because it has to do with the aim of the investigation.

There are three types of lexical errors due to the students' L1 transfer. We are going to cite Marin (2013) who made a wide investigation analyzing and diagnosing errors in English as a second language.

- False Cognates or false friends: Cognates are words from two different languages that have almost the same form and the same meaning. For example:

'Parte' = '*part*'

'Ángel' = '*angel*'

But false cognates are the opposite. According to Marin (2013) they appear when the learner uses an existing word in the L2 instead of another because of a similarity between that word and another in the students' L1. This word can be similar in a morphological way, but not in meaning. Marin (2013) points out some examples:

- a) My relationship with the people there was very positive, in spite of my limitations with the *'idiom'*.
In the example above, the meaning of the word *'idiom'* in English seems to be *'idioma'* in Spanish, but that is not correct, the word *'idioma'* in English is *'language'*, while *'idiom'* has another meaning.

- b) My grandfather's *'bigot'* is very funny.

In the example above, the student confuses the word *'bigot'* with *'bigote'* because of morphological reasons. In fact, according to the Cambridge dictionary, bigot means: "a person who has strong, unreasonable beliefs and who does not like other people who have different beliefs or a different way of life" So, the word that the student wanted to write was *'moustache'*.

- c) It is very sad. The two cars *'choked'* and one person died.

In the example above, there is a confusion with the words *'choke'* and *'chocar'* in Spanish. They have similar form but different meaning. The appropriate word to use instead of *'choke'* would be *'crash(ed)'*.

- Coinage: It refers to the creation and translation of an L1 word into the L2, trying to cover the morphological aspects. The students create a word based on the L2 forms believing that it is correct, but in fact it does not exist. (Marin, 2013). For example:

'Proporcionar' = 'proporcionate' and the correct word is 'supply'.

a) 'Tripulación' = 'Tripulation' instead of crew.

b) 'Tripulantes' = 'tripulands' instead of crew members.

c) 'Comunicar' = 'comunic' instead of communicate.

The examples above are some of the errors our students made in this study. In the error analysis, we are going to explain the reasons of those errors.

- Calque: It refers to the literal translation of an L1 word into the L2. For example: 'boat trip' instead of 'voyage' or 'cruise'.
- Borrowings: Marin (2013) says that these are words borrowed from the L1 without any change and used in an L2 production. This is due to lack of vocabulary of the learners. For example: I played a traditional instrument of Salamanca with the 'tutora'.

The example above shows how a learner resorts to his/her mother tongue to fulfill his/ her lack of vocabulary.

2.3. The writing process

2.3.1 Concept of writing

According to Byrne, Donn (1879) writing is more than the arrangement of graphic symbols. In fact, it is the production of "a sequence of sentences arranged in a particular order and linked together in certain ways" (p. 1).

2.3.2. Writing in second language contexts

When we refer to writing a piece of text in a second language, it is quite different from writing a text in our mother tongue and Cushing Weigle, Sara (2002) explains it.

She says that writing is a difficult task and it is more difficult when writing in a second language. When a person needs to write something in his / her first language, he / she has the most precious tool to do it which is the dominion of the language and therefore wide vocabulary, so the attention on content or structure is needed more than the attention on the language. This happens due to the fact that people who write in their first language have always been in contact with their mother tongue, in contrast with second language learners who face the difficulty of writing a text in a language that they have just started to learn. As we know, first language learners need to go to school to learn how to write correctly after probably six years of being in contact with the language. On the other hand, second language learners do not wait to start writing, they do it since the very beginning, so problems with the language like vocabulary, cohesion and coherence are more common in this context.

Thus, second language learners focus more on language rather than on content.

Because of the importance that writing has in the school curriculum, students make progress with their writing skills as they continue studying at school. As a consequence, university students have better writing skills than secondary students.

As opposed to second language writers (adults and children) who have learned English for different reasons and in different situations, their age and cognitive development do not define their writing improvement.

For example, children and adults who have learned English in an English spoken country have different writing skills than children and adults who have learned the language in their country. Furthermore, what moved students to study English (intrinsic and instrumental motivation) influences on their writing skills as we have explained in the previous chapter.

A clear example can be taken from our investigation; as we are going to explain in the following chapters, our subjects are children between 11 and 14 years old, and we can say that a student

who is 11 years old has better writing skills than a student who is 13 or 14 years old. In conclusion we can say that for second language writers, their age or time spent at school does not determine their writing skills in second language writings.

Cushing also explains that learners can transfer their writing processes since it is the same in their first language as in the second one.

2.3.3. Writing for learning and writing for writing

We need to establish a difference between writing for learning and writing for writing as it helps understanding the types of writing assignments we asked our students to do.

In writing for learning, the writing activity is a means to help students learn a new grammar point or practice it, learn new vocabulary; or as a preparation for another activity such as speaking, acting out, etc.

On the other hand, in writing for writing, the writing activity is an end to help learners become better writers, so it means that the activities are made to teach learners how to write well, in different genres, without mistakes in punctuation, coherence, cohesion, spelling, etc.

Regarding to our investigation, we used the "writing for writing" purpose, as we asked our students to write without any objective of teaching grammar or speaking, but with the objective of identifying lexical errors so they do not make them in the near future and as a consequence become better writers.

2.3.4. The writing process

According to Harmer (2004) the writing process is "the stages a writer goes through in order to produce something in its final written form" (p. 4). And he suggests four stages.

- a) Planning: this is the first stage and it means planning what you are going to write. Writers need to write down key words

or detailed words or just they need to think about what they are going to write. When people do it, they need to consider some aspects such as the purpose, the audience and the content structure.

Thinking about the purpose means to think about the type of text, language and content you are going to use. For example, writing a recipe has a different lay out, content and type of language than writing a narrative.

Thinking about the audience also helps determine the type of language, formal or informal, that the writers are going to use as well as the type of writing: argumentative, expository, persuasive, etc.

- b) Drafting: it refers to the first version of the writing which needs to be amended.
- c) Editing (reflecting and revising): it means to read the draft in order to find mistakes so it can be improved. Those corrections may involve: changing words that cause confusion, reorder paragraphs, changes on the overall structures or the correction of little mistakes such as grammar mistakes.
Harmer (2004) also says that writers can receive help by editors at this stage, so their comments and suggestions help the writers to correct their drafts.
- d) Final Version: it refers to the final writing after the drafts have been edited. The final version must look different as the original plan and the first draft.

Harmer also highlights that this process is not a linear one, but it is a recursive one. It means that a writer does not only have one draft or edit that draft only once. In fact, writers re-plan, re-draft, and re-edit. The author also explains that as much attention we give to our writing, the better it will be.

