UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA CATARINA

PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM LETRAS

"THAT - DELETION'"

A READING COMPREHENSION PROBLEM?

DISSERTAÇÃO APRESENTADA À UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL
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MESTRE EM LETRAS - OPÇÃO INGLÊS E   LITERATURA
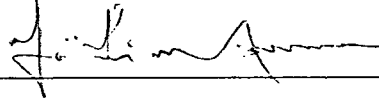CORRESPONDENTE.

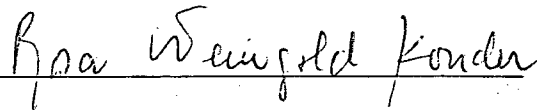EDLAMAR BENEVIDES XAVIER

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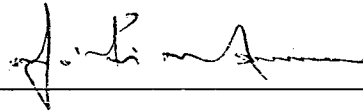e aprovada em sua forma final pelo Programa de Pós-Graduação.

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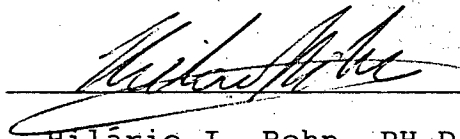Pós-Graduação em Inglês e
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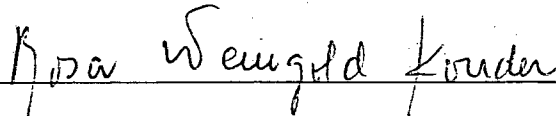Prof. ROSA WEINGOLD KONDER, Dra.
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A meus pais, que sempre
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RESUMO

Este estudo investiga como a falta de conhecimento linguístico em Inglês como Língua Estrangeira pode afetar a boa compreensão de estudantes universitários brasileiros quando lêem textos em inglês. O tema escolhido para estudo é a omissão da conjunção THAT em orações substantivas e a elipse do pronome relativo em orações adjetivas restritivas. Como estes são itens puramente gramaticais, suas ausências são mais afeitas a causar dificuldades que suas presenças.

O estudo é desenvolvido considerando o processo de leitura bi-direcional proposto por teóricos do Processo interativo. O modelo interativo abrange tanto o processo "bottom-up" quanto o processo "top-down" e tem sido crescentemente responsável pela leitura bem sucedida.

A investigação envolve 96 alunos dos oitos semestres do Curso de Letras da Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina (UFSC). Estes sujeitos são testados em sua habilidade de entender estes itens omitidos em textos previamente selecionados.

Apesar das limitações deste estudo, os resultados mostram que os alunos que não possuem conhecimentos adequados dos itens têm mais problemas para compreendê-los quando lêem em Inglês. Estas dificuldades, segundo os resultados, são maiores no que se refere à elipse do pronome relativo em orações adjetivas do que com a omissão da conjunção - que.

ABSTRACT

This study investigates how the lack of linguistic knowledge of English as a Foreign Language can affect Brazilian university students' good comprehension when reading English texts. The topic chosen for the study is the omission of the that-conjunction in Noun Clauses and the deletion of the relative pronoun in Restrictive Relative Clauses. As these are purely grammatical items, their absence is more likely to cause misunderstandings than their presence.

The study is developed taking into consideration the bidirectional reading process proposed by the Interactive Process theorists. The interactive model comprises both the bottom-up and the top-down processes and has increasingly come to account for successful reading.

The investigation involves 96 students of the eight semesters of the "Letras" Course at the Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina (UFSC). These subjects are tested in their ability to understand those deleted items in selected texts.

Despite the limitations of this study, the findings show that the students who lack proper linguistic knowledge of the items have more problems in understanding them when reading in English. These difficulties are, according to the results, greater as regards the deletion of the relative pronoun in relative clauses than with the omission of the that-conjunction.

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INTRODUCTION

The objective of this dissertation is to find out whether
Brasilian University students who lack proper EFL linguistic
knowledge are able to read effectively in English.

The proposal of the study is based mainly on the
bidirectional reading process proposed by the Interactive
Process theorists. The Interactive model comprises both the
bottom-up model and the top down model and asserts that meaning
is created through the interaction of the reader's syntactic
and semantic knowledge (higher order knowledge) with the
ortographic and lexical knowledge (lower order knowledge) and
vice versa. The study then focuses on reading as a process of
producing selective cues to verify hypotheses combining the
reader's prior knowledge with the input, but it also defends
the point that meaning is not reached if this higher level
information does not interact with lower level information
considering the word itself.

The research topic chosen to test this assumption is the
deletion of the item <u>that</u> as a conjunction in noun clauses and

as a relative pronoun in restrictive relative clauses. As these are purely grammatical items, their absence, which is unusual in Portuguese, is more likely to cause comprehension problems than their presence. The investigation involved students of the "Letras" Course of the Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina (UFSC). These subjects were tested in their ability to understand texts which contain <u>that</u> deletion.

Despite the limitations of this study, the findings show that the students who lack proper linguistic knowledge of the topic investigated have more problems when reading EFL texts.

The dissertation is divided into four chapters: the first chapter focuses on the reading process, the main ideas defended by modern theorists, looking into problems involving comprehension and showing that reading in a foreign language is both a reading problem and a language problem. The second chapter deals with the specific linguistic aspect in English and Portuguese and shows how the deletion in English of the items in question can interfere with good comprehension of texts. In the third chapter, the nature of the research is considered in relation to what is hypothesized; it describes the subjects involved and the instruments - texts and tests - used to achieve what was intended. The findings are presented in tables and an evaluation and analysis of the results is provided. The fourth chapter comprises the final conclusions taking into consideration the original hipothesis and the results obtained. Some Pedagogical Suggestions are given with the purpose of stimulating new studies on the subject, so that new alternatives can be sought to solve reading problems in order to improve Brazilian university students' comprehension of EFL texts.

CHAPTER 1

READING FOR MEANING IN EFL

This chapter will deal with some of the main issues
concerning reading comprehension in EFL; it will present the
current view of reading and the steps a reader usually takes to
reach comprehension. It will then tackle some of the most
controversial points in reading, discussing factors which
contribute to a better understanding of the message, as well as
analysing some linguistic points that appear to cause
comprehension difficulties to Brazilian EFL readers.

Goodman (1971) and many other scholars have emphasized that
there seems to be little difference between first language
reading abilities and foreign language reading abilities. In
fact, even without being aware of their use, the first language
reader develops some strategies, he performs some mental
processes to achieve comprehension. Thus, during the reading
task, the reader guesses and predicts words, phrases and
sentences, infers facts or actions not clearly expressed in the
text, criticizes and draws conclusions about the subject by using
his cognitive strategies. He also develops metacognitive

strategies, that is, conscious strategies to detect comprehension problems. Among these metacognitive strategies are: looking for the theme of the text, analysing its internal consistency and comparing what the text says with what he knows about the subject. These reading strategies appear to be the same in any language.

Despite the fact that reading in a foreign language has been considered a process similar to first language reading, involving identical strategies, there appear to be problems that cannot be solved only through the use of strategies; rather the reader should also possess a certain level of competence in the target language in order to read effectively.

The case for linguistic knowledge is discussed in this chapter because it is a controversial point among those teaching reading in a foreign language; the kind of threshold level a reader needs to attain in order to be able to read comprehensively in English is hardly ever mentioned by reading experts. Reading scholars focus on different skills and on strategies that can be developed or transferred from the native to the foreign language. They, however, fail to mention the level of competence in the foreign language which the reader must acquire, before he is able to transfer his good L1 reading strategies to reading successfully in EFL.

Although admitting that other aspects may hinder good reading comprehension, the claim made in this study is that the lack of adequate linguistic knowledge can affect EFL reading comprehension. Our main purpose is to investigate to what extent the deletion of the conjunction in that-clauses and the deletion of the relative pronoun in noun phrases, which

constitute syntactic differences between English and Portuguese, can affect reading comprehension. Additionally, we will also try to find out whether reading abilities, both in the first and in the second languages help the readers overcome the possible linguistic problems with these items, or whether conversely a more thorough knowledge of the English language is indeed necessary for the student's efficient comprehension of a text containing those deletions.

1.1. What is Reading?

Reading is the process of decoding written texts. The teaching of the reading skill in most English courses has taken different paths. It firstly consisted of the teaching of L2 with an emphasis on reading aloud, the correct pronunciation of the words and the accurate translation of the sentences. In the structuralist view, years later, scholars like Bloomfield and Fries (apud Silberstein, 1987:28) asserted that language is speech, not writing. The process of learning to read was assumed to be an automatic recognition of written symbols, corresponding to the language patterns that students habitually developed. Thus, in audiolingualism, the process of reading texts reinforced the spoken language with cultural information contextualizing speech. The lack of mastery of the mechanics of reading, that is, the perfect association of letters and sounds was considered to be the cause of difficulty in getting content out of reading. There was a distinction between the thought process and the reading process. Normally, reading courses used reading comprehension questions, generally handled orally and proceeded much like a pattern-practice drill. The

texts quite often were accompanied by grammar drills, the text being just a pretext to teach grammar. The dissatisfaction with this kind of approach to reading instruction was found mostly among teachers of advanced students, who started questioning how to change the situation.

A new light has appeared with Goodman (1967) and other scholars like Rumelhart (1977), Stanovich (1980), Smith (1981), Singer (1983). Second language reading came then to be a unique information processing skill and not only a vehicle for language instruction. A psycholinguistic perspective on reading, cognitive psychology and contemporary linguistics have greatly contributed to the new current. Reading is defined as a mental process related to language and its characteristics are inferred by observing the behavior of readers. Reading is a complex, perceptual, and cognitive activity (Woytak, 1984:509). Goodman (1971:136) sees reading as a receptive process which starts with an input conveyed by a graphic display and ends with meaning as its output. This cognitive process is in most cultures usually done silently and privately, though silent reading seems a solitary activity, it is not a passive one; rather, it is an active process in which the reader plays an active role, making contributions to achieve meaning by using his knowledge of the world, his past experiences and his capacity to process language information in order to understand the text. It is a well known fact that the reader contributes with more information than that perceived from the print on the page (Clarke and Silberstein, 1977:136; Eskey, 1983:2). This implies that what one brings to the text is often more important than what he finds in it (Grellet, 1981:1). Moreover, it is worth noting that reading cannot proceed in a word by word fashion; instead, it develops

at a rate which is more or less rapid, depending on the
complexity of the material, the purpose for reading it and the
reader's knowledge of the topic.

Eskey (1983:2) asserts that although it may seem that one
reads by steadily moving his eyes across each line of the page,
identifying clusters of letters as words, then adding word to
form phrases, clauses and sentences and finally decoding for
meaning, this is not the way the reader actually reads. On the
contrary, the reader's eyes take in whole chunks in a series of
jumps, shifting around in leaps and bounds (saccades) and resting
for short periods (fixations) (Smith, 1981:21). In order to
achieve comprehension, the reader must be engaged in an
interactive process making use of his visual and non-visual
information.

Visual information is mainly concerned with the grapho-
phonological cues that the text presents. In the process of
reading, the reader needs to identify and decode the graphic
symbols which convey the author's message. Visual information,
that which is picked up by the eyes, helps the reader to
process the elements of the text and to distinguish similar
words. In this process, he is helped by his expectations about
the text and knowledge of the language. Yet, visual information
is limited because the brain becomes overwhelmed if handling too
much information at the same time (Smith, 1981:30-1). According
to studies in psycholinguistics, only a small part of the
information needed comes from the written text. The reader's
contribution, bringing meaning to the text is essential to
comprehension and it even precedes the recognition of words.
Meaning is not on the surface of words, that is, the written
marks picked up by the reader's eyes do not convey a meaningful

input; indeed, a word like "head" or "home" may have different
meanings according to the context in which they appear.
Instead, meaning lies in the deep structure, that is, in the
meaning of the thoughts the writer wishes to express; it lies
beyond the physical aspects of the words (Smith, 1981:71; 73-
4). Meaning is in the reader's mind and must be extracted
through a process of reading (Widdowson, 1978:63) with the help
of non-visual information. Non-visual information encompasses
the reader's prior knowledge, his understanding of the relevant
language and his ability to use the semantic cues conveyed
through the visual cues. Smith says that this kind of information
comes from "behind the eyes" and the better the reader uses it,
the better he will read.

Both visual and non-visual information are active and
interrelate in such a way that the more non-visual information
the reader uses, the less visual information he needs and vice
versa (Smith, 1981:14-5). The use of non-visual information is
essential to achieve comprehension in reading. This skill is
not taught as a specific subject in schools, rather it is the
result of general knowledge which the individual acquires from
all teaching and experiences and which is unconsciously and
effortlessly developed by the reader (Smith, ibid.:13; 27).

For all this, reading is said to be a cognitive process and
the key to fluency is knowledge. According to the reasons and
purposes the reader has for the reading task, he may be engaged
in different types of reading such as, reading to gather specific
information, to look for meaning in a passage, just to pass the
time, etc. The different reasons or purposes involve several
reading processes, usually generating different expectations
about what the reader will find in the passage. Undoubtedly,

motivation and purpose are two important variables which play
crucial roles in reading. They do not only influence the
reader's interest, but also may determine the kind of reading
in which he will engage. Guided by these factors, the reader
is able to efficiently locate the required information and
quickly reject what is irrelevant in order to achieve his goal
successfully.

1.2. Prediction and Guessing: Warm up to reading

Psycholinguistic studies, as those developed by Goodman,
have shown that it is important that the reader, based on his
expectations, select and make use of productive cues from
perceptual input and anticipate or make guesses of what is not
seen. These two reading strategies can be used before reading
the text, as well as throughout the whole reading activity.
Prediction is the ability to foretell what is coming next. For
example, the reader may say what a text or book is about just
by reading its title. He may also be able to predict coming
words, sentences and even the whole event in a text, depending
on his knowledge of the subject, his past experiences or his
expectations about it.

Guessing is the ability to grasp the meaning of a word
through context. It can be effortlessly made if the reader
possesses knowledge of the language structure, knowledge of the
world and uses relevant cognitive skills. Guided by semantic
and syntactic cues, the reader makes tentative choices and
guesses the meaning of the words he reads or has skipped in his
first reading. According to Eskey (1979:69), efficient readers
can "quickly learn to respond to a limited number of critical

signals at increasingly higher levels of abstractions". Guessing
is therefore the ability to select the best cues and infer the
meaning of an unknown word.

1.3. Reading as an Interactive Process

Reading is an interactive process in many ways. As noted
before, the reader needs to make use of his visual and non-visual
information to achieve comprehension. Goodman (1967) refers to
reading as an interaction between thought and language. During
the reading activity, the reader engages in an interactive and
interdependent process involving his background knowledge, his
strategies and purposes to enter into a dialogue with the
author's ideas conveyed in the text. Thus, a kind of cooperation
and negotiation between the reader, the text and the author takes
place. The writer influences the reading process through his
discourse and the way he encodes the message. The text created
by the author tries to convey his ideas, feelings, etc., as
clearly and coherently as possible; however, the meaning is not
totally explicit and the reader must fill in the existing gaps.
Though this interactive process, the text is read and interpreted
according to the reader's discourse, thus creating another
"text". This may be regarded as a new text because the reader
seems to use his own discourse to achieve comprehension (Candlin,
1984:ix,x).

Interactive processing is also related to reading models.
The reading process has been seen as a bottom-up process and as
a top-down process.

Bottom-up theorists, like Gough (1972 and La Berge and

Samuels (1974), describe the process of reading as proceeding from letters to words and from words to meaning; the process has been referred to as data driven, since it is related to incoming data. The words are considered individually by the reader before any indication of meaning has been reached. Therefore, these theorists tend to focus on the text. Yet, the bottom-up theory has been greatly contested because it does not allow certain states to be bypassed and there is no provision in it for interaction of processing not originating in the text (Rumelhart, 1977:575-8).

Conversely, the proponents of the top-down model concentrate on the reader rather than on the text. The higher level processes interact with and direct the flow of information through lower level processes. Theorists, like Goodman (1967), see the reading process as a "psycholinguistic guessing game", involving the skill of selecting the most productive cues necessary to produce guesses, which are right at the first time. Through expectations and sampling information to verify his hypotheses, the reader combines his prior knowledge or experiences with the incoming message, reducing his reliance on graphic display and knowledge about sounds. Nevertheless, researchers of the Interactive model of reading, like Stanovich (1980:34-5), say that the the top-down hypothesis testing models are questionable because "they require implausible assumptions about the relative speed of the process involved". Stanovich and other scholars believe that the top-down model presents serious deficiencies as explanations of fluent reading. They doubt whether the generation of hypotheses about following word or words would take less time than a fluent reader would take to recognize these words by merely using his visual information.

They question how such hypotheses, based on complex syntactic and semantic analyses, could be formed in fractions of seconds, which is the time required for a fluent reader to recognize most words.

The Interactive model of reading has been put forward by Rumelhart (1977). Its supporters emphasize that meaning is created through the interaction of text and reader. According to it, the reader's vast stored knowledge and cognitive skills interact with the text in order to make sense of it. This means that the reader's higher order knowledge - his syntactic and semantic knowledge - can influence his perception at lower stages, the ortographic and lexical knowledge and vice versa, during the reading process. Thus, successful reading has increasingly come to refer to the interaction of top-down and bottom-up processing.

1.4. Comprehension: The Reader's Quest for Meaning

Comprehension is the goal of reading: however, reading scholars have not yet been able to define very clearly what comprehension is or how to give a definite description of how it operates. Anderson and Pearson (1984:255) say that it is "the interaction of the new information with old knowledge". For Grellet (1981:3), comprehension is obtained by "extracting the required information from a text efficiently".

As listeners may differ in the comprehension of a message, each reader may read differently and may achieve distinct comprehension. This happens because texts do not have unitary meaning shared equally by all readers, nor will a certain

meaning be extracted only if the reader has sufficient skills. The reader usually tries to extract meaning from the passage according to the degree of comprehension he intends to obtain – whether reading for general comprehension, for comprehension of main points or for detailed comprehension. Even unconsciously, the reader determines the level of comprehension he intends to achieve whenever approaching a text.

A very important ability in the reading process is to be able to make proper questions in order to extract meaning and achieve comprehension. This is possible through predictions, expectations and the ability to hypothesize. By making proper questions during the reading activity, the reader will look for the right information and will readily select the answers to his questions, thus achieving comprehension. Comprehension is then the result of having all questions or doubts resolved (Smith, 1981:85; 105; 107; 127). As a means to make proper questions and achieve comprehension easily, the reader should approach reading by considering the different types of texts, his objective in reading, his previous knowledge of the subject and his linguistic knowledge.

1.4.1. Comprehension: The Process Influences the Product

Clarke and Silberstein (1977:137) claim that the reading skill must be viewed as a two-fold phenomenon, involving a process – the act of comprehension, and a product – the comprehension itself. It seems rather difficult to distinguish one from the other, since reading is an essentially individual process occurring in the reader's mind, and most of all because

it can only be measured through its product - the comprehension.

Most of the studies in reading focus on the product as the main factor to determine what the reader gets out of the text. Yet, comprehension is subject to variables such as the texts themselves, background knowledge, cultural and social inheritance, age, preferred reading strategies, linguistic competence, purposes, motivation and affective involvement.

According to Alderson and Urquhart (1984:xviii-xix), the product is the right answer or the desired terminal behavior the teacher expects from his students. They assert that the product is easier to be observed and has consequently been emphasized by traditional teaching and research practice. The understanding of a text seems unpredictable, as there may be a difference in the outcome due to the many variables affecting comprehension. As a consequence of this, the students' reasons to arrive at an answer could at best only be inferred. Alderson and Urquhart mention Hosenfeld's oral interview (1984), Harri-Augstein and Thomas's conversational approach (1984), Franson's written questionnaires (1984), whose respective articles they have edited in their book, besides Goodman's miscue analysis, as the best available methodological procedures to discover the process which the reader uses while reading. As a result of the studies carried out by those researchers, the editors claim that similar processes may result in different outcomes. This fact seems to warn the teacher that the process should be considered, especially when testing the students' comprehension.

The attempt to characterize the process employed by the reader has crucial importance not only for reading comprehension research but also for classroom practice. Alderson and Urquhart point out that such studies may lead to the possibility of:

- identifying the element in the text that might ease and improve the students' reading.

- describing the process and strategies the more experienced readers employ, which may then be taught to less experienced readers.

1.4.2. Comprehension: What it Results from

According to Coady (1979:7), from a psycholinguistic viewpoint, comprehension results from an interaction among three factors.

1. Higher level conceptual abilities: they depend on the reader's intellectual capacity and will influence his process of reasoning, evaluating, interpreting, inferring,etc. The higher the level of a reader's conceptual abilities, the greater will be his ability to make higher order questions.

2. Background knowledge: it is the ability the reader has to relate the new information to the knowledge stored in his mind. This stored knowledge, also referred to as prior knowledge, previous knowledge, knowledge of the world or schemata, encompasses arrays of knowledge about the world, past experiences, studies of different subjects and cultures, readings and other knowledge the reader has acquired during his lifetime. Due to the fact that prior knowledge can so decisively contribute to the outcome in reading, this item will be the object of further attention in section 1.5.

