A STUDY IN CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

AND ERROR ANALYSIS: ARTICLE USAGE

IN ENGLISH AND PORTUGUESE

UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA CATARINA Departamento de Lingua e Literatura Estrangeiras

A STUDY IN CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS
AND ERROR ANALYSIS: ARTICLE
USAGE IN ENGLISH AND PORTUGUESE

Tese submetida à Universidade

Federal de Santa Catarina para
a obtenção do grau de MESTRE

EM LETRAS - opção Inglês e

Literatura Correspondente, por:

MARIA CARMELIA MACHADO FILHA

Outubro - 1977.

ESTA TESE FOI JULGADA ADEQUADA PARA A OBTENÇÃO DO GRAU DE
-- MESTRE EM LETRAS --

OPÇÃO INGLÊS E LITERATURA CORRESPONDENTE E APROVADA EM SUA FORMA FINAL PELO PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO

Profal Dra. Rosa Weingold Konder

- Orientadora -

Profa. Carmem Rosa Caldas Pereira de Melo - Ml

- Coordenadora -

Apresentada perante a
Banca Examinadora composta dos professores:

Rosa Weingold Knder

Solange de Azambija bira

À minha Família, em especial aos Meus Pais.

À Andrietta Lenard.

AGRADECIMENTOS

À minha Universidade, a UFRN, pela oportunidade e pelo apoio constante. À integradoria e aos Professores do programa de Pós+Graduação em Letras da UFSC, em especial à Profa. Dra. Doloris Ruth Simões de Almeida e ao Prof. Hilário Bohn.

À Profa. Dra. Rosa Weingold Konder, dedicada e proficiente orientadora.

Ao Prof. Luiz Carlos Schmidt, chefe do Laboratório de Línguas da FURB onde o trabalho de campo foi realizado.

Ao Prof. Tom E. Cowin meu primeiro orientador.

A todos aqueles que direta ou indiretamente contribuiram para que eu pudesse realizar este trabalho.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction	
1.1. Statement of purpose]
1.2. Nature of the problem]
1.3. Hypathesis	2
1.4. Organization	
1.5. Limitations of the study	(
Chapter I	
1. Review of the literature	
1.1. Contrastive Analysis	E 0.00-00-0
l.2. Error Analysis	14
1.3. Comments	_ 23
Notes	27
Chapter II	
2. Article usage	_ 28
2.1. Article usage in English	29
2.1.1. Classification of nouns	. 30
2.1.2. Reference and article usage	. 32
Table 2:1	40
2.2. Article usage in Portuguese	_ 43
2.2.1. Classification of nouns	43
2.2.2. Reference and article usage	43
Table 2:2	49
2.3. Co-occurrence restrictions	. 51
Table 2:3	. 51
Note	. 53
Chapter III	
3. The field work	_ 54

3.1. Statistical results	60
3.2. Results and comments	63
3.2.1. Quantitative analysis	64
Table S 1	64
Table S 2	65
Table S 3	66
Table S 4	67
Table S 5	67
Table S 6	68
Table S 7	69
Table D 8	 70
Table D 9	71
Table D 10	72
Table D 11	73
Table SD 12	74
Table SD 13	75
Table SD 14	76
3.2.2. Quamitative analysis	77
3.4. Conclusions	92
Conclusions	93
Bibliography	94
Appendix I	99
Appendix II	107
Appendix III	
Appendix IV	112

RESUMO

Esta dissertação é uma aplicação da Análise Contrastiva e da Análise de Erro ao estudo de erros feitos por alunos no uso dos Artigos em Inglês.

A hipótese levantada foi que somente uma combinação das duas análises poderia, de maneira mais eficaz, revelar as causas dos erros.

A análise qualitativa dos erros cometidos em um teste aplicado a um grupo de estudantes revelou que quando há diferenças de uso entre Inglês e Português a maior parte dos erros são causados por interferência da língua materna, e quando havendo semelhança os erros são em sua maioria provenientes de generalização.

Assim, a hipótese foi plenamente confirmada.

ABSTRACT

The present dissertation is an application of Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis to the study of learners' errors in Article usage in English.