Regarding our investigation, students followed the writing process but they did not have the time to pay a lot of attention to it because of the nature of our investigation. For instance, in the

editing stage, students were told to write without thinking of errors, as we have previously defined, errors are due to the lack of knowledge in the language; and because of the aim of this investigation, that is identifying specifically lexical errors, we could not ask and give time to the students to edit and revise their writing. Otherwise, students would have had the time to look for the words they did not know and we could not have reached our objective.

Finally, we can say that students could follow the stages of the writing process very fast as they were not asked to write an essay as a final exam. In that case, students would have done their writings more carefully. Also, we can then teach our students the writing process, teaching them to plan before writing and giving them ways of reflecting and editing their writings (do it in pairs or in collaborative writing).

CHAPTER III

INVESTIGATION METHODOLOGY

3.1. Type of investigation

The methodology applied to this investigation based on the treatment of data collected is **QUALITATIVE**. The methodology tries to study the sample in a holistic way without ending up in mathematical results. (<http://cvc.cervantes.es/>)

According to Latorre, del Rincón Igea and Arnal (1996) this type of methodology is a "continuum" because it permits changes during the process and it remains wide open to possible changes. It also accomplishes another characteristic: the direct contact with the participants, it means that it has to be interactive, making the investigator be part of the process (Latorre et al., 1996). In the present study, the investigator was the teacher of English of the participants (J1b students), so the good rapport between them was ensured. Another characteristic of qualitative investigation is in terms of the collection of the data. It must take place in an authentic context, so the students wrote the samples as part of the activities required in a normal lesson.

3.2. Description of subjects

The subjects of this investigation belong to the Starter Level of the Juniors group of Centro de Idiomas – Universidad de Piura.

There are different groups that take English classes at this University. One of them is the children group. Their parents want them to

learn English, so they form a different group apart from adults and adolescents. This is done because of psychological matters.

Juniors is offered to children from 11 to 14 years old. It is divided into different levels:

Starter	1	Juniors 1a
	2	Juniors 1b
Elementary	3	Juniors 2a
	4	Juniors 2b
Pre-intermediate	5	Juniors 3
	6	Juniors 4
Intermediate	7	Juniors Int.A
	8	Juniors Int.B

Chart N° 3: Levels of English at Centro de Idiomas – Udep (Source: Centro de Idiomas website)

This research is done with students from the starter level Juniors 1b. The reason is that students from the first level are still strongly linked to their mother tongue. From the two groups belonging to Starter, we chose the second one because the students have been learning English for four months, so they do have previous knowledge about the target language.

Another reason is that Juniors students are not allowed to use their cell phones during class, so they do not have the chance to look for words they do not know in their cell phones; which is different from Basic adult students who use their cell phones to look for words they do not know in the dictionaries online from time to time.

Because of the reasons described above, students from Juniors 1b only use their previous knowledge in English as well as Spanish in their writing work. We can conclude that the population is reliable.

Students from Juniors 1b are divided into two groups: the male group and the female group; who study in different classrooms and on

different days of the week. Girls study three days a week (Monday, Wednesday and Friday) for one hour and a half after school whereas boys study for two days a week (Tuesday and Thursday) for one hour and forty five minutes after school. Both groups study the same quantity of hours each semester since they have the same objectives to achieve.

There are 44 subjects in total, 24 girls and 20 boys, between the ages of 11 to 14 who come from different private and public schools of the city of Piura.

3.3. Action plan

After defining the investigation topic, we set our general and specific objectives.

As we have previously mentioned in the first chapter, the main objective of our research is to describe the lexical errors our subjects (Juniors 1b) make because of the influence of their mother tongue.

To make it happen, the review of various lexical errors in different investigations based in English as a foreign language was taken. That is how the categorization of lexical errors in written form of English learners was made. Doing the proper investigation, we discovered four lexical errors that any Spanish learner of English can make: false friends, calque, borrowings and coinage.

3.3.1. General action plan

As we have mentioned before, this investigation's aim is to get the lexical errors students from Juniors 1b make in written tasks.

First, we started to read different investigations based on errors students of English make during writing tasks in order to get the types of lexical errors. Having that information, we thought of different writing tasks students can make in order to obtain their lexical errors, so we could classified the errors within their types (coinage, false friends, calque and borrowings). After that, it was necessary to make a matrix of the lexical errors so we could know when every error was done, so it was useful in order to identify the

lexical errors of our students. Finally, we continued with the analysis of each type of error. There we explained what the causes of each error were.

Specific Objectives	Principal Activities	Expected Outcomes	Sources and Materials	Dates
Objective 1 -Identify the types of lexical errors learners, from Juniors 1b of the University of Piura, make because of the influence of their mother tongue through the application of diagnostic written exams.	Get the types of lexical errors Spanish students of English as an L2 generally make. Designing of the matrix and the instrument that will be applied.	Get the lexical errors students from Juniors 1b make in their written tasks.	-Papers based on studies on the same field. -Writing tasks.	March – June 2016
Objective 2 Analyze the lexical errors obtained to categorize them into the types of lexical errors previously established.	Revising to identify the lexical errors found in our students' writings.	Examples of errors made by our students. Analysis of each example of errors within its type.	Writings of Juniors 1b students.	June – October 2016

Chart N° 4: General action plan (Source: own source)

3.3.2. Specific action plan

Specific objective 1: Identify the types of lexical errors learners, from Juniors 1b of the University of Piura, make because of the influence of their mother tongue through the application of diagnostic written exams.

Principal Activity	Actions	Resources	Expected Outcomes	Dates
Get the types of lexical errors Spanish students of English as an L2 generally make.	Search previous investigations on the same field in order to know the types of lexical errors Spanish students make.	Different papers: -Análisis y Diagnóstico de Errores en Estudiantes de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera. - Las implicaciones de los errores léxicos en los artículos en inglés científico – técnico. -Análisis de errores léxicos, morfosintácticos y gráficos en la lengua escrita de los aprendices polacos de español	To determine the types of lexical errors Spanish students of English as a second language make.	March 2016

Designing of the instrument that will be applied, and the matrix of lexical errors.	To select the types of genre (expository, argumentative, descriptive, etc.) of our students' writing tasks	Literature book.	To choose which genre students are going to produce in written form.	April – June 2016
	To look for the grammar and vocabulary Juniors 1b students are familiarized with so they can cope with the tasks.	Student's book. (Full Blast 1)	Select the grammar points students are going to use to complete their writing tasks.	
	To make the instructions for the writing tasks.	Readers Cd Flash cards	To execute the writing tasks for Juniors 1b students.	
	To describe when an error of each type occur in order to identify and classify them.	Examples of each type of lexical error.	General evaluation grid.	