3. Process strategies: they are the mental processes developed by the reader in order to comprehend. Woytak (1984: 510) says that they are considered as sub-components of the

reading ability.

For Coady (1979), the process strategies relevant to reading are: grapheme-phoneme correspondence, syllable - morpheme information, syntactic information (deep and surface), lexical meaning and contextual meaning, cognitive strategies and affective mobilizers. These strategies can be grouped into concrete strategies and abstract strategies, the choice being determined by factors such as the reader's needs, the type of material being read, the degree of comprehension desired and possible variables. Concrete strategies involve the reader's skill in using the strategies related to word representation, which include phoneme-grapheme correspondences and word meaning. These strategies can be used at any level of reading proficiency, but seem to be more frequently used by non-proficient readers. Abstract strategies are more related to syntactic and semantic information which signal meaning overtly. These strategies are greatly used by skillful readers, who can take advantage of them for successful comprehension. As the reader becomes more experienced, he gradually reduces the use of concrete strategies and relies more on the use of abstract strategies.

Goodman (1971:138), studying English readers, was able to distinguish three cue systems which they use simultaneously and interdependently:

- a graphophonic cue system operating on morpho-phonic levels.

- a syntactic cue system involving pattern markers, such as function words and inflectional suffixes, used as cues to recognize and predict structures.

- a semantic cue system which enables the reader to provide semantic input not by simply knowing the meaning of words,

but by supplying meaning during the reading process,

provided by their experience and conceptual background.

Furthermore, Goodman (1971:139) claims that "reading requires

not so much skills as strategies that make it possible to select

the most productive cues". He also says that these strategies

or cues will vary according to the reading task the reader is

engaged in, e.g. to deduce meaning - contextual clues; to obtain

information through illustrations, maps, tables, etc. -

paralinguistic and extralinguistic clues; to understand

intersentential relationship - intersentential clues. The

accurate use of these cues in reading should certainly guide the

reader to his utmost objective in reading: comprehension.

1.5. Background knowledge: The Reader's Data Bank

The activation or non-activation of background knowledge

affects the reader's comprehension and interpretation of a text.

It has already been mentioned that reading comprehension is

increased if the reader is able to relate the new information

to his background knowledge. This is a kind of general stored

knowledge, which whenever activated can clarify the significance

of facts. Besides, this type of knowledge is also essential for

the acquisition of new concepts or schemata.

Schemata are the organization of both general and academic

knowledge obtained by the development of daily experiences and

reading. The term schemata was introduced into psychology in

1932 by Bartlett (Rumelhart, 1981:3). According to Anderson and

Pearson (1984:257), Bartlett used the term to refer to an active

organization of past reactions or past experiences; he was,

however, vague about how schemata work and was never able to explain them.

As Rumelhart (ibid, 4) puts it: "schemata are the building blocks of cognition". As such, they incorporate knowledge or concepts about objects and events. For Anderson and Pearson (ibid.:259), a schema is an abstract knowledge structure, they classify it as abstract because "it summarizes what is known about a variety of cases that differ in many particulars", and it is structured because it represents the relationship among its components". A schema has parts usually called "nodes", "variables" or "slots". Anderson and Pearson claim that if a schema is activated and used to interpret some event, the slots are instantiated with particular information. In order to fill in the proper slots some constraints act on the information. One of these constraints helps to activate the schema according to the situation; the other constraint serves as "default values", that is, it supplies through guesses and inferences the missing information or values which have not yet been observed (Anderson and Pearson, 1984:260-1; Rumelhart, 1981:6).

The reader's background knowledge is his great data bank; it contains schemata hierarchically stored about all concepts, such as those referring to classes of people and things, situations, events, sequence of events, actions and sequence of actions (Rumelhart, ibid.:5); besides, it holds information of how and when this knowledge is available for use and how new knowledge is to be incorporated into the existing background knowledge.

Anderson et al. (apud Steffesen and Joag-Dev 1984:54) have identified three functions of schemata:

- to provide the basis for "filling in the gaps", in a text, which permits a coherent interpretation through inference.

- to constrain the reader's interpretation of an ambiguous message. This means that owing to different background information and assumptions, the reader will interpret it according to his own schemata. In this way, he will be unware of other possible interpretations, which might better conform to the author's schemata.

- to give the reader means to monitor his comprehension and correspondence between the information he has stored in his mind and that acquired from the text.

The process of relating the new information to general knowledge in order to comprehend linguistic messages, according to Bransford et al. (1984:35), affects the reader's capacity to understand and remember information. There are two possible reasons for differences in this process. The first is due to the fact that people differ in the degree to which they have acquired apropriate knowledge. As knowledge is crucial to fill in gaps in the message, the reader who does not possess adequate knowledge will lack relevant information to interpret and understand the text. The second possible reason is related to the degree to which people activate their potentially available knowledge spontaneously. As cognitive activities are inherent to each reader, it is not only the degree of knowledge that can determine different degrees of comprehension and distinguish readers in their ability to understand and remember information.

Steffesen and Joag-Dev (1984:48) claim that culture is an important variable to consider in the construction of background knowledge. They regard the different cultural systems influencing background knowledge as a factor relevant to

comprehension; that is, the reader can effortlessly understand
and infer the writer's message, if he has the appropriate
schemata; otherwise, he may distort meaning, either by attempting
to alter explicit propositions in the text or by the addition
of information which is judged to be culturally inappropriate.
These distortions, according to the authors, can be caused by
texts from an unfamiliar culture or by differences in background
knowledge (ibid.:60-1).

1.6. Reading and Vocabulary Knowledge

Although vocabulary knowledge may be a variable affecting
both native and foreign language reading, it seems to be more
especifically related to reading in a foreign language. The
need or not of the knowledge of a great number of words in order
to read fluently is a controversial issue. There is not a
consensus among authors as to what extent vocabulary knowledge
actually affects readability. For example, Anderson and
Freebody (1981) mention experiments by other researchers which
suggest that vocabulary knowledge seems to predict the indices
of a reader's linguistic abilities and to determine his ability
to comprehend. After analysing several of those experiments,
they conclude that "word knowledge is a requisite for reading
comprehension: people who do not know the meaning of very many
words are most probably poor readers" (Anderson and Freebody,
ibid.:110).

Eskey (1979:75) also considers that despite the fact that
many specialists in reading have underrated the importance of
acquiring a large vocabulary, good readers should master a

considerable amount of words to complement their skill. He
further suggests that reading is the only means of acquiring
control of adequate vocabulary.

On the other hand, Cooper (1984:128) concludes from his
research that too much worry about the meaning of unknown words
or with details at word level blocks comprehension and interferes
with the meaning potential offered by the text. Cooper (ibid.:
134-5) sees the solution to the problem as a matter of providing
the handicapped students with reading programs that would give
them massive assistance in buiding up lexical competence; emphasis
should be placed on training students to take advantage of large
contexts and also of the clues in the context and of their
purposes in reading.

Joycey (1984:26) similarly does not see vocabulary knowledge
as a major problem for comprehension. He asserts that native
readers do not necessarily know all the words or require such a
precision in meaning to read understandingly; rather, they are
tolerant of inaccuracy in reading. He says that a native reader
"probably adopts some strategy to supply a meaning sufficient
to carry on reading and understanding without knowing the exact
meaning". He adds that a native reader, instead of trying to
find a precise meaning for the unknown word, would rather draw
on his knowledge of the world, of concepts, of routines people
live by and of the rules that hold the text together to continue
to read.

For Mackay (1979:84), vocabulary difficulties are not only
due to unknown words, but also to the relationships holding
between lexical items in a text.

Other researches recently developed suggest that if foreign

language students are to become successful readers, vocabulary building should receive more attention from FL reading teachers (Silberstein, 1987:32).

The vocabulary content each reader should possess is a complex issue. If on the one hand, it is true that a large vocabulary knowledge may facilitate advanced reading, on the other hand, it is equally true that it is not only the control of a considerable amount of vocabulary that will make one a competent reader in the foreign language; rather, there is an array of knowledge which along with vocabulary will lead the reader to the understanding of texts. As one can see, the issues raised are far from having been given practical and definitive answers; so, it seems that researchers still need to carry out more studies and experiments to find suitable explanations for these divergences.

The issue on vocabulary content is related to other controversial questions in EFL reading such as, what linguistic knowledge should an EFL reader achieve in order to become a good reader; whether EFL teaching should focus on content words or on function words, or even whether reading in a foreign language is a language problem or a reading problem. These questions will be discussed in the sections below.

1.7. Reading and Linguistic Knowledge

The fact that skilled readers should look for language clues to read and understand efficiently implies that linguistic knowledge is required for the task. Coady (1979:12) suggests that a good background knowledge can compensate for some of the

reader's syntactic problems. Likewise, Goodman (1971) and Smith (1981) have been engaged in devising reading strategies within the top-down reading model, that could lead students to solve language problems. These authors agree that relevant background knowledge and the use of good reading strategies are essential for fluent reading. The great concern would then be the level of comprehension to be achieved if the text contains structures that cannot be understood by the reader, even though he uses his background knowledge and available reading strategies. Reading especialists agree to varying degrees that the reader needs to possess some linguistic knowledge to read understandingly. Therefore, the most controversial point is perhaps about the quantity and the quality of linguistic knowledge the reader should handle before being able to read efficiently without disregarding the several variables that may affect reading.

Mackay (1979:80) claims that the reader can only demonstrate comprehension if he knows the language system in question and if he possesses an operational knowledge of how that system is used to convey meaning. Thus, as in the texts all information is signalled linguistically, he believes that in order to achieve comprehension sucessfully, the reader depends on his correct interpretation of the linguistic signals.

The kind of linguistic knowledge the reader is expected to have encompasses knowledge of the spelling or phonological system, knowledge of the grammatical system and semantic knowledge. The first two, or morphemic clues, are part of the reader's recognition skill and should include: the function of plural and possessive suffixes, verb inflections, comparative forms and derivational suffixes. Semantic knowledge, or contextual clues, helps the reader to infer the meaning of

unfamiliar words from context (Saville-Troike, 1979:30-1). These clues are relevant to the knowledge of what makes a sentence a sentence. Moreover, in order to read efficiently, the reader has to demonstrate his knowledge of what makes a text a text, that is, he has to be able to identify lexical, syntactic and logical relationships that hold the sentences together and make the text coherent (Mackay, 1979:83-7).

Other reading skills are also directly dependent on linguistic knowledge such as the ability to recognize and interpret clues as definitions, explanations, comparisons, contrasts, etc., which are common in a text.

It seems clear that linguistic knowledge plays an important role in the reading comprehension processes. The advantages of the use of reading strategies can be largely increased if the reader has the adequate knowledge of the language. These two types of knowledge together with general background knowledge enable him to interpret and understand the text conveniently.

1.8. Content Words and Function Words

As seen above, EFL reading involves the reader's use of several abilities, both cognitive and linguistic. Among the linguistic abilities, one which has been a controversial issue among EFL teachers is the students' ability to handle both content and function words. There seems to be a notion that teachers, especially in the first grades, should be more concerned with increasing the student's knowledge and use of content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs). The concentration of efforts on this type of teaching might result

in the student not being able to handle with facility the
meaning usage and contextual use of function words (prepositions,
determiners, pronouns, conjunctions and auxiliary verbs).

Several studies have tried to investigate the importance of
the knowledge of content and function words in the comprehension
of texts. Silberstein (1987) mentions studies developed by
Upshur and Homburg in which they conclude that the comprehension
of texts by lower level readers depends essentially upon
knowledge of content words.

Sim and Bensoussan (1979) report an experiment they carried
out with students to determine their scores on recognizing
function words and content words. They were concerned with word
recognition and decoding and expected to draw conclusions as to
whether the control of contextualized function words had a
greater, an equal or lesser effect on comprehension than the
control of content words. Their hypothesis was that students
who have not mastered reading skills in decoding and interpreting
function words would have more difficulty in reading than those
who have acquired them. They also assumed that these lexical
skills are not less important than those for decoding and
interpreting content words. The authors also mention Sim's
previous preliminary research, in which it was verified that
students experienced difficulty in dealing with function words
at an academic level. Consequently, they decided to investigate
the relative difficulty experienced by students in reading
function and content words in a context. They thought that a
new research might possibly indicate that

> if incomplete mastery of the contextual operation
> of function words affected test scores at least as
> much as incomplete mastery of content words, there
> would be justification for spending prime teaching

time and resources in teaching the use of function
words in contextual cohesion (Sim and Bensoussan,
1979:37).

In their investigation, they applied tests with different
types of questions on a wide range of content areas. The tests
were aplied to 187 students at Haifa University, who had
completed half of a 100 hour English reading comprehension
course at the time of the test. To validate the tests, the
students were allowed to use English-English dictionaries as a
means to reduce lexical uncertainty. The students' answering
incorrectly would indicate that they did not know the meaning,
or even how to find the meaning, of specific vocabulary items
in context. They arrived at the conclusion that

> while there is no evidence to suggest that teaching
> the contextual operation of function words is more
> important than teaching content words, the results,
> within the limits of the experiment, support the
> contention that function words, being an apparent
> cause of reading difficulty, need to be taught and
> tested to the same extent as content words (Sim and
> Bensoussan, 1979:40).

They also suggest that further investigation should be
undertaken to determine to what extent the teaching of function
words is important and at what stage in the students' curriculum
it should be emphasized.

1.9. Reading in a Foreign Language

Modern reading programs have as their main goal the
development of skills to enable the reader to be a proficient
one. Thus, several skills are fostered so that the reader may
recognize, infer, evaluate and understand the meaning and the
information both explicitly and not explicitly stated, as well

as skim for main points in order to summarize. Although the development of reading skills and strategies is extremely useful to the student's reading process, there is not only concern but also disagrement as to whether these skills and strategies are more important to comprehension than language competence or whether they alone can compensate for a lack of reading proficiency.

Alderson (1984:1-24) has reviewed some investigations focusing on this problem and has analysed the different findings. The authors reviewed by Alderson carried out research with foreign language students, aiming to find out whether reading in a foreign language is simply a problem of knowledge of the words and the grammar of that language or whether the ability to use reading strategies can compensate for a deficiency in foreign language competence. In Alderson's review, two main points are emphasized: the first is that success in reading is due to the transfer of one's first language ability to the foreign language, rather than to the learner's possible knowledge of the target language. This would consequently imply that a skilled reader would easily transfer his abilities in first language reading to reading in a new language. The foreign language reader would then only fail to read successfully if he did not possess such skills or if he failed to transfer them appropriately. The second point is that reading problems in a foreign language are due to a lack of knowledge of the target language. These ideas are posited by Alderson (1984:4) in the following hypotheses (1 and 2, 1a and 2a):

> 1. Poor reading in a foreign language is due to poor
>   reading ability in the first language. Poor first
>   language readers will read poorly in the foreign
>   language and good first language readers will read

well in the foreign language;

  2. Poor reading in a foreign language is due to
     inadequate knowledge of the target language.

The two initial hypotheses permitted transformations, generating

the following hypotheses:

  1a. Poor reading in a foreign language is due to
      incorrect strategies used for reading that
      foreign language, strategies which differ from
      the strategies for reading the native language;

  2a. Poor foreign language reading is due to reading
      strategies in the first language not being
      employed in the foreign language, due to
      inadequate knowledge of the foreign language.
      Good first-language readers will read well in
      the foreign language once they have passed a
      threshold of foreign language ability.

Alderson analyses the studies carried out by several

researchers testing the different hypotheses. He discusses

the researchers' objectives and findings, their methodology

and the testing process used to obtain the results. Three of

the four hypotheses mentioned above will be discussed here

because they are particularly relevant to the present work.

1.9.1. <u>Hypothesis 1</u>: <u>Poor Reading Ability in L1 Affects L2</u>

<u>Reading</u>

The studies on the first hypothesis suggest that poor

reading in a foreign language is due to poor reading ability

in the first language. Most of the studies reviewed by Alderson

(ibid.:6-8) found evidence for the hypothesis available from

the bilingualism theory. Alderson mentions that the bilingualism

theory suggests that reading strategies are largely transferable

across language. Yet, he claims that the studies on the transfer

of reading ability across language developed by bilingualism

were not specifically designed to provide evidence for this
hypothesis.

Alderson refers to experiments involving bilinguals, which
present apparently conflicting results. He mentions Cummin's
studies, which show that the learning situation of each bilingual
is unique and that there is no single phenomenon or state called
"bilingualism". He cites Tarrascan's studies, as well as
Modiano's investigation, both presenting favorable results about
the transfer of reading abilities from first to second language.
Additionally, he refers to Barrik and Swain's experiments carried
out with children, who had first learned to read in the second
language and were then able to transfer that skill to the native
language. He interprets these results supported by several other
studies, which sometimes explain the possibility of an easy
transfer of reading abilities from first to second language or
vice versa. Yet, he also mentions another study carried out by
Schumman, who posits that the directions of this transfer, from
1st to 2nd language or vice versa, will depend upon other
factors, as for instance, the social distance between the
languages. Later, he refers to Swain, Lapkin and Barrik's results
(1976) and Lapkin and Swain's studies (1977), which show a fair
degree of relationship between the individual's reading ability
in the first language and in the second language.

Summing up, the evidence of Alderson's analyses of the
several studies related to this hypothesis do confirm that
reading abilites transfer from 1st to 2nd language is possible.
That is, to the extent one is a good reader in his native
language, he will have a better chance to become a good reader
in the TL. The importance of these findings to the present

study is related to the fact that even if the reader has not acquired FL reading abilites, he may transfer his 1st language reading abilities to FL reading.

1.9.2. Hypothesis 2: Poor L2 Knowledge Affects Reading Ability

Alderson (1984:11-6) reports some investigations undertaken by those in favor of the second hypothesis. The researchers agree that poor reading in a foreign language is due to inadequate knowledge of the target language. Ulijn (apud Alderson, 1984) carried out studies contrasting structures between first and foreign language which contradict Cowan's parallel processing strategies, which were put forward as support to the transformation of the first hypothesis. Cowan posited that reading strategies are language specific and he thus predicted a parallel processing theory, according to which the contrasting structures between first and foreign language would cause comprehension difficulties to the readers and would also slow their reading rates.

Alderson, however, mentions that Ulijn's studies show that such structures are not really problematic for the FL reader; rather these experiments show that both French native speakers and Dutch students reading French displayed the same patterns of difficulty in reading a French text, even though the text lacked equivalent structures in Dutch, which might cause processing difficulty.

In another experiment, Ulijn provided one of the groups of subjects with a city map, which he called "conceptual information", to accompany instructions to find one's way in an imaginary

French town. He constructed the text in two versions; the first contained parallel syntactic structures in French and Dutch, whereas the other version contained syntactic structures not existing in Dutch, which would possibly cause reading problems, according to Cowan's theory. Two were the hypotheses raised: the group using the city map would only have difficulties if the contrastive analysis or parallel processing hypothesis were correct; the other hypothesis was that the group without the city map would have greater difficulty to read the text containing syntactic contrasts because the FL reader would be forced to use more syntactic analysis when reading. Ulijn did not confirm Cowan's theory, as he found no significant differences between parallel and contrasting structure for either native speakers or FL readers. The reading speed of both groups of readers was greatly influenced by the use of the city map - the conceptual information; however, he did not find that the absence of the city map forced foreign language readers into syntactic analysis of the text, or even if it did, their reading speed was not affected by the contrasting syntactic structures which one of the texts contained.

Alderson mentions previous studies by Ulijn and Kempen, in which they concluded that the contrasting parts of the second language syntax are not a problem for reading comprehension; instead, the reader's conceptual knowledge may compensate for the lack of knowledge of the linguistic contrasts existing between L1 and L2. Conceptual knowledge, as mentioned by Alderson, consists of both the reader's knowledge of the subject area of the text and knowledge of word meaning, particularly content words, rather than function words. Besides, it is claimed that conceptual knowledge underlies two major processes

of comprehension: sentence parsing and inferencing. Through these two processes, the reader may use the partial message contained in the text to reconstruct the complete sentence.

According to Alderson, both Ulijn's and Ulijn and Kempen's studies have concluded that poor foreign language reading is due to a lack of conceptual knowledge, instead of being due to insufficient knowledge of the grammar. On the other hand, the main aspects to be observed in these conclusions are that they seem to condition easy text comprehension to large background knowledge and an increased knowledge of content word meaning. This notion is somewhat complex, because it implies not only the knowledge about a variety of subjects but also of the knowledge of words, by establishing their semantic correspondence within the sentence (e.g. their meaning according to the topic of the text) and the correspondences given by the syntactic context (e.g. a word belonging to different classes of words). It seems possible though, as Alderson (1984:13) points out that when both native speakers and foreign language readers lack knowledge about the subject matter, the main difference between them would be the native speaker's knowledge of the vocabulary. The solution to the matter, as put by Alderson, would be a concentrated effort from language reading programs to enlarge the foreign language reader's vocabulary and improve procedures for recognizing unknown content words.

