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**Errors in the Usage of Article in Advanced EFL Learners with Spanish as**

**L1**

Chyby v používání členů u pokročilých španělských mluvčích anglického  
jazyka

**BAKALÁŘSKÁ PRÁCE**

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Praha, květen 2018

## **PODĚKOVÁNÍ**

Ráda bych touto cestou poděkovala vedoucímu své práce PhDr. Tomáši Gráfovi, Ph.D. za pomoc při psaní bakalářské práce, cenné rady a připomínky.

## PROHLÁŠENÍ

Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto bakalářskou práci vypracovala samostatně, že jsem řádně citovala všechny použité prameny a literaturu a že práce nebyla využita v rámci jiného vysokoškolského studia či k získání jiného nebo stejného titulu.

V Praze dne .....

.....

Iva Hubáčková

## **SOUHLAS**

Souhlasím se zapůjčením bakalářské práce ke studijním účelům.

I have no objections to the BA thesis being borrowed and used for study purposes.

## Abstract

The aim of this thesis is to find out in which contexts advanced EFL learners with Spanish as L1 tend to use articles incorrectly, and to what extent these errors can be ascribed to L1 transfer. For this purpose, a selection of 30 speakers from the Spanish part of the spoken learner corpus LINDSEI was examined. The errors were tagged using a modified version of the Louvain error-tagging manual. They were then classified according to the article forms and the types of reference. Lastly, the excerpts were compared with their Spanish counterparts. The research revealed that the most-error prone area is non-referring uses of the indefinite article. However, the majority of these errors were caused by factors, other than L1-transfer. In fact, the fact that there were few errors in expressing definiteness suggests that the positive role of transfer prevails. Also, the number of “transfer errors” in individual speakers’ performances was not always proportional to the total number of errors. And last but not least, in many cases, the role of transfer is questionable as in Spanish, there are cases where more than one form is considered correct. The findings of this thesis should thus serve as starting point for further research, which would provide answer to questions this study could not answer.

**Key words:** spoken language, learner language, error analysis, articles, reference, transfer

## Abstrakt

Cílem této bakalářské práce bylo zjistit, v kterých kontextech dělají pokročilí španělští mluvčí angličtiny nejvíce chyb v užívání členů a do jaké míry lze v těchto případech hovořit o chybách způsobených transferem. Výzkum byl prováděn na vzorku 30 mluvčích ze španělské části žakovského korpusu LINDSEI. Chyby byly označovány za použití upravené verze lovaňského značkovacího systému. Poté byly rozděleny do kategorií podle formy a typu reference. Nakonec byla excerpta porovnána se španělskými protějšky. Výzkum ukázal, že nejproblematictější oblastí je nereferenční užití neurčitého členu. V těchto případech však většinou nelze hovořit o transferu. Skutečnost, že mluvčím nepůsobilo potíže rozlišování mezi členem určitým a neurčitým naznačuje že role transferu je spíše pozitivní. Dále bylo zjištěno, že u jednotlivých mluvčích není počet chyb, které lze přisuzovat transferu přímoúměrný celkovému počtu chyb. A v neposlední řadě výzkum ukázal, že role transferu je často diskutabilní, jelikož ve španělštině lze v daném kontextu často použít více forem. Výsledky této práce by tak měly sloužit jako východisko pro další výzkum, jenž by přinesl odpovědi na otázky, které tato studie zodpovědět nedokázala.

**Klíčová slova:** mluvený jazyk, žakovský jazyk, chybová analýza, členy, reference, transfer

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## List of abbreviations

CGEL	A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language
EMSA	Elektronická mluvnice současné angličtiny
L1	first language
L2	second language
LGSWE	Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English
LINDSEI	Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage
NGLE	Nueva gramática de la lengua española – manual
RAE	Real Academia Española

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## 1. Introduction

Studying learner language is important as error analysis of learner language enables the identification of the most error prone areas of grammar. Students can then focus on the most problematic linguistic phenomena, and make further advancements in their language studies. One of the most difficult aspects of English grammar for non-native speakers of English is the use of articles. The thesis analyses data drawn from the Spanish subcorpus of LINDSEI – *Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage* (Gilquin et al. 2010), focusing on errors advanced Spanish students make when using articles.

The first five chapters of this paper deal with the English article system and the types and subtypes of reference. The classification is based mainly on *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, henceforth referred to as CGEL (Quirk et al. 1985), and occasionally complemented by *Elektronická Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny*, henceforth EMSA (Dušková et al.), and *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*, henceforth LGSWE (Biber et al. 2007). The sixth chapter briefly describes the Spanish article system, comparing it to English, paying attention to similarities and differences between the two; the classification of the Spanish article system is based on *Nueva gramática de la lengua española: manual*, henceforth referred to as NGLE (RAE 2010). This chapter also deals with various studies on the topic of acquisition of English articles by L2-speakers, especially with those focused on Spanish students. The practical part consists of a brief description of the material and methodology used in this thesis, of the error analysis itself, and of a brief discussion of the results. The practical part reveals, in which contexts Spanish speakers tend to err most, and how much this is related to L1-transfer.

## 2. The English Article System

### 2.1 Introduction

Articles are function words – a subcategory of determiners – morphologically marking the head of the phrase as a noun. On the basis of definiteness, English distinguishes between two articles: the definite article *the* and the indefinite article *a/an*. But there is also a third form: the zero article  $\theta$ , which can have both definite and indefinite meanings. The articles are means of expressing different kinds of reference. The two basic types of reference: specific and generic, their subtypes, and the article forms that can be used with these will be discussed below.

### 2.2. The definite article

As mentioned above, the written form of the definite article is *the*. In spoken form, however, there are three variants. When followed by a consonant, it is pronounced as /ðə/. When preceding a vowel, the pronunciation is /ði/. The long pronunciation /ði:/ is possible with both consonants and vowels, and its function is to put emphasis on a particular element; this is called the honouring function (EMSA, 3.32.24). As to the actual use, the definite article usually expresses specific reference. It marks the phrases it introduces as definite, i.e. “referring to something which can be identified uniquely in the contextual or general knowledge shared by the speaker and hearer” (CGEL, 265). In other words, there is a presupposition that the information is already known. Quirk et al. describe several ways in which the referent can be identified.

#### 2.2.1. Specific reference

As the name suggests, specific reference denotes specific things, rather than classes or types. It can be expressed by all three forms of articles (definite, indefinite and zero). Each form will be discussed separately along with the subtype with which it is used.

#### 2.2.1.1. Situational reference

With “situational reference,” the article points to objects not previously mentioned in the discourse. However, the referent is always retrievable from the context (immediate or larger). This kind of reference is the most common in conversation. Biber et al. argue that it is due to the fact that conversation takes place in a situation which the speaker and the hearer share. Also, the participants tend to be closely related, and so there is a large amount of shared knowledge (LGSWE, 266-7).

##### 2.2.1.1.1. Immediate situation

The sentence: “Could you pass the salt, please.” is a perfect example of reference to immediate situation. It suggests that the speaker and the listener are having a meal, and that there is a salt box both of them are aware of. In this example, as well as in the majority of other contexts, the denoted object is in the field of vision of both the speaker and the listener. However, as explained in both EMSA and CGEL, the referent does not always have to be visible, or even previously known. For example, when there is a sign that reads: “Beware of the dog,” the addressee did not necessarily have to know that there was a dog (EMSA, 3.32.21; CGEL, 266). Similarly, when the speaker asks: “Have you fed the dog?,” it is based on the shared knowledge that the other person owns a dog, but it does not imply that the dog is present.

##### 2.2.1.1.2. Larger situation (general knowledge)

As was the case with immediate situation, reference to a larger context presupposes certain shared knowledge. However, it is not something retrievable directly from the situation. Rather, the identification of the referent is dependent on certain knowledge of the world (*the Pope*), or the current situation in a country (*the Prime minister*). Again, the use of the definite article marks the object as unique. Some expressions are even capitalised. In this respect, as Quirk et al. suggest, they resemble proper nouns (CGEL, 266).

#### 2.2.1.2. Anaphoric reference

Anaphoric reference is close to situational reference in that it relies on shared knowledge (EMSA, 3.32.22). However, what is referred to is not extralinguistic reality, but something mentioned previously in the discourse. Anaphoric reference can be direct, i.e. through repetition or substitution (e.g. by a pronoun), or indirect (sometimes called associative), i.e. based on semantic relationships (e.g. synonymy, meronymy). An example of direct anaphora could be: “John came late, and nobody paid attention to him.” In this sentence, the proper noun *John* is substituted by the object pronoun *him*. On the other hand, “Sally shook her head.” is an example of indirect anaphora as there is a relationship of meronymy between Sally and her head.

##### 2.2.1.2.1. Reference to body parts

As implied in the previous section, reference to parts of the body falls under the category of associative anaphora. In case of body parts, however, possessive pronouns are often used instead of *the*. The use of the definite article here is limited to prepositional phrases where the body part functions as complement of a preposition: “He shook him by the hand.,” as opposed to the possessive: “He shook his hand.” As for the semantic relationship between the antecedent and the referent, it is always that of meronymy.

#### 2.2.1.3. Cataphoric reference

Cataphoric reference is the opposite of anaphora as the referent is specified by what follows the head of the noun phrase. It can take the form of a prepositional phrase: “the President of the Czech Republic,” a non-finite clause: “The girls sitting there are my friends.,” or a relative clause: “The bicycle that he bought was very expensive.” In all cases, its syntactic function is that of postmodification. This kind of reference is the most common in academic prose, and in contrast, the least common in conversation. This is due to the complexity of noun

phrases in academic texts on the one hand, and the simplicity of these in conversation on the other (LGSWE, 266-7).

#### 2.2.1.4. Sporadic reference

Sporadic reference is a completely different case. Here, the article refers to an institution, rather than a specific building. In this respect, it is closer to generic reference, which will be discussed in detail in chapter 5. The clause: “My brother often goes to the cinema.” means he often goes to see movies, but it does not necessarily mean that he goes to the same cinema. The same occurs with mass media: *the radio, the television, the paper*; and with means of transport: *the bus, the train* etc. (CGEL, 269). With a slight change of meaning, the latter can also be used with the zero article (see section 2.4.2.1.). The category of sporadic reference also includes festivals (*the New Year*) and seasons, but with the latter, the article is optional.

#### 2.2.1.5. Logical reference

Logical reference relies on logical interpretation of some words. It applies to superlatives (*the best*), ordinal numbers (*the first*), “general ordinals” (*the next*), and also to words like *the same*, or *the only* (CGEL, 270). Again, it signals the uniqueness of the referent as there can be only one object which is the first, or the best. However, there are some exceptions; especially fixed phrases, where the zero article (*best man*), or the indefinite article (*an only child*) is used instead.

### 2.3. The indefinite article

Unlike the definite article, the indefinite article has two written forms: *a* and *an*. The first form is used before consonants, the other before vowels. However, the written form can sometimes cause confusion. This is due to the fact that the rules for the use of *a/an* are governed by pronunciation. Words like: *honour, heir or honest*, take the form *an* because in spoken form, the initial h is silent. Similarly, with initial h in unstressed syllables – e.g. *historical* (LGSWE,

260). The indefinite article is the “unmarked” article (CGEL, 272), i.e. it is used in contexts where *the* cannot be used. It does not mark the referent as unique, and there is no presupposition that the listener is familiar with the object. As for its uses, Quirk et al. discuss 2 main ways in which the indefinite article is used: non-referring uses and substitution of the numeral one (CGEL, 273-4).

### 2.3.1. Non-referring uses

The indefinite article often introduces a head noun whose syntactic function is that of a subject complement, namely classifying: “My brother is a doctor.,” or qualifying: “What a lovely boy (he is)!” According to CGEL, “the article has a descriptive role rather than a referring role.” (CGEL, 273). This is related to the fact that it is used in descriptive exclamative sentences: “What a nice weather (it is)!,” sometimes, however, the use of *the* is also possible in these contexts, e.g. “The fool of me!” (CGEL, 273). In some cases, the non-referring role of the indefinite article is taken to the extreme: i.e. the article does not refer to any real object. For example, in the sentence: “He wants to meet a Hollywood actress who speaks Czech.,” it is not clear whether he knows of one, or whether he just dreams about it. It is not even known if such an actress actually exists. In EMSA, this kind of reference is called non-specific (EMSA, 3.32.31).<sup>1</sup> When the head noun functions as a subject complement, the article is compulsory. In other instances, the use of the indefinite article is optional, e.g. *her duties as (an) au pair*, *Descartes as (a) philosopher*.