Chart N° 5: Detailed activities to get the lexical errors Juniors 1b make (Source: own source)

Specific objective 2: Analyze the lexical errors obtained to categorize them into the types of lexical errors previously established.

Principal Activity	Actions	Resources	Expected Outcome	Date
Revising to identify the lexical errors found in our students' writings.	To revise the writing tasks.	Students' writings.	To obtain the lexical errors from Juniors 1b of University of Piura make because of the influence of their mother tongue.	October 2016

Chart N° 6: Detailed activities to get which of the types of lexical errors Juniors 1b make (Source: own source)

3.4 Research variables

Variables	Subcategories
Lexical errors	Coinage False friend Calque Borrowing

Chart N° 7: Variables and subcategories found in our students' writings

As we have explained before, lexical errors happen because of the similarities in morphology between a word from the students' second language and a word from their first language.

We have chosen one example of each type of our students' errors with the intention of explaining how we have identified and analyzed each of them in the Error Analysis.

- (1) He didn't kill himself because his *'tripulation'* needed him...
- (2) The internet is *'comunic'* for the friends.
- (3) Bad *'notes'*
- (4) *'Put at day'*

(5) The captain *'pedía'* help.

The examples above correspond to each type of lexical error.

Once we classified them into the four types of lexical errors, we proceeded to analyze them so we could give an explanation why students made them.

The first two examples (1) and (2) belong to the coinage error. As we have explained in chapter II, this type of error is due to the creation and translation of an L1 word into the L2, trying to cover the morphological aspects.

In this type of error we could recognize a pattern which was the use of suffixes or the lack of them. Based on "Word formation in English" (2002) by Ingo Plag, we could analyze the suffixes used by our subjects.

In example (1) the student wanted to say *'tripulación'* so he modified the word in Spanish with the suffix *-tion* as it is a common suffix used in English words to denote nouns.

Example (2) is another type of coinage error since the student did not use a suffix, in fact, he shortened the word so it does not have any suffix. The student wanted to say *'comunicar'* so he modified the Spanish word and shortened it because English words tend to be shorter than Spanish words.

The last three types of errors could be analyzed and classified thanks to our dual role in this investigation: apart from being teachers, we are Spanish speakers and we have been English learners thus we know the understanding problems that occur between English and Spanish words.

Example (3) corresponds to the group of false friends errors. As we have explained in chapter II, it refers to two words that have similarities in morphology but they differ in meaning.

In example (3) the student confused the word *'notes'* with *'score'* because of its similarity in morphology with the Spanish word *'notas'*.

Example (4) corresponds to the calque errors which refer to the literal translation of an L1 word into the L2. So we understood that '*put at day*' was written to refer '*ponerse al día*'.

In example (5), the student wrote a Spanish word as a strategy to not leave blank spaces in his/ her production.

As we have explained above, they were just samples of some of our students' errors.

3.5. Instruments and techniques of data collection

Knowing the four types of lexical errors Spanish students of English as an L2 generally make, we proceeded to elaborate three different writing tasks (as you can see attached in their lesson plans in appendix 1), in order to get the specific errors our subjects make. The writings tasks were done in three different dates as these tasks were not part of the syllabus, we needed to look for some dates in which students can do their writings without complicating the process of their classes.

Most of the writing tasks were produced in the "free- activity" day. These classes are used to develop students' different skills with activities that are not on the book, so students are asked to complete songs, to play a game with a learning objective, to read a reader or to do any activity that students might enjoy.

In the case of students of 1b level, they were asked to do a writing activity in only two of the "free-activity" days. But all the writings were done during the class so the teacher could monitor their work and make sure the students did it by themselves.

The participants wrote three different writing tasks: two of them were narrative and one was expository.

The first task was a narrative writing. In this task, the participants were asked to write the ending of a story they had previously read.

First, students were engaged to read "The Lost Ship" which is a mysterious type of reading by Stephen Colbourn. Then, students needed to learn and review some vocabulary to avoid future problems. When

students finished reading, they did some activities so we could check if they understood the story. At the end, students were ready to write an ending for the story using their imagination.

The second task was an expository writing task. Students were asked to write a composition entitled "How the internet changed my life". To make the composition easier to write, they were first asked what they used the internet for; and the advantages and disadvantages of it. Therefore, they could have a clearer idea about what to write.

The third task was a narrative writing. Students were asked to narrate a personal experience in a composition entitled "A day that changed my life". According to the syllabus, they had previously studied the Simple Past form, which means they knew how and when to use it. To achieve this, the participants were motivated to write about any past experience that they could remember, so first different topics were set on the board with the objective of recalling any other topic they could write about and engaging students to write.

We chose some topics that can appeal to students' interests: (1) *The day you met your best friend.* (2) *The best birthday ever!* (3) *The birth of my little brother.* (4) *The best vacations I have had.* (5) *A competition I won.*

A detailed explanation of the progress of the activities can be found in their respective lesson plans. (See Appendix 1)

The aim choosing those topics was to be subjective. Two of the writings were focused on the learners' experience and one required the students' creativity. The only purpose of them was to make the students write as much as they could, so they did not stop to think about errors.

As we have explained in chapter II, "The error as an indication of failure" is an attitude towards errors that most people have and in which students view errors as something they should avoid. Since we wanted our students not to feel anxious about making mistakes or to feel comfortable using their knowledge, the writings they produced were the result of what they really knew. We stand for the attitude "The error as an indication of progress".

Regarding the Affective Filter hypothesis, which we explained in chapter II, we made sure that potential affective factors did not block the students' writing progress, so we motivated them to write, gave them confidence and reduced their level of anxiety by telling them not to be afraid of making mistakes, giving them the right time to finish, about 20 to 30 minutes, and planning the topics of the writings according to the grammar knowledge of the students, so they did not have any troubles in that respect.

After collecting our students' writings, it was necessary to make a general matrix of the lexical errors, their descriptors and indicators.

As we have mentioned before, this matrix lets us know when every error is done, so it is useful in order to identify the lexical errors of our students.