Another investigation about this hypothesis, also referred to by Alderson (ibid.:13-4), was carried out by Alderson, Bastien and Madrazo with Mexican University students reading English. These students were tested for their English proficiency and their performance in English and Spanish; the

students were then given texts within their area of study, in English and translated into Spanish, in order to control for knowledge of the subject matter and also to reduce the effect of the text variable. As mentioned by Alderson, these studies led to the conclusion that proficiency in the foreign language is a better predictor for reading ability in L2 than the individual's reading ability in Ll. On the other hand, the results also suggest that first-language reading ability is more important than knowledge of the foreign language, when reading easy texts. If, however, the text shows an increase of linguistic or conceptual difficulties, foreign language proficiency seems to be more important than first language reading ability. Alderson also reports Chihara, Oller, Weaver and Chavez-Oller's investigation in which they interpret the results as indicating that as students become more proficient, they are better able to use contextual constraints.

On the use of constraints, Alderson (ibid.:15-6) mentions Cziko's studies, which identify three types of contextual constraints:

> syntactic, that is, the constraint provided by the rules of the language and the preceding words (such that the word THE will most likely be followed by a noun); semantic, that is,constraints provided by the meaning and selection restrictions of preceding words (for example, the words THE BOY at the beginning of a sentence will most likely constrain the following verb to an action that a boy is likely to carry out); and discourse, that is, constraints provided by the topic of the text (Cziko, p.473, apud Alderson, 1984:15).

These constraints are considered to be crucial to the reading process and it is assumed that if FL readers are not able to utilize them, they are most likely to be ineffective readers. Alderson mentions that Cziko compared speakers of

French and learners of French at various levels of proficiency
and that he was able to conclude that even beginner and
intermediate level students were able to use syntactic
constraints, but that only advanced foreign language readers
and the native readers were able to use semantic constraints.
Furthermore, his studies have suggested that to use discourse
constraints as a source of information, the students are
required to have a relatively high level of competence in the
language. Alderson comments that Cziko's studies might indeed
have provided good information, which would lead reading
experts to argue about whether readers should or should not
improve their foreign language competence before they were able
to demonstrate effective reading abilities in the target
language. However, as Alderson points out, Cziko neither
measured the subjects' first language reading abilities nor
compared those individuals' reading abilities in the two
languages to find the varying levels of foreign language
competence. According to Alderson, if these points had been
investigated, another important conclusion to draw would be
that because of their low competence in the target language,
FL readers would not be able to use their good first-language
reading strategies, one of which would possibly include the
ability to use contextual constraints.

1.9.3. <u>Hypothesis 2a</u>: <u>Language Knowledge of L2 is Essential to</u>

<u>Good L1 readers</u>

Alderson's review of the transformations of the second
hypothesis focuses especially on Clarke's research, which brought
new arguments to the questions of whether reading is a language

problem or a reading problem. The transformation of the second hypothesis claims that poor reading in a foreign language is due to first language reading strategies not being transferred to foreign language reading, because of the reader's inadequate knowledge of the foreign language. Clarke (apud Alderson, 1984: 16-9) developed studies on this theory, which is based on the reading universals hypothesis that reading is the same for all language. He assumed that "given equivalent proficiency in the second language, the superior reading skills of the readers would provide them with an equal advantage over the poor readers in both languages" (apud Alderson, 1984:16). By using a modified cloze procedure test to verify the individuals' reading abilities in first and foreign language and miscue analysis, as a means to distinguish differences in readers' strategies that might be transferred across languages, he concluded that there might be a level of competence to be reached before good L1 readers can use effective reading strategies in the foreign language.

Alderson claims that Clarke's findings on the "short-circuit" hypothesis seem to receive theoretical and empirical support from Cummins (1979), who claim that a threshold level of linguistic competence must be achieved by L2 readers, before they can take advantage of the supposed benefits of bilingualism. On the other hand, Alderson calls attention to Commins' caution on the interpretation of the threshold hypothesis; Cummins considers that the threshold cannot be defined in precise terms, that is, the level of the threshold demands may vary according to the demands placed on each task given to the learner. Alderson also suggests that the threshold appears to vary according to the stage of cognitive development of the learner

and to his level of relevant background knowledge; he then questions whether a high level of conceptual knowledge requires a lower threshold or whether high language competence can compensate for a low level of adequate background knowledge or conceptual level. Alderson also points out the limitations of Clarke's research and criticizes some of the procedures used in the experiment. He believes that further investigation should be undertaken in order to find out what level of foreign language competence a good L1 reader should achieve before he can take advantage of his good L1 strategies and transfer them to the target language. He thinks that other questions concerning the nature, the level and the use of the threshold level to be used in different tasks and by readers of different abilities still need answers (ibid.:20-1).

1.10. Conclusions

The review of the literature on reading has provided important insights to this study. Among them, it is possible to point out the following:

1. Reading comprehension of EFL texts is intimately related to several variables, such as:

a) Background knowledge or schemata - The reader's ability to connect the new information to the knowledge stored in his mind can be of great help to comprehend texts for which he might not have adequate linguistic knowledge.

b) Reading Strategies - These encompass the reader's skill to make meaningful guesses and predictions, to draw inferences and use contextual clues, as well as other strategies that will

help to solve syntactic and semantic problems.

c) Motivation, purpose and vocabulary knowledge - They can largely affect and even determine the kind of comprehension the reader is able to achieve.

2. Reading is an Interactive Process: The Interactive model is of particular interest as this study is based on the assumption that reading comprehension in FL involves the combination of the reader's linguistic knowledge of FL and his use of reading strategies.

3. Linguistic knowledge of the target language is a critical point: There appears to be a consensus about its need, but there is no agreement about its nature and the level to be achieved before the Fl reader can effectively become a skilled reader.

4. Alderson's review of studies in the different hypotheses attempts to find answers to a large number of questions involving the sucess or failure of reading in a foreign language:

a) The transfer of good reading strategies from Ll to L2, proposed by the authors mentioned by Alderson, can never be discarded. Once Ll readers have acquired these strategies in their native language, they become part of the reader's background knowledge. As background knowledge is a major factor contributing effectively to reading and learning, it seems plausible that readers may use all their previous knowledge, which may include their good Ll reading strategies, as a means to help them to read effectively. It is worth considering, however, that several of the studies reviewed by Alderson, concerning the transfer of Ll reading abilities in the first hypothesis, focus mainly on experiments carried out with bilinguals who have the FL as their second language. It is desirable that further

investigation on this hypothesis should consider the transfer of L1 reading abilities to a foreign language, not the reader's second language. Moreover, it seems that the reviewed investigations should have made clear whether other affecting variables were considered in the transfer of L1 reading skills to L2. For instance, the syntactic and semantic similarities between the two languages, the level of difficulty of the text and the process involved to obtain the results should have been made clear.

b) The studies carried out on the second hypothesis are particulaly interesting. In Ulijn's and Ulijn and Kempen's studies, two points should be considered. The first relates to Ulijn's investigation about the students' comprehension of parallel and contrastive syntactic structures. Alderson does not mention what parallel and contrastive structures were investigated by Ulijn; it seems though that the research has some similarities to this study. The hypothesis guiding this work intends to investigate points of syntactic contrasts between English and Portuguese. The other point refers to Ulijn and Kempen's conclusion. Their notion to solve syntactic contrast is a challenging one. They consider that a large conceptual knowledge, that is, knowledge of the subject area and a large knowledge of word meaning, particulary of content words may compensate for the lack of knowledge of linguistic contrasts between the native and the target language. Even though the ideas seem to be a different attempt to solve reading problems, it seems that, as it happens to the notion of linguistic knowledge or to the threshold level, the amount of word meanings is not defined and it seems clear that it may vary according to the reader's task.

The other investigations in this hypothesis all emphasize the need of an increasing proficiency in the foreign language to achieve comprehensibility, especially with texts that display an increase of linguistic or conceptual difficulties.

c) The ideas presented in the results of the investigation of the transformation of the second hypothesis seem to synthesize the trends of the other hypotheses. Clarke (apud Alderson, 1984:16-9) suggests that a threshold level competence in the foreign language must be reached before the FL readers can take advantage of their good native language reading abilities. The most crucial point remaining to be answered refers to the nature of the threshold level to be acquired. It appears though that if this important point is defined, it may be possible that Clarke's conclusion, like the hypothesis proposed, might also synthesize the solution to the problem of reading in a foreign language. Although no one denies the importance and the contribution that the use of reading strategies has brought to foreign language reading, it seems that the role of foreign language proficiency still needs to be properly determined. It appears then possible to conclude that though lacking empirical data, especially data concerning Brazilian students' performance, FL reading comprehension is both a language problem and a reading problem.

CHAPTER 2 - SYMBOLS

FUNCTION LABELS

A   : Adverbial

C   : Complement

H   : Head

M   : Modifier

O   : Object

Od : Direct Object

P   : Predicator

S   : Subject

FORM LABELS

ACl : Adverbial Clause

AvP : Adverb Phrase

Cl   : Clause

GP   : Genitive Phrase

MCl : Main Clause

NP   : Noun Phrase

Ph   : Phrase

PP   : Prepositional Phrase

RCl : Relative Clause

SCl : Subordinate Clause

V   : Verb

VP   : Verb Phrase

BRACKETING

[ ] : Around Clauses

( ) : Around Phrases

These symbols are used after Leech et al. (1982:xiv-v).

CHAPTER 2

THIS LINGUISTIC ASPECT

2.1. Nature of the Problem

The problem in teaching EFL reading involves two main issues:
the use of reading strategies and linguistic knowledge. In the
previous chapter, a review of the literature on reading has
revealed that, even though recognizing the great necessity to
use reading abilites for fluent reading, language knowledge is
to be carefully considered. Reading researchers have
contradictory opinions about the extent to which each is
essential for fluent reading comprehension. This study intends
to investigate these issues and find suitable answers to once
of the several reading problems concerning EFL reading students
in Brazil.

It was hypothesized that some of the problems concerning
Brazilian EFL readers are due to inadequate knowledge of basic
linguistic aspects in English. Undoubtedly, reading strategies
can help EFL reading, especially if the syntactic structures
and the vocabulary content are not too difficult. However,
there appears to be some syntactic and semantic aspects that

are not solved only by the use of reading strategies or the adequate activation of prior knowledge. In this particular, some syntactic contrasts between English and Portuguese should be considered, for they may affect the comprehension of Brazilians reading English. A case in point is the deletion of the relative pronoun in finite relative clauses functioning as postmodifiers in noun phrases and the deletion of the conjunction "that" in nominal clauses. In English syntax these deletions are correct. In Portuguese, however, the conjunction can only be omitted in special cases, that is, when used with certain verbs, whereas the relative pronoun must be present in the clause without exception. It is possible, therefore, that EFL readers in Brazil may have difficulties in understanding such deletions in the target language, if their knowledge of English syntax is not adequate.

In order to situate the problem, the occurrences of the two types of subordination will be made clear in the next sections, by setting their position within the English grammar. Furthermore, their use will be contrasted by comparing their occurrences in English and Portuguese. The possible implications the matter may have for reading comprehension will also be pointed out.

2.2. The Hierarchy of Grammatical Units

Halliday's systemic theory of language provides both a theory of grammar and a theory of lexis. The theory of grammar will be the only one to be referred to here.

According to Halliday (1976:54-5), grammar is "that level of

linguistic form at which operate closed systems". Although all systems are by definition closed, he uses 'closed system' to distinguish it from the term system, that is one of the four categories of grammar. Of its four categories - unit, structure, class and system - unit is the one that has direct bearing on this study. Unit is a category that accounts for the stretches that carry grammatical patterns. The units of grammar form a hierarchy which may vary from language to language, but which is fixed in each language. Halliday presents this hierarchy in the English grammar in a rank scale. It should be noted that the same rank scale is applicable to Portuguese:

UNITS

Rank

Sentence
Clause
Group/Phrase
Word
Morpheme
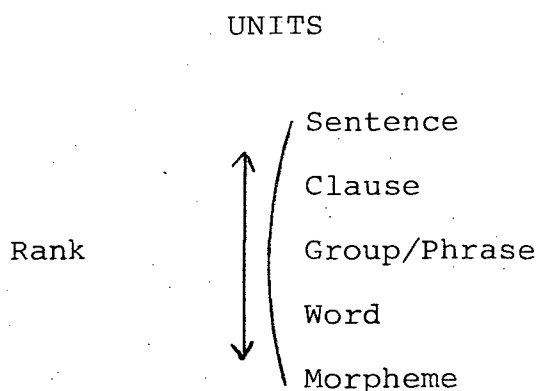
Halliday (1985:159) distinguishes between 'group' and 'phrase' on the basis of their composition, but their status on the rank scale is the same. To conform to the more general use of grammatical terminology, the unit between word and clause will in this study be the phrase (= 'sintagma' in Portuguese).

From now on, abbreviations of grammatical terms will be given in parentheses; the other conventions used are the round brackets for PHRASES, e.g. (the young man), the square brackets for CLAUSES, e.g. [It is warm today], and the asterisk for ungrammatical sentences.

The SENTENCE is the highest unit of the grammatical rank scale; it is formed by Clauses (Cl) which are formed by Phrases (P), which in turn are formed by Words.

The CLAUSE is the principal structure forming a sentence. A sentence may consist of one clause - the Simple Sentence, which is independent and can stand alone, e.g.

(1)   [Sometimes she sings beautifully] .

The sentence may consist of more than one clause - the Complex Sentence. In Complex Sentences, the clauses may be related to one another by Coordination, the clauses being of equal status, e.g.

(2)   [The boy stood up] and [left the room] .

The clauses may also be related to one another by Subordination the Subordinate Clause (SCl) being a constituent of another clause - the superordinate clause (or Main Clause), e.g.

(3)   [He told her (that he would be late)] .

The PHRASE is classified according to the class of word which functions as Head into: Noun Phrase (NP); Adjective Phrase (AjP); Verb Phrase (VP); Adverb Phrase (AvP); Genitive Phrase (GP); and Prepositional Phrase (PP), e.g.

(4)   NP (the young man) PP (in a rubber cape)

       VP (was walking) AvP (very quickly)

The unit WORD belongs to different classes: nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, etc. The smallest unit is the Morpheme, which

is the lowest unit in the rank scale. As it does not contribute to the parsing of a Clause or Sentence, it will not be dealt with in this study.

Halliday (1976:58) asserts that the rank relation has three important characteristics:

> First, the theory allows for downward 'rank shift':
> the transfer of a (formal realization of a) given
> unit to a lower rank. Second, it does not allow for
> upward rank shift. Third, only whole units can
> enter into higher units.

Taken together these three mean that a unit can include, [...], a unit of rank higher to itself but not a unit of rank more than one degree lower than itself; and not, in any case, a part of any unit.

Concerning the characteristics above, Leech et al. (1982: 103) define the shifting of an element of a unit to the next lower rank as indirect subordination, for instance:

Clause within phrase ([Cl]), e.g. Relative Clause (RCl) as postmodifier in a NP: (The man [who is looking at us]) and he defines as direct subordination the unit unit which is an element of the same rank, for instance:

Clause within Clause [[Cl]], e.g. Noun Clause (NCl) as Object (0): [He Knows [[that she loves him]]].

2.3. The Subordinate Clause (SCl)

Within the superordinate clause, the SCl is a constituent which may function as Subject (S), Object (O), Complement (C) and Adverbial (A). According to their function, subordinate clauses are classified as Adverbial Clauses (ACl), having an

Adverbial function in the clause; Noun Clauses (NCl) with functions similar to those of a Noun Phrase and Relative Clauses (RCl), functioning as Postmodifier in a Noun Phrase (NP) or Prepositional Phrase (PP).

Since this dissertation is particularly related to the linguistic aspect concerning only the Nominal and Relative Clauses, these are the ones to be focused on in the next sections.

2.4. Functions of Nominal Clauses

A Nominal Clause functions as an element (Subject, Object or Complement) of another clause. This is what has been called Direct Subordination, e.g.

(5) Subject [[What Brazil needs] is a good salary policy]

(6) Direct Object: [She believes [that they will return soon]]

(7) Complement of the Subject: [The problem is [that they do not understand you]]

(8) Indirect Object: [Give [whoever finishes the task] our congratulations]

The main types of finite nominal clauses are:
1. wh-clause - introduced by a wh-complement;
2. that-clause - introduced by the conjunction that;
3. zero that-clauses - which are similar to the that-clause, except that the that-item is deleted.

Since the chief concern of this investigation is the use of the that-clause and in particular of the zero that-clause, only these two types of nominal clauses will be dealt with.

2.4.1. That-Nominal Clauses

In Portuguese, the equivalent nominal clause to the that-clause is the que-clause. In order to make the comparison between them clear, translation will be used to exemplify their functions as Subject, Direct Object and Subject Complement in the subordinate clause:

Subject:

(9a) [[That underdeveloped nations need investments] is obvious]

(9b) [[Que nações subdesenvolvidas precisam de investimentos] é
      óbvio]

Direct Object:

(10a) [He thought [that she could help him]]

(10b) [Ele pensou [que ela poderia ajudá-lo]]

Subject Complement:

(11a) [[The consequence is [that he needs help]

(11b) [[A conseqüência é [que ele precisa de ajuda]

It should be noted, however, that the item that is not always equivalent to que.

In English the that-item has several functions. Winter (1982:58) mentions the following six functions, which he exemplifies:

1. a special subordinator in cleft clauses, e.g.

   It was then that he left.

2. an endocentric relative subordinator, e.g.

   This is the house that Jack built.

3. an exocentric subordinator of a noun clause, e.g.

He suggested <u>that</u> I should stay.

4. an adverbial clause subordinator in archaic use, e.g.

We dye <u>that</u> you may live colourfully.

5. a substitute nominal or attributive to head (that is, a

demonstrative), e.g.

<u>That</u> man is dangerous.

6. an intensifier, e.g.

I'm not <u>that</u> crazy.

The first four THAT-items mentioned above would be translated
into Portuguese by the equivalent conjunction <u>QUE</u>. But the
functions in 5 and 6 would be translated in Portuguese as:

5a. <u>Aquele</u> homem é perigoso.

6a. Eu não sou <u>tão</u> louco.

It seems that regarding the that-demonstrative function,
which is largely used, there would be no problem of
misunderstanding to EFL readers. However, the that-intensifier
might be misinterpreted by the less-skilled EFL reader, who
might not know this function and interpret it as a demonstrative.
As for noun clauses, this kind of misunderstanding is more
likely to occur when the that-clause is used as Subject, e.g.

(9) [[That underdeveloped nations need investments] is

obvious]

According to Winter (1982:59-60), this misunderstanding can be
avoided by parsing the clause. Thus, in this case, the reader
can see that the nominal phrase 'underdeveloped nations' is
plural and does not agree with the previous that-item; the reader

is then led to interpret <u>that</u> as a subordinator and not as a
demonstrative. However, if the reader assumes that there is a
mistake and tries to delete the that-item from the subject
clause, he will notice that he cannot understand the sentence,
e.g.

* Underdeveloped nations need investments is obvious.

Now, by parsing this clause, the reader will see that up to
the word 'investments' there is a complete independent clause
which is followed by a finite VP, which will inevitably lead him
to reinterpret the first part of the clause as the subject of 'is'.
Yet, in order to have sufficient grammatical completeness, the
noun clause must have the that-item, as in example (9).
Nevetheless, it seems that the reader is only able to carry out
this parsing process to distinguish the different syntactic
functions of words, if he is able to use contextual constraints
(cf. Alderson, 1984). Moreover, it seems that to do so, he
needs to have acquired suitable linguistic knowledge about the
matter; otherwise, he may mistake the real meaning of the that-
item and not be able to achieve comprehension successfully.

The most common use of the that-clause in English is that
of Direct Object, e.g.

(10) [He thought [that she could help him]]

This function is also the one which mostly widely accepts the
deletion of the conjunction in English, as will be seen in
section 2.4.2.

Winter (1982:60-2) points out that the use of that-clauses
as Complement of the verb be, that is, in the Subject Complement

function, has an important feature: the Subject must have an abstract noun as head, such as: assumption, belief, conclusion, consequence, excuse, expectation, explanation, fact, feeling, idea, possibility, reason, suggestion, statement, truth, etc., e.g.

(11) [The consequence is [that he needs help]]

2.4.2. Zero-that clauses

Certain types of clauses carry no overt sign of subordination to another clause; as they have no introductory marker, they are called zero-clauses. The that-conjunction can be frequently deleted, thus producing a zero that-clause. This type of clause is more commonly used in informal English. Yet, as mentioned in the previous sections, such a deletion can never occur when the that-item introduces the Subject.

* Underdeveloped nations need investments is obvious.

On the other hand, the deletion of THAT can frequently occur when the that-clause functions as Direct Object or Subject Complement:

(12) Direct Object: [She believed [he would be late]]

(13) Subject Complement: [The assumption is [things will change]]

As regards (12), despite the lack of the that-conjunction, it is possible to identify the noun clause as Od, because of the transitive verb 'believe'. Leech et al. (1982:96) suggest a test which is meant to indicate whether there has been that-

deletion: it consists of the insertion of the conjunction at the beginning of the clause, e.g.