The hypothesis was that only the combination of Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis could account for learners' errors effectively. The qualitative analysis of the errors made in a test given to a group of students has revealed that when there are differences in article usage between English and Portuguese, most of the errors derive from native language interference, whereas when article usage is similar, the errors are for the most part due to overgeneralization, thus fully confirming the hypothesis.

INTRODUCTION

1.1. STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

It is the purpose of this dissertation to explore the possibility of applying Contrastive Analysis together with Error Analysis to the study of errors made in English by Portuguese-speaking students. The topic that has been chosen to illustrate the approach is Article Usage.

1.2. NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

Article usage is more complex than it appears to be. The study of the articles involves in the first place other elements of the Noun Phrase, in particular the head. Which article is to be used also depends on reference, whether generic, specific, etc. Thus, uppermost stand the complex relationships between class of nouns and type of reference. Other factors contribute to determine the correct use of articles, such as the function of the Noun Fhrase in the clause and the semantic content of the lexical items.

Errors have to be analysed in the light of all these conditioning factors.

1.3. HYPOTHESIS

The hypothesis formulated here is that Contrastive Analysis is capable of predicting areas of difficulties in foreign language learning but it does not account for all the interfering problems. A combination of Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis is the most fruitful approach in the explanation of errors.

This general hypothesis has been divided into two parts:

- (1) If Contrastive Analysis predicts all the learner's difficulties, the results obtained from learners' output should reflect:
 - (a) A high percentage of correct answers where there is similarity between the two languages.
 - (b) A low percentage of correct answers where there is difference between the two languages.
- (2) Only through Error Analysis is it possible to explain errors not foreseen by Contrastive Analysis such as:
 - (a) Overgeneralization of the target language rules.
 - (b) Misapplication of the target language rules.
 - (c) Nonce-mistakes.

1.4. ORGANIZATION

In Chapter I the existing theories of both types of analysis will be reviewed. Chapter II will describe article usage in the two languages in question. Chapter III will present the description of the procedure used in the investigation and the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the errors made by a group of learners. It will also summarize the findings of this study.

Appendix I contains the test as applied; Appendix II the final results of the test; Appendix III - Item Analysis and Appendix IV the scores on the even and odd items.

Notation used:

- CA Contrastive Analysis
- EA Error Analysis
- NL Native language
- TL target language
- IL Interlanguage
 - Ungrammatical sentence
- (2)- Number of page

Other abbreviations are explained in the body of the paper

1.5. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Under the present analysis of errors in article usage we restrict ourselves to what the students are expected to have learnt at the time the test is applied.

CHAPTER I

1. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

1.1. CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

Contrastive Analysis (CA) is a comparison of the native language (NL) with the target language (TL) made with the purpose of determining similarities and differences between the two. Contrastive Analysis has had various other designations such as "comparative linguistics", "contrastive grammar", "differential description". No matter what terminology is used, it is basically "... the juxtaposing of accounts of two languages and the extraction of certain observation of difficulty" (HAMP 1968, 139).

In a broad sense, the contrastive method is not a novelty. In the long range of foreign language teaching, teachers have always referred to the differences between the two languages in question. Although they may not use one of the above labels or contrast the two language formally and systematically, some way or other, and perhaps intuitively, they perform contrastive analysis. It was not until the publication of <u>Linguistics Across Cultures</u> by LADO, in 1957, that the first fundamental principles for CA were formulated. The theory had its hey-day then, but has been under attack in recenty years. SELINKER (1971, 1)

says that in spite of a "serious crisis of confidence" CA is still thriving as shown by the number of conferences held in recent years 1.

What are the reasons for the great CA controversy? They can probably be found in the different pedagogical applications attributed to CA. There is no doubt that CA provides insight into learning problems and a means of identifying the errors caused by mother tongue interference. However, its predictive value has been questioned by several linguists and course planners:

For a long time it was believed that errors in foreign language learning were caused exclusively by mother tongue interference. This has been contested alongside the development of research into CA. It has been concluded that errors are not caused by language transfer only but that they may also stem from the internal structures of each language.

WARDAUGH (1970) ² distinguishes two version of CA: "a strong version" and "a weak version" (WARDAUGH 1970,12). He refutes the former as "unrealistic and impractical" but cautiously suggests that the latter has "certain possibilities for usefulness" (12). The strong version maintains that it is possible to compare the system of the NL - grammar, phonology and syntax - with the system of the TL in order to predict the difficulties the learners will encounter and thus enable the text-book writer and teachers to construct more efficient teaching materials.