GENERAL MATRIX OF LEXICAL ERRORS					
Category	Subcategory	Indicator	Descriptor	Indicator Variable	
LEXICAL ERRORS: Any error related to word formation caused by students' lack of vocabulary.	False Cognates	The student recognizes the difference in meaning between words from L1 and L2 with similar morphological aspects.	It denotes that the student assigns the same meaning to words from L1 and L2 which have the same morphological aspect.	YES	NO
	Coinage	The student differentiates the creation of a new L2 word with similar morphological aspects and meaning of an L1 word with the original L2 word.	It denotes that the student creates a new L2 word with the same morphological aspects and meaning of an L1 word.	YES	NO
	Calque	The student uses the L2 words needed, avoiding literal translation.	It denotes that the student translates literally an L1 word into the L2.	YES	NO
	Borrowings	The student uses L1 words in L2 writings.	It denotes that student writes L1 words in an L2 writing.	YES	NO

Chart N° 8: Indicators and descriptors of each type of lexical errors (Source: own source)

See validity in Appendix 2.

The instrument, the instructions of the three writing tasks as well as the matrix of lexical errors were given validity by three full-time teachers of Centro de Idiomas. They were:

Teacher Jenny Pérez. She has 15 years of experience in teaching English, teacher Gregorio Tume. He has around 25 years of experience in teaching English, and teacher Rebeca Saavedra. She has 16 years of experience teaching English.

3.6. Organization process and analysis of results

a) Data collection: we proceeded to elaborate the writing tasks for our students in order to get the resource to continue with this study.

b) Data processing: In this part of the investigation we proceeded to identify the errors from our students' writings and therefore classify them into the four types of errors that we have specified in chapter II.

The following is the general chart of the errors students from Juniors 1b made because of the interference of their mother tongue.

TYPE OF LEXICAL ERRORS	NUMBER OF ERRORS
Coinage	15
False Friends	7
Calque	4
Borrowings	5

Chart N° 9: Summary of the lexical errors made by Juniors 1b students (Source: writings of Juniors 1b students)

In the next chapter, we are going to explain each of the errors that our students made during this study.

CHAPTER IV INVESTIGATION RESULTS

4.1. Investigation results

In this study we have identified and analyzed the lexical errors students from Juniors 1b of University of Piura made. Based on those errors we have come up with the following results:

Students made the four types of lexical errors in their writing tasks.

According to the "coinage" type, students made several errors, and this is due to the incorrect suffixes many students used in their writings and we can find a clear explanation of the reason why they used some suffixes mistakenly.

As we have explained in chapter II, according to the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, students "acquire" some patterns of the new language unconsciously because of the kind of input they are exposed to. It seems that our students have acquired some suffixes such as *-tion, -an, -ity, -ry, -ic* because they have often heard them. But they used them with incorrect roots. As a lack of vocabulary, they ended up making up new words, adding the suffixes they are more familiarized with to the roots they know.

Within this type of error, students have also omitted the use of suffixes and this is due to the concept that English words are shorter than Spanish words.

4.2. Error analysis

The errors are going to be classified within the categorization of lexical errors due to the influence of the students' mother tongue: False Friends, Coinages, Calques and Borrowings. Then, there is going to be an explanation of the emergence of those errors.

The errors that students made are due to two reasons: the incorrect suffixes they attached to the words they did not know and as a consequence they made up (most of them are Latin suffixes) or the lack of suffixes.

A) Coinage

As it was previously stated, a coinage is a word that was made taking some aspects of the target language morphology, in this case, English.

Juniors' 1b students made the following errors:

E R R O R S	Incorrect use of suffix		Lack of suffix	
	-ion	Tripulation	Relev	Relevar
		Navigation	Comunic	Comunicar
		Publition	Asist	Asistir
	-an	Tripulands	Sit	Sitio
	-ity	Finality	Bosin	Bocina
	-ry	Entry	Dessolute <i>change form</i>	Desilusionar
	-ic	Comunic	Contenin	Contenido

Chart N° 10: Chart of coinage type errors (Source: writings of Juniors 1b students)

- a. Adding *-ion*
- (1) He didn't kill himself because his '*tripulation*' needed him...
 - (2) Internet is very cool, you can '*navigation*' in this ...
 - (3) I love snapchat because I can '*publition*' photos and videos.

In (1) the students made a mistake, he added *-ion* to the word they did not know. The reason of this is that *-ion* is a Latin nominal suffix which means that denotes nouns.

It is also a well-known suffix by the learners since a lot of Spanish nouns end in *-cion* like "comunicación", "investigación", "producción" and so on; and their translation into English follows the same structure: '*communication*', '*investigation*', '*production*'. The students made an overgeneralization of the rule, they thought that all the nouns in English have the same nominal suffix.

In (2) and (3) the students did not invent a word, in fact, they are correct nouns, but they made a mistake because they used a noun instead of a verb because they did not know the verb required ('*surf*' and '*publish*')

b. Adding *-an*

(1) The '*tripulands*' on the ship.

In the example above the student made a mistake because he used the nominal suffix *-an* which denotes persons and places, but not for the word he was looking for. The student wanted to say '*the crew members*', but he ended up creating a new word, based on the influence of his mother tongue: '*tripulantes*' in Spanish, but mixed it with *-an* as he noticed it denotes people as: "technician", "historian", "Italian" and so on.

c. Adding *-ity*

(1) '*Finality*' the break, she goes '*a*' the bathroom (...)

In the example above, the student wanted to express a verb '*Finaliza el recreo (...)*' but as he does not know the correct word in English, he added the Latin suffix *-ity*, which forms nouns that denote qualities, states or properties. For example: "curiosity", "quality of being curious"; "productivity", "the state or quality of being productive", "solidity", "the state or quality of being firm or strong in structure", to the Spanish root "final". Therefore, the student made a mistake because he used the incorrect nominal suffix, when he wanted to use a verb. In this particular case, the student needed the bound morpheme *-es* for the word '*finish*', so, the correct word could be '*finishes*' in '*when the break finishes (...)*'

- d. Adding *-ry*
- (1) I '*entry*' the Facebook in the afternoon.
 - (2) The Captain '*entry*' the lost ship.

In the examples above, the student wanted to express the same verb: "entrar" but he used the incorrect suffix *-(e) ry*, which its formations refer to "the place where a specific activity is carried out" or "the place where a specific article or service is available" For example: bakery, fishery, pottery, and so on. It can also denote collectivities or activities. The mistake is due to the use of the incorrect suffix.

- e. Adding *-ic*
- (1) The internet is '*comunic*' for the friends.

In the example above, the student made a mistake because he used the incorrect suffix *-ic*, which is an adjectival suffix. E.g.: "electric", "economic", "historic", etc.

The student wanted to say '*comunicarse*', which is a verb. In this case, the mistake is also due to the use of an incorrect suffix.

The word '*comunic*' can also be applied as an example of another strategy used by the learner.