(14a) [(I) (told) (Jake) [the earth is round]]

(14b) (I) (told) (Jake) [that the earth is round]

Although the deletion of <u>that</u> can be frequently used in informal English, especially when the clause is brief and uncomplicated, it should be avoided when:

a. it affects the clarity of the sentence;

b. the complex sentence is loaded with adverbials and modifications;

c. there are parenthetical constituents between the verb of the superordinate clause and the subject of the that-clause.

In these situations, the deletion of the conjunction can cause comprehension difficulty.

The problem of comprehensibility of zero that-clauses for EFL readers in Brazil is a fact because such a deletion is not a common occurrence in the Portuguese nominal clause. In Portuguese, nominal clauses are usually signalled by a conjunction (que, se), an indefinite pronoun or an adverb. Only the clauses signalled by a conjunction are relevant to this work. As shown in previous examples, these clauses have specific syntactic functions within the superordinate clause and the presence of the conjunction must be supplied for the completion of the clause meaning. Considering the following example with the explicit use of <u>that</u>:

(15) [He thought [that he would be invited]]

to which the equivalent in Portuguese is:

(16) [Ele pensou [que seria convidado]]

and comparing both examples with their equivalent containing the deletion of <u>that</u>-conjunction and <u>que</u>-conjunction:

(15a) [He thought [he would be invited]]

(16a) *[Ele pensou [seria convidado]]

it is easily verified that in English the deletion is acceptable and causes no problem for understanding, whereas the Portuguese example (16a) does not conform to the rules of grammaticality. The fact is that in this example, the verb in the main clause requires a direct object; however, the following clause does not make it clear that it is functioning as the direct object of the main clause, because it is not introduced by the <u>que</u>-conjunction, which would signal the subordination. In the present case, the example might be taken as containing two independent clauses and not as a complex sentence containing a nominal clause.

The zero <u>que</u>-clause is not completely impossible in Portuguese. The conjunction <u>que</u> can sometimes be deleted in Portuguese (Cunha 1977:559; Cunha and Cintra, 1985:586) after verbs expressing wish, request, pray, order, e.g.

(17) [Queira Deus [não voltes mais triste...]]

(Bandeira, M. apud Cunha e Cintra, 1985:586)

(18) [Peço a V.Exa. [me dispense destas formalidades]]

whereas the <u>that</u>-clause in English is more commonly used in informal English, in Portuguese the omission of <u>que</u> is not usually used in everyday language, rather it occurs in poetry and other literary discourses or in the language used in business and official letters. Such divergences cause not only syntactic, but also semantic contrasts between the two languages, which gives support to the hypothesis guiding this investigation.

2.5. Relative Clauses (RCl)

Relative Clauses act as postmodifiers in Noun Phrase (NP) and Prepositional Phrase (PP); that is, in both cases they are postmodifiers (M) to the noun head. It is a type of embedding, which following Leech et al. is here defined as Indirect Subordination. Consider the following example (Roberts, 1967: 177):

(19) Several of those thirty little boys who attend the nursery school which is located at the end of the street in which we live.

In it, the NP has several embedded relative clauses; but in order to make it a sentence, it is necessary to add a VP to it, as in

(20) [(Several of those thirty little boys [who attend the nursery school [which is located at the end of the street [in which we live]]]) (have) (the mumps)].

Relative Clauses are divided into two main types: restrictive and non-restrictive. The Restrictive Relative Clause defines or identifies the noun, e.g.

(21) [(The gentleman [who is standing at the corner]) (is) (American)].

A Restrictive Relative Clause has the following features:

a) it can be introduced by any relative pronoun: who, whom, whose, which, that or zero;

b) there is no pause between the relative pronoun and the noun to which it refers;

c) in writing, it is not isolated by commas.

The Non-Restrictive Relative Clause usually describes the noun without further defining it, e.g.

(22) [(John, [who is a graduate student,]) (will travel) (to Europe)].

Non-restrictive clauses are usually introduced by a wh-element and are enclosed by commas.

2.5.1. THAT-Relative Clauses

This section will be concerned with the relative pronoun THAT, which is used almost solely in restrictive clauses, functioning as postmodifier in the NP, as in Leech et al.'s example:

(23) [(She) (saw) (the man [that brought the flower basket])]

(24) [(She) (saw) (the flower basket [that the man brought])]

The that-relative pronoun can function as Subject or Direct Object in the RCl.

Furthermore, the relative pronouns who, whom and which can be replaced by the relative pronouns that, e.g.

- the man WHO/THAT brought the flower basket.

- the flower basket WHICH/THAT the man brought.

- the boy WHOM/THAT we saw.

Roberts (1986:313) and Leech et al. (1982:101) say that that-nominal clauses may be confused with that-relative clauses.

(25) [((The fact [that he mentioned firstly]) (was) (quite

relevant to us)]

Here, THAT is a relative pronoun functioning as O in the

relative clause. Yet, in:

(26) [((The fact [that he mentioned it]) (was) (rather

embarrassing)]

THAT introduces a noun clause in apposition to _fact_ and it does

not have the function of S or O which it must have in relative

clauses. In cases where the that-relative clause and the that-

nominal clause can be mistaken, the authors suggest that a

pratical test to distinguish between them would be to replace

"that" by its equivalent relative pronoun "which". If "which"

is confirmed in the sentence, we have a relative clause;

however, if the substitution is not possible, we have a nominal

clause.

2.5.2. ZERO-Relative Clauses

A zero-relative clause can be directly joined to the noun

without a relative pronoun, e.g.

(27) [(She (saw) (the flower basket [the man brought]))].

Unlike the that-relative clause, the zero-relative clause

may occur with non-restrictive clauses and it may refer both to

person and non-personal nouns. The relative pronoun can be

deleted:

1. when it occurs in the position of Direct Object:

(28) [(We) (have done) (all [we can])]

2. when it is governed by a preposition and this preposition is placed at the end of the relative clause:

(29) [(She (knows) (the place [you referred to]))]

3. when it is in a predicative complement:

(30) [(She) (is) (the daughter [we never had]))]

It should be mentioned that in English the zero-relative clause cannot normally occur when the relative pronoun acts as Subject of the relative clause, e.g.:

(32) [(She) (saw) (the man [that/who brought the flower basket]))]

(33) * [She saw (the man [brought the flower basket]))]

In Portuguese, the relative Clause does not differ much from the English relative clause. The relative pronoun also refers to an antecedent noun (which can have any syntactic function in the sentence: subject, subject complement, etc., (see Cunha and Cintra, 1985:587-8); the relative pronoun also can function either as a Subject or as a Direct Object of the RCl. However, the deletion of the relative pronoun is a feature available only in the English clause and never possible in Portuguese. Even though ellipsis (or deletion of some elements, like the subject, for example) is allowed in Portuguese syntax, in this case, the deletion of the relative pronoun, functioning either as S or Od of the relative clause, would make the sentence incomplete, besides affecting its comprehensibility.

Taking example (32), in which the relative pronoun is used,

(32) [(She) (saw) (the man) [that/who brought the flower basket]))]

and for which the equivalent in Portuguese is:

(32a) $\big[$(Ela) (viu) (o homem [que trouxe a cesta de flores])$\big)\big]$

it is observed that in both cases the relative pronoun is functioning as S of the RCl, being related to an antecedent noun, as the arrows show. If one compares these sentences with the examples below, in which the relative pronoun is deleted,

(33) * $\big[$(She) (saw) (the man [brought the flower basket])$\big)\big]$

and its equivalent in Portuguese:

(33a) * $\big[$(Ela) (viu) (o homem [trouxe a cesta de flores])$\big)\big]$

it is noted that these examples are both incorrect. As explained above, the relative pronoun cannot be deleted because it is acting as S of the RCl and relating the modifier to an antecedent man/homem. In English, (33) might be taken to have structure SVO, where O is a nominal zero-clause in which the conjunction that has been deleted:

(34) $\big[$(She) (saw) [(that) the man brought the flowe basket]$\big]$

In Portuguese, (33a) does not allow such an interpretation as the conjunction que is not normally deleted; it would therefore strike the native reader as incorrect.

The following example:

(27) $\big[$(She) (saw) (the flower basket [the man brought])$\big)\big]$

is taken to be a derived structure from (24) (cf. Leech et al. 1982:116), which is not only correct but perfectly comprehensible in English. It is a clear case of the deletion of the relative pronoun that/which, which would occupy the position of Od in the

RCl. However, its literal translation into Portuguese:

(27a) * [(Ela) (viu) (a cesta de flores [o homem trouxe]))]

is not actually meaningful. By parsing this sentence, it is seen that there is a complete SVO clause to the NP "cesta de flores". Next, it is followed by the NP "o homem", which is regarded as the S of the following verb "trouxe". It is then verified that this verb necessarily requires an Od for its meaningful completeness; yet, there is no noun following the verb, that is the Od is not provided. This means that the lack of the relative pronoun, serving as Od in the RCl and referring to the antecendent noun in the NP makes the sentence incomplete and somewhat meaningless.

2.6. Conclusions

Considering the different features concerning the use and the deletion of the conjunction that in that-noun clauses and of the relative pronoun in relative clauses in the two languages, it seems possible to conclude that:

1. The omission of the conjunction que is not frequent in Portuguese, rather it occurs exceptionally after certain verbs and in special types of literary discourse. Thus, the deletion of the conjunction that may cause difficulty in comprehending EFL texts;

2. In English, the deletion of the relative pronoun is possible, except when it is functioning as S in the RCl. In Portuguese, however, such a deletion is not possible because it omits the signal of indirect subordination and it would greatly

affect the comprehensibility of the sentence.

3. The two problems referred to above may actually affect good reading comprehension if the reader does not possess adequate linguistic knowledge to help him to understand such occurrences. It seems that since he has no similar structure in his mother tongue, he needs specific linguistic knowledge to overcome any difficulty that these deletions may cause.

4. The kind of text containing such structures may determine the possible handicap the reader will face, whether his comprehension will be affected to a greater or lesser extent. Although these deletions occur more frequently in informal English, rather than in formal writings, it should be noted that all writers in modern literature use that-deletion both in that-clauses and in relative clauses.

5. The problem involving that-deletion must be investigated in order to find out whether this problem really exists and to what extent the non-acquisition of this kind of linguistic knowledge can affect good reading comprehension by Portuguese speaking EFL readers.

CHAPTER 3

THE INVESTIGATION

3.1. Introduction

Based on the bidirectional reading process as proposed by
the Interactive Process Theorists, which, as seen earlier,
comprises both the bottom-up and the top-down processing, the
general purpose of this study is to investigate whether the
reader's knowledge of the target language is essential to the
comprehension of written texts of General English. The specific
purpose is to find out through tests to what extent the deletion
of the conjunction that in that-clauses and the deletion of the
relative pronouns in restrictive relative clauses affect the
reader's comprehension of such texts. As reviewed in Chapter 2,
these deletions constitute syntactic differences between English
and Portuguese and may lead a less competent reader to
misinterpretations. The decision to choose the that-item was
prompted by the fact that as it is a purely grammatical item, its
absence is more likely to cause difficulty than its presence.
This investigation will check whether Brazilian EFL readers are
able to understand texts containing that-deletions; it will be

investigated whether the reader's lack of linguistic knowledge can hinder comprehension of zero clauses either nominal or relative, or whether the use of good reading strategies can compensate for the lack of such knowledge.

This chapter describes the methodology: choice of subjects, criteria for the choice of texts and tests to verify the hypothesis. It also presents and analyses the results of the tests, showing the subjects' greatest difficulties.

3.2. The Subjects

The population involved in this investigation is formed by the students of the 1986 Portuguese/English Course of "Letras" at the Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina. The Letras course consists of 8 semesters, during which the students study several subjects to improve the four language skills. Reading is offered as a specific subject in order to provide the students with abilities to comprehend different types of texts. These subjects were chosen for two main reasons: they need to achieve a detailed comprehension level when reading in English, in order to interpret English literary texts, and they also need to master the syntactic aspects of the language as prospective EFL teachers.

The tests were applied to 117 students enrolled in the Letras course, out of which 21 were disregarged for not complying with the given intructions, leaving a population of 96. Table 1 below indicates the distribution of the students according to their semesters in the course.

TABLE 1

Distribution of the Students

SEMESTERS	SUBJECTS
1st	20
2nd	22
3rd	7
4th	16
5th	4
6th	7
7th	8
8th	12
TOTAL	96

Regarding the students and the application of the tests, two decisions were taken: the first was that the subjects should be made aware that the tests had no grading purpose; thus, they would not be worried about marks; instead, they would be told that these tests were an inquiry to find out how they approached a text and how they achieved comprehension. Besides, in order to make the students feel at ease, without anxieties of any sort, the tests were to be applied by the student's own teacher during the reading class.

3.3. Evaluation of Students' Knowledge

In order to obtain authentic results, several variables which might affect the students' performance were considered, such as:

1. The students' knowledge of the items under investigation

by the time the test was to be applied. That is, it was
considered important to know in advance whether the subjects
had already been taught either clauses without the conjunction
that and clauses without the relative pronoun. It was decided
that this information could be obtained from the teachers'
programs for each semester of the course (see App. VI to XIII).
It was thought that this would be the most efficient way to
decide which should be the control group. By analysing those
programs, it was observed that the students always study the
relative clauses without the relative pronoun in the 3rd semester
of the course. Again, in the 6th semester of the course, the
zero relative pronoun is studied in connection with the
structure of the Noun Phrase, whereas in the 7th semester, the
zero that-clause is studied under subordination. As the testing
was carried out before the 3rd semester students had learned
about clauses without the relative pronoun, the lower level
students (1st, 2nd and 3rd semesters) would be considered to be
the group lacking adequate linguistic knowledge about the items
being investigated. The subjects in the 4th to 8th semesters
would be the control group.

2. To preserve the students' anonymity, they were not asked
to write their names on the tests. As maturity is considered
an important factor in building up background knowledge, the
subjects were asked to inform their age. Nevertheless, the age
variable did not prove to be significant to the results and was
then disregarded.

3. Factors such as, the students' attendance to other English
courses, previous to their entrance or during their University
course, or visits to English speaking countries were assumed to

be variables that might influence the results. It was thought
that they might explain why students in lower semesters were
able to display a good knowledge of the items under
investigation, before the students had acquired them in their
courses at the University. Although this information was not
asked in the test, it was easily obtained from the English
teachers' previous questionnaires used to analyse the students'
competence. The figures concerning the attendance to other
English courses did not significantly affect the results.
Indeed, out of the 49 students from 1st to 3rd semesters, only
19 (39%) had attended other English courses; yet, their
performance was no better than that of the students who had
never attended private English classes. On the other hand,
there were just 3 out of 49 students in 1st to 3rd semester who
said they had visited English speaking countries. Such figures
were considered negligible and both these variable, which did
not significantly affect the students' performance, were also
disregarded.

4. The students' attendance to courses in FL reading, where
they are taught the best strategies to approach and understand
a text, should then be the main variable to group the students
and evaluate their performance. It is, however, known that the
application of strategies, like the whole reading activity,
involves subjective processes which the teacher cannot measure
and even may not be aware the students are using. This process
might perhaps be assessed through individual interviews to find
out the strategy used on the occasion, or even by oral tests.
Such assessments, however, would be difficult to employ with
all the subjects and might even somehow induce the subjects to
a convenient reply. It was then decided that the students'

knowledge and use of reading strategies would be checked through a questionnaire.

3.4. The Texts

It was decided that the best way to check the students' difficulties would be through use in context. Thus, it would be important to select authentic texts suitable to the purposes of the study. Several factors were considered in the seletion of texts:

1. The field of discourse - the texts should be appropriate to all the subjects involved; it was decided to look for texts within the literary field, but of neutral register, that is, they should be neither too formal nor too informal.

2. The level of linguistic difficulty - as the texts would be used indistinctly by subjects of different levels of English knowledge, they should be more or less within the readers' average level of grammatical competence and vocabulary knowledge. So as to prevent vocabulary problems, an English-English glossary containing the probable difficult words and idiomatic expressions was provided at the end of the text.

3. Length of the reading passage - the texts to be used should not be too long; rather they should be able to be handled by all the subjects in a one hour reading class.

4. Subjects' area of knowledge - as previously stated in section 1.5., texts are better understood if the reader can relate the new information to his schemata. This research, however, deals with reading comprehension of literary texts,

which usually require the use of procedures to activate
background knowledge different from those applicable to other
kinds of texts. Since it would not be possible to control the
activities developed by the different teachers applying the
tests and as this fact might affect the results, it was decided
that the texts should be within the area of general knowledge.
Thus, no special activation of background knowledge would be
necessary. The teachers applying the tests would only have to
clarify instructions if necessary.

5. Number of occurrences of deletions - the texts should
contain a few occurrences of zero that-clauses and zero relative
clauses. After analysing a large number of texts, two of them
seemed adequate: a short paragraph about ladybirds and a short
story by E. Hemingway, "Cat in the rain". These two texts are
analysed in the next sections.

3.4.1. <u>Text 1</u>

The first text "Ladybirds" (see App. II) was chosen to test
the comprehension of the zero that-clause. This small paragraph
is about the folklore of ladybirds. Although ladybirds may not
have similar folk beliefs in Brazil, it was expected that the
theme of the text would not be difficult for comprehension,
since it might be easily related to other Brazilian beliefs about
insects, like those existing about butterflies. The text may
not be considered a real literary text. Yet, as to register, it
may be considered neutral. The structures seem somewhat easy,
even to less fluent readers; the vocabulary used may be easily
handled with the help of the glossary provided, which contains

the most probable difficult words and expressions. Besides
being short and rather easy, the text has three sentences with
the zero that-clause in the Od position after the verbs think
and believe.

3.4.2. Text 2

Ernest Hemingway's "Cat in the rain" (see App. III), although
it is a longer text, seemed to be within the students' level of
comprehensibility. As in most of Hemingway's writings, the
sentences do not cause difficulty in understanding, except,
perhaps, for those sentences containing the deletion of the
relative pronoun. The vocabulary did not seem to be hard and
any possible doubt might be solved with the help of the glossary
at the end of the story. The text has four sentences with the
deleted relative pronoun, one sentence with a zero that-clause
and one sentence with the relative pronoun.

3.5. The Tests

The tests consist of two sections, the second being divided
into two parts. Before doing the test the students were asked
to answer a questionnaire (see App. I). The questionnaire is
described in the following section.

The first section, based on the text "Ladybirds", is
intended to verify the students' comprehension of the zero that-
clauses. The second section is based on Hemingway's "Cat in the
rain"; the first part is used as a distractor and intends to
check the readers' comprehension of the text, whereas the second

part focuses on their understanding of the zero relative clauses.

3.5.1. The Questionnaire

It consists of twelve questions and aims to find out the subjects' acquaintance with the use of reading strategies to read comprehensively. Besides, it had other objectives, such as:

1. to divide the subjects into two groups: one consisting of those students who had received instruction on reading strategies, hereafter referred to as RRS, and the other group consisting of those who had not received such instruction, hereafter referred to as NRS.

2. to find out whether reading strategies would help the students in lower levels (1st to 3rd semester students), who had not yet acquired appropriate linguistic knowledge to understand clauses without the that-conjunction and without the relative pronoun.

The questionnaire was, constructed in Portuguese so as to facilitate the students' identification of the strategies they might already know from EFL reading classes or those they might transfer from 1st language reading. It is also worth noting that neither the word strategies nor techniques is used in the questionnaire, as reading teachers do not usually mention them as such. The questionnaire had a multiple choice format and was divided into two parts. The first part had just one question:

	nenhum semestre
1. Em quantos semestres de seu curso você aprendeu como abordar um texto (usando por exemplo, chaves tipográficas: maiúsculas, números, sinais, etc., leitura rápida de textos ou Skimming, leitura em diferentes níveis de compreensão, uso de cognatos, palavras repetidas, etc.	um semestre
	dois ou mais semestres

At first, it was thought advisable to group the 96 subjects according to these three divisions as shown in Table 2 below:

TABLE 2

Course Taken in Reading Strategies

Semesters Reading course	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	TOTAL
no reading course	18	15	3	5	4	1	4	5	55
1 semester reading course	2	7	3	5	–	1	3	3	24
2 semester reading course	–	–	1	6	–	5	1	4	17
TOTAL	20	22	7	16	4	7	8	12	96

This table shows that up to the 3rd semester, that is, among the 49 students without formal linguistic knowledge of the items investigated, there was just one student who had been exposed to 2 or more semesters of reading strategies courses. Most of these subjects had not been exposed to reading

strategies courses (36 = 73%), and only 12 students (25%) had attended one semester in the intermediate semesters (4th and 5th), of which nine (45%) had had no instruction in reading techniques and six students (30%) had had 2 semesters in a reading course. Among the more advanced level students (6th, 7th and 8th semesters) the figures for students who had never attended a reading strategies course (10 = 37%) were the same as those with two semesters attendance to such a course. In this group 7 (26%) of the 27 students had studied reading strategies for one semester.