### 2.3.2. The indefinite article in place of the numeral one

Since the indefinite article developed from the Old English form of the numeral one (*ān*), it is no surprise that in some contexts, it retains its original function. This becomes evident with expressions such as: *a million*, *a hundred* etc. However, in sentences like: “I’ve got a

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<sup>1</sup> Within *singulative, indefinite reference*, it is distinguished between *indefinite specific* and *indefinite non specific*.

brother and a sister.,” the articles can also readily be substituted for *one*. Similarly, with sentences where the article is followed by an intensifying adjective, e.g. “He wrote 10 pages in a (single) day.” Furthermore, Quirk et al. observe that in this context, the article often follows a negative *as*, for instance, in: “There is not a (single) person I could trust.” (CGEL, 274)

## 2.4. The zero article

The zero article is used with plurals and with uncountable nouns. It often alternates with other determiners, namely *some*, and in negative contexts *any*. Quirk et al. discuss the differences between the two, and note that *some* refers to a quantity which, though indefinite, can be specified, i.e. it still has a quantifying function. For example, in the sentence: “I have bought some bananas.,” the quantity is not known, but can be found out by means of a “wh question” – *How many?* The zero article, on the other hand, refers to a category, rather than a quantity (CGEL, 275). In the plural, the zero article is the alternative of the classifying use of *a/an*. It is therefore obvious that in this context, the use of *some* is unacceptable. However, there are certain contexts where both *some* and *zero* can be used, e.g. “Will you have (some) ice cream or (some) cake” Here, Quirk et al. again suggest that the sentence without *some* focuses on the kind of dessert, whereas the use of *some* puts emphasis on the quantity (CGEL, 275-6). Until now, indefinite meanings of the zero article have been discussed. But the zero article also has definite meanings, and these will be the main focus of the next part.

### 2.4.1. The use of the zero article with copular verbs

As explained in section 3.1., when the function of the head noun is that of a subject complement, the noun usually takes the indefinite article. However, when the referent is unique, the zero article is also possible. This is often the case with identification, e.g. “Václav Havel was (the) president of the Czech Republic in 1993.” When the head noun functions as an object complement, the zero article prevails, though in most cases, the definite article is also possible:

“He was elected (the) chairman.” In official forms, and with expressions such as *the post of* or *the position of*, the zero article is generally preferred. With the latter, it is due to the fact that there is usually only one such position, and therefore it is not necessary to mark the uniqueness with *the* (CGEL,276).

#### 2.4.2. Sporadic reference

The use of *the* in case of sporadic reference has been discussed above. However, the zero article is also very common. It is mostly used when the head of the noun phrase functions as a prepositional complement, especially with *at*, *in* and *on* in “quasi-locative phrases” (CGEL, 277). This kind of phrases is called “quasi-locative” because though they appear to refer to a specific location, their meaning is usually more general, i.e. they refer to institutions rather than specific places: *go to school*, *go to bed*. In fact, the article often becomes means of distinguishing the institutional use from that which refers to specific buildings, as in.: *be in prison* x *be in the prison*. The first phrase could be paraphrased as *be imprisoned*, whereas the meaning of the second is *to go there as a visitor*.

##### 2.4.2.1. Means of transport

The use of sporadic *the* with means of transport is again described above. But there is one specific context where the zero article is used instead – when the noun follows the preposition *by*, e.g. *travel by bus*, *go by train*.

##### 2.4.2.2. Times of day, Seasons, Meals and Illnesses

Times of day also take the zero article, especially after prepositions like *at*, *by*, *after* and *before*, e.g. *at midnight*, *at sunrise* (CGEL, 278). In contrast to this, the preposition *in* is always followed by the definite article, e.g. *in the afternoon*, *in the evening* etc. As for seasons, when being referred to in general, the article is optional, but as Quirk et al. observe, the use of the zero article is predominant (CGEL, 278). When there is a postmodification, however, the

definite article is compulsory. The only exception to this rule occurs when referring to the climate rather than time of the year: “(The) summer of 2011 was hotter than that of 2010.” vs “The summer of 2011 was a lovely time.”

Meals, just like times of day and seasons, are generally used without articles. But when referring to a particular meal – which is usually signalled by premodification: “Today, we had a delicious dinner.,” or postmodification: “The dinner at the party was delicious.” – both the definite and the indefinite article can be used. The indefinite article occurs in case of premodification, whereas the definite article with postmodification. Illnesses also take the zero article, except for the most common ones, such as: *(the) flu, (the) measles, a cold, a headache etc.* (CGEL, 279).

#### 2.4.3. Parallel structures

The zero article is also used with the so called parallel structures. These are idiomatic expressions consisting of two nouns or adjectives connected by a preposition: *shoulder to shoulder*, or a coordinating conjunction: *husband and wife*. There can be one noun which is repeated after the preposition: *eye to eye*, or two different words: *from right to left*. With the latter, the use of the definite article is also possible: *from the right to the left*. According to CGEL, the loss of articles in the majority of these expressions is due to the “loss of their independent nominal status.” For this reason, the nouns cannot take determiners or modifiers, or form plurals. But there are instances of productive parallel structures – the so called “correlative pairs” (CGEL, 280). Expressions such as: *both (the) father and (the) son*, or *neither (the) one nor the other* can take determiners, modifiers and plurals respectively.

### 3. Generic reference

The generic use of articles is close to sporadic reference in that it denotes classes, rather than concrete things. Dušková et al. observe that this kind of reference can be tested by transfer

to the plural: “A child learns from its parents” = “Children learn from their parents.” (EMSA, 3.32.1) All three major article forms described in the previous sections can be used generically. However, not all forms can be used in all contexts, and where more forms are possible, there are differences in the meaning.

### 3.1. The generic use of the indefinite article

When *a/an* is used generically, “it picks out any representative member of the class” (CGEL, 281). In this context, the indefinite article is interchangeable with *any*, e.g. “Learning *a/any* language takes a long time.” Having said that, it becomes apparent that the sentence: \*”A white lion is almost extinct.” does not make sense. Dušková et al. note that *a/an* cannot be used with expressions, such as: *abound, increase (in number), decrease* or *be rare*. For this reason, the indefinite article is the most restricted when it comes to generic use (EMSA, 3.32.1).

### 3.2. The generic use of the zero article

As with the specific reference, the zero article is used with plurals and uncountable nouns. It marks the class as an “undifferentiated whole” (CGEL, 282). Thus, with plural forms of countable nouns, it is usually possible to add the predeterminer *all*, e. g. “Tigers are wild animals.” = “All tigers are wild animals.” When used generically, with the meaning of *humanity* or *mankind*, *man* also occurs with the zero article, e.g. *history of man*.

### 3.3. The generic use of the definite article

#### 3.3.1. Singular noun phrases

As was the case with the indefinite article, the generic use of *the* is limited. In most cases, it is considered formal or literary. “It indicates the class as represented by its typical specimen.” (CGEL, 282) For example, the sentence: “The tiger is becoming almost extinct.” means that tigers in a particular place are almost extinct, and therefore, they will probably be

extinct in other parts of the world as well. In addition to this, the definite article is used with musical instruments: *play the guitar*, or dances: *dance the tango*.

However, with sentences with verbonominal predicates whose subjects are human beings, the use of the definite article is questionable, and sometimes even inappropriate: ?”The Czech is a good musician.” In such cases, the zero article is preferred: ”Czechs are good musicians.” Furthermore, there is another reason why generic use of *the* is problematic: it can cause ambiguities, e.g. “The president is too powerful.” may lead to the question: *Which president?* since it can mean either presidents in general, the president of that country, or the president of another country.

### 3.3.2. Plural noun phrases

In CGEL, two special cases where *the* can be used generically with plurals are described: nationalities or ethnic groups, and phrases with adjectival heads, such as, *the poor*, *the rich* etc. (CGEL, 283). In other instances, the use of the definite article is considered incorrect. The exception to this are scientific articles, where phrases, such as *the rodents* are used to refer to the whole order.

It can be argued that, for example: “The Romans defeated the Carthaginians in 202 BC.” is not generic reference in the strict sense. It refers to a collective of people, rather than a typical representative. But as the use of the singular would be questionable, and would cause ambiguities, the distinction between generic singular and generic plural has been established. Lastly, with plural nouns denoting nationality, the distinction has to be made between “generic nouns with invariable plural ending *-ish*, *-sh*, or *-ch*, and nongeneric nouns ending in *-man* or *-men*” (CGEL, 284). When preceded by the definite article, they express specific reference, e.g.: “The Scotsmen are fierce fighters.” With the generic meaning, the zero article is used instead: “Scotsmen are fierce fighters.”

## 4. Abstract nouns

Abstract nouns can be used both generically and specifically, and can be either countable or uncountable. Countable abstracts usually refer to events: *meeting*, uncountable abstracts to activities, states, or qualities: *kindness*. However, some nouns fluctuate between countable and uncountable usage, e.g. “There isn’t much difference.” (uncountable) vs “There aren’t many differences.” (countable). When used generically, even with premodifications, abstract nouns take the zero article: “She’s studying English literature.” But when postmodified by an –of phrase, the definite article is obligatory: “the art of the Renaissance.” Quirk et al. argue that the use of the definite article with –of phrases may be due to the fact that it focuses on one subclass rather than the class as a whole. Its meaning therefore shifts from generic to partitive, i.e. the example above does not necessarily include all of Renaissance art. Rather, it could be paraphrased as: “some aspects of Renaissance art” (CGEL, 286-7). This is similar to the use of the indefinite article with modifications, as in: *a mirthless laugh*, or *a happiness that was contagious*.

## 5. Proper nouns

Proper nouns are names of people, places, months, days, festivals or magazines (CGEL, 288). They have “unique denotation” and therefore lack number contrast. It is then obvious that they can’t be used generically. Another important property of proper nouns is that they mostly lack articles. According to EMSA, they cannot have the zero article as the zero article is a means of expressing generic reference, and of the so called “singulative non specific reference.”<sup>2</sup> The reference of proper nouns is always “singulative specific,”<sup>3</sup> and therefore, it does not accept the zero article (EMSA, 3.32.5). But there are exceptions which do take articles: expressions where

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<sup>2</sup> Quirk et al. call this: *non-referring use of the indefinite article*. (see section 2.3.1.)

<sup>3</sup> Quirk et al. treat proper nouns as a special case, but based on the system in CGEL, they could be classified as a subtype of *specific reference*.

the article is part of the name, e.g. *The Hague*. But even in such cases, article variation or premodification is not feasible. However, there are some special instances in which premodifiers are not considered agrammatical. This is the case of non-restrictive adjectives which are emotionally coloured, as in: *beautiful Barcelona*, or *old Mrs. Hudson*.

Proper nouns usually combine with descriptive words: modifiers *Dallas Road*, determiners *King's College*, or appositive expressions *Senator Burr*; in CGEL, these are called “descriptors.” Based on whether the words are accompanied by descriptors or not, it is distinguished between “names” and “proper nouns” (CGEL, 288). “Proper nouns” consist of one word, “names” may involve more than one.

#### 5.1. Proper nouns behaving as common nouns

As explained in the previous section, proper nouns generally lack number contrast, articles and premodifiers. However, there are special cases in which proper nouns lose their “unique denotation,” and function as common nouns. For example, *Mozart* is normally a proper noun, which refers to the famous Austrian composer. But when used in the plural, *Mozarts*, it no longer has a unique referent; it essentially refers to all good composers or piano players. Similarly, with the indefinite article: *a Mozart* refers to a person good at composing music or playing the piano.

*A/an* can also be used with the meaning *a person called X*. This person may be known: “I once knew a Mr. Idle.” or unknown: “A Mr. Idle was calling this morning.” to the speaker. The zero article is also possible in this context, but its use can lead to confusion, especially in sentences such as: “I know Karel Gott quite well.” This is closely connected to what Dušková et al. call “the honouring function of the definite article” (EMSA, 3.32.24). The use of the zero article in contexts such as the previous often requires further clarification. This is achieved by means of the definite article: “Oh no, not the /ði:/ Karel Gott.” or “Do you mean the /ði:/ Karel

Gott?” The function of the definite article in such cases is to put emphasis on the uniqueness of the referent.

Proper nouns can normally be modified only by non-restrictive postmodifiers. But there are again special cases, in which they behave like common nouns, i.e. they permit restrictive modification, mostly in the form of relative clauses: “Oh no, I mean Dr. Brown who lives in London, not Dr. Brown from Australia.” In many cases, their unique meaning changes to partitive (CGEL, 290). For example, the noun *Christmas* would normally fall into the category of sporadic reference, and would refer to *Christmas* as a period that repeats every year. However, when it takes a postmodification, as in: *the Christmas of 2012*, it refers to one specific festival in one specific year.

## 5.2. Names with no article

Now, we can turn to names which do not take articles. In CGEL, these names are divided into four major classes: personal names, temporal names, geographical names, and other locative names (CGEL, 291). Personal names, even when preceded by titles – of courtesy, or indicating political, social or professional status – have no articles. Temporal names include names of festivals, religious periods, days of the week, months etc. They are not introduced by articles when they refer to “the period as recurrent item in the calendar” (Quirk et al., 292) (see sporadic reference). When denoting one specific period, the use of the article depends on the context. Days of the week can occur with the indefinite article when the speaker does not have a specific Saturday in mind: “He arrived on a Saturday.” Moreover, days can also form plurals: “I love Fridays.”

Geographical names also lack articles, even when they are premodified by an adjective, e.g. *Elizabethan England*. Nevertheless, there are some exceptions to this rule, as for instance: *the Sahara*. Dušková et al. argue that in this particular case, it is due to the fact that in the past,

it had been used along with the common noun: *the Sahara desert* (EMSA, 3.32.5). There are even some cases in which two different places are distinguished by the use of the article: *Mississippi* refers to the state, whereas *the Mississippi* refers to the river. Locative names consisting of a proper noun and the so called “descriptor” (see chapter 5), e.g. *Times Square*, normally do not take articles. But again, there are exceptions, such as *The Albert Hall* or *The Mansion House*.