In the preface to his book, LADO (1957, 2) says,

The plan of the book rests on the assumption that we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning, and those that will not cause difficulty, by comparing systematically the language and culture to be learned with the native language and culture of the students.

In support of his proposition, LADO quotes FRIES (1945,9),

The most efficient materials are those based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the teacher.

The strong version has found acceptance in a large group of linguists. POLITZER and STAUBACH (1961, 1) side with LADO,

By comparing the linguistic analysis of the native language of the learner... with that of the language to be studied ... we highlight the major difficulties encountered by the learner. This comparison enables us to construct teaching and testing materials quite unsystematically and to give due emphasis to the points of real difficulty.

FERGUSON in the introduction to the contrastive structure series by STOCKWELL et al (1965) writes,

of the two languages offers an excellent basis for the preparation of instructional materials, the planning of courses and the development of actual classroom techniques.

In 1968, at the Georgetown Conference on Contrastive Linguistics and Its Application, FERGUSON presented a paper in which he defended the CA hypothesis arguing that CA is basic to all linguistics since only by this approach can a general theory of language be constructed. He also says in the paper that CA is "fundamental to all linguists and has important implications for language teaching and other 'applied' problems (102).

RIVERS (1968) expresses her opinion in favour of the use of "strong" CA in the preparation of language teaching materials. She says that the student's attention should be drawn to the differences so that he

... may practice with awareness and concentration and monitor his own production with watch-fulness until he finds himself producing the target language forms with ease and accuracy (153).

Several other linguists who took part in the 1968 Georgetown conference were in favour of the use of CA in the preparation of teaching material. They believed that materials based on a contrastive analysis of the languagesi in question facilitate the teacher's work at the same time as they accelerate learning.

The weak version maes fewer demands on contrastive theory. It does not aim at the prediction of difficulties or facilities but rather makes use of linguistics to account for observed difficulties in second language learning. WARDAUGH (1970) points out that CA, in its strong version "makes demand of linguistic theory, and therefore, of linguists, that they are in no position to meet (13). He notes that in recent years there have appeared two new approaches, both resulting from the current enthusiasm for generative theory. One of these approaches, he says, as reflected in the criticism by RITCHIE and WOLFE (1967), totally dismisses the CA hypothesis. The other

... attempts to use generative transformational theory to provide some of the necessary over-riding theory to meet either the demands of predicting in the strong version or of explanation in the weak version (15).

The reasons for the total rejection of the CA hypothesis by the advocators of the generative theory are summarized by WARDAUGH. According to him, all natural language have a great deal in common, so that anybody who has learnt one language already knows a great deal about the other language he is going to learn. Besides, the deep structures of both languages are very much alike, so that the differences between the two languages are in fact superficial. However, to learn a second language, one must learn the precise way in which that second language relates the deep structure to its surface structure and their phonetic representations. Since this way

is unique for each language, CA can be of little or no help at all in the learning task:

He goes on to say that a large number of teachers do not accept such reasons for the rejection of CA because their experience tells them that CA helps to pinpoint phonological—NL interference. They are also aware that some parts of the foreign language are easier to learn than others but many admit that they do not know how learners should try to overcome the various difficulties that they are observed to have.

Several other authors have claimed that CA in its strong version does not have any applicability. Among them we find CATFORD (1968), HAMP (1968), OLLER (1971) and GRADMAN (1970 and 1971).

CATFORD states that the most important role of CA is explanatory rather than predictive. Those problems which are known by text-book writers or teachers can be explained by CA, the others are better revealed by error analysis. Those interested in the task cannot use CA until they know the areas of difficulty. He goes on to say that

... Contrastive Analysis can only be 'partial'. That is to say, in place of juxtaposing 'total' grammatical or lexical descriptions of two languages and then scanning them for areas of differences, one can be selective and perform contrastive analysis only for those parts of the grammar which present greatest difficulty to learners (163).

However, he believes that for teachers knowledge of CA is highly important. It enables them to understand the problems

A STATE OF

which arise in clase and also to prepare additional material which will help learners to overcome their major problems.