Since almost all the students with a 2 semester reading strategies course are in the 4th to 8th semester, the semesters in which the subjects have already acquired the knowledge of the items being investigated, it seemed useless to show their results apart from the great majority of the other students who either had had none or had just had one semester of that course. Therefore, it was decided that the subjects would be grouped only into two groups: those who had had No Reading Strategies Course (NRS) and those who had Received Reading Strategies instruction, in either one or two semesters (RRS), as shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3

Students' Instruction of Reading Strategies

semesters Reading course	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	TOTAL	
NRS	18	15	3	5	4	1	4	5	55	57%
RRS	2	7	4	11	–	6	4	7	41	43%
TOTAL	20	22	7	16	4	7	8	12	96	100%

As shown in Table 3, there were more students who had no instruction in reading strategies (NRS) - 55 subjects = 57% than those who had (RRS) - 41 = 43%. It is also worth noting that the 4 students in the 5th semester, had not attended a reading strategies course; thus, the tables showing the results of the tests will display their results only when referring to NRS students; in the other columns, that is, for the RRS students there will be a blank space.

The second part of the questionnaire contains eleven questions about several reading strategies. These questions aim to discover the level of knowledge of reading strategies and the frequency in their use. This part of the questionnaire might be divided into two because the first seven questions (i.e. questions 2 to 8) are more concerned with the readers' use of efficient reading strategies, such as those which produce automatic perception and decoding through the interactive process. The last four questions, however, (i.e. questions 9 to 12) are about inefficient strategies, which make the readers more concerned with bottom-up information, without interacting it with higher level information. These four questions were specially included to determine whether the readers still kept the so called bad habits in reading (like reading word by word, or looking up every unknown word in the dictionary), in spite of the good strategies they might have been taught.

In order to answer these eleven questions, the subjects had the option to mark the number corresponding to how often they used the reading strategy in question: (1) NEVER (2) ONCE IN A WHILE; (3) ALWAYS. It was first thought that if the subjects had just two options, namely alternatives (1) NEVER and (3) ALWAYS, they might be in doubt when evaluating their performance.

Thus, another alternative, (2) ONCE IN A WHILE, was added. It was, however, observed that the fact of having one more option seemed to have made them unware of the importance of a correct evaluation of their reading attitudes. Indeed, some students marked alternative (2) for all the eleven questions, which leads one to the conclusion that they might not actually be quite aware of how frequently and well they use good reading strategies in reading. Furthermore, the results for the last four questions, regarding the use of negative strategies, seem to confirm that several subjects either were careless in answering or still kept bad reading habits, like translating every word, always looking up each unknown word in the dictionary, without getting the gist of the passage. Exception made to question 12, which a great number of subjects marked (1) NEVER - for they NEVER give up reading if the text is considered difficult, the other negative strategies expressed in questions 9 to 11 were either marked (2) or (3).

According to the results, in Table 4 below, the students who had attended a course in reading strategies seem either not to be aware of their efficiency or not to know how to take advantage of all the clues provided by the text. The fact is that, like the NRS students, for several of the good reading strategies they marked more often columns (2) and (1) than column (3) and for the negative strategies, they sometimes scored higher than should be expected.

The analysis of the results shows that the students in more advanced levels seem to have a good knowledge of the use of the positive reading strategies, yet, they also scored higher for the negative strategies. The students in lower semesters who had never had a reading strategies course (NRS) also seemed

aware of the best cues to choose. The 13 RRS students in 1st to 3rd semesters showed a rather equivalent frequency of reading strategies, alternating a majority either for option 3 (ALWAYS) or 2 (ONCE IN A WHILE). It should be noted that both the 36 NRS students and the 13 RRS students in these lower semesters display identical high frequency of use for the ineffective strategies.

A more detailed analysis of the numbers given to the different strategies seems rather difficult because the results obtained from the NRS and RRS subjects in the different semesters are very inconsistent; such a discrepancy makes it difficult to determine whether these readers use their reading strategies to solve their reading problems and also whether the use of the adequate strategy may compensate for their lack of linguistic knowledge. In other words, the results do not show a correlation between instruction in reading strategies and the expected choice. As further investigation, which might yield more reliable results, was not possible, it was decided that the results of this questionnaire should not be computed as a possible variable affecting or explaining the students' performance in the other tests. Thus, only question 1 of this questionnaire, which divides the groups into those who had attended a reading strategies course and those who had not was used to account for the results in the other tests.

TABLE 4

Questionnaire Results

Questions	1st to 3rd semesters						4th to 5th semesters						6th to 8th semesters					
Options	Always 3		Once in a while 2		Never 1		Always 3		Once in a while 2		Never 1		Always 3		Once in a while 2		Never 1	
Students	NRS	RRS	NRS	RRS	NRS	RRS	NRS	RRS	NRS	RRS	NRS	RRS	NRS	RRS	NRS	RRS	NRS	RRS
2	20	8	14	5	2	–	6	9	3	2	–	–	5	11	3	5	2	1
3	7	3	14	7	15	3	1	4	3	3	5	4	4	7	4	8	2	2
4	20	5	15	8	1	–	2	4	7	4	–	3	4	7	5	10	1	–
5	16	7	19	6	1	–	4	7	4	4	1	–	9	11	1	6	–	–
6	4	1	21	7	11	5	–	2	3	5	6	4	3	3	2	11	5	3
7	1	–	28	9	7	4	3	4	5	6	1	1	5	8	3	8	2	1
8	28	11	8	2	–	1	5	10	4	1	–	–	5	11	4	5	1	1
9	19	7	16	5	1	1	6	9	3	2	1	–	6	10	2	7	2	–
10	16	5	14	4	6	4	3	4	3	1	3	6	3	4	1	5	6	8
11	15	4	19	7	2	2	3	2	5	7	1	2	4	6	4	9	2	2
12	1	–	23	6	10	7	–	1	2	3	7	7	–	–	4	8	6	9

3.5.2. Testing the Hypothesis by Translation

Several types of tests were considered in order to evaluate
the subjects' comprehension of the deletion of the conjunction
that in Noun Clauses and of the relative pronoun in Relative
Clauses. Due to its credibility among test experts, like Munby
(1979) and teachers involved with reading, it was thought that
a multiple choice test would be the best to test the grammatical
items under investigation. Concerning the construction of
these tests Heaton (1975:14) asserts that the optimum number of
options for each multiple choice item is five; yet, as a test
with that number of options is hard to be constructed, he says
that four options are recommended for most classroom tests. It
was verified, however, that the construction of a multiple
choice test, either in English or in Portuguese, by using one
correct answer and three or just two other options as
distractors would not be suitable to check the hypothesis. As
seen in Chapter 2, the that-conjunction and the relative pronoun
can be used either explicitly or omitted in the English sentence;
thus, a multiple choice test to check the items might then have
two correct answers in English. On the other hand, in
Portuguese, the que must be used explicitly in nominal clauses
and in relative clauses; thus, the distractors used as options
in a multiple choice test constructed in Portuguese would
certainly make the correct answers too obvious. In this case,
this type of test proved to be inadequate.

Tests like the Cloze-Procedure, Substitution, Blank-Filling
or any other similar test were also considered to be inadequate
for the present study. Other types of tests like Wh-questions
or open-ended questions types were not appropriate either. In
these tests, the subjects might provide loose answers, that is,

they would not necessarily have to use the deleted items in their answers; rather, they might provide any suitable answer with similar meaning. Thus, these tests would certainly affect Validity (because they would not test what was aimed at); Reliability (because the students might provide different answers to the same test on different occasions) and Practicality, as the scoring and interpretation of the replies would be difficult because of the variety of answers provided (cf. Oller, 1979), which might be taken as correct, even though these answers had none of the items in questions.

Then, considering the aim of this investigation, the problem concerning the construction of a test which would interpret a given linguistic item, and considering mainly that the comprehension of these deleted items in the English clause necessarily involves the subjects' comprehension in their native language, it seemed that the only possible means to tests the hypothesis would be through the translation of the whole text or just of the sentence containing the deleted items.

There was a certain hesitation in deciding for a translation test to check the hypothesis. The fact is that translation is generally viewed with suspicion and it is sometimes proscribed by some language teachers. This also seems to be the reading experts' opinion, who assert that the reader should be led to read without translation word by word or concerning himself with the words in a lower level, without interacting them with the higher level information. Widdowson (1979:101), however, claims that translation is a very useful pedagogical device. He further asserts that the great concern with the practice of translation is to relate the surface and the deep structure of the language; thus, the teacher needs to specify the nature of equivalence in

respect to the two languages. Following Widdowson (1979:105):

> The first of these which I will call structural
> equivalence involves the correlation of the surface
> forms of sentences by reference of formal similarity.
> The second, which I will call semantic equivalence
> involves relating different surface forms to a
> common deep structure which represents their basic,
> ideational and interpersonal elements. The third
> kind of equivalent is one which involves relating
> surface forms to their communicative function as
> utterances and this I will call pragmatic
> equivalence.

At first, it appeared that most subjects would probably translate literally both the paragraph of "Ladybirds", containing the missing that-conjunction, and the sentences of "Cat in the Rain" with the deleted relative pronoun, since students usually lack stylistic abilities to translate. Thus, as a means to evaluate this possible type of translation, Widdowson's structure equivalence was adopted, that is, such a translation would be considered correct, provided that it did not interfere with contextual meaning. Conversely, it would be considered incorrect if in a one-to-one correspondence the subject kept the original deletion of the that-item. As was focused in Chapter 2, such a deletion affects the comprehensibility of the sentence in Portuguese and would then confirm that the subject did not know this linguistic aspect of the English language; most of all, it would be evident that such a reader was not able to infer the need of the item in his own language. The other two kinds of equivalence proposed by Widdowson would be equally correct for the purpose of this study, once the subjects provided different surface forms, but not far from the original meaning.

At the beginning, it was thought that the data should be analysed taking into consideration all the details of the

sentence, which would display not only the reader's comprehension of the content, but also their good knowledge of the items involved, as well as the vocabulary content, word order, style used, etc. However, such an analysis would in some points diverge from Widdowson's equivalences, or would make the tables lenghty in details. In order to get to the point of this study, it was then decided that the correct translation of the sentence should have the deleted items replaced by their equivalents and/or an approximate meaning to that expressed in English. This means a change in vocabulary or a different grammatical pattern (i.e. plural instead of singular or a different past tense used in L1) would be accepted, provided it would not interfere with the meaning expressed in the sentence. In this way, the number of correct sentences increased, not only among the subjects lacking the knowledge of the items, but also among those in the control group; it was then possible to distinguish the subjects who really had problems in comprehending the deleted items.

The tables below show the figures accounting for: Correct Sentence - those presenting the correct use of the deleted that-conjunction and Relative Pronoun, as well as an acceptable meaning of the whole sentence; Blank sentences - those which were not translated at all; Incorrect Sentences - those without the items investigated and not conveying an appropriate meaning to fit the omission.

3.5.3. Testing the Zero That-Clause

The test to check whether the omission of the that-conjunction would affect the comprehensibility of Brazilian EFL readers

lacking adequate knowledge of this construction was based upon
a small paragraph about the folklore of ladybirds. This text
is within the characteristics stated in section 3.3. and it
was provided with a glossary in English to minimize the readers'
problems with vocabulary (see App. II).

Since "Ladybirds" had only three occurrences of the zero
that-clause, the students were required to translate the whole
paragraph, so as not to draw their attention to the main aim of
the test. The scoring of the translation took into consideration
only the three sentences containing the zero that-clause; the
rest of the translation of the paragraph was disregarded as it
was not relevant to the purpose of this study. The zero that-
clauses appearing in the text are all in a sequence and they
function as direct object:

1. Farmers in America think the finder of a ladybird will
receive as many dollars as the spots on its back.

2. In Canada they believe it means a new pair of gloves.

3. Other folk think ladybirds tell the time of the day,
where the stray cattle can be found, forecast life spans and
predict the value of the harvest.

The translation into Portuguese to be correct should contain
the conjunction QUE and might be something like the following:

1.a. (Os) Fazendeiros da América acham que o descobridor de
uma joaninha receberá tantos dólares quantas são as marcas (man-
chas) em (nas) suas costas.

2.a. No Canadá acredita-se que (ela) significa um novo par
de luvas.

3.a. Outros povos acham que as joaninhas dizem a hora do

dia, onde o gado desgarrado pode ser encontrado, prevêem a du-
ração da vida e predizem o valor da colheita.

As already mentioned in Chapter 2, the que omission is not
totally impossible in Portuguese (see 2.5.2.) In some cases,
the que-clause can be replaced by a non-finite clause (Cunha
and Cintra, 1985:594-601). A case in point is 2.a. above, which
could be replaced by:

2.b. No Canadá acredita-se (eles acreditam) significar um
novo par de luvas.

In this sentence, the subject of the subordinate clause is
anaphorically related to the previous sentence, which allows the
use of an impersonal verb, thus making the que-omission possible
in Portuguese. However, Sentence 1 and 3 cannot follow this
pattern because the subordinate clauses have a clear non-anaphoric
subject:

1.b. * (Os) Fazendeiros da América acham (pensam) o desco-
       bridor de uma joaninha receber tantos dólares quantas
       são as marcas (manchas) em (nas) costas (delas).

3.b. * Outros povos acham (pensam) joaninhas dizer as horas
       do dia, onde o gado desgarrado pode ser encontrado...
       etc.

As can be noted, the use of the verb in the infinitive does not
compensate for the omission of the que-conjunction in this type
of sentence.

3.5.3.1. Results

The subjects were evaluated according to their performance in translating the sentence containing the zero that-clauses. The following tables show the students' performance in the test, correlated with their attendance to a reading strategies course.

The results are presented in two different tables: one containing the results of the 55 NRS students and another table showing the results of the 41 RRS students. It will thus be possible to verify whether the results of the RRS students are better than those in lower semesters, who had not formerly been taught zero clauses, really differ from those in the upper level semesters. It should be noted that the tables containing the results for the sentences with zero that-clauses do not present a column with figures for Incomplete Sentence. The fact is that as the students were asked to translate the whole paragraph, some of them just started it, but did not get to the point of the sentence containing the zero that-clause; therefore, these translations were considered Blank.

TABLE 5

1st to 5th semester NRS students comprehension of the sentences with zero that-clauses

SEMESTER	SENTENCE STUDENTS	CORRECT	INCORRECT	BLANK	TOTALS
1st	18	6	2	10	18
2nd	15	10	3	2	15
3rd	3	3	–	–	3
4th	5	5	–	–	5
5th	4	4	–	–	4
6th	1	1	–	–	1
7th	4	4	–	–	4
8th	5	5	–	–	5
TOTALS	55	38 (69%)	5(22%)	12(9%)	55

The analysis of the table shows that the majority of the
55 NRS students were able to translate correctly the three
sentences containing the zero that-clause (38 = 69%). Yet, it
should be pointed out that not all students translated all the
three sentences. Some subjects skipped one of the sentences,
but translated the other two correctly. Among these are 4 out
of the 36 in the first three semesters; 2 of the 9 students in
the 4th and 5th semesters and 2 out of the 10 students in the
upper levels. These 8 students had their 3 sentences computed
as correct since the three sentences have the same syntactic
structure and the same type of verb (cognition), so the fact
that they missed one out can be attributed to oversight,
especially because it was the second sentence, the shortest of
the three, that was left blank by 6 students.

Exception made to the students in the first semester, the
other NRS students had a performance above average. Indeed,
the first semester students presented the greatest problems in
comprehending the sentences. Twelve (67%) of the 18 students
either left the sentences blank or did them wrong. Among the
15 students in the second semester, 10 (67%) did all 3
sentences correct, whereas 5 others (33%) either left them
blank or translated them incorrectly. All 3 students in the 3rd
semester had the 3 sentences correct. Due mainly to the
results obtained by the 2nd and 3rd semester students, 19 (53%)
of the 36 students in these lower semesters translated the 3
sentences correctly and the other 17 (47%) were not able to do
them and left them blank or translated wrongly. Even though
the scores for correct sentences are slightly favorable, the
high scores for the subjects displaying problems with the
comprehension of the sentences with the omission of the that-

conjunction may indicate that these problems are caused by the lack of knowledge of this linguistic structure.

The students in more advanced levels had always a 100% of correct sentence. This good performance was already expected as these subjects had already been taught this specific linguistic structure.

TABLE 6

1st to 8th semester RRS students comprehension of the sentences with zero that-clauses

SEMESTERS	SENTENCE STUDENTS	CORRECT	INCORRECT	BLANK	TOTALS
1st	2	-	2	-	2
2nd	7	7	-	-	7
3rd	4	3	1	-	4
4th	11	10	1	-	11
5th	-	-	-	-	-
6th	6	6	-	-	6
7th	4	4	-	-	4
8th	7	7	-	-	7
TOTALS	41	37 (90%)	4 (10%)	-	41

Table 6 above shows that the RRS students had a much better performance than the NRS students. According to the results, 37 (90%) of the 41 students were able to translate the 3 sentences correctly. Again 5 students out of the 37 also skipped one of the sentences, but were counted as having all 3 sentences correct, following the same criterion used for the NRS students. Similarly to what occurred with the NRS students, the RRS students in the 1st semester did not perform well. This

seems to reflect the difficulties they have in dealing with such structure. The RRS second semester students had an outstanding performance this time and all 7 translated the 3 sentences correctly; yet, 1 out of the 3 students in the 3rd semesters did not translate the sentences coorectly.

The RRS students in more advanced levels, 4th to 8th semesters were 28 and only one student in the 4th semester was not able to translate the sentences. Their good performance again may confirm the advantage of having acquired adequate linguistic knowledge of the omission of the that-clause, combined with their possible use of reading strategies, which may have helped them to solve reading difficulties.

Concerning the correction of the sentence, Widdowson's criteria (see section 3.5.2) were followed. The evaluation took into consideration all the possible problems in comprehending the structure and in conveying the contextual meaning through the subjects' own discourse. As previously mentioned, problems with vocabulary (i.e. plural instead of singular nouns or vice versa); use of inadequate tense in L1, etc.) as well as any other semantic interpretation which would not affect a broad pragmatic interpretation of the sentence, were disregarded and the sentence was considered correct. Exemplifying these occurrences, some of the translations are given below: the underlined words mean that the translation either does not convey the real meaning of the sentence or may not express a good usage of Portuguese. The students are identified in the following way: the first number corresponds to the semesters the student is in; the following number identifies the class the student belongs to; the last number(s) was given to recognize each student's test. The cluster NRS or RRS after

the number indicates whether this subject has or has not attended
a Reading Strategies Course. The words in parentheses used as
substitute meanings were provided by the student himself;
underlined words do not convey the real meaning.

1.1 Fazendeiros na América pensam (acreditam) que os descobri-
    dores da Ladybird (joaninha) poderão receber tanto uma
    grande quantidade de dinheiro como uma pequena herança.1913
    NRS.

1.2 Os fazendeiros na América pensam que a pessoa que acha um
    pequeno besouro receberá muitos dólares e marcos na sua
    volta. 2702 NRS.

1.3 Fazendeiros na América acham que o besouro irá receber
    muitos dólares tal como as manchas nas suas costas. 3901
    NRS.

1.4 Fazendeiros na América pensa que ter um "pássaro lady"pre-
    so em grade traz muito dinheiro ou fortuna. 3904 RRS.

1.5 Pessoas famosas na América pensam que quem encontrar um
    grilo vai ganhar tantos dólares quantos forem ous números
    de sua patas. 3903 NRS.

1.6 Fazendeiros na América pensam que o encontrador de uma
    cegonha receberá tantos dólares quanto as manchas sob suas
    costas. 414 NRS.

1.7 Fazendeiros na América acham que o descobridor de um
    "ladybird" receberá tantos dólares quanto as marcas de seu
    passado. 405 RRS.

1.8 Fazendeiros na América pensam que a descoberta de um be-
    souro receberá tantos dólares quanto as marcas de seu pas-
    sado. 405 RRS.

1.9 Fazendeiros na América pensam que o descobridor de um be-souro receberá tantos dólares <u>como pequenos mercados   tem lucros</u>. 606 RRS.

1.10 Fazendeiros na América acham que a pessoa que a <u>carrochi-nha pousa</u> receberá tantos dólares no local onde ele apa-receu. 7606 RRS.

Disregarding the subjects' own interpretation of some parts of the sentences, which differs from the original text, these translations do not present any problem concerning the item investigated and were therefore considered correct. The translations for the second sentence also show different interpretations. Several students translated it using the infinitive:

2.1 No Canadá eles acreditam significar um novo par de luvas. 271 NRS; 375 RRS; 405 RRS; 503 NRS.

Yet, other students put it as:

2.2 No Canadá eles acreditam que os <u>passarinhos trazem</u> novos pares de luvas. 2704 NRS.

2.3 No Canadá eles acreditam que <u>ele</u> significa um novo par de <u>meias</u>. 1904 NRS.

2.4 No Canadá eles acreditam que <u>vão encontrar</u> um par de lu-vas. 1916 NRS.

2.5 No Canadá eles acreditam que signifique um novo par de <u>nuvens</u>. 504 NRS.

2.6 No Canadá eles acreditam que significa um novo par de <u>pombos</u>. 601 RRS.

2.7 No Canadá eles acreditam que <u>isto seja</u> um novo par de lu-

vas.   604 RRS.