### 5.3. Use of the definite article with names

Here, Quirk et al. distinguish between “names,” e.g. *J. K. Rowling*, and “definite descriptions”: *the author of Harry Potter* (CGEL, 294). The difference between the two is that definite descriptions are formed like other definite noun phrases, i.e. they are preceded by the definite article. Otherwise, however, the distinction is rather vague. For example, expressions like *the Eiffel Tower* combine features of both categories: both the proper noun and the descriptor are capitalised, which is typical of a name, but there is also the definite article, a typical feature of definite descriptions. According to CGEL, the use or omission of the definite article is a matter of institutionalization (CGEL, 295). Nevertheless, there are certain names, which typically take the definite article: plural names, particularly groups of islands or mountain ranges: *the Canaries*, *the Himalayas*; rivers: *the Thames*; seas or oceans: *the Atlantic*; canals: *the Suez Canal*; capes, gulfs, bays and straits: *the Cape of Good Hope*; hotels: *the Ritz*, theatres: *the Globe*; museums: *the Louvre*; ships: *the Titanic*; and newspapers: *the Times*. Magazines, on the other hand, often have no article, e.g. *Scientific American*.

## 6. The Spanish article system

To be able to analyse the errors Spanish speakers commit using articles in English, one must also look at how these are used in Spanish. Therefore, a brief description of the Spanish system based on NGLÉ will follow.

## 6.1. Similarities

Like English, Spanish has two basic article forms: the definite article and the indefinite article. The definite article is used very similarly to English: with generic reference, situational reference – though in Spanish grammars it is called “deictic” (NGLE, 269) – anaphoric reference (both direct and indirect), cataphoric reference, and with logical reference, in the so called “superlative groups” (NGLE, 272). The use of the indefinite article is also practically the same as in English: generic reference, first mentions and indirect anaphoric reference. The zero article is also used with plurals and uncountable nouns, only it is not called “the zero article.” But though it may seem that in Spanish, articles are essentially used the same way as in English and thus, Spanish speakers will not make mistakes, there are some cases where the two languages differ. These will be analysed below in more detail.

## 6.2. Differences

### 6.2.1. The definite article

The first difference between English and Spanish is the use of articles with days of the week. In most contexts in English, days of the week belong to the category of sporadic reference (see section 2.4.2.). NGLE mentions no such thing as sporadic reference; days of the week are classified as deictic use of the definite article (NGLE, 270). The difference between the two languages is that in Spanish, days of the week normally require the definite article; English – “He will come on Monday” vs Spanish – “Viene *el* Lunes.”<sup>4</sup> The only exception to this rule being, when the day is part of the date in the head of the letter. However, the two languages differ not only in the use of articles with days of the week, but also with time periods. In contrast with Spanish, English does not use articles with time periods premodified by expressions, such

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<sup>4</sup> *El* is the masculine form of the Spanish definite article. The other two forms are the feminine *la* and the neuter *lo*.

as *next* or *last* (NGLE 270). Therefore, Spanish phrases such as *la próxima semana*, or *el año pasado* would translate to English as *next week* and *last year*.

Another important difference is the use of *all* vs. *all the* in English and the use of *todo el* in Spanish. In Spanish, expressions like: “todo el año,” “toda la semana,” “todo el día” etc. are grammatically correct (NGLE 374). In English, however, *all* followed by periods of time is used without the definite article: “all year,” “all week,” “all day.” Similarly, with the generic use of *all*: when referring to a class, *all* is not followed by the definite article, e.g. “All children like stories.” (Cambridge Learner’s Dictionary online) In Spanish, on the other hand, the article is there: “A todos *los* niños, les gustan historias.”<sup>5</sup>

When referring to parts of the body, Spanish also uses the definite article, e.g. “Levantó la mano” or “Perdió la cabeza.” (NGLE, 272) The difference is that in Spanish, the definite article is used in all contexts, whereas in English the use of *the* is restricted, and the possessive is preferred (see section 2.2.1.2.1.). In English, as opposed to Spanish, it would be incorrect to say: \*”He raised the hand.” or \*”He lost the head.”

Another important difference is that in Spanish, words with quantifying function, e.g. *suficiente* (sufficient), *doble* (double) etc. are always introduced by the definite article: “En ese cuaderno, hay la información suficiente.” (NGLE, 288). In English, these expressions occur without articles: “In this picture, there is sufficient information.” Last but not least, Spanish accepts articles with years if they do not have a locative function, i.e. everywhere except with prepositions of time, such as *en* (in), *durante* (during) etc. Thus, sentences like: “El 2010 fue un buen año” are not considered incorrect (NGLE, 271). English, on the other hand, never uses articles with years: “2010 was a good year.”

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<sup>5</sup> *Los* is the plural form of the Spanish masculine definite article *el*, and the neuter definite article *lo* respectively.

### 6.2.3. Generic use of articles

There are two important differences with the generic use of articles: one is the article form in the plural, the other the so called “grupos nominales escuetos.” The first key difference is that the definite article is always used with the plural (NGLE, 289). Basically, it is used where English employs the zero article; i.e. referring to a class as a whole. Thus, the Spanish sentence: “Los perros son los mejores amigos del hombre.” would translate to English as: “Dogs are man’s best friends.” The other difference is the use of articles with “grupos nominales escuetos.” This expression literally translates as “short noun phrases,” but a more accurate translation would be “generic noun phrases.” These phrases do not refer to specific objects but rather to types, i.e. they denote representatives of classes of people or objects (NGLE, 295). In a sentence, they can function as subject: “Secreto entre tres, ya no lo es.,” subject complement: “Luis es médico.,” or apposition: “Estambul, ciudad maravillosa.” In all three contexts, English would use the indefinite article: “A secret told among three ceases to be a secret.,” “Luis is a doctor.,” and “Istanbul, a beautiful city.” Moreover, in Spanish, there are other expressions, close to these “generic noun phrases,” that are also used without an article. These are countable nouns that usually denote stereotypes, e.g. things that are normal to possess (NGLE, 295). Therefore, Spanish sentences such as: “Tiene perro.,” “Lleva falda,” or “Se ha dejado bigote.” all lack articles. In contrast to this, their English equivalents all take the indefinite *a*: “He’s got a dog.,” “She is wearing a skirt.,” and “He has grown a moustache.”

### 6.3. Studies

Since the acquisition of English articles has always been problematic for L2 learners, several studies on this topic have been conducted. Some focus mainly on speakers whose L1 lacks articles, others compare learners whose L1 has an article system with those whose native language lacks it. A few of these papers even focus on child learners. Much of the research on

this topic has been conducted by Tania Ionin from University of Illinois. She examined how Russian and Korean speakers of English use articles, and together with Maria Luisa Zubizarreta and Salvador Bautista Maldonado, she wrote the article *Sources of linguistic knowledge in the second language acquisition of English articles* (Ionin et al. 2006). This article is concerned with how speakers of other languages learn to use articles in English. It examines how big a role the three factors: *L2-input* (what is taught in class + exposure to the language), *L1-transfer* (what is transferred from the language system of L1), and *UG – universal grammar* (features common to all languages, the so called “semantic universals”), play in the acquisition of the English article system.

The participants were 47 adult L2 speakers - 23 Russian and 24 Spanish – and a “control group” of 6 native speakers of English. The L2 speakers were divided into 3 groups according to proficiency – beginner, intermediate, and advanced. In the test, there were 36 “target items” concerned with articles and 24 “filler items” aiming mainly at pronouns and prepositions. The Russian speakers performed well, except for the use of *the* in definite, non-specific contexts, and the use of *a/an* in indefinite, specific contexts. Therefore, the main problem with these speakers was that they perceive the distinction between specific/non-specific as more important than that between definite/indefinite. This is due to the so called universal grammar.

People naturally perceive the contrast between specificity and non-specificity, but not between definiteness or indefiniteness. Even in Czech which lacks articles, there is a difference in specificity between: “Mám doma bílou kočku.” and “Ráda bych se setkala s tím, kdo namaloval ten obraz; ať už je to kdokoli.” The first sentence is obviously specific, but in English, the indefinite article would be used. In the second sentence, though non-specific, the head noun would be introduced by the definite article. Therefore, in Russian, as well as in Czech, the major influence besides L2-input is universal grammar. The speakers of Spanish use articles in their native language and based on their system, they perceive the contrast between

definite/indefinite as more important than that between specific/non-specific. Using the Spanish translation of the examples given above, it becomes clear that in such contexts, the articles are used in the same way as in English: “Tengo *un* gato blanco.”<sup>6</sup> and “Me gustaría conocer *al* autor de este cuadro, sea quien sea.”<sup>7</sup> But though these speakers did not commit the same errors as the Russians, they did make mistakes, mostly caused by article omission. This occurred with “grupos nominales escuetos” or “generic noun phrases,” in which Spanish does not use articles (see 6.2.2.). Therefore, the testing has proven that with Spanish speakers, the most influential factor is L1-transfer (Ionin et al., 2006).

The article by Ionin et al. discussed above focused on adult learners. The question remains, however, whether children learn the same way. Alexandra Morales and Inmaculada Gómez Soler have written an article on this topic; the article is called *Transfer and semantic universals in the L2 acquisition of the English article system by child L2 learners* (Morales and Soler 2016). It is concerned with whether children with English as L2 acquire the English article system the same way as native children, or whether they learn more like adults. Thirty Spanish speaking children aged from 8-10, all learning English for more than three years, participated in the testing. The children were asked to fill in 16 blank spaces, using the word they thought appropriate (articles or other determiners, such as demonstrative pronouns were possible). The results revealed the use of *a/an* in specific contexts as the most problematic. This is where the adult Russian speakers erred most. However, Morales and Soler argue that the children made mistakes in these cases due to shorter exposure to language. Generally, neither universal grammar nor egocentrism which is the main cause of errors of native English children plays a

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<sup>6</sup> *Un* is the Spanish indefinite article.

<sup>7</sup> *Al* is the contraction of the Spanish preposition *a*, which is used with the accusative and dative, and the definite article *el*.

role. The tests have proven that like adults, children transfer the article system of their native language to English (Morales and Soler 2016).

#### 6.4. Transfer

The concept of transfer was already mentioned in the previous section. In this section, it will be explained in more detail, with special focus on the history, and its relation to other theories of learning. Transfer is the influence students' native language has on their acquisition of L2. The term was first introduced in the 1950's. At that time, second language acquisition started to be studied within the field of applied linguistics. The first to introduce this concept was the renowned scholar, Robert Lado, in 1957, but the idea was not new. Some information on the influence of mother tongue in learning a second language can already be found in books by Ancient Greeks. However, Lado connected the theory with popular contemporary concepts, such as behaviourism. The behaviourists believed that learning was a matter of habits, and that when learning a new thing, people tend to transfer what they already know into the learning process. This can facilitate the process, if the things are similar, e.g. Spanish speakers' acquisition of the English concept of definiteness. But if there are differences, the process can become difficult, e.g. Spanish speakers' habit of using the zero article with classification (see section 6.2.).

Based on these ideas, the first theory of language acquisition, *The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis* was developed. However, linguists soon came to realise the drawbacks of this theory. By comparing different languages, it had become apparent that students tend to make mistakes which cannot be traced back to their mother tongues, and on the other hand, use correct forms, where L1-transfer would result in errors. Thus, in the 1960's, this theory had been replaced by others, such as Chomsky's concept of "universal grammar" (see section 6.3.), and it was not until the 1970's that it was rediscovered. However, even then, the term "transfer" has been largely criticised for failing to account for some linguistic phenomena, such as

overproduction or omission. For example, Czech does not have articles, which may lead to their omission, or overuse in English, but neither is caused by transfer of a pattern from L1. So, though the term “transfer” is still being used with some linguists, a new term “cross-linguistic influence” started to be getting underway. This term encompasses all the different ways of L1 influence on the acquisition of L2 (Merilainen 2010, 20-25).

## 7. Conclusion

This part of the thesis introduced the Spanish and English article systems. It can be seen that in many aspects, these two systems are identical. Nevertheless, certain major differences can be found. Since, as proven by the studies described in section 6.3., Spanish speakers of English mostly acquire the English article system by transfer, the similarities, as well as the differences should be reflected in the speakers’ performance, i.e. the speakers should use correct forms where the two systems are the same, and make mistakes in contexts where the systems differ. To find out to what extent this hypothesis is true will be the focus of the following chapters.

## 8. Material and Method

The research part will consist in error analysis of the Spanish subcorpus of LINDSEI (Gilquin et al. 2010). It is based on the hypothesis that there are differences between the Spanish and English article systems and that since – as proven by previous studies (see section 6.3) – Spanish speakers acquire the English article system mostly by transfer, these differences will result in incorrect use. To prove/disprove this theory, a sample of 30 speakers will be analysed.

The first step of the analysis is to calculate the number of tokens in the 30 interviews. For this purpose, a simple concordancer – AntConc (Anthony 2018) – will be used. The next step is to determine the total number of articles, and the number of occurrences of each article form. The number of occurrences of the definite, and the indefinite article will be calculated in

AntConc. However, as in order to estimate the approximate number of occurrences of the zero article, the total number of common and proper nouns has to be found out, Stanford POS Tagger will also be used. The words will be automatically classified according to their parts of speech. Then, the common nouns which take the definite, or the indefinite article, and the proper nouns which take no article, will be subtracted from the total number of nouns.