- f. Shortened words
- (1) The captain '*relev*' the other captain.
 - (2) The Internet is '*comunic*' for the friends.
 - (3) I don't '*asist*' at school.
 - (4) Cumbemayo was a beautiful '*sit*'.
 - (5) The captain '*go*' to steer and touch a '*bosin*'.
 - (6) I '*dessolute*' (my parents) playing video games in Internet.
 - (7) The Internet has '*contenin*' (...)

In the examples above, the students made up a word based on their knowledge. As English learners, they have noticed, through their learning process, that English words tend to be shorter than Spanish words. Consequently, they used a strategy to not leave spaces and continue with the production of the text. The students ended up shortening the Spanish words they didn't know, therefore, they created non-existing words in English.

In example (1), the student shortened the Spanish word '*relevar*' and he made up '*relev*' as the English translation.

In example (2), the student wanted to say '*comunicar*', so he shortened it. He made up the word '*comunic*'.

In examples (3) and (4), the student used the same strategy of the two examples above, to face his lack of vocabulary; the student shortened the words. In example (3), the student wanted to say '*asistir*', so he used '*asist*' instead of '*attend*'. And, in example (4) the student wanted to say '*sitio*', so he wrote '*sit*' instead of '*place*'

In example (5), because of his lack of vocabulary, the student shortened the word '*bocina*' and obtained the word '*bosin*' instead of '*horn*'.

In example (6), the student wanted to say '*desilusionar*' so he shortened it, but in this case, he modified the word a little bit. As a Spanish word, it is a long word, which has five syllables. So, he made up the word '*dessolute*' for it.

In example (7), as a lack of vocabulary, the student ended up with the word '*contenin*' for '*contenido*' instead of '*content*'.

The errors explained above can be classified as a fault in the use of suffixes. The examples from *a* to *e* can be classified as an incorrect use of the suffixes; and the examples in letter *f* as the lack of them, based on the students' knowledge that some English words tend to be shorter than Spanish words.

It is important to highlight that some of the suffixes used by the learners have Latin origins and that all the errors are Spanish words, which were added some familiarized suffixes used in English; or, which were shortened.

B) False Friends

It refers to two words that have similarities in morphology, but differ in meaning provoking failures in students' writings as well as speech.

Some of the false friends that J1b students faced were:

FALSE FRIENDS	SPANISH TRANSLATION	MEANING IN ENGLISH	CORRECT ENGLISH WORD TO USE
Notice/ Noticy	Noticias	Cartel, aviso, anuncio	News
Notes	Notas	Apunte, billete	Scores/ Grades
Public	Publicar	Público	To publish
Review	Revisar	Repasar	To check
List	Listo	Lista	Ready

Chart N° 11: Chart of false friends errors (Source: writings of Juniors 1b students).

a. News - *Notice/ Noticy*

- (1) The Internet is very important because you look for information, '*notice*', History, Maths (...)
- (2) I found '*a*' interesting '*notices*' (...)
- (3) Use Internet for '*look*' information and '*noticy*' in '*the*' Peru (...)

In the three sentences above, the students wanted to say '*noticia(s)*', and they used '*notice/ notices*' and '*noticy*' because of their similarity in form. In fact, '*notice*' as a noun means:

- Cartel
- Aviso
- Anuncio

The three words above have different connotations to the word the student wanted to express, which in fact was '*news*'. The existing word '*notice*' leads to a mistake with its similarity to '*noticias*' in Spanish. It is important to highlight that the students must have seen the word '*notice*' before.

b. Scores - *notes*

- (1) Bad '*notes*'

'*Notas*' and '*notes*' have similar morphology and that causes confusion among learners like in the example above. The student wanted to say that he has bad '*scores*', but he used '*notes*' instead of the correct word.

c. Publish - *public*

(1) Take the pictures and then '*public*' the pictures.

The student used the word '*public*' instead of '*publish*'. He wanted to say '*publicar*', but he used the former because of its similarity in form. In fact, '*public*' is an adjective, which according to Cambridge Dictionary means: "connected with ordinary people"

d. Check - *review*

(1) I '*review*' my Facebook.

The student used the word '*review*'. As a matter of fact, '*review*' means to study a subject again or to think again. It does not suit for what he/ she really wanted to express.

The student should have used the verb '*check*' to express that he actually checks his Facebook account to see the new posts and photos of his friends.

e. Ready - *list*

(1) Your order is a '*list*'.

C) **Calque**

It refers to the literal translation of an L1 word into the L2. Our subjects made the following errors:

CALQUE	SPANISH TRANSLATION	CORRECT PHRASE IN ENGLISH
Put at day	Ponerse el día	Keep up to date
Break your eyes	Dañarse los ojos	Damage your eyes
Run out (the cabin)	Correr afuera	Run out of
Take out (bad 'notes')	Sacar	Get (bad scores)

Chart N° 12: Chart of calque errors (Source: writings of Juniors 1b students)

a. *Put at day*

(1) I use the messenger for '*put at day*'.

The student translated literally the Spanish phrase '*ponerse al día*', so he wrote '*put*': '*poner*' (*se*)/ '*at*': '*al*'/ '*day*': '*día*'. He turned to

translation since he did not know the correct phrase *'To keep up to date'*.

b. *Break your eyes*

(1) I don't like the Internet because (...) *'break your eyes'*.

The student used the word *'break'* as he knows the meaning of it is related to damage something or to make something stop working, as in the sentence: I *'broke'* the TV. It does not work anymore. However, when it comes to certain parts of the body, like eyes, the best word for it should be, *'harm'* or *'injure'*.

c. *Run out*

(1) The captain looked his photo and *'run out'* the cabin.

The student wanted to say *'corrió fuera de la cabina'* as a synonym of escape, so he translated the Spanish phrase into English.

The phrase *'run out'* is a phrasal verb, which has a different meaning to the one he wanted to express. According to Cambridge Dictionaries, the phrasal verb is used to express that something "has been used or it is completely finished", as in the sentence: *'The milk has run out'*. It means that, there is not any milk.

In example (1), the correct phrase to use is *'run out of'* the cabin, to express that someone escapes from a place.

d. *Take out*

(1) I *'take out'* bad *'notes'*.

The student translated literally the expression *'sacar malas calificaciones'*, that is the reason why he used the incorrect phrase *'take out'*, which is actually a verb and a phrasal verb as well. *'To Take out'* as a verb means, according to www.macmillandictionary.com, to "remove something from a pocket, bag, etc". In other words, it is the physical movement of taking something out of its place. As a phrasal verb, it has a totally different meaning. "To take someone out" means, according to Cambridge Dictionary, "to go somewhere with someone and pay for them".

In the example above, the student should have used the verb 'get' as it is the best and correct verb to use with 'scores' or 'grades', which is the right word for 'calificaciones'.