2.8   No Canadá eles acreditam que as carrochinhas <u>anunciam</u>   um

novo par de luvas.   606 RRS.

Not all the students who translated the third sentence
correctly were able to do it completely; sometimes they stopped
in the middle or left blank spaces for the words they did not
know:

3.1   Outra <u>cultura</u> acredita que a joaninha <u>conta</u> diz como   <u>está</u>

o <u>tempo</u> do dia, onde...   1915 NRS (not completed).

3.2   Outros povos <u>folclores</u> acreditam que os <u>pequenos   besouros</u>

dizem <u>anunciam</u> o tempo do dia, onde pode se achar o   gado

perdido e <u>felicidade duradoura</u> e <u>predita do</u> valor da   co-

lheita.   2702 NRS.

3.3   Outros povos acreditam que a joaninha conta o <u>tempo</u>   do

dia, onde o <u>castelo</u> perdido pode ser achado   <u>provavelmente</u>

<u>durante a vida</u> e prediz a <u>validade</u> da colheita.   1904 NRS.

3.4   Outros <u>folcloristas</u> acreditam que ladybirds <u>falam do tempo</u>

<u>do dia</u>, onde os castelos perdidos podem <u>provavelmente</u>   ser

achados, <u>dizendo</u> o que <u>provavelmente pode</u> acontecer <u>duran-</u>

<u>te</u> a duração da vida e <u>prevê</u> o valor da <u>germinação</u>.   410

RRS.

3.5   Outros povos acreditam que <u>os ladybirds</u> dizem ou   <u>prevêem</u>

o <u>tempo</u> do dia onde <u>possa</u> ser achados, diz o que   <u>poderá</u>

<u>acontecer</u> e <u>predizer uma boa</u> colheita.   416 RRS.

3.6   Outro <u>costume</u> acredita que <u>os sabiás</u> dizem o <u>tempo</u> (a   ho-

ra) do dia, onde o <u>tesouro</u> pode ser achado...   601 RRS (not

completed).

3.5.3.2. Conclusions

The assessment of the translation had as its main concern the that-item correctly used in Portuguese, since it could not be omitted. Several interpretations were accepted as correct; these sentences were not very far from the real content. Some subjects misunderstood words like cattle for castle; other misinterpreted the meaning of spot and translated it as mark (the German currency) or even for market; back they understood as return or past. These translations were considered correct because it was assumed that the students used the strategy of cognate word identification or used their previous knowledge to guess the meaning of the content of the sentences. In order to have an overall picture of the results, Table 5 and 6 are conflated in Table 7.

TABLE 7

1st to 8th semester NRS/RRS students comprehension of
the sentences with zero that-clauses

SEMESTERS	SENTENCE STUDENTS	CORRECT	INCORRECT	BLANK	TOTALS
1st	20	6	4	10	20
2nd	22	17	3	2	22
3rd	7	6	1	–	7
4th	16	15	1	–	16
5th	4	4	–	–	4
6th	7	7	–	–	7
7th	8	8	–	–	8
8th	12	12	–	–	12
TOTALS	96	75(78%)	9(9%)	12(13%)	96

According to these results, the major problems appear in the group in lower level semesters, those who have not acquired linguistic knowledge about the item in question. Among the 49 students from 1st, 2nd and 3rd semesters, the findings are:

    Correct sentences - 29 students = 59%

    Blank sentences   - 12 students = 25%

    Incorrect sentences - 8 students = 16%

The total of blank and incorrect sentences in these 3 semesters 20 = 41%, means that a large number of these students did have problems in comprehending this construction. It may be argued that the students may have other types of problems with the translation, such as, for example, the vocabulary used which may have affected the understanding of the sentences. This fact cannot be disregarded, but it would require an investigation, which is not within the scope of this study.

It is seen that the 29 students (59%) who supposedly had not acquired the necessary linguistic knowledge to cope with the task, were able to translate the sentences. It might be the case that they used their reading strategies or rather, they might have transferred their L1 reading skills to reading in the foreign language. It seems that they were able to infer the need of the que-conjunction in Portuguese, which is obligatory after the verbs in the text - think (pensar/achar) and believe (crer/acreditar), which are part of the vocabulary of students even in the early stages of instruction in English. If the use of the que in Portuguese seems so evident after these verbs, a question that might occur is: why were not all the students able to infer its use?

Owing to the results obtained with the subjects in more

advanced semesters, the control group, it seems plausible to say that this type of structure is perfectly comprehensible to the EFL reader, once he becomes aware of the that-omission in the English clause.

3.6. The Comprehension Test

This test was devised to make the subjects read the whole text "Cat in the Rain", and not only the sentences used later to test the hypothesis; it was thought this would help them to infer the contextual meaning of the zero relative structures, even if they had not been taught such structures. Besides, it would also serve as a distractor to disguise the real objectives.

The test was constructed in Portuguese to keep the same pattern in all the tests. It contains 5 questions in a multiple choice format, as the students are more used to this type of reading comprehension test. Two questions (1 and 5) could be answered according to what was explicit in the text, two other questions (2 and 3) could be easily inferred from the narrative and question 4 would test the readers' comprehension of the vocabulary used in the text (App. IV).

It would be pointless to try to analyse in detail the results yielded by the Comprehension Test as it was mainly meant to be a distractor. One conclusion, however, can be drawn and that the two tables below show very similar results. The 7th semester, with 4 students in each group, can serve best as an example: the differences between the NRS and RRS results are not significant. But from such an insufficient test, it would be rash to arrive at any conclusion about the effectiveness of reading strategies instructions in EFL.

TABLE 8

1st to 8th semester NRS students test on reading comprehension

SEMESTERS	SENTENCES QUESTIONS STUDENTS	CORRECT					INCORRECT					BLANK				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1st	18	12	7	6	6	6	4	9	10	10	10	2	2	2	2	2
2nd	15	13	8	9	9	5	2	7	6	6	10	–	–	–	–	–
3rd	3	2	3	–	1	2	1	–	3	2	1	–	–	–	–	–
4th	5	5	4	2	4	3	–	1	3	1	2	–	–	–	–	–
5th	4	4	4	1	–	–	–	–	3	4	4	–	–	–	–	–
6th	1	1	1	1	1	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
7th	4	4	4	3	–	2	–	–	1	4	2	–	–	–	–	–
8th	5	4	4	4	2	3	1	1	1	3	2	–	–	–	–	–
TOTALS	55	45	35	26	23	22	8	18	27	30	31	2	2	2	2	2
%		82	64	47	42	40	14	32	49	54	56	4	4	4	4	4

TABLE 9

1st to 8th semester RRS students test on reading comprehension

SEMESTERS	SENTENCES QUESTIONS STUDENTS	CORRECT					INCORRECT					BLANK				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1st	2	2	1	1	-	1	-	1	1	2	1	-	-	-	-	-
2nd	7	7	6	4	4	1	-	1	3	3	6	-	-	-	-	-
3rd	4	3	3	2	1	3	1	1	2	3	1	-	-	-	-	-
4th	11	9	6	1	9	5	2	5	10	2	6	-	-	-	-	-
5th	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6th	6	4	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	4	-	-	-	-	-
7th	4	4	4	3	1	2	-	-	1	3	2	-	-	-	-	-
8th	7	7	7	6	3	4	-	-	1	4	3	-	-	-	-	-
TOTALS	41	36	30	20	21	18	5	11	21	20	23	-	-	-	-	-
%		88	73	49	51	44	12	27	51	49	56					

3.7. Testing the Comprehensibility of the Zero-Relative Clause

As seen in section 2.5.2, the main difference between English and Portuguese restrictive relative clauses is that in English the relative pronoun can be used explicitly or be deleted, when it functions as object and adverbial in the relative clause, while in Portuguese, the pronoun can never be deleted. Thus, English clauses with zero-relative pronoun are likely to cause problems of comprehension to Brazilian readers. In order to test the hypothesis, translation is again used.

In this test (App. V), instead of being asked to translate the whole text, the students had to complete the translation of 10 sentences from the text. Among these, 6 are specially used to evaluate the problem:

- four sentences contain zero RP;

- one sentence uses the RP;

- one sentence has a zero that-clause.

The other four sentences asked in the test are distractors and were disregarded in the evaluation. The six sentences are numbered according to the text:

1. (Lines 2-3) They did not know any of the people they passed on the stairs on their way to and from their room.

3. (Lines 35 -36) She liked the deadly serious way he received any complains.

5. (Lines 36-37) She liked the way he wanted to serve her.

6. (Lines 37-38) She liked the way he felt about being a hotel keeper.

9. (Lines 84-85) Don't you think it would be a good idea if I let my hair grow out?

10. (Lines 96-97) I want to pull my hair back tight and smooth
    and make a big knot at the back that I can fell,she said.

The criteria for acceptability were established based on
the following grammatical options in Portuguese:

- the invariable relative pronouns: que, quem, onde (which might
  be preceded by a preposition, e.g. do que, com quem, por onde,
  etc).

- the variable relative pronouns, those which have gender and/or
  number concord: o(a) qual; os(as) quais; cujo(s); cuja(s);
  quanto(s); quanta(s).

- the relative adverb como, when meaning por que, pelo qual.

Following these criteria, the most acceptable translations
for the 6 sentences are given below. The part that the subjects
should provide is given in capitals; in the parentheses are
other possible translations.

1. Eles não conheciam NENHUMA DAS PESSOAS PELAS QUAIS (POR QUEM)
   (ELES) PASSAVAM QUANDO VINHAM DO QUARTO OU VOLTAVAM PARA ELE.

3. Ela gostava DA MANEIRA (MODO/JEITO) EXCESSIVAMENTE SERIA QUE
   (COMO/PELA QUAL) ELE RECEBIA ALGUMAS QUEIXAS (RECLAMAÇÕES).

5. Ela GOSTAVA DO MODO (MANEIRA/JEITO) QUE (PELO QUAL/COMO) ELE
   QUERIA SERVI-LA.

6. ELA GOSTAVA DO MODO (MANEIRA/JEITO) QUE (COMO) ELE SE SENTIA
   SENDO (EM SER) um proprietário de hotel.

9. VOCÊ NÃO ACHA QUE SERIA UMA BOA IDÍEA SE (EU) DEIXASSE (DEI-
   XAR) meu cabelo crescer?

10. Eu quero puxar meu cabelo para trás preso e liso E FAZER UM
    GRANDE COQUE ATRÁS QUE (O QUAL) (EU) POSSA SENTI-LO,   ela
    disse.

An alternative version for sentence 10 might be: "...   E FAZER UM GRANDE COQUE ATRÁS PARA QUE (EU) POSSA SENTI-LO". Although such a translation does not contain a relative clause, it is a perfectly acceptable version in Portuguese.

3.7.1. <u>Analysis and Results</u>

In the evaluation of the tests, the main requirement is that the that-clauses should include the relative pronoun or conjunction, as the case may be, or an equivalent item. Any other kind of error is not taken into consideration. The results are classified into the following categories:

1. Correct: total or partial completion with inclusion of relative pronoun/conjunction/equivalent item.

2. Incorrect: total or partial completion without inclusion of pronoun/conjunction/equivalent item.

3. Blank - not done.

The third category is included in the Tables to indicate the students' incapacity to cope with the task.

The order of the sentences in the Tables is slightly altered and sentence 9, which contains the zero-clause, comes after sentence 10, which has an explicit relative pronoun. It should be remembered that as in the previous tables, the results for the 5th semester students appear only in the tables with NRS results, for in this group none of the students had attended a reading strategies course.

TABLE 10

1st to 8th semester NRS students comprehension of the deletion of RP in RC1

SEMESTERS	SENTENCES / SRUDENTS	CORRECT						INCORRECT						BLANK					
QUESTIONS		1	3	5	6	10	9	1	3	5	6	10	9	1	3	5	6	10	9
1st	18	3	5	6	5	3	8	6	4	3	3	4	-	9	9	9	10	11	10
2nd	15	6	3	4	2	4	7	4	3	4	4	2	-	5	9	7	9	9	8
3rd	3	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
4th	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5th	4	4	3	4	3	2	4	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-
6th	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7th	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8th	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTALS	55	29	25	29	27	26	36	12	10	10	9	8	1	14	20	16	19	21	18
%		53	45	53	49	47	65	22	18	18	16	15	2	25	36	29	35	38	33

TABLE 11

1st to 8th semester RRS students comprehension of the deletion of RP in RC1

SEMESTERS	SENTENCE QUESTIONS STUDENTS	CORRECT						INCORRECT						BLANK					
		1	3	5	6	10	9	1	3	5	6	10	9	1	3	5	6	10	9
1st	2	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2nd	7	6	5	5	5	4	4	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	1	2	2	3	3
3rd	4	-	-	-	-	-	2	3	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	1
4th	11	9	10	10	10	9	10	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	1	1	1	1
5th	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6th	6	5	5	6	5	5	6	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
7th	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8th	7	7	6	6	7	7	7	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTALS	41	32	30	32	32	29	33	5	7	4	2	3	2	4	4	5	7	9	6
%		78	73	78	78	71	80	12	17	10	5	7	5	10	10	12	17	22	15

1. As to CORRECT/INCORRECT completion:

As regards 1st semester students, despite the disparity between the number of students in the NRS and RRS groups, the scores indicate that the majority of the students as a whole did poorly in the test. The 2nd semester RRS students are practically half the number of NRS students, which permits a more accurate analysis - the RRS students were definitely the more capable group. The 3rd semester RRS students, however, produced a much worse performance than the NRS group; with exception of the that-clause, none of the relative clauses were correct. The results of the 4th semester NRS group is proportionally much better than those produced by the RRS group. Although none of the 5th semester students had attended a reading strategies course before the test was applied, their scores for CORRECT can be considered above average. Concerning the most advanced group, 6th to 8th semesters, during which the students are given systematized instruction in Noun Phrase Structure and Clause Structure (cf. Programas in App. XIb and XII), the difference in the scores for both groups (NRS and RRS) is very small and thus not significant.

2. As to BLANK:

Apparently, 1st and 2nd semester NRS students are those who most frequently have Blank. But considering that the number of RRS students in the lower semesters is about one third the number of NRS in the same semesters, the results do not differ greatly. As regards the students from 4th to 8th semesters, the scores are practically the same.

The only conclusion which can be tentatively drawn from these results is that there is no consistent correlation between

the use of reading strategies and full reading comprehension. It seems that at least in the specific case of that-deletion, the crucial factor is the knowledge of the structure. For this reason, the results for both groups are conflated in Table 12.

3.7.2. Conclusions

Observing Table 12 below, two main conclusions can be drawn. The first and rather obvious conclusion is that reading comprehension increases as the students become more proficient in English; the other - the one with which this study is concerned - is that the deletion of the relative pronoun in the Noun Phrase causes more difficulty than the deletion of the conjunction in the Nominal Clause (Sentence 9). The second conclusion is confirmed by the fact that from the 5th to the 8th semesters, the students had no problems with sentence 9, but still showed to have difficulty with the deletion of the pronoun in the relative clauses. The following are the INCORRECT responses given by this group:

    5th semester - : 2 incorrect sentences

    6th semester - : 3 incorrect sentences

    7th semester - : 2 incorrect sentences

    8th semester - : 3 incorrect sentences

It should he noted that there are 2 BLANKS for the 5th semesters and 1 BLANK for the 6th semesters, but none for the other two semesters.

As to the other semesters, a few examples of INCORRECT responses will be given; each sentence is followed by a number corresponding to the semester, class, the identification of the

TABLE 12

1st to 8th NRS/RRS semester students comprehension of the deletion of RP in RC1

SEMESTERS	SENTENCES STUDENTS	CORRECT						INCORRECT						BLANK					
QUESTIONS		1	3	5	6	10	9	1	3	5	6	10	9	1	3	5	6	10	9
1st	20	4	5	7	6	3	8	6	5	3	3	5	1	10	10	10	11	12	11
2nd	22	12	8	9	7	8	11	4	4	4	4	2	–	6	10	9	11	12	11
3rd	7	2	1	1	2	2	4	4	4	5	2	2	2	1	2	1	3	3	1
4th	16	13	15	15	15	14	15	2	–	–	–	1	–	1	1	1	1	1	1
5th	4	4	3	4	3	2	4	–	–	–	1	1	–	–	1	–	–	1	–
6th	7	6	6	7	6	6	7	1	1	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–
7th	8	8	7	7	8	8	8	–	1	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
8th	12	12	10	11	12	12	12	–	2	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
TOTALS	96	61	55	61	59	55	69	17	17	14	11	11	3	18	24	21	26	30	24
%		63	57	63	62	57	72	18	18	14	11	11	3	19	25	22	27	31	25

test and the cluster NRS/RRS, as they might be of interest to reading strategies specialists:

1.1. Eles não conheciam nenhuma das pessoas eles passaram na escada caminho para o quarto deles. 407 RRS.

1.2. Eles não conheciam nenhuma pessoa eles passaram sobre a escada no caminho para seu quarto. 412 NRS.

3.1. Ela gostava do modo excessivamente sério enquanto ele recebeu insatisfeito. 406 RRS.

3.2. Ela gostava extremamente de procedimento sério e ele recebeu muitas críticas. 276 NRS.

5.1. Ela gostava de encontrá-lo no caminho para servi-la. 376 NRS.

5.2. Ela gostava de sua dignidade, de sua maneira, ele queria servi-la. 276 NRS.

6.1. Ela gostava de ser atendida por um proprietário de hotel. 1912 NRS.

Something should be said about the completions which were counted as CORRECT, though they contained errors other than not providing a replacement for the deleted pronoun. They usually present verbs in different tenses and meanings and there are also words that do not always express the meaning they have in the original text. Thus, the main criterion for the evaluation of these sentences was to consider the subjects' comprehension as derived from their own discourse, provided they expressed the comprehension of the subordination. Some of these sentences are given below and are identified in the same way previously mentioned; the underlined words indicate errors:

1.1. Eles não conheciam ninguém <u>da gente</u> que <u>passaram</u> na escada. 173 NRS (not completed).

1.2. Eles não conheciam <u>ninguém daqueles</u> que encontravam na escada a caminho para seu quarto. 193 RRS.

1.3. Eles não conheciam qualquer das pessoas que por eles passavam <u>mesmo as pessoas perto</u> do quarto deles. 271 NRS.

1.4. Eles não conheciam nenhuma das pessoas que <u>passaram</u> por eles na escada e <u>pelas suas salas</u>. 606 RRS.

1.5. Eles não conheciam <u>ninguém</u> que <u>encontravam</u> no caminho <u>das escadas</u> para o quarto. 801 RRS.

3.1. Ela gostava do modo excessivamente sério com que ele <u>recebeu com alguma insatisfação</u>. 402 RRS.

3.2. Ela gostava <u>muito das sérias maneiras</u> que ele recebia alguma insatisfação. 296 RRS.

3.3. Ela gostava da maneira excessiva <u>de seriedade</u> com que ele recebia <u>algum descaso</u>. 501 RRS.

3.4. Ela gostava do modo sério como ele recebia alguns <u>complementos</u>. 1915 NRS.

3.5. Ela gostava do caminho excessivamente sério que ele recebia alguns <u>inquilinos</u>. 293 NRS.

5.1. Ela <u>gostou</u> de sua dignidade. Ela <u>gostou</u> da maneira que ele a servi-<u>la</u>. 393 NRS.

5.2. Ela <u>gostou do caminho</u> pelo qual ele queria servi-la. 406 RRS.

5.3. Ela <u>apreciava</u> o modo que ele <u>utilizava</u> para servi-la. 271 NRS.

5.4. Ela gostava do modo que ele <u>procurava</u> servi-la. 1915 NRS.

5.5. Ela gostava do jeito de que ele queria servi-la. 173 NRS.

6.1. Ela gostava do modo que ele sentiu em ser um proprietário de hotel. 1920 NRS.

6.2. Ela gostava de como ele encarava ser um proprietário de hotel. 803 NRS.

6.3. Ela gostava de como ele se sentiu a respeito sendo um proprietário de hotel. 7604 RRS.

6.4. Ela gostava do modo que ele se sentiu sobre o estado de ser um proprietário de hotel. 406 RRS.

6.5. Ela gostava do conceito que ele achava quanto a ser um proprietário de hotel.

CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL SUGGESTIONS

Conclusions

In spite of the limitations of this investigation, the results seem to confirm what was first hypothesized: comprehension depends or will vary according to the reader's knowledge of the TL. The major conclusions arrived at through the revised literature and the data may be listed as:

1. The Interactive Process is related to successful reading; this process comprises the modern view of reading as it interacts the reader's stored knowledge and cognitive skills - top-down process - and his ortographic and lexical stages - bottom-up process - and vice versa.