The next step will be to find the total number of errors, in order to tell, how many of the articles were used in inappropriate contexts, and how much of a problem the use of articles constitutes for Spanish speakers of English. The errors will be tagged using a modified version of the *Louvain Error-Tagging Manual*, proposed by Lucie Gillová (Gillová 2014). They will then be classified based on the system suggested in *CGEL* (see chapters 2-5). Having done that, the errors will be sorted into categories, according to article forms, and subcategories, according to types of reference. In the discussion part, it will be examined to what extent these errors stem from L1-transfer. The aim is to find out which contexts are most problematic for Spanish learners, and how that is related to the article system in their native language.

## 8.1. LINDSEI

But before moving on to the analysis itself, some information about LINDSEI must be provided. LINDSEI is a project organised by the Centre for English Corpus Linguistics, Catholic University of Louvain. It complements the written learner corpus ICLE (International Corpus of Learner English) by providing a spoken corpus of advanced learner English. The aim is to capture spontaneous spoken English of speakers with different mother tongues. These national groups then make the subcorpora of LINDSEI (Cvrček and Richterová 2017).

### 8.1.1. History and contents

The collection of data for the project started in 1995, and continues to this day. In 2010, the first version of the corpus was released (Guilquin et al. 2010). This version contained 11

subcorpora (Bulgarian, Chinese, Italian, Spanish, Dutch, French, German, Greek, Japanese, Polish, and Swedish), making a total of 554 interviews and 1 million words. Since then, several other subcorpora have been released (the Czech version amongst them), and work on others is still in progress. The second version of the corpus should then include as many as 20 subcorpora (over 1000 interviews). The data are accessible only through orthographical transcriptions; release of the recordings is not planned. Some groups of linguists have been tagging the corpora for errors, and since the spring of 2016, there has been a project of morphological tagging of the data.

As for the contents of the subcorpora, each contains 50 interviews. The interviews are approximately 15 minutes long, and consist of three parts: a monologue on a topic selected by the student (a film, a trip etc.), an interview about everyday life, and description of four pictures. All interviewees should be advanced speakers of English. However, there are clearly differences between individual speakers' levels of proficiency. As mentioned above, the interviews are transcribed orthographically – there is a transcription manual designed for this purpose. In the transcriptions, the interviewer is marked as <A>, the interviewee then as <B>. The transcriptions contain pauses, repetitions, filled pauses, overlaps, and other sounds, such as coughs or laughter (Cvrček and Richterová 2017).

## 8.2. Quantitative analysis

As any subcorpus of LINDSEI, its Spanish part consists of 50 interviews. However, as one of the interviewees was a French student, whose native language was Arabic, and the aim of this thesis is analysis of errors made by Spanish speakers of English, this interview has been excluded. The remaining 49 interviews contain 83,296 tokens<sup>8</sup>, 63,846 of which were produced by the students alone. The majority of the students were female – 38 women vs 11

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<sup>8</sup> Contractions, such as *I'd* or *isn't* count as 1 token. Repetitions, filled pauses etc. are included in the count.

men. All interviewees were university students – from University of Murcia, and University of Madrid – most of them in their third year. The median age was 21.5 years, the average time of exposure to English then 11.5 years. However, only 21 students had spent some time in an English-speaking country; the average length of stay was approximately 8 months.

For the purpose of this paper, a sample of 30 interviews has been tagged and analysed. The 30 interviews contain a total of 52, 093 tokens – 39, 711 produced by the students alone. Articles make about six percent of the total amount of words – 3, 615 of the 52, 093. The definite article is then almost twice as common as the indefinite – 2, 286 vs 1, 329 instances. However, nouns preceded by neither the definite nor the indefinite article represent the majority – 6, 373 of the total of 9, 988. As approximately 1, 305<sup>9</sup> words of the 6, 373 are proper nouns which do not take an article, the estimated number of occurrences of the zero article is 5, 068. The sample includes 23 female and 7 male speakers, most of whom were again in their third year at university. The median age was 21.5 years, the average time of exposure to English then 10.5 years. Of the 30 students, only 13 had been to an English speaking country; the average length of stay was approximately 6 months.

speakers	male	female	words	words students	med. age	school Eng.	time abroad
49	11	38	83, 296	63, 846	21.5 yrs	11.5 yrs	8 months
30	7	23	52, 093	39, 711	21.5 yrs	10.5 yrs	6 months

**Table 1.** LINDSEI\_SP metadata<sup>10</sup>

In the 30 interviews, 105 instances of incorrect use of articles have been found. As evident from Figure 1, the majority – 26 in total – were caused by using *the*, where there should have been *zero*.<sup>11</sup> Using *zero*, where either, the definite, or the indefinite article would normally

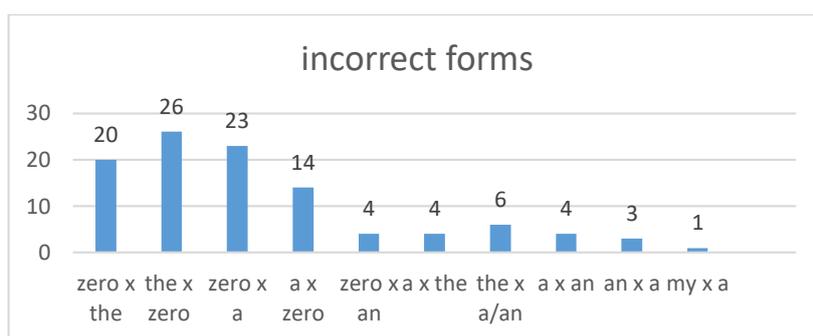
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<sup>9</sup> Proper nouns which take the definite article, such as *the United States*, have been excluded from the count; names of the interviewees and interviewees are included.

<sup>10</sup> *Median age*, *school English*, and *time abroad* have been calculated using arithmetic mean.

<sup>11</sup> For the purpose of this representation, *zero* means both the zero article, and absence of an article.

appear was also frequent. Somewhat less frequent was overusing *a* in contexts in which there is typically the zero article or no article, and omission of the definite article. What, on the other hand, does not seem to be problematic is definiteness – only 10 mistakes of the 105. This yet again proves what previous research on the topic has shown (see section 6.3.) – the contrast of definiteness is not a problem for Spanish learners. As to the rest, these were minor errors probably caused by lack of attention, e.g. the use of *a* before a vowel, or using a possessive pronoun, where there should be an article.



**Figure 1.** Incorrect forms – the frequency of using a different form in place of the correct one

## 9. Analysis

### 9.1. The definite article

#### 9.1.1. Situational reference

The use of articles with specific, situational reference does not seem to be problematic. In the data analysed, only one such error has been found. The speaker of the following excerpt was referring to a specific period in history. The phrase *from the Middle Ages* can thus be classified as an instance of situational reference, more specifically as reference to a larger situation. As in these contexts, the referent has “unique denotation,” the only correct form is

the definite article. But not only does the phrase contain a grammatical error, it also contains a lexical one \**medium age*. This error is then directly traceable to the speaker's mother tongue as the literal translation of the Spanish expression for "the Middle Ages" *la Edad Media*, would indeed be \*"the Medium age." It is therefore a paragon of a "false friend."

- 1) *A*<sup>12</sup>: what type of history do you like  
*B*: from . (eGA) (eLSF) medium age \$the Middle Ages\$ until  
 <sighs> nowadays

### 9.1.2. Anaphoric reference

In this context, incorrect use of articles was somewhat more frequent – four mistakes made by four different speakers. The speakers used incorrect forms with both direct and indirect anaphora. The two fragments below illustrate incorrect use of articles with indirect anaphoric reference. In example 3, a group is referred to through its representative. Number two then refers to a person through parts of their body, namely *hair*. In both instances, the relationship between the antecedent and the referent is that of meronymy.

- 2) *A*: differences between the final portrait and the first he painted  
*B*: (eGA) 0 \$the\$ hair (eWO) also is \$is also\$ different
- 3) it was her brothers . (eGA) 0 \$the\$ younger brother . who was most open  
 with me

The following excerpts then exemplify incorrect use of articles with direct anaphoric reference. In both cases, the denoted object is repeated, and consequently must be known to both the speaker and the listener. To express this shared knowledge, the definite article must be used.

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<sup>12</sup> The interviewer is marked as *A*, the interviewee as *B* (see section 8.1.1.).

- 4) *A*: do you think she . actually bought the painting (...)  
*B*: bought (eGA) 0 \$the\$ painting
- 5) I haven't watched (mm) (eLS) much \$many\$ plays...but I went to .  
 one {I . I} don't remember the playwright (...) but it was a normal thing  
 <overlap /> (eGA) a \$the\$ play

### 9.1.3. Cataphoric reference

The frequency of incorrect article forms with cataphoric reference is approximately the same as with anaphora – there were 3 such cases in the sample. As explained in section 2.2.1.3., the function of cataphoric reference is specification of the head noun. In the following excerpts, as in most other cases, that is achieved by postmodification. In the first and the second excerpt, postmodification by prepositional phrases can be observed. In the second, the –of phrase specifies the head noun *summer*, and so changes the meaning of the phrase from sporadic to partitive. The third example then contains postmodification by a non-finite, infinitive clause. As in all three cases, the referent is “uniquely identifiable,” it must be introduced by the definite article.

- 6) difficult for me to understand (eGA) 0 \$the\$ people over there  
 7) of (er) ninety six . and also in (eGA) 0 \$the\$ summer of ninety seven  
 8) when you go . you have not (eGA) a \$the\$ proper age to enter {some  
 . some} places

### 9.1.4. Logical reference

As opposed to anaphoric and cataphoric references, errors in expressing logical reference were relatively frequent – 10 in total. The errors were due to both overuse and omission of articles. In the first and the second example below, the error consists in article omission before ordinal numerals. The third example also contains an ordinal numeral, this time preceded by *the*. As this is the form which normally precedes ordinal numerals, it might seem that the phrase does not contain an error. However, the expression *third grade* is, an exception, which, contrary

to the general rule, occurs without an article. In example 12, the zero article would be correct if the head noun were transferred into plural. The singular, however, requires the definite article because it has “unique denotation,” i.e. it implies that there is only one other village. In example 13, the error consists in using *the* before the non-congruent postmodifier *one*. However, when it comes to determining the type of reference, this example is a bit problematic as it could also be put into the category of proper nouns. But though, like proper nouns, the head noun cannot take articles, or form the plural, the paraphrase with an ordinal numeral *the first topic*, and the fact that it is not capitalised, justify its being classified as an instance of logical reference. As regards the rest of the errors, these are a result of overuse of the definite article with time periods premodified by general ordinals, such as *last* or *next*. They occurred in three different speakers, and could be caused either by intraference – due to analogy with other uses of *last* or *next* – or L1 transfer.

- 9) in (eGA) 0 \$the\$ first picture
- 10) a few months ago . and I stayed with .(eGA) 0 \$the\$ third course
- 11) was finishing school and: (eGA) the \$0\$ third grade I think (er:)
- 12) sometime {we: we} went {to: to} (eGA) 0 \$the\$ other village
- 13) I’ve chosen (eGA) the \$0\$ topic one
- 14) and (eh) . I visited Denmark . (eh) (eGA) the \$0\$ last year
- 15) perhaps(eGA) the \$0\$ next summer
- 16) you like to work or (...) (eGA) the \$0\$ next year
- 17) and I would like to come back (eGA) the \$0\$ next year because ...
- 18) (eGA) the \$0\$ last summer I went {to to} the States

#### 9.1.5. Sporadic reference

In the data analysed, four errors in expressing sporadic reference have been found. In the first two examples, the referents are institutions *the hairdresser’s* and *the police*, whereas in the other two, the speakers are referring to seasons or parts of the year. In 21, the summer is not further specified, and in 22, the week is referred to as a recurring period in the calendar.

Therefore, it is possible to speak of sporadic reference. This kind of reference can be expressed by all three article forms. But as both the season, and the *week* are introduced by prepositions other than *by*, *at*, *after*, and *before*, the correct form is the definite article.

19) as if she came from (eGA) the hairdresser's {or . or} something

20) is . guarding her . {from from} poli= from (eGA) the police

21) I can go for (eGA) a summer again

22) about . ten lessons . during (eGA) a week

#### 9.1.6. Generic reference

Errors in expressing generic reference by means of the definite article were scarce – only 4 of the 105. Neither of these can then be considered a prototypical example as the basic rule says that the definite article should refer to a class through a typical representative (see section 3.3.). Even so, the meaning of all the phrases is general, which can be proved by substituting the definite article with some form of the universal quantifier *all*, e.g. *all of*, *all*, or *all the*. Moreover, the context of the first clause is the speaker's narration of his visit to Dublin. And since he does not mention visiting another Celtic city, his liking "the Celtic world" likely comes from his experiences in Dublin. Thus, though implicit, the reference to a whole through its representative is present. Similarly, with the other examples; e.g. in number 24, the speaker describes the nightlife in a place he had visited. However, he could not possibly have been to all the bars etc. The speakers simply make generalizations based on their experience, for which reason, these examples can be classified as generic uses of the definite article.