D) Borrowings

These are the words students of Juniors 1b borrowed from their L1 and used in an L2 production without any change in the word.

BORROWINGS	CORRECT PHRASE IN ENGLISH
Sufría	Suffered
Mientras	While
Conocía	Know/ According to the context it is appropriate to use the word 'used'
Pedía	Asked for
Quedó	Remained

Chart N° 13: Chart of borrowings errors (Source: writings of Juniors 1b students)

- a. The captain '*sufría*' of '*alucination*'.
- b. I with my friends ate soda, chifles, cookies '*mientras*' watched TV.
- c. A long time ago, when I was six years old I '*conocía*' the Internet.
- d. The captain '*pedía*' help.
- e. The ship se '*quedó*' alone.

The students wrote Spanish words in their sentences since they experienced lack of vocabulary. The majority of the words are verbs.

CONCLUSIONS

- According to the Affective Filter Hypothesis by Krashen, we have proved with this investigation that a motivating activity, an environment free of anxiety caused by fear of making mistakes as well as predisposition to learn are the keys to make any L2 learner learn, for instance, the procedure of the lesson plans shows that the students' affective filter was low, it means they achieved the keys mentioned before and therefore there was nothing to interfere in order to complete the instructions given.
- Regarding the writing topics that were given to our students we can confirm Fernández' hypothesis that writings with a wide topic to write about facilitate students' writing process. In conclusion, we suggest that future researchers choose subjective topics instead of objective ones since the former makes students write more in less time compared to objective topics, which make students use their time to think about what they are going to write.
- Regarding the writing topic: "The Lost Ship", which is a mystery reading, we advise future researchers to use this type of genre to make students write since children have great imagination to do so. On the other hand, "The Lost Ship" ending was a little predictable so, we suggest looking for a good story that makes students imagine a lot of different and enthusiastic endings. Based on our experience, we can conclude that almost all of our students' reading had the same ending so we could not get different types of lexical errors. So as a conclusion, we agree that a different text could have been better to reach the aim of the investigation.

- The use of a general matrix of lexical errors facilitated the collection and therefore identification and classification of our students' errors. We suggest that future investigations use the same type of matrix to avoid confusion among the types of errors explained so far.
- During the process of our students' errors collection, we could understand that a comparison between girls and boys regarding their errors could have given valuable contribution to our study. We can base this conclusion on one of the factors that influence SLA, gender. So, we suggest that future studies compare women and men's lexical errors.
- We can make a generalization of the errors obtained from our Juniors 1b students as typical and general lexical errors all starter students can make. For example, the error of the use of the Latin nominal suffix, *-ion*, in all the nouns; in other words, an overgeneralization of some suffixes.
- The majority of lexical errors Juniors 1b students made, are of a coinage type because of the misconception that English words tend to be shorter than Spanish ones. On the other hand, students made only four errors with regard to calque and this is due to their level. They cannot make connections among phrases, thus they tried to do it with words rather than long phrases in the majority of the examples.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- We suggest that future researchers and teachers of the Starter and Basic levels give pedagogical solutions to these errors and one of these could be teaching root words and their word families as well as teaching some of the most common word families in English, and these are: **ack, ain, ake, ale, all, ame, an, ank, ap, ash, at, ate, aw, ay, eat, ell, est, ice, ick, ide, ight, ill, in, ine, ing, ink, ip, it, ock, oke, op, ore, ot, uck, ug, ump, unk.**²

For example:

-ack	-ail	-ain	-ake
attack	fail	pain	bake
back	mail	brain	cake
black	tail	chain	make
lack	rail	explain	lake

We can make our students practice the words they know and according to the Comprehensible Input (i+1) of Krashen's theory which we explained in chapter 2, we can even teach them some words which not correspond to their vocabulary list established on the book.

Another error our students made was due to the lack of knowledge of the difference between verbs and nouns. In that way, we think that teaching suffixes and prefixes is crucial since they learn how to differentiate nouns from verbs, or nouns from adverbs; also they help students to understand the meaning of a new word and in that way learn more words.

Another exercise future researchers can make with students is to teach them how to use the dictionary. In the University of Piura, bringing dictionaries to the class depends on every teacher and due to the results of this study, we think that a proper use of the dictionary in class is vital as its frequent use can teach our students how to differentiate nouns from verbs or adverbs. Also, it helps develop learners' autonomy, as we have mentioned in chapter II, it is very important because students are the principal characters of their learning process.

We suggest starting by teaching them the parts of speech such as: noun, verb, adjective, adverb, article; and make students be aware of the type of word they need in a sentence. Having that in mind, students would find the abbreviations on the dictionary helpful.

Taking some of the errors our students made, we are going to explain an activity teachers can then modify with the words they want to put into practice.

- (1) Internet is very cool, you can '*navigation*' in this...
- (2) Use Internet for '*look*' information and '*noticy*' in the Peru.
- (3) I don't like the Internet because (...) '*break your eyes*'.
- (4) The captain '*pedía*' help.

The teacher can write the four sentences on the board and tell students those are some errors some students have made. Then, the teacher can ask for the correct part of speech they need; students would say they need a verb in the first sentence, a noun in the second and a verb in the third and fourth one. The teacher can then ask students to look for the words in the dictionary and complete the following chart.

Word	Noun	Verb	Adjective	Adverb
Navegar	X	Surf	X	X
Noticia	News	X	X	X
Dañar	X	Hurt	X	X
Pedía	X	Ask	X	X

There can be some variations in the activity, teachers can apply this not only for writing tasks that were done before, but for cooperative writing tasks that students are going to do. Students can think of some key words they are going to use and complete the chart above. There could be only a group who is in charge of looking for the words in the dictionary, but at the end this chart would benefit all the students in the class.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX N° 1
LESSON PLANS FOR WRITING ACTIVITIES



Lesson Plan					
Length: 45min. Time: 5 - 5.45 Date: 27/28 -04-16 Level: J1b Teacher: Rosa Mayo					
Aims: (Function) By the end of the class, SS will be able to write a short text with the title: "A Day that changed my life"		Assumptions about students' knowledge: SS know the past tense of some verbs.			
Target Language: Past Simple		Anticipated problems: Some students wouldn't like to write about personal events in the past.			
		Aids & Materials: Pictures. Board. Piece of paper.			
Stages	Procedure	Interaction	Time	Reasons	Notes
1	T pastes five pictures on the board: a trip, a girl with her little brother, the celebration of a birthday, a competition and two best friends. The SS describe the pictures.	T – SS	10m.		
2	T asks the SS about their personal experiences based on the topics on the board. E.g.: "The best trip I have had", "How I met my best friends", etc. Different SS participate.	T – SS	15m.		
3	T asks the SS to choose one of the five topics and to write about it. (From 60 to 70 words). But first the teacher models the activity; she tells her story and writes key events on the board.	T – SS	20m.		T explains that she won't discount points for spelling and vocabulary mistakes.