2. Linguistic knowledge seems to be a crucial point upon which comprehension depends. Since it was not the aim of this study, it was not possible to determine either the levels of comprehension a reader can accomplish with a low level of linguistic knowledge or the kind of threshold level he must acquire in order to read comprehensively.

3. According to the review of the literature, the use of FL reading strategies or the transfer of first language reading abilities is important to reading comprehension, especially when combined with the reader's previous knowledge of the subject and his linguistic knowledge. As in the case of the threshold level needs, it was impossible to evaluate to what extent the reader's use of reading skills alone can result in effective reading comprehension of different texts.

4. The results of the tests show that constructions containing the deletion of that in Noun Clauses and in Restrictive Relative Clauses, for being contrastively used in Portuguese, are more likely to cause comprehension difficulties for a less competent reader. The problem seems to be more frequent in the latter case, for which the inference of the equivalent deleted relative pronoun is not so obvious, thus requiring the reader's adequate knowledge of the matter to understand the structure.

The instruments applied to test the comprehensibility of the items investigated in this study have presented the following findings, which somehow confirm what was hypothesized:

4.1. The questionnaire on the subjects' knowledge and use of reading strategies did not provide means to effectively reveal the subjects' acquisition of best reading strategies and to assess what skills they use to approach a text. It gave the subjects the opportunity to mark skills they do not use adequately. Moreover, most of the students never attended a reading strategies course and the teacher of reading applying the questionnaire was not capable of providing any information about the students' reading abilities, since the semester had

just started and there had not been much time for evaluation. The questionnaire served mainly to divide the students into those who had not attended a reading strategies course and those who had taken the course, and thus enable us to observe the performance of the two groups. It appears though that any instrument devised with these characteristics will always leave some doubts about the subjects' real performance. Thus, it would be advisable that other types of instruments should be used to check the reader's reading abilities. In this respect, some Pedagogical Suggestions are given below.

4.2. The test on the zero that-clause may lead to the conclusion that insufficient knowledge of English may affect comprehension of such structures. This conclusion is mainly related to 1st to 3rd semester students, who according to their teachers' teaching programs had not received instruction on this topic. According to Table 7, the incidence of Blank Sentences is particularly high among 1st semester students. This may be interpreted as inability to understand the construction, since the whole text is written in simple English well within the level of 1st semester university students. It might be suggested, however, that other variables could have prevented them for translating, such as lack of motivation to do the whole test, problems with vocabulary, etc. Thus, it would be advisable that further investigations also consider these variables.

4.3. The test on reading comprehension was devised as a distractor and did not intend to measure comprehension. Yet, its position between the two translation tests seems to have influenced the subjects' performance. Some questions were misinterpreted and even upper level students did not answer

correctly some sentences which should be perfectly comprehensible to them. The test involves some important abilities in approaching a text, like the ability to understand explicit and implicit (making inferences) information, vocabulary, etc. However, as it had a multiple choice format and the text was somewhat long, it appears that some subjects opted to answer the questions randomly without effectively reading the passage.

4.4. The scores for the translation of the zero relative-clauses have shown that the comprehension of this construction seems harder to understand than the zero that clause structure. Again the students who apparently lack the adequate knowledge of this grammatical item (1st to 3rd semesters) had the lowest scores for correct sentences. This is confirmed by the results for blank sentences, which among 1st semester students (see Table 12) are consistent with the results for Blank sentences in the zero that-clause test, shown in Table 7. The results in the groups who had already been given instruction in the deletion of the RP (4th to 8th semesters) proved to be satisfactory.

Pedagogical Suggestions

In view of the results of the test and of the conclusions, two pedagogical recommendations concerning zero clauses are given:

1. Reading students should deal with texts containing zero that-clauses, whether Noun Clauses and Relative Clauses as early as possible.

2. Reading teachers should more frequently test some
aspects of language structure when testing reading comprehension.
It seems that this would contribute to verify to what extent
the students' understanding is affected by their lack of
adequate linguistic knowledge.

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APPENDIX I

Caro(a) aluno(a)

Este não é um teste escolar. Esta primeira parte é questionário para verificar seus conhecimentos de como abordar um texto em Inglês para compreendê-lo. Anexos estão também outros testes com os respectivos textos que avaliarão sua leitura e compreensão. Agradeceríamos se você fosse sincero e objetivo ao responder as perguntas abaixo, bem como os demais itens dos testes seguintes.

Número _____Idade _____ Fase do Curso ____

1. Em quantos semestres de seu curso você aprendeu como abordar um texto (usando por exemplo, chaves tipográficas: maiúsculas, números - sinais, etc., leitura rápida do texto (ou skimming),leitura em diferentes níveis de compreensão, uso de cognatos e palavra repetidas, etc.)	NENHUM SEM. ———— 1 SEM.

- LEIA COM ATENÇÃO E MARQUE A COLUNA QUE MELHOR LHE CONVIER (1) NUNCA (2) DE VEZ EM QUANDO (3) SEMPRE - Quando você lê um texto PELA PRIMEIRA VEZ, você	1	2	3
2. Lê com um objetivo?			
3. usa chaves tipográficas (uso de título, sub-títulos, maiúsculas, sinais tipográficos, etc.) para ajudar a compreender o texto?			
4. relê certas partes quantas vezes forem necessárias para entender o texto e depois prossegue com a leitura?			
5. usa o contexto para adivinhar os termos desconhecidos?			
6. descobre a classe gramatical da palavra desconhecida para ajudar a adivinhar o significado?			
7. pula as palavras desconhecidas ou difíceis que você julga não serem importantes?			
8. usa seu conhecimento anterior sobre o assunto para compreender melhor?			
9. lê todo o texto atentamente da primeira vez?			
10. lê procurando identificar o significado de cada palavra do texto?			
11. usa o dicionário ou o glossário do texto toda vez que encontra um termo desconhecido?			
12. abandona a leitura se o texto é difícil?			

APPENDIX   II

2. LEIA O TEXTO ABAIXO:

According to the folklore of many countries, ladybirds are lucky. In Germany their appearance is said to herald the arrival of a child. Farmers in America think the finder of a ladybird will receive as many dollars as the spots on its back. In Canada they believe it means a new pair of gloves. Other folk believe ladybirds tell the time of day, where stray cattle can be found, forecast life spans and predict the value of the harvest.

Rudzka, B.; Channel, J.; Putseys, Y.; Ostyn, P. (1981). The Words you need. Sussex: Macmillan Publishers Ltd.

GLOSSARY

LADYBIRD - a small flying beetle, reddish and brown with dark spots.

TO HERALD - to announce, to proclaim the approach of.

FINDER   - one who finds something.

SPOTS   - small marks.

STRAY CATTLE - lost cattle.

FORECAST   - say in advance what will probably happen.

LIFE SPANS - duration of life.

HARVEST   - the action of gathering in a crop, e.g. corn or apple.

Número _____ Idade _____ Fase do curso _____

TRADUZA O TEXTO ACIMA:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX III

LEIA O TEXTO ABAIXO:

CAT IN THE RAIN

There were only two Americans stopping at the hotel. They
did not know any of the people they passed on the stairs on
their way to and from their room. Their room was on the
second floor facing the sea. It also faced the public garden
and the war monument. There were big palms and green benches   5
in the public garden. In the good weather there was always an
artist with his easel. Artists liked the way the palms grew
and the bright colors of the hotel facing the gardens and the
sea. Italians came from a long way off to look up at the war
monument. It was made of bronze and glistened in the rain.   10
It was raining. The rain dripped from the palm trees. Water
stood in pools on the gravel path. The sea broke in a long
line in the rain and slipped back down the beach to come up
and break again in a long line in the rain. The motor cars
were gone from the square by the war monument. Across the   15
square in the doorway of the café a waiter stood looking out
at the empty square. The American wife stood at the window
looking out. Outside right under their window a cat was
crouched under one of the dripping green tables. The cat was
trying to make herself so compact that she would not be   20
dripped on.
"I'm going down and get that kitty," the American wife said.
"I'll do it," her husband offered from the bed.
"No, I'll get it. The poor kitty out trying to keep dry
under a table."   25
The husband went on reading, lying propped up with the two
pillows at the foot of the bed.
"Don't get wet," he said.
The wife went downstairs and the hotel owner stood up and
bowed to her as she passed the office. His desk was at the   30
far end of the office. He was an old man and very tall.
"Il piove," the wife said. She liked the hotel-keeper.
"Si, si, Signora, brutto tempo. It's very bad weather."
He stood behind his desk in the far end of the dim room. The
wife liked him. She liked the deadly serious way he received   35

any complaints. She liked his dignity. She liked the way he
wanted to serve her. She liked the way he felt about being
a hotel keeper. She liked his old, heavy face and big hands.
Liking him she opened the door and looked out. It was raining
harder. A man in a rubber cape was crossing the empty square   40
to the café. The cat would be around to the right. Perhaps
she could go along under the caves. As she stood in the
doorway an umbrella opened behind her. It was the maid who
looked after their room.
"You must not get wet," she smiled, speaking Italian. Of   45
course, the hotel-keeper had sent her.
With the maid holding the umbrella over her, she walked along
the gravel path until she was under their window. The table
was there, washed bright green in the rain, but the cat was
gone. She was suddenly disappointed. The maid looked up at her. 50
"Ha perduto qualque cosa, Signora?"
"There was a cat," said the American girl.
"A cat?"
"Si, il gatto."
"A cat?" the maid laughed. "A cat in the rain?"   55
"Yes," she said, "under the table.." Then, "Oh I wanted it so
much. I wanted a kitty."
When she talked English the maid's face tightened.
"Come, Signora," she said. "We must get back inside. You will
be wet."   60
"I suppose so," said the American girl.
They went back along the gravel path and passed in the door.
The maid stayed outside to close the umbrella. As the American
girl passed the office, the padrone bowed from his desk.
Something felt very small and tight inside the girl. The   65
padrone made her feel very small and at the same time really
important.
She had a momentary feeling of being of supreme importance.
She went on up the stairs. She opened the door of the room.
George was on the bed reading.   70
"Did you get the cat?" he asked, putting the book down.
"It was gone."
"Wonder where it went to," he said, resting his eyes from
reading.
She sat down on the bed.   75

"I wanted it so much," she said. "I don't know why I wanted
it so much. I wanted that poor kitty. It isn't any fun to be
a poor kitty out in the rain."

George was reading again.

She went over and sat in front of the mirror of the dressing   80
table looking at herself with the hand glass. She studied her
profile, first one side and then the other. Then she studied
the back of her head and her neck.

"Don't you think it would be a good idea if I let my hair grow
out?" she asked, looking at her profile again.   85

George looked up and saw the back of her neck, clipped close
like a boy's.

"I like it the way it is."

"I get so tired of it," she said. "I get so tired of looking
like a boy."   90

George shifted his position in the bed. He hadn't looked away
from her since she started to speak.

"You look pretty darn nice," he said.

She laid the mirror down on the dresser and went over to the
window and looked out. It was getting dark.   95

"I want to pull my hair back tight and smooth and make a big
knot at the back that I can feel," she said. "I want to have
a kitty to sit on my lap and purr when I stroke her."

"Yeah?" George said from the bed.

"And I want to eat at a table with my own silver and I want   100
candles. And I want it to be spring and I want to brush my
hair out in front of a mirror and I want a kitty and I want
some new clothes".

"Oh, shut up and get something to read," George said. He
was reading again.   105

His wife was looking out of the window. It was quite dark
now and still raining in the palm trees.

"Anyway, I want a cat," she said, "I want a cat. I want a cat
now. If I can't have long hair or any fun, I can have a cat."

George was not listening. He was reading his book. His wife   110
looked out of the window where the light had come on in the square.

Someone knocked at the door.

"Avanti," George said. He looked up from his book.

In the doorway stood the maid. She held a big tortoise-shell
cat pressed tight against her and swung down against her body.   115

"Excuse me," she said, "the padrone asked me to bring this for the Signora."

Hemingway E. "Cat in the rain" in The Short Stories of E. Hemingway, Charles Scribner's sons, 1938.

GLOSSARY

Line   5 BENCH - long seat of wood or stone in a public garden

      7 EASEL - wooden frame to support a picture

      9 LONG WAY OFF - distant places

    10 GLISTEN - shine brightly (esp. of wet or polished surfaces)

    13 SLIP - fall; move

    19 CROUCH - lower the body with the limbs together (in fear or to hide)

    26 PROPPED - supported; kept in the position

    35 DEADLY - extremely, very

    36 COMPLAINT - complaining; dissatisfaction

    48 GRAVEL PATH - way or road made of small stones with coarse sand

    64 BOW - bend the head or body (as a sign of respect or greeting)

    81 HAND GLASS - small mirror

    82 PROFILE - side view, esp. of the head

    86 CLIPPED CLOSE - cut very short

    93 DARN - extremely, very

    98 PURR - the sound made by a contented cat

  100 SILVER - silver articles in general, esp. things for eating and drinking (spoon, forks, teapots,etc.)

  114 TORTOISE-SHELL - the kind with yellowish and brown marks.

APPENDIX IV

Número _____ Fase _____ Idade _____

A. De acordo com o texto lido, marque a melhor opção:

1. Até a linha 22 do texto, os dois personagens principais não são identificados claramente como formando um casal. Até aí são identificados como:

   a ( ) sendo duas pessoas que se encontram nas escadas.

   b ( ) sendo os únicos americanos hospedados no hotel.

   c ( ) sendo artistas num quarto em frente para o mar.

   d ( ) sendo amigos hospedados num hotel defronte uma praça.

2. A esposa resolveu ir buscar o gato porque:

   a ( ) o gatinho que estava apanhando chuva pertencia a ela.

   b ( ) um gato nunca pode apanhar chuva.

   c ( ) ela parecia se sentir sozinha e entendiada.

   d ( ) ela sempre fora interessada em animais.

3. O marido provavelmente se ofereceu para ir buscar o gato.

   a ( ) porque ele ficou interessado no animal.

   b ( ) porque ele queria que a esposa não saísse do quarto.

   c ( ) porque ele ficou com pena dela ter que sair na chuva.

   d ( ) por simples gentileza.

4. Na linha 34 a expressão "in the far end of the dim room" significa:

   a ( ) no fundo da sala escura.

   b ( ) no fundo da grande sala.

   c ( ) no fundo da sala ensolarada.

   d ( ) no fundo da pequena sala.

5. No final da estória, o gato que o proprietário do hotel enviou à moça de presente era:

   a ( ) o gatinho que ela realmente queria.

   b ( ) o gato que ela procurou na chuva.

   c ( ) um gatão malhado.

   d ( ) um gato de casco de tartaruga.

APPENDIX   V

B. Após ler o texto "Cat in the Rain", complete o significado
   das sentenças abaixo conforme você as entendeu. Se for   ne-
   cessário, use o glossário dado no final do texto.

1. (linhas 2-3) Eles não conheciam _____

   _____

2. (linhas 5-6) Havia _____

   _____

3. (linhas 31-32) Ele _____

   _____

4. (linhas 35-36) Ela gostava_____

   _____

5. (linhas 36-37) Ela _____

   _____servi-la.

6. (linhas 37-38) _____

   _____um proprietário de hotel._____

7. (linhas 40-41) Um homem _____

   _____

8. (linhas 63-64) _____

   _____ inclinou-se lã de sua escrivaninha.

9. (linhas 84-85) "Você _____

   _____

10. (linhas 96-97) "Eu quero puxar meu cabelo para trás preso e
    liso _____", ela dis-
    se.

APPENDIX VI

PROGRAMA - INGLÊS I - LLE 1111 - 6 créditos - 90 horas
(1986 - 2º semestre)

Person to Person I	A Basic English Grammar		B.E.G. Exercices	
Unit 1: Nice to Meet You - Introducing yourserf - Asking for informa- tion - Composition 4 hrs	2.1 2.2 2.3 23.10 39.6	Present tense of be Present tense of have (got) Present continuous Nationalities Short forms	2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	present - be present - be, have present - have got present continuous Reading

Unit 2: We'll have to fill out
- some forms
- asking personal
  questions
- calling information
- composition
        3,5 hrs
	2.4
	24.7
	36.1
	36.3
	36.9
	36.11
	38.1
	38.3
		Simple present tense
		Adverbs of frequency
		Cardinal numbers
		Ordinal numbers
		Phone numbers
		Dates
		Pronoun: s/-es
		Spelling: e
			6.
			7.
			8.
			9.
			138.
				simple present - positive
				simple present - pos/neg
				simple present - questions
				be, have/simple present
				adverbs of frequency

Unit 3: So, tell me about
  your family
- getting information
  about someone's
  family
  composition
        3,5 hrs
	18.1
	18.2
	20.1
	20.2
	20.3
	20.4
	20.5
	20.6
	20.7
		Regular plurals of nouns
		Irregular plurals of nouns
		Personal pronouns
		Uses of it
		it, one, them, some
		special uses
		Possessives
		own
		of + possessives
			103.
			112.
			
			113.
			116.
			117.
			118.
				Plurals of nouns
				3rd person pronouns, one
				some
				object pronouns & possessives
				one/ones
				some/any (there are)
				Reading

124

Unit 4: Hurry up. We're late
- asking where things are
- times
- composition

19.1	pron. of articles	108	a x an
19.2	a/an	109	a/an, the & some
19.3	the	141	prepositions of place and movement
19.4	some		
25.1	prepositions of place and movement	10	pres. cont. or simple pres.?
25.2	at & in	11	pres. cont. or simple pres.?
2.5	pres. contin. or simple pres.?	-	Reading
2.6	pres. contin. or simple pres.?		
2.7	pres. contin.: always		
2.8	simple pres.: dramatic use		
36.12	time		

Unit 5: Variations
- review   4,5 hrs
- Listening Exam 2 hrs
- Oral Exam 2 hrs

6.1	Imperative	51	negative statements
6.2	let's	52	questions
8.1	negative statements	53	pos. & neg. questions with why
8.2	questions	54	neg. question tags
8.3	negative questions	55	pos. & neg. question tags
8.4	answerng question		
8.5	question tags		
-	grammar exam		
-	reading exam		

Unit 6: Are you doing anything tonight?
- Invitations
- Setting time & place
- Composition   4 hrs

4.1	will	27	will
4.3	going to	28	going to
4.4	will x going to	29	will x going to
4.5	pres. = future	30	will x shall x going to
4.6	pres. = future	31	present = future
5.3	It/there + be	36	It/there + be
		-	Reading

Unit 7: Which way is the post office?
- asking directions
- giving directions
- composition   3 hrs

19.7	Uncountables	110	nouns with & without the
19.8	school, etc.	122	question words & phrases
19.9	times without the	123	asking: subject & object
19.10	Names	124	who, what, which
21.1	What, who, where, when, why, how, whose / What & who = subject & object	–	Reading
21.2			
21.3	Who, what, which		
21.4	phrases with what & how		

Unit 8: Do you like jazz?
- Likes & dislikes
- agreeing with likes & dislikes
- disagreeing with likes & dislikes
- composition   4 hrs

9.1	Short additions to statements	56	Short additions to statements
18.3	Dir. & indir. objects	104	Direct and indirect objects
18.4	Poss. of nouns	105	Possessive x of
18.5	Place	106	Countable x uncountable nouns
18.6	Time	126	who x which
18.7	of x possessive		
18.8	countable x uncountables		
18.9	countable x uncountables		
18.10	uncountables		
22.1	who/which/what		
22.2	who/which/what		
22.3	who/which/what		
38.4	Pronun.: - ed		
38.5	Double consonants		
38.6	consonant + y		

Unit 9: And what did you do then?
- talking about personal history
- composition   3,5 hrs

3.1	past tense of be	12	past tense: be
3.2	past tense of have (got)	13	past tense: be, have
3.3	simple past tense	14	simple past (positive)
37.1	word building: jobs	15	simple past (positive)
37.2	word building: compounds	–	Reading
37.3	word building: compounds		
37.8	prefixes		

Unit 10: Variations	3 hrs	3.3	Simple past tense	16	simple past (pos./neg.)
- review	2 hrs	-	Grammar exam	17	simple past (questions)
- listening exam		-	Reading Exam	-	Reading
- oral exam					

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APPENDIX VII

PROGRAMA - INGLÊS II - LLE 1104 - 6 créditos - 90 horas

(1986 - 2º semestre)

Person to Person I & II	A Basic English Grammar	B.E.G. Exercises
Book I Unit 11: And what would you like? - Expressing/asking about wants: friends/family, waiter - Offering/accepting food Composition (4 hrs)	4.1 will 4.3 - 4.4 be going to 7.1-7.2. Modals: can/could/ be able to 7.11-7.12 will/shall/would/ should	27. will 28-30. will/be going to 38-39. can/could/be able to - Reading
Unit 12: How have you been? - Greetings, asking about others - Gossiping, reacting - Ending a conversation Composition (4 hrs)	3.4-3.7 Present perfect Past perfect Past continuous	18.22. Present perfect Past perfect Past continuous - Reading
Unit 13: What did the person look like? - Asking about people's age & appearance - Describing people, hair, eyes, cloting, things - Composition (4 hrs)	2.7 Pres. cont. with always 2.8 Simple pres. - dramatic use 18.5-18.6 Possessive in place & time 18.10-18.16 Uncountable nouns, pair nouns, plural nouns, measurement, apposition 20.8-20.14 Reflexive/emphatic pron. s, demon. s, one/ ones, some/any	107. Countable/uncountable nouns, singular/plural forms 114-117. Reflexive/emphatic pronouns, demon.s, one/ones, some/any

Unit 14: Have you ever...? - Past experiences, comparing - Asking for descr./opinion Composition (4 hrs)	20.15.-20.23 Quantifiers: every, each, any; everyone, someone; a lot, may/much, more/most, etc. 14.1-14.8 Infinitive	118.121. Quantifiers 84-85. Infinitives - Reading
Unit 15: Variations - Review - LISTENING EXAM 2 hrs ORAL EXAM (3 hrs)	15.1. the -ing form 16.1-16.2. Infinitive/-ing form 17.5. -ing form after go 23.1-13.9. Comparison of adj.s	91. the -ing form 97. Infinitive x -ing after verbs 99. Infin. x -ing: special cases 132-134. Comparison of adjectives GRAMMAR/WRITING EXAM - 2 hrs.
Book II Unit 1: Haven't we met before? - Introductions - Identifying someone - Talking about occupations - Composition (4 hrs)	5.1-5.2. be, have, do 5.4-5.7. uses have 24.1-24.10. Adverbs 37.1-37.3. Word-building 37.8. Prefixes	35. Auxiliaries: be, have, do 37. have 135-138. Adverbs READING
Unit 2: Would you mind telling me? - Confirming information - Questions, asking for clarification, further inf. - Composition (4 hrs)	19.2-19.10. a/an, the, some,etc. 28.1-28.6. Emphatic forms	109-111. a/an, the, some 151-153. Emphatic forms READING
Unit 3: Isn't she the one who...? - Asking about someone - Identifying someone - Composition	22.1-22.9. Relative pronouns	126-129. Relative pronouns and READING

Unit 4: Where exactly is it? - Asking where things are located - Locating & identifying places - Asking opening/closing times - Composition (4 hrs)	10.1-10.2. Passive voice 10.7-10.8. have something done (20.9) 25.3-25.12. Prepositions: time, etc.	61.62. Passive and <u>by</u> 68. have something done 142-143. Prepositions: time, etc. READING
Unit 5: Variations LISTENING EXAM 2 hrs. ORAL EXAM (3 hrs.)	1.1-1.6. Word order 36.2; 36.4; 36.5. Quantities	1 Word order GRAMMAR/WRITING EXAM — 2 hrs.