23) I like (eGA) the Celtic world

24) and well . (eGA) the nightlife is quite different

25) but (eGA) the people the country and even the food I liked a lot

26) it can be taken either way because (eXNPR) sof (eGA) the professors

### 9.1.7. Proper nouns

The following excerpts – produced by 3 different speakers – illustrate incorrect use of articles with proper nouns. All of the speakers have made the same mistake – omitting the article when referring to *the United States*. Names of states are indeed generally used without articles, nevertheless, some exceptions, which require the definite article occur. These can be both one word expressions *the Ukraine*, and expressions which consist of more than 1 word, such as *the United States*.

27) and in (eGA) 0 \$the\$ United States I didn't feel {that . that} way .

28) well I've been {to to}(eGA) 0 \$the\$ U S three times .

29) I like . well I like better .(eGA) 0 \$the\$ United States than . the United Kingdom

30) I have never been (eXNPR) {in . in} \$to\$ America= (eXNPR) in \$to\$ (eGA) 0 \$the\$ United States

## 9.2. The indefinite article

### 9.2.1. Non-referring uses

Since errors with non-referring uses of the indefinite article were the most common – 30 cases in total – they have been divided into three subcategories: “qualification,” “classification,” and “other.”

#### 9.2.1.1. Qualification

The greatest tendency to commit errors can be observed with qualifying uses of the indefinite article. All examples given below contain the copular verb *to be* and the head noun in the function of a subject complement. In these contexts, the article has more of a descriptive role, which explains, why in all but the first example, there is some kind of modification. In examples 32 – 44, the head noun is premodified by qualifying adjectives, e.g. *big*. In some cases, these adjectives are also preceded by intensifying adverbs, such as *very* or *really*. Example 41 is, however, somewhat different, as it encompasses both qualification and classification. Such special instances are known as qualification by action nouns. In these cases,

the verbonominal predication alternates with an intransitive predicate, complemented by an adverbial (EMSA, 13.23.12). The sentence's belonging to this category can thus be proved by the paraphrase: "He acts well." As for the two remaining examples, in 45, the head noun is postmodified by a prepositional phrase, 46 then contains postmodification by an adjectival relative clause, which is introduced by the relative pronoun *that*.

- 31) this is(eGAF) an \$a\$ (eLSF) especiality \$speciality\$  
 32) oh it's you know it's . (eGA) 0 \$a\$ very big meal  
 33) I think it's (eGA) the \$an\$ important meal  
 34) and I think it's just (eGA) 0 \$a\$. {fantastic fantastic} film  
 35) so (eGPP) 0 \$it\$ is (er) (eGA) 0 \$a\$ marvellous (eGA) a \$0\$ city  
 36) think as if it was (eGAF) { a: a: a } \$an\$ ordinary film  
 37) it was (eGA) 0 \$a\$ {ten ten} days' (erm) journey  
 38) it's (eWRS) like \$0\$ (eGA) 0 \$a\$ very industrial city  
 39) it's (eGA) 0 \$a\$ good experience to: listen to different types of accents in English  
 40) he is finishing . and .. I think it's (eGA) 0 \$a\$ very good one  
 41) and Ewan McGregor because {he is he is} (eGA) 0 \$a\$ good actor  
 42) I can remember everything really really (eGADV) clear \$clearly\$ because . it was (eGA) 0 \$a\$ very good <overlap /> experience  
 43) particularly Spanish because I was with (eGAF) an \$a\$ Spanish group  
 44) it's (er) (eGA) 0 \$a\$ {very spectacular very sps= spectacular} film  
 45) (sDR) it's about (er) s= (er)(eGA) 0 \$a\$ story {about about} (erm)  
 46) topic one (...) (eh) it (eGVT) has been \$is\$ about a (eGAF) \$an\$ experience that (eGPP) it \$0\$ happens to me this morning

#### 9.2.1.2. Classification

Incorrect article forms with classifying copula uses were by no means common. In the data analysed, only one such case could be found. In this example, the speaker classifies the referent as a director, i.e. one who belongs to the class of directors.

- 47) A:who is Amenabar B:Amenabar (eWM) 0 \$is\$ (eGAF) an \$a\$ Spanish director

### 9.2.1.3. Other

The following examples could not be put into any of the two categories since in neither, the head noun functions as a subject complement. Examples 57, 58, and 59 are then somewhat special, as they all contain the verb *to be*, and consequently, it might seem that they are just different instances of verbonominal predication. However, in example 57, the verb is preceded by *there*, and therefore functions not as a copula, but rather as an existential verb (EMSA, 12.21.4). Examples 58 and 59 then contain locative constructions, in which *be* operates as a full lexical verb (EMSA, 13.23.13). But though none of the excerpts contains copular verbs, in most cases, the article still retains its descriptive role. This can again be proved by a paraphrase, e.g. *to work as an au-pair* vs copular *to be an au-pair*.

- 48) because I went there {to . to} work as (eGA) 0 \$an\$ au pair  
49) I would like {to: to} work as (eGAF) a: \$an\$ English teacher in a secondary school  
50) yes . (eGA) 0 \$a\$ nice family (eGA) 0 \$a\$ very nice family  
51) is it like (eLS) take \$having\$ (eGA) 0 \$a\$ meal  
52) this woman . (em) she's sitting . on (eGA) 0 \$a\$ chair.  
53) like you know . (eGA) 0 \$a\$ sandwich with . (eh) (eWRM) I don't know \$0\$ some (eLS) salad \$lettuce\$ (eWM) 0 \$and\$ ham  
54) he has (eGA) 0 \$a\$ very good (eWM) 0 \$sense\$ (eXNPR) 0 \$of\$ humour  
55) you just (eGVT) wake up \$woke up\$ and . you had (eGA) 0 \$a\$ very big breakfast  
56) here . the woman has (eh) . (eGA) a \$0\$ straight hair  
57) but there is quite (eGA) 0 \$a\$ (eLP) big end \$surprising ending\$ I think  
58) And I was in (sDCC) at a in (eGA) 0 \$a\$ school in a little village  
59) was in .. (sDR) I don't in . (eGA) 0 \$an\$ institute  
60) he went to London to study: (er) in in (eGA) 0 \$an\$ academy or (mm) t= to be an actor I don't remember the name {of of} this school

### 9.2.2. The indefinite article in place of the numeral one

As explained in section 3.2., the indefinite article sometimes retains its original function, i.e. that of a numeral. In these contexts, it can be substituted for *one*. As this substitution is

possible with both of the examples given below – “I lived there with *one* family.” and “about *one* country I visited.” the only correct form is the indefinite article.

- 61) {I lived I lived;} there(...) with (eGA) the \$a\$ family
- 62) about (eGDI) my \$a\$ country I visited

### 9.2.3. Sporadic reference

The majority of the following examples illustrate incorrect use of articles with institutions, or means of transport. Although these expressions are typically preceded by the definite article, or the zero article, there are certain situations in which the indefinite article is preferred. This occurs in contexts where the referent is not further specified, and therefore, it is not clear, whether there is one unique object, or if there are more. In addition, most of the students speak about their future, which is, by nature, indefinite. Therefore, *a/an* is used to mark the indefiniteness.

- 63) to some place you just take (eGA) the \$a\$ bus sporadic . and in Limerick you couldn't
- 64) in a: travel agency or in (eGAF) a \$an\$ (mm) academy of English or (er) (mm) giving particular lessons
- 65) (eh) now she's in (eGA) 0 \$an\$ (sD) orphan= how do how do you say \$orphanage\$
- 66) teaching there (...) (sD) don't know if . in the . (eGA) the \$a\$ primary school
- 67) you have {to: to} work in (eGA) 0 \$a\$ private school
- 68) work in (eGA) 0 \$a\$ radio
- 69) something {we we . we} had to take(eGA) the \$a\$ train and spend a lot of time travelling
- 70) when I'm in (mm) (eGA). the \$a\$ kindergarten . I feel very good

### 9.2.4. Generic reference

As for generic reference, only one mistake has been found in the sample. Since *logic* is an abstract noun, the sentence cannot be transferred into plural. Nor can it be said, that it refers to any representative member of a class. However, the meaning of the noun is still general, and

the indefinite article can readily be substituted for *any*. For these reasons, it is still possible to speak of generic use of the indefinite article.

71) not very simple . I cannot find ..(eGA) 0 \$a\$ logic <laughs>

### 9.3. The zero article

#### 9.3.1. Sporadic reference

Since errors in expressing sporadic reference were relatively common (10 instances), they have been divided into three groups: “meals,” “institutions,” and “time expressions.” The most numerous of these groups is “institutions.” The typical mistake is then overuse of the indefinite article.

##### 9.3.1.1. Meals

The excerpts below exemplify incorrect use of articles with meals. As described in section 2.4.2.2., meals are generally used without an article, the only exception being when a particular meal needs to be singled out. Since this is not the case in any of these examples, the correct form would be the zero article.

72) you like (eGA) the \$0\$ pasta

73) my father . gave them . (eGA) a \$0\$ paella

74) or having (eGA) a \$0\$ tea

75) at . seven or six or eight depends on the day . I had (eGA) a \$0\$  
supper

##### 9.3.1.2. Institutions

In all of the following fragments, the referent is an institution, rather than a specific building – they are examples of the so called “quasi-locative phrases,” i.e. they seem to point to a specific location, but their meaning is more general (see 2.4.2.). These phrases are typically introduced by the zero article. As to the function of the noun in such constructions, it is that of a prepositional complement.

- 76) in the morning (er) we went to (eGA) a \$0\$ college  
 77) even in (eGA) the \$0\$ high school it was compulsory  
 78) thing but not in (eGA) a \$0\$ (sDR) secondary high= **high school**

### 9.3.1.3. Time expressions

In both of the following examples, the head noun is referred to as a recurring period, not a specific time. In 79, this meaning is achieved by means of the plural. In 80, it is accomplished by the use of the universal quantifier *every*; this quantifier cannot then be preceded by an article.

- 79) they were out with their friends and (eGA) the \$0\$ (eXNPR) 0 \$on\$  
 Saturday nights or Friday nights I had  
 80) the only thing I: (mm) I did every (eGA) the \$0\$ morning was  
 (eWM) 0 \$make\$ my bed

### 9.3.2. Generic reference

Errors in expressing generic reference by means of the zero article were more frequent than in case of the definite and indefinite articles. This is probably due to the fact that the zero article is the form most often used with this kind of reference. In all cases, except 85, the error consists in overuse of the definite article. However, as explained in section 5.3., the use of the definite article with generic reference is limited. It is only used when a class is represented by its typical specimen, with plural nouns denoting nationality, and with phrases with adjectival heads. Since this is the case in neither of the following examples, the zero article should be used instead.

- 81) they believe in (eGA) the: \$0\$ fairy tale tales  
 82) and .. {they se they see} (eGA) the \$0\$ life as we do  
 83) you can't speak to: (eGA) the \$0\$ native people  
 84) very long and I hate . (eGA) {the. the} \$0\$ novels which are so long  
 85) in (eGA) a \$0\$ regular flats you see your family  
 86) we have to separate. (eGA) {the. the} \$0\$ food . from (eGA) the \$0\$.  
 plastic . or from (eGA) the \$0\$ paper

### 9.3.3. Fixed phrases involving prepositions

Fixed phrases are a special case since they basically have to be learned by heart. However, there is a logical explanation for the use of articles with such constructions. For example, the sentence: “I can’t get her into conversation.” does not refer to a conversation taking place at the moment. In that case, it would be classified as situational reference, and the definite article would in fact be used. However, as the meaning of the sentence is rather: “She doesn’t talk to me.” it is close to the institutional use, which is connected with the zero article. Similarly, with the expression *in reality*. As the noun is not further specified, e.g. by pre/postmodification: *the sad reality/ the reality of the 19<sup>th</sup> century*, the definite article cannot be used. The meaning of the phrase is a more general one, which should again be expressed by means of the zero article. Example 91 is, however, a different case as the error consists in using an unnatural construction. In this case, the definite article should be replaced by the possessive pronoun *my*.

- 87) look at the nose ..(eGPP) 0 \$it\$ is . bigger . in (eGA) the \$0\$ reality
- 88) and in (eGA) the \$0\$ reality (eGPP) they \$she\$ (eGVM) are \$is\$ a little bit fat
- 89) but in (eGA) the \$0\$ reality the dress is a little bit. with spots
- 90) I don't know to get her into (eGA) the \$0\$ conversation
- 91) I could never ever in (eGDI) the \$my\$ life let anybody paint me

### 9.3.4. Plural

The data analysed also contained 3 examples of incorrect use of articles with plurals. The first one contains a plural, countable noun, which should take the zero article. In the second, the preposition should be omitted, and the article should be replaced by a cardinal numeral, e.g. *three*. The last example then contains a logical mistake, rather than a grammatical one. The use of *the other* implies that there are only two European capitals in existence, which is obviously not true. Thus, the noun *capital* should be transferred into plural, and the zero article should be used instead.

- 92) to have (eGA) a \$0\$ hamburgers .
- 93) and you have to dedicate (mm) (eWRS) through \$0\$ (eGDI) the \$three\$ years or more only to study
- 94) (eGPP) 0 \$it\$ is different to: to (eGA) the \$0\$ other (sDR)capital European (eGNN) capital \$capitals\$

#### 9.4. Special instances

This category contains those examples, which could not be classified into any of the previous categories, namely: “proper nouns,” and “quantifiers and intensifiers.”