Figure N° 1: Picture of a girl with her little brother used during the class as extra material for the activity



Figure N° 2: Picture of two best friends used during the class as extra material for the activity



Figure N° 3: Picture of people on vacation used during the class as extra material for the activity



Figure N° 4: Picture of a competition used during the class as extra material for the activity



Figure N° 5: Picture of the celebration of a birthday used during the class as extra material for the activity

Lesson Plan					
Length: 50min. Time: 5 - 5.50 Date: 19/20 – 05- 16 Level: J1b Teacher: Rosa Mayo					
Aims: (Function) By the end of the class, SS will be able to write an expository text entitled "How the Internet affects my life".			Assumptions about students' knowledge: Personal experiences about the use of the Internet.		
Target Language: Present Simple.			Anticipated problems: Some students don't use the Internet as much as others.		
			Aids & Materials: Board. Piece of paper.		
Stages	Procedure	Interaction	Time	Reasons	Notes
1	The teacher says hello and asks for the date.	T – SS	5m.		
2	The teacher asks: What do you use the Internet for? And writes the students' answers on the board.	T – SS	10m.		
3	The teacher writes <u>How the Internet affects my life</u> on the board and gives a personal example: she compares her life before and after the Internet arrived to her life: "I didn't have a computer in my house, so I had to go to an Internet café to use messenger to chat with my friends and find information online. Now, I have Internet in my house so I use it whenever I want".	T – SS	5m.		
4	The teacher draws a chart on the board and writes advantages in one column and disadvantages of the Internet in the other column, and SS share their opinions and experiences. T writes some of their examples on the board.	SS – SS	10m.		

Stages	Procedure	Interaction	Time	Reasons	Notes
5	The teacher asks SS to write a short text of 60 to 70 words with the title: "How the Internet affects my life".	SS	20m.		If they don't use the Internet so much, SS have the choice to write about an experience that one of their friends had with the Internet. T explains that she won't discount points for vocabulary and spelling mistakes.

Lesson Plan					
Length: 1h 30min. Time: 5 – 6.30 Date: 15/16 – 06 - 16 Level: J1b Teacher: Rosa Mayo					
Aims: (Function) At the end of the class, SS will be able to understand specific information about a reading titled: "The Lost Ship". SS will be able to write a short story about the ending of the text they read before.		Assumptions about students' knowledge: SS know the past tense of some verbs.			
Target Language: Past Simple.		Anticipated problems: Some students wouldn't understand some words from the reading.			
		Aids & Materials: Reading: "The Lost Ship". Worksheet. Board. Piece of paper.			
Stages	Procedure	Interaction	Time	Reasons	Notes
1	The teacher says hello to students and asks for the date.	T – SS	5m.		
2	The teacher writes "The Lost Ship" on the board and asks: What is the reading about? What is a ship? How did the ship get lost? To arouse students' interest.	T – SS	10m.		
3	The teacher gives a worksheet about the reading to the students, then, they listen to the first part of the story and answer a T/ F exercise.	SS	20m.		
4	The teacher checks the students' answers and teach new vocabulary related to the reading.	T – SS	5m.		In the worksheet given, there is a part in which the students match some new words from the reading to their appropriate picture.

Stages	Procedure	Interaction	Time	Reasons	Notes
5	The teacher gives the reading to every student to finish reading the story. Then, some students participate telling the summary of it to the rest of the class.	SS - SS	25m.		
6	The teacher makes sure everybody understands the story by asking questions about it.	T – SS	5m.		
7	To finish, the students are asked to write the ending of the story in a separate piece of paper. (From 60 to 70 words.)	SS	20m.		T explains that she won't discount points for vocabulary and spelling mistakes.

The Lost Ship

Teacher: Rosa Mayo

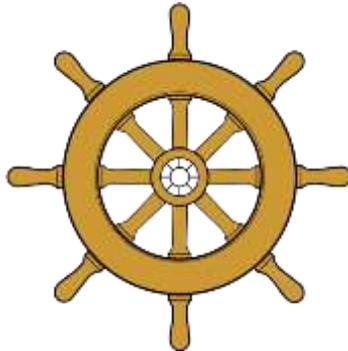
Name: _____

Date: _____/16

A. Listen to the story twice and circle T for true and F for false.

1. They are going to be in Florida in 4 days. T F
2. The Captain of the ship writes only about his men. T F
3. The Captain wants to communicate with the men in the strange ship. T F
4. The Captain and three men row across to the strange ship. T F
5. There is nobody at the strange ship. T F
6. There is a photograph of the man of the strange ship. T F

B. Label the following pictures using the words from the box.





DECK – STEER - JUG – ASHTRAY – WHEEL – CABIN

APPENDIX N° 2 CHECKLISTS

I. INFORMACIÓN GENERAL

- 1.1 Nombres y apellidos del validador : Jenny Pérez Aldana
 1.2 Cargo e institución donde labora : Coord. Testing Team - Udep
 1.3 Nombre del instrumento evaluado : Ckecklist
 1.4 Autor del instrumento : Rosa Mayo.

II. ASPECTOS DE VALIDACIÓN

Revisar cada uno de los ítems del instrumento y marcar con un aspa dentro del recuadro (X), según la calificación que asigna a cada uno de los indicadores.

1. Deficiente (Si menos del 30% de los ítems cumplen con el indicador).
 2. Regular (Si entre el 31% y 70% de los ítems cumplen con el indicador).
 3. Buena (Si más del 70% de los ítems cumplen con el indicador).