According to HAMP, on developing a contrastive analysis, several points must be considered, such as what linguistic theory the author is adopting, what he wants to prove, which languages he is comparing. Such work is very intricate and demands more than a simple parallel between two language (The) points out that the investigator cannot predict systems. with certainty what errors will be made and when they will be made. To achieve better teaching, it is more important to make an inventory of the mistakes which are made and then "proceed to a body of increasingly predictive statements" (146). Such a body would constitute a contrastive study of the learning difficulties found in that specific group of students. In other words, a contrastive analysis of two languages in only possible if the study proceeds from the real occurrence of errors to the explanation of the causes. The reverse is not valid.

OLLER states that "the applicability of CA as a device for predicting points of difficulty and some of the errors that learners will make has been overwhelmingly supported" (79), but that the use made by those in favour of the strong version has not proved to be successful in teaching. For him, too, to teach languages only based on contrasts is "to misunderstand the very nature of the language teacher's task" (82) as CA can predict some of the problems the learner will have but not all. He believes in the use of CA as a promising basis for research but regrets the fact that so many text-book writers and applied

linguists have claimed that CA is the best basis for programme design and classroom procedures.

GRADMAN probably makes the harshest criticism of the use of CA in foreign language teaching. He criticizes the theory and the controversy among linguists who are preoccupied with explaining the usefulness of the theory.

He says that there have been inadequate application and misapplications of the hypothesis. Its <u>a priori</u> approach "... makes not only unsupported claims but also unsupportable claims, at least for the present" (131), that is, like the other linguists, he condemns CA for making unnecessary predictions about facilitations or difficulties which are not sustained because they demand an observation of their factual occurrences,

... the major weakeness of methodologists who insist upon contrastive teaching, or perhaps better, contrastively based materials, is their failure to recognize not only that the claims based on the hypothesis are not supported by actual facts, but also that at very significant levels the hypothesis cannot be implemented. In other words, it is my contention that there has been an attempt to find far reaching implications for the contrastive analysis, an attempt made at application, long before the hypothesis has been seriously and critically examined (73).

He considers CA a somewhat unimportant component of a theory of language teaching, a subcomponent of error analysis.

The strong version of the CA here presented states that

difficulties and facilities can be predicted if a comparison of two languages is made. The weak version claims that the linguist and/or investigator can predict difficulties by using his linguistic knowledge to analyse attested interference. However, none of them say how it can be applied to real teaching situations. The major criticism made of the CA hypothesis is that it lacks reliable observation. As pointed out by JACKSON (1971), of the numerous contrastive analysis only a few have been tested in some way. Even in those cases, the tests are unintentionally biased in favour of the analysis; "they were designed specifically to catch the errors the analyses predicted and no other error" (202).

Stressing the need for empirical verification of CA,JACKSON suggests two types of verification, primary and secondary. Primary verification is concerned with the objective replicability of the methods and procedures used in making the analysis, and secondary verification with the extent to which CA predictions match the learners' errors. He calls attention to the fact that fewer contrastive studies are oriented towards primary verification than towards secondary verification although it is by and large understood that the largest group of errors are due to conflicts between the mother tongue and the target language, and that these errors can be accounted for on the basis of CA.

1.2. ERROR ANALYSIS

The speech and writing of a foreign language learner long before they approximate to those of a native speaker disply features which do not exist in the target language (TL) and which are unacceptable to the native speaker. These have been variously referred to as "errors", "mistakes", "deviations", "distortions" or "points of difficulty" (STREVENS 1969,1), but the term "errors" is the most commonly used.

Error Analysis (EA) is not a new approach in the observation of language learning. Errors provide the most fruitful data for the teacher to measure the extent of success or failure in both learning and teaching, and they enable him to adjust his teaching accordingly. The collection of errors is not a simple task. The mistakes made by a specific group of students must be systematically collected, analysed and categorized, otherwise the collection will be a mere counting of the errors made by the learners.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, when researchers started to collect and analyse errors, they were concerned with the errors made by children learning how to write and speak their mother tongue. In recent years, EA has also come to be regarded as a practical means of determining difficulties in foreign language situations. It has certainly brought significant contribution to foreign language learning. It has provided empirical data to verify and supplement contrastive studies.

Recent findings in language acquisition have put the learners' errors under new perspective and given EA a more important role,

which some specialists (e.g. CORDER) maintain may have far-reaching consequences for theories of language learning and teaching.