##### 9.4.1. Proper nouns

As explained in section 7.2., proper nouns generally occur without an article. There are, of course exceptions, which require *the*. However, errors in the use of articles with such special instances have already been discussed in section 11.2.7. The examples below therefore include those proper nouns which do not take articles. As already explained in chapter 7, this absence of articles is not equivalent to the zero article. The reason is that the reference of proper nouns is always specific, and the zero article is means of expressing non-specific and generic reference.

- 95) with (eGA) a \$0\$ <overlap /> Erasmus
- 96) much beer <stops laughing> (eGA) the \$0\$ Guinness the famous Guinness
- 97) I (eGVT) like \$liked\$ the: National Gallery it was fantastic and (eGA) the: \$0\$ Trafalgar Square and Piccadilly Circus

##### 9.4.2. Quantifiers and intensifiers

Another special category is “quantifiers and intensifiers.” In the sample, 5 instances of incorrect use of quantifiers, and 3 instances of incorrect intensification have been detected. The majority of the errors with quantifiers – 3 in total – consist in incorrect use of articles with the universal quantifier *all*. In example number 99, *all the* is used with a time period; that is considered agrammatical in English. The meaning of 101 is then likely to have been: “all the things you need.” Since this is an instance of specific reference, the quantifier should be

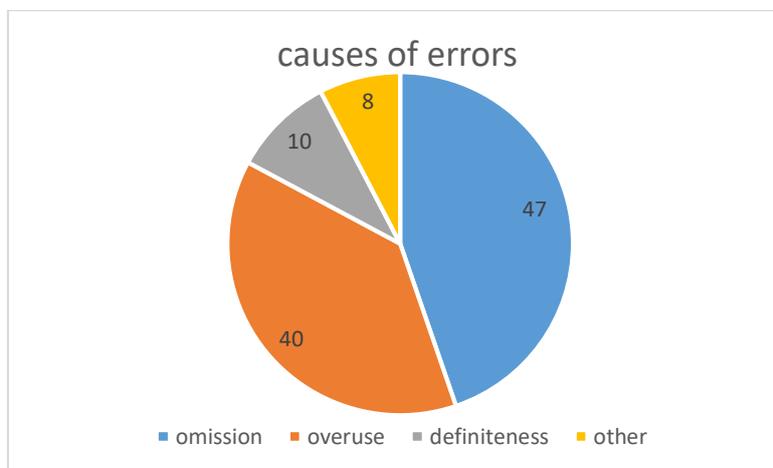
preceded by the definite article. Example 102 is the exact opposite, as in this case, *all* is used generically; it refers to a class as a whole, not to specific individuals, i.e. it cannot be paraphrased as “all of the people.” For this reason, the definite article cannot be used. Example 99 is then not incorrect in itself, but the zero article changes the meaning of the phrase. With the indefinite article, it means *some work*, whereas with the zero article, the meaning is *almost no work*. The use of the adverb *otherwise* then speaks in favour of the first interpretation as it implies the speaker will get into trouble, unless he does *some work*. Finally, *a lot of* is a fixed expression, which is introduced by the indefinite article. However, there is again a logical explanation for the use of *a*: *lot* is a noun (Cambridge Learner’s Dictionary online), and the whole phrase refers to an indefinite, non-specific quantity. As regards the intensifiers, there is no noun, the article could refer to. However, in 103 and 104, the article was probably used under the influence of the intensifiers as both *way* and *kind* are typically nouns.

- 98) if you eat it all (eGA) the \$0\$ day
- 99) yeah but sometimes you have to do (eGA) 0 \$a\$ little work  
you know cos otherwise
- 100) so . I have (eGA) 0 \$a\$ lot of problems
- 101) and they give you . all (eGA) 0 \$the\$ things
- 102) need the: the courses because . not all (eGA) the \$0\$ people  
have the opportunity to travel
- 103) the woman painted is (eGA) a \$0\$ way (eWM) 0 \$more\$  
beautiful
- 104) well in the second one . she seems (eGA) a \$0\$ kind of angry
- 105) it was (eGA) a \$0\$ very strange <laughs> . as I said

## 10. Discussion

Now that the errors have been analysed, it is possible to look at the results from a more general perspective. As can be seen in Figure 2, the majority of the errors – 47 out of the 105 – were caused by omission. Errors due to overuse of articles were also relatively frequent – 40

cases in total.<sup>13</sup> On the other hand, errors in expressing definiteness, i.e. using the definite article in place of the indefinite and vice versa, were rare – only 10 instances. The rest were minor errors, such as using *a* before vowels, or using a possessive pronoun, where an article should have been.

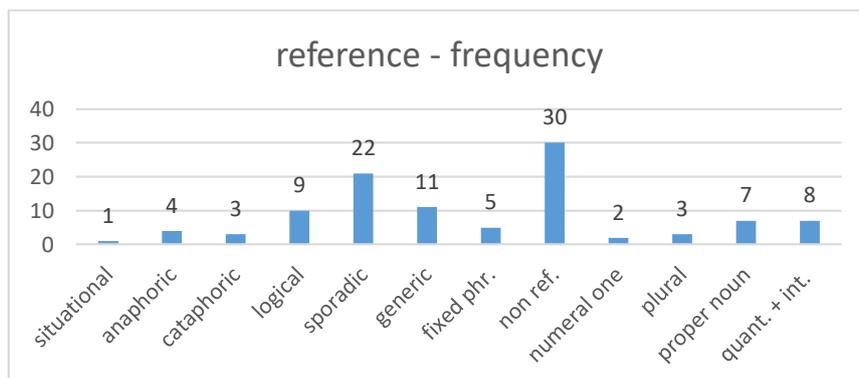


**Figure 2.** Causes of errors

As to the types of reference, the most error-prone area was non-referring uses of the indefinite article. The majority of the errors in these contexts were caused by article omission. The other category, in which the students had difficulties is sporadic reference. However, the students did not seem to have problems with the use of the definite article. What, on the other hand, was most problematic was the zero article. There was a tendency to overuse *a* with institutions and meals. Though “generic reference,” “logical reference,” “proper nouns,” and “quantifiers + intensifiers” did not contain as many errors as the previous two categories (from 11 to 7 errors), they are also worth considering. The remaining categories then do not seem to be problematic, as they contained only a few minor errors (5-1).

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<sup>13</sup> Overuse means use of the definite or the indefinite article in contexts where the zero article or no article would appear.



**Figure 3.** Frequency of errors with individual types of reference

### 10.1. Transfer

This part of the thesis will focus on the relation between incorrect use of articles and L1-transfer. To ensure the accuracy of the analysis, each example has been consulted with Spanish corpora, namely CREA – *Corpus de referencia del español actual* (RAE) – and CORPES – *Corpus del español del siglo XXI* (RAE).

Of the 105 mistakes, 34 could have been caused by transfer of the Spanish article system into English. In addition, there were two errors whose origin is also in the speakers’ mother tongue, but which were of lexical nature. As opposed to the overall results, the majority of these errors did not occur with non-referring uses. There were only 4 such cases – two of them with the “generic noun phrases,” with which Spanish uses the zero article (see section 6.2.). One example for all, *\*work as au pair* coming from the Spanish *trabajar de au pair*.

The number of errors in generic uses which could be ascribed to the influence of Spanish was approximately the same as with non-referring uses (5 instances). However, whether in all cases, the cause is in fact L1-transfer, remains to be discussed as with some noun phrases, e.g. *in regular flats*, Spanish uses more than one form: *en (los) apartamentos normales*. Nevertheless, with sentences, such as: “I cannot find logic in this.,” the origin of the error is evident, as in Spanish, the correct form is the zero article – the Spanish translation of this

sentence would be: “Eso no tiene lógica.” or “No le veo lógica en esto.” As regards proper nouns, there was one error, which was repeated four times, and which may, or may not have been caused by transfer: omission of the article with *the United States*. As in case of generic reference, the role of L1-transfer is not clear since in Spanish both the definite article and the zero article are again correct: *los Estados Unidos* vs *Estados Unidos*.

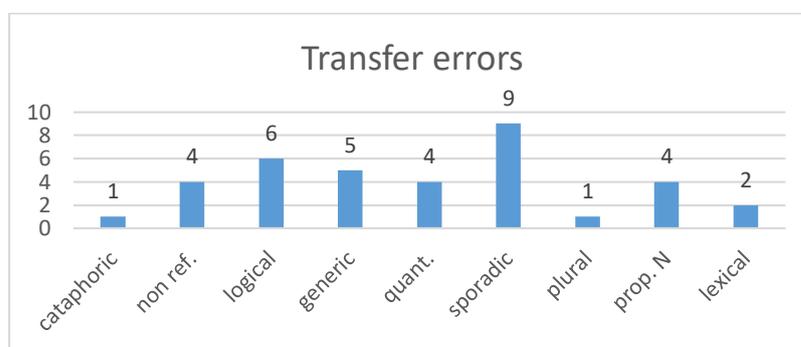
Errors in expressing logical reference possibly caused by mother tongue influence were then somewhat more common (6 instances). In this category, there was one recurring mistake: overuse of *the* with time periods preceded by general ordinals, such as *last* or *next*. English expressions, such as *last summer* or *next week* translate to Spanish as *el verano pasado*, and *la próxima semana*; thus, these errors could be ascribed to L1 transfer. However, there is another possible cause, and that is intraference. It is possible that the students had in mind other uses of *last* and *next*, e.g. *the last thing he felt like doing*, or *in the next section*, and that by analogy, they used it in the same way in contexts where it wasn't appropriate.

Another error, which was not frequent – only 1 instance – but which is nevertheless directly traceable back to the speakers' mother tongue is use of the indefinite article with plurals. In English, plurals normally take the zero article, in Spanish, however, there is a plural form of the indefinite article *unos/unas*. This form is often used in non-specific contexts (NGLE 284). Therefore, the English phrase *have (some) hamburgers*, could be translated as *tomar unas hamburguesas*. This explains the incorrect use of the indefinite article in: \**have a hamburgers*.

The area with most errors caused by transfer is sporadic reference. The cause of all but one error was overuse of articles. Yet again, there were errors whose origin is undoubtedly in the mother tongue of the speaker, and errors which may or may not have been caused by “cross-linguistic influence.” For instance, errors, such as: \**“You like the pasta?”* have clearly originated in Spanish, as in Spanish pasta always takes the definite article: *la pasta*. However,

whether errors with phrases, such as *\*having a tea*, come from transfer or not is again unclear as in this case, Spanish accepts all three forms: *tomar té*, *tomar el té*, or *tomar un té*.

As for the two lexical errors mentioned at the beginning of this section, these were caused by literal translation of Spanish expressions, i.e. they are examples of the so called “false friends.” The first error consists in using the expression *\*“medium age”* – a literal translation of Spanish *la Edad Media* – in place of “the Middle ages.” The cause of the second is then transfer of initial *e* before *s*, something that is very common in Spanish. Thus, instead of *a speciality*, the non-existent word *\*an especiality*<sup>14</sup> was used. While the first transfer could not have had any influence on the incorrect use of article as both languages use the same form, the second could have had a certain effect on the article form as *an* was used under the influence of the vowel.

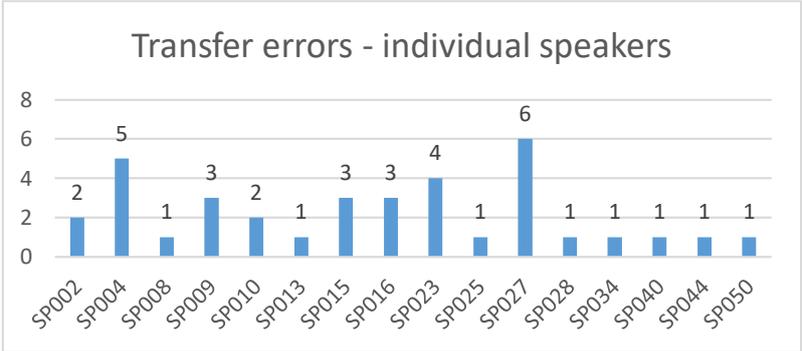


**Figure 4.** Frequency of errors possibly caused by transfer

Now that the role of transfer in the incorrect uses of articles has been discussed, it is possible to look at the relationship between transfer and the total number of errors in individual speakers’ performance. Figure 5 shows speakers who made at least one “transfer error” – there were 16 such speakers, which represents a weak majority. Table 2 then focuses on the speakers who made the most mistakes in the use of articles. It shows the overall number of errors in their performance, and how many of these errors could be due to L1

<sup>14</sup> Spanish: *una especialidad*

transfer. Comparing the two columns, it becomes apparent that the number of errors possibly caused by L1 transfer is not proportional to the overall number of errors, e.g. in speaker 028, who committed most errors of all the interviewees, there is only one error, which could be attributed to L1 transfer; similarly, with speakers 014, 019, and 020. Thus, it becomes clear that a high number of errors does not necessarily mean that the number of errors caused by transfer would also be high. It is true, however, that in the majority of cases, the speakers who made the most mistakes are also those with the highest number of “transfer errors.”