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Eastwood, John & Ronald Mackin. A Basic English Grammar. Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1982.

Eastwood, John. A Basic English Grammar Exercises. Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1984.

SUPLEMENTAR

Baker, Ann. Ship or Sheep? An Intermediate Pronunciation Course. Cambridge: Cambridge Univ. Press, 1981.

MacDowell, John et al. Basic Information. London: Edward Arnold, 1984.

APPENDIX VIII

PROGRAMA - INGLÊS III - LLE 1105 - 6 créditos - 90 horas

(1986 - 2º semestre)

Person to Person II	A Basic English Grammar	B.E.G. Exercises
Unit 1: Haven't we met before? - Reintroducing yourself - Identifying someone - Introducing someone - Talking about occupations (3 hrs)	9.1 Additions to statements 9.2 so & not after verb 9.3 Leaving out words 9.4 Leaving out words 3.4 Present perfect	56 Additions to statements 57 so & not after verb 58 Leaving out words 59 Replacing & leaving out words 18 Present perfect READING
Unit 2: Would you mind telling me? - Confirming information - Asking questions formally - Asking for clarif./inf. (2 hrs)	3.5 Pres. perf./past 3.6 Past perfect 22.1 Relative pron.s/clauses 22.2 who, which	19 Pres. perf./simple past 20 Pres. perf./simple past 21 Past perfect 126 who, which
Unit 3: Isn't she the one who? - Asking who someone is - Asking about someone - Identifying someone (2 hrs)	22.3-22.12 Relative clauses	127 Relative clauses 128 Relative clauses w/out pron. 129 Relative clauses 130 Relative clauses w/out pron. 131 Non-defining rel. clauses
Unit 4: Where exactly is it? - Asking where things are located - Locating places - Opening/closing times (3 hrs)	10.7 Passive with get 10.8 have/get something done (20.9) 11.1 if - clauses types 1 & 2	68 have something done 69 if - clause type 1 70 if - clause type 2 71 if - clauses types 1 & 2 READING

Unit / Functions	Grammar ref.	Page	Grammar
Unit 6: You'd better get some rest			
– Asking what the matter is	23.1-23.9 Comparison of adjectives	132	Comparison of adjectives
– Giving tentative advice	14.5-14.8 Verb + obj. + inf.	133	Comparison of adjectives
– Giving advice	14.11 Question word + infin.	134	Comparatives with and/the
– Advising not to do something	7.1 Introd. to modals	85	Verb + object + infinitive
(4 hrs)	7.6 ought to, should	86	Question word + infinitive
	7.7 may, might	44	ought to, might
Unit 7: Do I need to ...?			
– Asking the procedure	7.2 can, could, be able to	38	can, could, be able to
– Asking the requirements	7.3 can, may, be allowed to	39	can, could, be able to
– Asking if sth. is permited	7.4 must, have (got) to,	40	be allowed to & have to
or recommended	needn't, mustn't	41	be allowed to & have to
– Asking about regulations	7.5 needn't, mustn't	42	must & mustn't
(3.5 hrs)		43	must, needn't, mustn't
			READING
Unit 8: What do you think.			
– Asking and giving opinions	15.1 The -ing form	91	The -ing form
– Agreeing with an opinion	15.2 Preposition + -ing	92	Prep./conj. + -ing
– Giving negative opinion	15.3 Verb + -ing	93	Verb + -ing
– Disagreeing	15.4 Do + -ing	97	Verb + infinitive/-ing
– Qualifying a statement	16.1 Verb + infin./-ing	98	see/hear + infin./-ing
(3.5 hrs)	16.2 Verb + infin./-ing	99	Special cases
	16.3 Verbs of percep. + -ing		
Unit 9: What did he do next?			
– Asking if someone has done sth.	3.7 Past continuous	22	Past continuous
– Habitual actions in past	3.8 Pres. perfect contin.	23	Pres. perfect contin.
– Past events (in seq./concur.)	3.9 Pr. perf. x pr. perf.cont.	24	Talking about past
– Descr. what someone has been	3.10 Past perf. contin.	25	Talking about past
doing	3.11 used to	26	Talking about past
(3.5 hrs)			READING

132

Unit / Objectives				
Unit 11: What are you going to do? - Asking about future plans - Describing changes in plans - Explaining possibilities (3.5 hrs)	4.7 4.8 4.9 4.10 7.9 7.10 7.11 7.12	will be + -ing be to be about to will have + -ed would will, must, can't will, shall would, should	32 33 34 45 46 47	Pres. cont. (future meaning) be to will, will be + -ing, will have + -ed Talking about future would could, must, can't Modal verbs
Unit 12: Did you hear ...? - Responding to news - How sth. probably occurred - What someone should have done - Suggesting course of action (3 hrs)	7.13 7.14 7.15 7.16 11.1 11.2	dare modal + be + -ing modal + have + -ed be able to, be allowed to, have (got) to if - clauses type 3 if - clauses: other types	48 49 50 72 73 74 READING	Modal + be + -ing Modal + have + -ed Modal verbs if - clause type 3 if - clauses types 1-3 if + present + present
Unit 13: What's this for? - Describing what objects are used for, what things are made of - How to do things (4 hrs)	10.1-10.6 10.9	Passive voice it + passive + clause	60-67	Passive voice
Unit 14: What did they say? - Asking & reporting what someone said	12.1-12.7	Reported speech	75-81 READING	Reported speech

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RICHARDS, Jack et al. _Person to Person II_. New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1985.

EASTWOOD, John et al. _A Basic English Grammar_. Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1982.

EASTWOOD, John et al. _A Basic English Gram. Exercises_. Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1984.

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BAKER, Ann. _Ship or Sheep?: An Intermediate Pronun. Course_. Cambridge: Cambridge Univ. Press, 1981.

MAcDOWELL, John et al. _Basic Information_. London: Edward Arnold, 1984.

APPENDIX   IX

PLANO DE ENSINO - 1986/2

1. Disciplina: LLE 1120 - T.479 - Inglês IV - Expressão e Com-
    preensão Oral

2. Objetivo Terminal: Ao final das 45 horas-aula o aluno deverá
   ser capaz de se comunicar oralmente em inglês com um   nível
   de fluência intermediário.

3. Objetivos Específicos: O aluno deverá ser capaz de:
    a) Expressar suas próprias idéias, opiniões, e valores   em
       inglês.
    b) Narrar fatos passados em inglês.
    c) Descrever lugares e situações em inglês.
    d) Dominar as estruturas básicas mínimas de língua inglesa.
    e) Distinguir as "stressed words" em discursos orais em in-
       glês.
    f) Distinguir as formas reduzidas em discursos orais em in-
       glês.
    g) Fazer anotações dirigidas de palestras orais em inglês.

4. Avaliação da Aprendizagem:
    a) Provas de expressão oral e gramática: 15.09/20.10/24.11
    b) Provas de compreensão oral: 12.09/24.10/29.11
    c) Prova final: 01.12
    d) O aluno receberá um conceito por sua participação nas au-
       las.

5. Conteúdo:
    a) Do livro Interactions II - A Communicative Grammar:
    Unidade 1 - Education and Student Life - Review of Basic Verb
                Tenses
    Unidade 2 - City Life - Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and
                Articles
    Unidade 3 - Business and Money - Modal Auxiliares and Related
                Structures
    Unidade 4 - Jobs and Professions - The Present Perfect Tense
                (2); Would, Used to, Was/Were Going To; The Past
                Perfect Tense
    Unidade 5 - Lifestyles - Phrasal Verbs and Related Structures
    Unidade 6 - Travel and Transportation - Coordinating
                Conjunctions; Clauses of Time, Condition, Reason,
                Contrast, and Purpose; The Future Perfect Tense.

    b) Do livro Interactions II - A Listening/Speaking Book:
                Unidades 1 a 6.
6. Bibliografia: Interactions II - A Communicative Grammar
                 Interactions II - A Listening/Speaking Book

Tânea M. Rondon Quintanilha

APPENDIX   X

UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA CATARINA

CENTRO DE COMUNICAÇÃO E EXPRESSÃO

DEPARTAMENTO DE LÍNGUA E LITERATURA ESTRANGEIRAS

PROGRAMA DE LLE 1121 - INGLÊS V

06 créditos - 90 aulas

1986/2

I - OBJETIVOS

Através de textos, gravuras, diálogos, exposições e exercícios gramaticais, e aluno terá oportunidade de revisar o conhecimento adquirido anteriormente e ampliá-lo a um nível intermediário avançado.

II - MATERIAL

1. Livro Kernel Lessons Plus - A post-intermediate course
        Robert O'Neill - Eurocentre - Longman 1972.

2. Textos extras para leitura, compreensão escrita e oral   e conversação.

III - CONTEÚDO

1. Unit 7 - Disaster

    Past continuous
    Which
    What as subject or object
    Simple past/present perfect
    Revision of irregular verbs

2. Unit 8 - Letter to an advice column
    Future conditional
    Unreal present
    Unless
    Whenever/wherever/whatever
    Preposition plus ING
    Further revision of irregular verbs

3. Unit 9
    Future continuous form
    Future perfect forms
    Each other/themselves
    Seem, appear, happen with 3 forms of the infinitive

4. Unit 10 - Crime and Punishment
    Simple and continuous forms of the past perfect
    Unreal past

Continuous conditional forms
Future in the past
Suggest/had better
Look, smell, seem, sound, feel plus adjective

5. Unit 11 - The world of advertising
   Want/told/beg plus object plus infinitive
   Would you like me ...
   In spite of/because of
   It's supposed to ...
   Revision of what - clauses as subjects or objects

6. Unit 12 - Work and money
   Remember/stop/enjoy doing (revision)
   Gerund forms of can and must
   Extended gerund subject clauses
   Phrasal verbs with separable particles

7. Unit 13 - Women's liberation
   Wish plus would, were, etc.
   Would rather ... than
   Phrasal verbs with two particles

IV - ATIVIDADES DE ENSINO

1. Leitura de textos e diálogos com exercícios de compreensão, do tipo "pergunte e responda".
2. Desenvolvimento, oral e escrito, das idéias introduzidas pelos textos e diálogos, através de discussões, argumentação, etc.
3. Exercícios de transferência, do assunto apresentado nos exercícios, para o contexto local e individual do aluno.
4. Explicações gramaticais, seguidas por exercícios.
5. Exercícios de compreensão oral, baseados em gravações faladas em linguagem rápida e natural.
6. Resumo e revisão dos assuntos apresentados em cada unidade, com exercícios e sugestões para composições.

V - AVALIAÇÃO

A avaliação é baseada principalmente em testes orais e escritos. Mas também leva em consideração os exercícios feitos em casa e em sala, bem como a assiduidade e pontualidade.

APPENDIX XIa

UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA CATARINA

CENTRO DE COMUNICAÇÃO E EXPRESSÃO

DEPARTAMENTO DE LÍNGUA E LITERATURA ESTRANGEIRAS

PROGRAMA DA DISCIPLINA LLE 1122 - INGLÊS VI

O trabalho será dividido em 6 partes, a saber:

1. Fonologia
2. Gramática
3. Compreensão Oral
4. Expressão Oral
5. Leitura
6. Expressão Escrita,

e os programas de cada parte, como abaixo:

1.1 Introdução: padrões de pronúncia; o fonema; definição e critérios para classificação; o alofone; transcrição fonêmica e fonética.

1.2 Os fonemas e variantes alofônicas: vogais; consoantes, ditongos; semivogais.

1.3 Elisão: na palavra e no discurso.

1.4 Assimilação e aglutinação.

2.1 A frase nominal: estrutura e classe de substantivos.

2.2 Determinantes: centrais: pré e pós-determinantes; uso do artigo.

2.3 Pré-modificadores: adjetivos; substantivos; particípios;genitivo.

2.4 Pós-modificadores: adjuntos adnominais e adverbiais.

3.1 Introdução: habilidades envolvidas na compreensão oral.

3.2 Conferência com exercícios de compreensão.

3.3 Diálogos reais, com interferência de ruídos externos.

3.4 Entrevistas

4.1 Introdução: atividades a serem desenvolvidas.

4.2 Relatórios orais

4.3 Situações simuladas: diálogos preparados e espontâneos.

4.4   Debate: solução de problemas; assuntos controvertidos.

5.1   O parágrafo: teoria-escolha e definição de tópicos, pará-
      grafos bem e mal estruturados, coesão e clareza.
5.2   Como tomar anotações: teoria.
5.3   Inferência e predição: leitura de gráficos e tabelas.
5.4   Análise de textos de acordo com as funções textuais de:des-
      crever, narrar, definir, resumir, relatar, instruir, exem-
      plificar, etc...

6.1   Organização de idéias em parágrafos: seleção de tópicos e
      definição de conteúdos.
6.2   Composição de parágrafos claros, coesos e precisos.
6.3   Transferir informações de um texto para a forma de notas.
6.4   Composição de textos descritivos, narrativos, argumentativos,
      resumos a nível intermediário.

APPENDIX   XIb

UFSC - DLLE - ENGLISH - 6a. FASE - RWK

GRAMMAR I: THE NOUN PHRASE

1.0   THE BASIC NP
1.1   Structure   (CGE: 651-653; UGE: 13.1, 13.2)
1.2   Noun classes   (CGE: 44-56;   UGE: 4.2-4.4)

2.0   DETERMINERS
2.1   Central Determiners   (CGE: 551-557; UGE: 4.5)
2.2   Predeterminers   (CGE: 558-562, 766-7; UGE: 4.6-4.9)
2.3   Postdeterminers   (CGE: 563-567; UGE: 4.10-4.15)
2.4   Article Use   (CGE: 69-78, 492-496, 627-8;
                                  UGE: 4.16-4.30)

3.0   PREMODIFIERS
3.1   Adjectives   (CGE: 732; UGE: 13.28)
3.2   Nouns   (CGE: 734, 737; UGE: 13.34, 13.35)
3.3   Participles   (CGE: 733; UGE: 13.29-13.32)
3.4   Compounds   (CGE: 735, 736; UGE: 13.27)
3.5   Premodification Sequence (CGE: 738; UGE: 13.40, 13.41)

4.0   POSTMODIFIERS
4.1   Relative clauses   (CGE:783-796; UGE: 13.8, 13.9, 13.11,
                                  13.12)
4.2   Prepositional Phrases   (CGE: 720; UGE: 13.19-13.22)
4.3   Non-finite clauses   (CGE: 721-724; UGE: 13.14-13.17)
4.4   Appositive clauses   (CGE: 725-727; UGE: 13.18)
4.5   Clauses of time, place, manner and reason (CGE: 728)
4.6   Adverbs   (CGE: 729; UGE: 13.24, 5.28)
4.7   Adjectives   (CGE: 730, 459; UGE: 13.24, 5.4,5.5)

REFERENCE BOOKS

LEECH, Geoffrey & SVARTVIK, Jan. 1975. A Communicative Grammar
   of English. London, Longman. (CGE)
QUIRK, Randolph & GREENBAUM, Sidney, 1973. A University Grammar
   of English. London, Longman. (UGE)

APPENDIX XII

UFSC - DLLE - ENGLISH - 7a. FASE - RWK

GRAMMAR II: THE SENTENCE: SIMPLE AND COMPLEX

1.0 The Clause

1.1 Clause Elements: CGE: 506; UGE: 7.2

1.2 Basic Clause Types: CGE 508; 835-872; UGE: 7.2-7.4

2.0 Coordination

2.1 Coordinators and Relations of Meaning: CGE: 375-385; UGE:
    9.9, 9.16-9.18.

2.2 Ellipsis in 2nd and 1st Clauses: CGE: 406, 542; UGE: 9.13,
    9.21-9.30.

2.3 Correlative Coordination: CGE: 547; UGE: 9.19-9.20.

3.0 Subordination: CGE: 375-377; UGE: 11.1.

3.1 Structural Classification of Dependent Clauses: CGE: 513-
    516; UGE: 11.2-11.5.

3.2 Functional Classification of Dependent Clauses: CGE: 517;
    UGE: 11.10-11.11.

3.3 Nominal Clauses: CGE: 537-650; UGE: 11.13-11.19.

3.4 Adverbial Clauses: CGE: 201-216; UGE: 11.20-11.36.

3.5 Comment Clauses: CGE: 522; UGE: 11.45-11.46.

REFERENCE BOOKS

(CGE) LEECH, G. & SVARTVIK, J. 1975. A communicative Grammar
    of English. London, Longman.

(UGE) QUIRK, R. & GREENBAUM, S. 1973. A University Grammar of
    English. London, Longman.

APPENDIX XIII

UFSC - DLLE - ENGLISH - 8a. FASE - RWK

GRAMMAR III: THEMATIC STRUCTURE

1.0 UNMARKED THEME

1.1 The principles of END-FOCUS and END-WEIGHT (CGE: 422-24; UGE: 14.10)

1.2 Theme/topic & Rheme/comment (CGE: 425; UGE: 14.10)

1.3 Theme in: declarative, interrog., imp. (CGE: -; UGE: 14.10)

1.4 The passive (CGE: 447; UGE: 14.8)

2.0 MARKED THEME

2.1 Thematic fronting of C_s, C_o, O_d, A, $C_{prep.}$, Predication (CGE: 426-28; UGE: 14.11).

2.2 Thematic fronting of $O/O_{prep.}$ of nominal clauses (CGE: 588f; UGE: 14.18).

2.3 Inversion of: S/V and S/OP (CGE: 430-32, 634f; UGE: 14.12f).

2.4 Inversion in subordinate clauses (CFE: 287; UGE: 14.14).

3.0 THE CLEFT SENTENCE

3.1 Structure (CGE: 434f, 518; UGE: 14.15f)

3.2 Types (CGE: 435-38; UGE: 14.15-17)

3.3 Focus on: S, O_d, A_{time}, A_{place} (CGE: 434-36; UGE: 14.15)

3.4 Focus on: O_i, C_o, C_s, V (CGE: 437; UGE: 14.15, 14.17)

4.0 POSTPONEMENT

4.1 Extraposition of clausal S (CGE: 439, 584; UGE: 14.25)

4.2 Extraposition of clausal O (CGE: 441; UGE: 14.27)

4.3 Postponement of parts of sentence elements (CGE: 443-46; UGE: 14.28-32).

4.4 Existential THERE (CGE: 590-94; UGE: 14.19-22).

REFERENCE BOOKS

LEECH, Geoffrey & SVARTVIK, Jan. 1975. A Communicative Grammar of English. London, Longman. (CGE)

QUIRK, Randolph & GREENBAUM, Sidney. 1973. A University Grammar of English. London, Longman. (UGE)