CORDER (1967) ³ says that the contribution of linguists to language teaching has been to present a list of contrasts between two languages. This contribution has not impressed teachers very much, since they feel that it neither helps them to solve their teaching problems nor does it equip them for the task of dealing with the learners' difficulties.

In the field of methodology CORDER points out that two schools of thought have arisen regarding learners' errors. One maintains that if we succeed in contriving a perfect teaching method, errors will not be made and their occurrence would therefore be a sign of the inadequacy of the teaching techniques. The other school professes that we live in an imperfect world and consequently errors will occur in spite of all our efforts. He believes that a constructive attitude would be to try to learn as much as we could from errors. This positive attitude towards errors and the repercussions of research in language acquisition have contributed to raise the status of EA, which has come to be considered a useful means for the study of the language learning process and the strategies used by the learner of a foreign language in his discovery of the new language.

Although recognizing that there are differences between mother tongue acquisition and foreign language learning, CORDER says that at least some of the strategies are similar. This proposal does not imply that the process of learning is the same in both cases.

Considering errors made by learners, CORDER arrives at the

conclusion that since we bannot say that a two-year-old child learning his language produces wrong or incorrect sentences, likewise we cannot say that a second language learner produces wrong utterances. In the first case the incorrect sentences are evidence of the process of language acquisition, in the second, they represent the system of the language that has been taken in and the errors are themselves systematic.

According to CORDER errors can be "systematic" or "nonsystematic" and they should be clearly distinguished. The errors
which are caused by tiredness, memory lapses, or any other
physical or emotional conditions can be easily corrected by the
learner when attention is called to them, these are non-systematic
or errors of performance. The other kind of error reveals the
learner's underlying knowledge of the language, these are
systematic errors or errors of competence. The author suggests
that it would be more useful to refer to errors of performance
as "mistakes" and to errors of competence as "errors". An
examination of the systematic errors of the learners will enable
teachers or investigators to determine the learner's "transitional
competence" 4.

The learner's errors provide evidence of how he takes the system of the TL language to be, at a particular point in the course. They should not be regarded as "undesirable and avoidable short-comings in the learner's performance" (STREVENS 1969,6), which is in line with CORDER, who maintains that errors are indispensable devices the learner uses to test his knowledge of the language and are significant in three different ways. First, they tell the teacher (s) his teaching objectives have been

achieved, that is, how far the public has progressed and what remains for him to learn. Secondly, they provide the researcher with evidence of how the landwage is learnt, what strategies the student is employing in his discovery of the new language. Thirdly, they are indispensable and play an important role to the learner minself.

of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learner lt is a way the learner has of testing his hypothesis about the nature of the language he is learning (CORDER 1967, 25).

Since hypothesis testing is so important in the learning process, students must be allowed to use such a device to discover by themselves the right form of the sentences. CORDER cites WON HUMBOLT "we cannot really teach languages, we can only crete conditions in which it will develop spontaneously in the mind in its own way" (27). As the teacher can measure what is given but not what is taken in, he must allow the "learner's innate strategies to dictate his practice and determine his syllabus" (27). Teachers must adapt themselves to the learner's process of learning rather than impose upon him what, how and when he ought to learn.

The utterances of a foreign language learner are regarded by CORDER as a sort of dialect. Any spontaneous speech intended by the learner is meaningful; "it is language and has a grammar" (158), it is part of the learner's "idiosyncratic dialect", by which he means that the sentences produced by ane student will not be produced by another student in the same way.

CORDER (1971) defines the term as:

... regular, systematic, meaningful, i.e., it has a grammar, and is in principle describable in terms of a set of rules; some subset of which is a sub+set of the rules of the target language (161).

The learner's dialect is unstable and is not a "langue" since its conventions are not shared by a social group ⁵ and its sentences are not easily interpreted by any native speaker of the TL. He suggests an alternative name for the dialect - transitional dialect - which emphasizes its unsatable nature.

CORDER rejects the use of the terms "erroneous", "deviant",
"ill-formed" ar "ungrammatical" on the grounds that we cannot
call the sentences produced by a child learning his mother tongue
erroneous or deviant. In the same way the sentences formed
by the foreign language learners cannot be said to be erroneous,
deviant, ill-formed or ungrammatical. The sentences produced
are idiosyncratic because the rules of the TL are not yet
known. They are not "ungrammatical" because in terms of the
learner's language they are grammatical. He considers erroneous
only the sentences "which are the result of some failure of
performance" (162).