**Figure 5.** Errors caused by transfer – individual speakers

Most errors	Number	Transfer
SP002	6	2
SP004	8	5
SP009	5	3
SP010	5	2
SP014	7	0
SP015	7	3
SP016	5	3
SP019	5	0
SP020	6	0
SP027	8	6
SP028	9	1

**Table 2.** The relationship between “transfer errors” and the overall number of errors

## 11. Limitations

Of course, there are some limitations, which should be considered. Firstly, the number of speakers whose performance has been analysed is relatively small. To be able to draw conclusions, a larger amount of data would have to be examined. Secondly, though the interviewees should all be advanced speakers, there are differences in their levels of proficiency. Third, there are certain factors which could have influenced the speakers' performance, such as the pressure caused by the fact that the performance was being recorded. And last but not least, though in case of insecurity, a corpus has been consulted, the analysis has not been carried out by a native speaker of English or Spanish.

## 12. Conclusion

To sum up, this paper shows that the most problematic area for Spanish speakers of English is use of the indefinite article in non-referring contexts. However, the majority of these errors were caused by factors, other than L1-transfer. The fact that there were few errors in expressing definiteness suggests that the positive role of transfer prevails. Nevertheless, the differences between the two article systems, sometimes lead to incorrect uses. The most problematic in this respect is sporadic reference. However, the research revealed that the number of "transfer errors" is not always proportional to the overall number of errors. Some speakers with the highest number of mistakes made little to no errors which could be ascribed to the influence of mother tongue. Also, in many cases, the role of transfer is questionable as in Spanish, there are cases where more than one form is considered correct. Thus, only further research on the topic could provide answers to questions, this study could not answer.

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# Resumé

## 1. Úvod

Studium žakovského jazyka je důležité, protože analýza chyb umožňuje identifikaci oblastí, v nichž studenti nejvíce chybují. Pokud si studenti uvědomí, co jim působí největší potíže, mohou se na konkrétní jev zaměřit a ve studiu jazyka se tak posunout dále. Jedním z nejproblematictějších jevů je pro nerodilé mluvčí angličtiny bezesporu správné používání členů. Cílem této práce je proto analýza chyb, jichž se při užívání členů dopouštějí pokročilí španělští mluvčí anglického jazyka.

## 2. Teoretická část

V teoretické části je na základě příslušné odborné literatury nejprve popsán systém užívání členů v angličtině. Kapitoly 2.2. – 2.4. popisují jednotlivé formy členů a typy referencí, se kterými se pojí. Zvláštní případy jako generická reference, podstatná jména abstraktní a vlastní jména jsou pak popsány v kapitolách 3 – 5. Kapitola 2.2. se zaměřuje na člen určitý. Ten se v angličtině používá k vyjádření specifické reference. V sekcích 2.2.1.1. – 2.2.1.5. je popsána reference situační, anaforická, kataforická, sporadická i logická. Následující kapitola se věnuje členu neurčitému. Podkapitola 2.3.1. popisuje nejčastější užití neurčitého členu v angličtině – nereferenční užití. Přístup Quirka a kol. je srovnáván s přístupem Duškové, jež oproti Quirkovi rozlišuje mezi neurčitou referencí specifickou a nespecifickou. Sekce 2.3. je pak věnována nejstaršímu užití neurčitého členu – užití numerickému. Poslední formou členu je člen nulový. Ten se kromě nepočitatelných podstatných jmen a množného čísla podstatných jmen počitatelných nejčastěji pojí s referencí sporadickou, dále se používá v tzv. paralelních syntaktických konstrukcích a u doplňků, např. „He was elected president.“ Tato užití nulového členu jsou vysvětlena v sekcích 2.4.1. – 2.4.3.

Třetí kapitola práce popisuje referenci generickou. Generická reference je speciálním případem, protože může být vyjádřena všemi třemi formami členů. Člen neurčitý se pojí s tvrzeními, která platí o každém zástupci daného druhu, nemůže se tedy vyskytovat s některými přídavnými jmény jako např. vyhynulý. Člen nulový naopak odkazuje ke skupině jedinců jako k celku. Určitý člen je v generických užitích považován spíše za formální či knižní. Pokud je řídicí podstatné jméno v jednotném čísle, odkazuje ke skupině skrze typického zástupce. V případě, že řídicí substantivum je v plurálu, odkazuje ke skupině jedinců, např. k příslušníkům národa.

Čtvrtá kapitola práce je věnována podstatným jménům abstraktním. Ta se mohou vyskytovat se členem určitým, neurčitým i nulovým a mohou být počítatelná i nepočítatelná. Některá podstatná jména, např. *difference*, jsou „obojetná“, tzn. mohou být jak počítatelná, tak i nepočítatelná. Užití je pak lze genericky i specificky.

Pátá kapitola práce je zaměřena na vlastní jména. Vlastní jména se od ostatních podstatných jmen liší tím, že netvoří množné číslo, ve většině případů nemohou být modifikována a v angličtině nemají determinant. Ve výjimečných případech je však užití členu možné. Určitý člen většinou mají názvy pohoří, muzeí, souostroví, moří, lodí či novin. Neurčitý člen je pak nutné použít v případech, kdy je vlastní jméno užit jako jméno obecné.

Šestá kapitola popisuje španělský systém užívání členů a představuje výsledky předchozích studií věnovaných osvojování členů u studentů angličtiny; poslední část je věnována transferu. Sekce 6.1. a 6.2. se zaměřují na podobnosti a rozdíly mezi oběma jazyky. Přestože se ve španělštině členy užívají podobným způsobem, několik rozdílů zde je: neurčitý člen se ve španělštině užívá spolu s podstatnými jmény v plurálu, v klasifikačních verbonominálních predikacích podstatná jména nemají člen; předměty každodenní potřeby jsou obvykle bez členu; dny v týdnu naopak vždy mají člen určitý; španělským protějškem anglického generického užití nulového členu je člen určitý; a v neposlední řadě, existují rozdíly

v užívání členů mezi anglickým zájmenem *all* a španělským zájmenem *todo*. Jak je popsáno v sekci 6.3., předchozí výzkumy ukázaly, že pokud Španělé v užívání členů chybují, jsou tyto chyby obvykle způsobeny transferem. Koncept transferu je proto vysvětlen v sekci 6.4. Popsán je jeho historický vývoj a zmíněny jsou také některé problémy související s užíváním tohoto termínu – transfer například nevysvětluje nadužívání, či naopak časté vynechávání některých slov. Poslední sekce teoretické části pak vytyčuje základní východiska pro část praktickou.

### **3. Materiál a Metodika**

Osmá kapitola popisuje materiál, na jehož zkoumání je práce založená, a metody práce. Výzkum byl prováděn na španělské části žakovského korpusu LINDSEI. Chyby byly nalezeny, za použití lovaňského systému označovány, a následně rozděleny do kategorií podle formy členu a typu reference. Kromě toho byly použity některé programy pro práci s korpusy, konkrétně programy AntConc a Stanford POS tagger.

### **4. Praktická část**

Devátá část práce je částí praktickou. Tato část sestává z chybové analýzy žakovského jazyka. Chyby v jednotlivých kategoriích jsou vysvětleny s pomocí pravidel popsaných v teoretické části; autorka se zamýšlí i nad tím, proč student danou chybu udělal. Následující desátá kapitola se pak věnuje chybám, jež mohly být způsobeny transferem. Pozornost je věnována i jednotlivým mluvčím. Autorka zkoumá vztah mezi celkovou chybovostí u jednotlivých studentů a počtem chyb způsobených transferem.

### **5. Omezení a závěr**

Předposlední jedenáctá část práce upozorňuje na omezení, která je třeba vzít v úvahu. V závěru jsou shrnuty výsledky práce. Práce nepotvrzuje hypotézu, že většina chyb v užívání členů u španělských mluvčích je způsobena transferem. Naopak bylo zjištěno, že španělští mluvčí téměř nedělají chyby související s určeností, a tedy že vliv transferu je v tomto případě spíše

pozitivní. Dále bylo zjištěno, že u jednotlivých mluvčích není počet chyb způsobených transferem přímoúměrný celkovému počtu chyb. A v neposlední řadě také to, že role transferu je často diskutabilní, jelikož ve španělštině je často možné užití více forem. Jedině další výzkum tak může přinést odpovědi na otázky, jež zatím zůstávají nezodpovězené. Tato práce pak může sloužit jako východisko pro tento výzkum.

## Appendix 1

### List of Tags

eGADV	error Grammar Adverb
eGA	error Grammar Article
eGAF	error Grammar Article Form
eGDI	error Grammar Determiner Indefinite
eGNN	error Grammar Noun Number
eGVT	error Grammar Verb Tense
eGVM	error Grammar Verb Morphology
eGPP	error Grammar Personal Pronoun
eLS	error Lexis Single
eLSF	error Lexis Single False Friend
eWM	error Word Missing
eWO	error Word Order
eXNPR	error Lexico-Grammar Noun Dependent preposition
sD	spoken language Disfluency
sDCC	spoken language Disfluency Self Correction – Correct
sDR	spoken language Disfluency Reformulation
{}	repetitions

## Appendix 2

reference	article form	example	Spanish trans. <sup>15</sup>	transfer
situational	definite	A: what type of history do you like B: from . (eGA) (eLSF) <u>medium age</u> \$the Middle Ages\$ until <sighs> nowadays	B: desde <u>la</u> Edad Media hasta ahora	Yes – False Fr.
anaphoric	definite	A: differences between the final portrait and the first he painted (...) B: (eGA) <u>the</u> hair (eWO) <u>also is</u> \$is also\$ different	B: <u>el</u> pelo también es diferente	No
anaphoric	definite	it was her brothers . (eGA) <u>the</u> younger brother . who was most open with me	era sus hermanos. <u>el</u> hermano menor quien era el más abierto conmigo	No
anaphoric	definite	A: do you think she . actually bought the painting (...) B: bought (eGA) <u>the</u> painting	B: compró <u>el</u> cuadro?	No
anaphoric	definite	I haven't watched (mm) (eLS) <u>much</u> \$many\$ plays...but I went to . one {I . I} don't remember the playwright (...) but it was a normal thing <overlap /> (eGA) <u>a</u> \$the\$ play	no he visto muchas obras teatrales... pero fui a ver una no recuerdo el autor (...) pero era una cosa normal, <u>la/esta</u> obra	No
cataphoric	definite	difficult for me to understand (eGA) <u>the</u> people over there	lo difícil para mí fue entender a <u>la</u> gente que vive allí	No
cataphoric	definite	of (er) ninety six . and also in (eGA) <u>the</u> summer of ninety seven	de/del noventa y seis y <u>el</u> verano de noventa y siete también	No
cataphoric	definite	when you go . you have not (eGA) <u>a</u> \$the\$ proper	cuando vas . no tienes <u>la/una</u> edad apropiada para	Possibly

<sup>15</sup> All translations are my own. However, in all cases, a corpus has been consulted to ensure the article forms were correct.

		age to enter {some . some} places	entrar en algunos sitios	
logical	definite	in (eGA) <u>0</u> \$the\$ first picture	en <u>el</u> primer cuadro	No
logical	definite	a few months ago . and I stayed with .(eGA) <u>0</u> \$the\$ third course	hace unos meses. y frequentó <u>el</u> tercer curso	No
logical	definite	sometime {we: we} went {to: to} (eGA) <u>0</u> \$the\$ other village	Algunas veces fuimos <u>al</u> otro pueblo	No
logical	zero	I've chosen (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ topic one	He escogido <u>el</u> tema uno	Yes
logical	zero	and (eh) . I visited Denmark . (eh) (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ last year	Estuve en Dinamarca <u>el</u> año pasado	Yes
logical	zero	perhaps(eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ next summer	Quizás <u>el</u> próximo verano	Yes
logical	zero	you like to work or (...) (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ next year	Quisiera trabajar o (...) <u>el</u> próximo año	Yes
logical	zero	and I would like to come back (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ next year because	Quisiera volver <u>el</u> próximo año	Yes
logical	zero	(eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ last summer I went {to to} the States	<u>El</u> verano pasado fui a (los) Estados Unidos	Yes
logical	zero	was finishing school and: (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ third grade I think (er:)	Estaba terminando mis estudios y: tercer grado, creo	No
sporadic	definite	as if she came from (eGA) <u>0</u> \$the\$ hairdresser's {or . or} something	Como si viniera de <u>la</u> peluquería	No
sporadic	definite	is . guarding her . {from from} poli= from (eGA) <u>0</u> \$the\$ police	Está protegiéndola de <u>la</u> policía	No
sporadic	definite	I can go for (eGA) <u>a</u> \$the\$ summer again	Puedo ir para <u>el</u> verano otra vez	No
sporadic	definite	about . ten lessons . during (eGA) <u>a</u> \$the\$ week	Aproximadamente diez clases a <u>la</u> semana	No
sporadic	indefinite	to some place you just take (eGA) <u>the</u> \$a\$ bus . and in Limerick you couldn't	A algunos sitios simplemente coges <u>un</u> autobús y en Limerick no podrías hacerlo	No