Aspectos de validación del instrumento		1	2	3	Observaciones Sugerencias
Criterios	Indicadores	D	R	B	
• PERTINENCIA	Los ítems miden lo previsto en los objetivos de investigación.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• COHERENCIA	Los ítems responden a lo que se debe medir en la variable y sus dimensiones.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• CONGRUENCIA	Los ítems son congruentes entre sí y con el concepto que mide.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• SUFICIENCIA	Los ítems son suficientes en cantidad para medir la variable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• OBJETIVIDAD	Los ítems se expresan en comportamientos y acciones observables.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• CONSISTENCIA	Los ítems se han formulado en concordancia a los fundamentos teóricos de la variable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• ORGANIZACIÓN	Los ítems están secuenciados y distribuidos de acuerdo a dimensiones e indicadores.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• CLARIDAD	Los ítems están redactados en un lenguaje entendible para los sujetos a evaluar.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• FORMATO	Los ítems están escritos respetando aspectos técnicos (tamaño de letra, espaciado, interlineado, nitidez).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• ESTRUCTURA	El instrumento cuenta con instrucciones, consignas, opciones de respuesta bien definidas.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
CONTEO TOTAL (Realizar el conteo de acuerdo a puntuaciones asignadas a cada indicador)		C	B	A	Total

Elaboración: Juan Carlos Zanotti Anselmino

Coefficiente de validez : $\frac{A + B + C}{30} = \frac{30}{30} = 1$

Intervalos	Resultado
0,00 – 0,49	• Validez nula
0,50 – 0,59	• Validez muy baja
0,60 – 0,69	• Validez baja
0,70 – 0,79	• Validez aceptable
0,80 – 0,89	• Validez buena
0,90 – 1,00	• Validez muy buena

III. CALIFICACIÓN GLOBAL

Ubicar el coeficiente de validez obtenido en el intervalo respectivo y escriba sobre el espacio el resultado.

Validez muy buena

Piura, 20 de octubre de 2016.





I. INFORMACIÓN GENERAL

- 1.1 Nombres y apellidos del validador : REBECCA SAAVERA LUNA
 1.2 Cargo e institución donde labora : COORD. SANTA MARÍA - UDEP
 1.3 Nombre del instrumento evaluado : Checklist
 1.4 Autor del instrumento : Rosa G. Mayo Chinga.

II. ASPECTOS DE VALIDACIÓN

Revisar cada uno de los ítems del instrumento y marcar con un aspa dentro del recuadro (X), según la calificación que asigna a cada uno de los indicadores.

1. Deficiente (Si menos del 30% de los ítems cumplen con el indicador).
 2. Regular (Si entre el 31% y 70% de los ítems cumplen con el indicador).
 3. Buena (Si más del 70% de los ítems cumplen con el indicador).

Criterios	Aspectos de validación del instrumento Indicadores	1	2	3	Observaciones Sugerencias
		D	R	B	
• PERTINENCIA	Los ítems miden lo previsto en los objetivos de investigación.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• COHERENCIA	Los ítems responden a lo que se debe medir en la variable y sus dimensiones.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• CONGRUENCIA	Los ítems son congruentes entre sí y con el concepto que mide.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• SUFICIENCIA	Los ítems son suficientes en cantidad para medir la variable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• OBJETIVIDAD	Los ítems se expresan en comportamientos y acciones observables.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• CONSISTENCIA	Los ítems se han formulado en concordancia a los fundamentos teóricos de la variable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• ORGANIZACIÓN	Los ítems están secuenciados y distribuidos de acuerdo a dimensiones e indicadores.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• CLARIDAD	Los ítems están redactados en un lenguaje entendible para los sujetos a evaluar.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• FORMATO	Los ítems están escritos respetando aspectos técnicos (tamaño de letra, espaciado, interlineado, nitidez).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• ESTRUCTURA	El instrumento cuenta con instrucciones, consignas, opciones de respuesta bien definidas.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
CONTEO TOTAL				30	
(Realizar el conteo de acuerdo a puntuaciones asignadas a cada indicador)		C	B	A	Total

Elaboración: Jairo Cárdeno Zumbado Ancoarim

Coefficiente de validez : $\frac{A+B+C}{30} = 1$

III. CALIFICACIÓN GLOBAL

Ubicar el coeficiente de validez obtenido en el intervalo respectivo y escriba sobre el espacio el resultado.

Validez muy buena

Plura, 20 de octubre de 2016.

Intervalos	Resultado
0,00 – 0,49	• Validez nula
0,50 – 0,59	• Validez muy baja
0,60 – 0,69	• Validez baja
0,70 – 0,79	• Validez aceptable
0,80 – 0,89	• Validez buena
0,90 – 1,00	• Validez muy buena



I. INFORMACIÓN GENERAL

- 1.1 Nombres y apellidos del validador : GREGORIO TUME PALACIOS
 1.2 Cargo e institución donde labora : COORD. TESTING TEAM – UDEP
 1.3 Nombre del instrumento evaluado : Checklist
 1.4 Autor del instrumento : Rosa G. Mayo Chinga.

II. ASPECTOS DE VALIDACIÓN

Revisar cada uno de los ítems del instrumento y marcar con un aspa dentro del recuadro (X), según la calificación que asigna a cada uno de los indicadores.

1. Deficiente (Si menos del 30% de los ítems cumplen con el indicador).
 2. Regular (Si entre el 31% y 70% de los ítems cumplen con el indicador).
 3. Buena (Si más del 70% de los ítems cumplen con el indicador).

Criterios	Aspectos de validación del instrumento Indicadores	1	2	3	Observaciones Sugerencias
		D	R	B	
• PERTINENCIA	Los ítems miden lo previsto en los objetivos de investigación.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• COHERENCIA	Los ítems responden a lo que se debe medir en la variable y sus dimensiones.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• CONGRUENCIA	Los ítems son congruentes entre sí y con el concepto que mide.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• SUFICIENCIA	Los ítems son suficientes en cantidad para medir la variable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
• OBJETIVIDAD	Los ítems se expresan en comportamientos y acciones observables.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• CONSISTENCIA	Los ítems se han formulado en concordancia a los fundamentos teóricos de la variable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• ORGANIZACIÓN	Los ítems están secuenciados y distribuidos de acuerdo a dimensiones e indicadores.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• CLARIDAD	Los ítems están redactados en un lenguaje entendible para los sujetos a evaluar.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
• FORMATO	Los ítems están escritos respetando aspectos técnicos (tamaño de letra, espaciado, interlineado, nitidez).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
• ESTRUCTURA	El instrumento cuenta con instrucciones, consignas, opciones de respuesta bien definidas.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
CONTEO TOTAL			4	24	
(Realizar el conteo de acuerdo a puntuaciones asignadas a cada indicador)		C	B	A	Total

Referencia: Juan Carlos Troncoso Ancajima

Coefficiente de validez : $\frac{A + B + C}{30} = 0.93$

Intervalos	Resultado
0,00 – 0,49	• Validez nula
0,50 – 0,59	• Validez muy baja
0,60 – 0,69	• Validez baja
0,70 – 0,79	• Validez aceptable
0,80 – 0,89	• Validez buena
0,90 – 1,00	• Validez muy buena

III. CALIFICACIÓN GLOBAL

Ubicar el coeficiente de validez obtenido en el intervalo respectivo y escriba sobre el espacio el resultado.

Validez muy buena

Piura, 20 de octubre de 2016.