sporadic	indefinite	in a: travel agency or in (eGAF) a \$an\$ (mm) academy of English or (er) (mm) giving particular lessons	en una agencia de viajes o en <u>una</u> academia de inglés dando clases	No
sporadic	indefinite	(eh) now she's in (eGA) <u>0</u> \$an\$ (sD) <u>orphan= how do how do you say \$orphanage\$</u>	Ahora está en <u>un</u> orfanato	No
sporadic	indefinite	teaching there (...) (sD) <u>don't know if . in the .</u> (eGA) <u>the</u> \$a\$ primary school	Enseñando allí en <u>una</u> escuela primaria	No
sporadic	indefinite	you have {to: to} work in (eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ private school	Tienes que trabajar en <u>una</u> escuela privada	No
sporadic	indefinite	work in (eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ radio	Trabajar en ( <u>la</u> ) radio	Possibly
sporadic	indefinite	something {we we . we} had to take(eGA) <u>the</u> \$a\$ train and spend a lot of time travelling	Teníamos que coger <u>un</u> tren y pasar mucho tiempo viajando	No
sporadic	indefinite	when I'm in (mm) (eGA). <u>the</u> \$a\$ kindergarten . I feel very good	Cuando estoy en <u>una</u> guardería. me siento muy bien	No
sporadic	zero	you like (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ pasta	te gusta <u>la</u> pasta	Yes
sporadic	zero	my father . gave them . (eGA) <u>a</u> \$0\$ paella	mi padre les dio <u>una</u> paella	Yes
sporadic	zero	or having (eGA) <u>a</u> \$0\$ tea	Tomando té/el té/ un té	Possibly
sporadic	zero	at . seven or six or eight depends on the day . I had (eGA) <u>a</u> \$0\$ supper	a las siete o séis u ocho depende. Tomaba <u>una</u> cena/ <u>la</u> cena	Possibly
sporadic	zero	in the morning (er) we went to (eGA) <u>a</u> \$0\$ college	Por la mañana, íbamos a <u>una/ la</u> universidad	Possibly
sporadic	zero	even in (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ high school it was compulsory	Incluso en <u>la</u> escuela secundaria fue obligatorio	Yes
sporadic	zero	thing but not in (eGA) <u>a</u> \$0\$ (sDR) <u>secondary high= high school</u>	No en <u>una</u> escuela secundaria	Yes
sporadic	zero	they were out with their friends and (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ (eXNPR) <u>0</u> \$on\$ Saturday nights or Friday nights I had	salían con sus amigos y <u>los</u> Sábados o <u>los</u> Viernes por la noche tenía	Yes

sporadic	zero	the only thing I: (mm) I did every (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ morning was (eWM) <u>0</u> \$make\$ my bed	Lo único que hacía cada mañana fue hacer mi cama	No
generic	definite	I like (eGA) <u>0</u> \$the\$ Celtic world	Me gusta <u>el</u> mundo celta	No
generic	definite	and well . (eGA) <u>0</u> \$the\$ nightlife is quite different	y bueno. <u>la</u> vida nocturna es diferente	No
generic	definite	but (eGA) <u>0</u> \$the\$ people the country and even the food I liked a lot	Me gustaba mucho <u>la</u> gente, el país e incluso la comida	No
generic	definite	it can be taken either way because (eXNPR) <u>0</u> \$of\$ (eGA) <u>0</u> \$the\$ professors	Se puede mirar de cualquier manera por <u>los</u> profesores	No
generic	indefinite	not very simple . I cannot find ..(eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ logic <laughs>	No muy simple. No le veo lógica en esto	Yes
generic	zero	they believe in (eGA) <u>the</u> : \$0\$ fairy tale tales	Creen en cuentos de hada	No
generic	zero	and .. {they se they see} (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ life as we do	Miran <u>la</u> vida como nosotros	Yes
generic	zero	you can't speak to: (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ native people	No puedes hablar con ( <u>la</u> ) gente nativa	Possibly
generic	zero	very long and I hate . (eGA) { <u>the</u> . <u>the</u> } \$0\$ novels which are so long	Odio ( <u>las</u> ) novelas largas	Possibly
generic	zero	in (eGA) <u>a</u> \$0\$ regular flats you see your family	En ( <u>los</u> ) apartamentos normales te encuentras con tu familia	Possibly
generic	zero	we have to separate. (eGA) { <u>the</u> . <u>the</u> } \$0\$ food . from (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$. plastic . or from (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ paper	Tenemos que separar comida de plástico o de papel	No
Prop. noun	definite	and in (eGA) <u>0</u> \$the\$ United States I didn't feel {that . that} way	en ( <u>los</u> ) Estados Unidos no me sentía así	Possibly
Prop. noun	definite	well I've been {to to}(eGA) <u>0</u> \$the\$ U S three times	He visitad ( <u>los</u> ) Estados Unidos 3 veces	Possibly
Prop. noun	definite	I like . well I like better .(eGA) <u>0</u> \$the\$ United States than . the United Kingdom	Prefiero ( <u>los</u> ) Estados Unidos a Inglaterra	Possibly

Prop. noun	definite	I have never been (eXNPR) {in . in} \$to\$ America= (eXNPR) in \$to\$ (eGA) 0 \$the\$ United States	Nunca he estado en (los) Estados Unidos	Possibly
Prop. noun	No art.	with (eGA) a \$0\$ <overlap /> Erasmus	de Erasmus	No
Prop. noun	No art.	much beer <stops laughing> (eGA) the \$0\$ Guinness the famous Guinness	Mucha cerveza Guinness el famoso Guinness	No
Prop. noun	No art.	I (eGVT) like \$liked\$ the: National Gallery it was fantastic and (eGA) the: \$0\$ Trafalgar Square and Piccadilly Circus	Me gustaba “National Gallery” era fantástico “Trafalgar Square” y “Picadilly Circus”	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	this is(eGAF) an \$a\$ (eLSF) <u>especiality</u> \$speciality\$	Eso es <u>una</u> especialidad	Yes – False Fr.
Non. ref.	indefinite	And I was in (sDCC) at a in (eGA) 0 \$a\$ school in a little village	Frecuentaba <u>una</u> escuela en un pequeño pueblo	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	oh it's you know it's . (eGA) 0 \$a\$ very big meal	Es <u>una</u> comida grande	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	I think it's (eGA) the \$an\$ important meal	Creo que es <u>una</u> comida importante	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	and I think it's just (eGA) 0 \$a\$. {fantastic fantastic} film	Creo que es <u>una</u> película fantástica	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	so (eGPP) 0 \$it\$ is (er) (eGA) 0 \$a\$ marvellous (eGA) a \$0\$ city	es <u>una</u> ciudad maravillosa	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	think as if it was (eGAF) { a: a: a} \$an\$ ordinary film	Creo que era <u>una</u> película ordinaria	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	it was (eGA) 0 \$a\$ {ten ten} days' (erm) journey	Era <u>un</u> viaje de 10 días	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	it's like (eGA) 0 \$a\$ very industrial city	Es <u>una</u> ciudad industrial	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	it's (eGA) 0 \$a\$ good experience to: listen to different types of accents in English	Escuchar varios tipos de acentos ingleses es <u>una</u> buena experiencia	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	he is finishing . and .. I think it's (eGA) 0 \$a\$ very good one	Está terminando. y creo que es muy bueno	Yes
Non. ref.	indefinite	and Ewan McGregor because {he is he is} (eGA) 0 \$a\$ good actor	Ewan McGregor porque es <u>un</u> buen actor	No

Non. ref.	indefinite	I can remember everything really really (eGADV) <u>clear</u> \$clearly\$ because . it was (eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ very good <overlap /> experience	Lo recuerdo todo muy claramente porque era <u>una</u> experiencia muy buena	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	particularly Spanish because I was with (eGAF) <u>an</u> \$a\$ Spanish group	Español en particular porque estaba en <u>un</u> grupo de españoles	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	it's (er) (eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ {very spectacular very sps= spectacular} film	Es <u>una</u> película espectacular	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	topic one (...) (eh) it (eGVT) <u>has been</u> \$is\$ about a (eGAF) \$an\$ experience that (eGPP) <u>it</u> \$0\$ happens to me this morning	El tema uno (...) Se trata de <u>una</u> experiencia de esta mañana	No
Non. def.	indefinite	(sDR) <u>it's about</u> (er) s= (er)(eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ story {about about} (erm)	Es <u>una</u> historia de	No
Non. ref.	Indefinite	A:who is Amenabar B:Amenabar (eWM) <u>0</u> \$is\$ (eGAF) <u>an</u> \$a\$ Spanish director	B: Amenabar es <u>un</u> director español	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	because I went there {to . to} work as (eGA) <u>0</u> \$an\$ au pair	Fui allí para trabajar de au pair	Yes
Non. ref.	indefinite	I would like {to: to} work as (eGAF) <u>a</u> : \$an\$ English teacher in a secondary school	Quisiera trabajar de profesora de Inglés en una escuela secundaria	Yes
Non. ref.	indefinite	yes . (eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ nice family (eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ very nice family	<u>Una</u> familia agradable	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	is it like (eLS) <u>take</u> \$having\$ (eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ meal	Es como tomar una comida	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	this woman . (em) she's sitting . on (eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ chair.	Esta mujer está sentada en <u>una</u> silla	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	like you know . (eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ sandwich with . (eh) (eWRM) <u>I don't know</u> \$0\$ some (eLS) <u>salad</u> \$lettuce\$ (eWM) <u>0</u> \$and\$ ham	<u>Un</u> bocadillo con lechuga y jamón	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	he has (eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ very good (eWM) <u>0</u> \$sense\$ (eXNPR) <u>0</u> \$of\$ humour	Tiene un buen sentido del humor	No
Non. ref.	Indefinite	you just (eGVT) <u>wake up</u> \$woke up\$ and . you had (eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ very big breakfast	Despertaste y tuviste <u>un</u> desayuno grande	No

Non. ref.	indefinite	here . the woman has (eh) . (eGA) <u>a</u> \$0\$ straight hair	Aquí la mujer tiene ( <u>un</u> ) pelo lacio	Possibly
Non. ref.	indefinite	but there is quite (eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ (eLP) <u>big end</u> \$surprising ending\$ I think	Tiene <u>un</u> final bastante sorprendente	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	he went to London to study: (er) in in (eGA) <u>0</u> \$an\$ academy or (mm) t= to be an actor I don't remember the name{of of} this school	Se fue a Londres a estudiar en <u>una</u> academia... para ser actor no recuerdo el nombre de la escuela	No
Non. ref.	indefinite	was in .. (sDR) <u>I don't</u> in . (eGA) <u>0</u> \$an\$ institute	Fue en <u>un</u> instituto	No
numeral	indefinite	{I lived I lived:} there(...) with (eGA) <u>the</u> \$a\$ family	Vivía allí con <u>una</u> familia	No
numeral	indefinite	about (eGDI) <u>my</u> \$a\$ country I visited	Sobre <u>un</u> país que he visitado	No
Fixed ph.	zero	look at the nose ..(eGPP) <u>0</u> \$it\$ is . bigger . in (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ reality	Mira la nariz en realidad es más grande	No
Fixed ph.	zero	and in (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ reality (eGPP) <u>they</u> \$she\$ (eGVM) <u>are</u> \$is\$ a little bit fat	En realidad es un poco gorda	No
Fixed ph.	zero	but in (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ reality the dress is a little bit. with spots	En realidad el vestido está estampado de puntos	No
Fixed ph.	zero	I don't know to get her into (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ conversation	No sé como entablar conversación con ella	No
Fixed ph.	zero	I could never ever in (eGDI) <u>the</u> \$my\$ life let anybody paint me	En <u>mi</u> vida nunca permitiría que alguien me pinte	No
plural	zero	to have (eGA) <u>a</u> \$0\$ hamburgers	Tomar <u>unas</u> hamburguesas	Yes
plural	zero	and you have to dedicate (mm) (eWRS) <u>through</u> \$0\$ (eGDI) <u>the</u> \$three\$ years or more only to study	Tienes que dedicar tres años o más solo a estudiar	No
plural	zero	(eGPP) <u>0</u> \$it\$ is different to: to (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ other (sDR) <u>capital</u> European (eGNN) <u>capital</u> \$capitals\$	Es diferente a otros capitales de Europa	No
Quantifier	zero	if you eat it all (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ day	Lo comes todo <u>el</u> día	Yes

Quantifier	zero	yeah but sometimes you have to do (eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ little work you know cos otherwise	A veces tienes que hacer <u>un</u> poco de trabajo	No
Quantifier	zero	so . I have (eGA) <u>0</u> \$a\$ lot of problems	Tengo muchos problemas	Possibly
Quantifier	zero	and they give you . all (eGA) <u>0</u> \$the\$ things	Te dan todas <u>las</u> cosas	No
Quantifier	zero	need the: the courses because . not all (eGA) <u>the</u> \$0\$ people have the opportunity to travel	Necesitas los cursos porque no toda <u>la</u> gente tiene la oportunidad de viajar	Yes
intensifier	No art.	the woman painted is (eGA) <u>a</u> \$0\$ way (eWM) <u>0</u> \$more\$ beautiful	La mujer en el cuadro es mucho más guapa	No
intensifier	No art.	well in the second one . she seems (eGA) <u>a</u> \$0\$ kind of angry	En el segundo parece <u>un</u> poco enfadada	Possibly
intensifier	No art.	it was (eGA) <u>a</u> \$0\$ very strange <laughs> . as I said	Era muy extraño	No