He proposes three stages to be followed in the description of an idiosyncratic dialect: (1) recognition of idiosyncracy; (2) accounting for a learner's idiosyncratic dialect; and (3) explanation of such an idiosyncratic dialect.

In the first stage, every sentence produced is considered idiosyncratic whether overtly or covertly idiosyncratic. The

overtly idiosyncratic sentences are superficially ill-formed in terms of the rules of the TL but their meaning can be grasped once the teacher knows the learner's mother tongue. The covertly idiosyncratic sentences are apparently correct but incorrect in terms of the context where they are used. They can be understood by member of the TL.

In the second stage, the investigator translates the learner's sentences into the latter's mother tongue in order to describe the idiosyncracy of the sentences produced.

The third stage and ultimate object of Ea is explanation and "... it attempts to account for how and why the learner's idiosyncratic dialect is of the nature it is"(169). Two objectives must be here observed: (a) a theoretical one, which explains what and how a pupil learns when he studies a foreign language and (b) a pedagogical one, "the applied object of enabling the - learner to learn more efficiently by exploiting our knowledge of his dialect" (169). These two objectives are interrelated to a great extent.

CORDER concludes by saying that a more accurate description of the learner's idiosyncratic dialect should enable the teacher to have a better knowledge of what the student has learnt as well as of what he has not and it should allow him to supply the right sort of information for the learner to understand a TL rule.

SELINKER (1972) ⁶ presents EA from a psycholinguistic point of view. The learner, who is the centre of all the studies supplies data which allow the researcher to understand the psycholinguistic structures and processes underlying

"attempted meaningful performance" in a foreign language. This is used "to refer to the situation when an adult ⁷ attempts to express meanings, which he may already have, in a language which he is in the process of learning" (32).

There are students who achieve a native-speaker competence ⁸ when they learn a second language and there are those who do not. The successful students have somehow reactivated their "latent language structure" ⁹. Since they are in a very small number, researchers concentrate their studies on the majority, the ones who fail to achieve native-speaker competence. These students reactivate a different "latent psychological structure" ¹⁰ when they try to produce a sentence in the second language.

He goes on to explain that from the beginning of language learning, the "unsuccessful" student focuses his attention on one rule of the language whose sentences he is trying to utter. The TL is thus restricted to only one norm of one dialect within the interlingual focus of attention of the learner. The sentences he produces are part of his "Interlanguage" (IL). This term, created by SELINKER, is defined as that stage in the learning process during which the student's output differs from the output of "a native speaker of the TL had he attempted to express the same meaning as the learner" (35). It is as if there were two different linguistic systems "based on the observable output which results from a learner's attempted production of a TL norm" (35).

To study the psycholinguistic process which underlies IL behaviour, SELINKER states that three criteria must be observed: first, utterances produced by the learner in his NL; secondly, utterances produced by the same learner in the TL; and thirdly,

"TL utterances produced by native speakers of that TL" (35). These criteria when set up in a framework yield the central processes which exist in the latent psychological structure.

SELINKER has also created the term "fossilization" to refer to the forms in the speech of a speaker of a foreign language which do not coincide with the forms of the TL. Irrespective of the age at which such a language is studied, or the amount of instruction or practice in it, the fossilizable forms appear when the learner tries to communicate in the language which is not his NL. The items, rules and subsystems are fossilized in terms of five central processes: language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of second language learning, strategies of second language communication and overgeneralization of the TL linguistic materials ¹¹. Each of these processes forces fossilizable material upon IL utterances, controlling to a very large extent surface structures.

The combination of these processes produces fossilized IL competence. They do not appear in isolation and many times it is difficult to determine the cause of an error because it can be attributed to more than one process. The most important point about them is that they call our attention to the existing problems of fossilization. It is descriptive rather than explanatory in nature, and the major justification one has for writing about the constructs of fossilization is that,

^{...} descriptive knowledge about
IL which turns out to suggest
predictions verifiable in meaning—
ful performance situations, leads
to a systematic collection of the
relevant data; this task, one which
is impossible without this construct,
is expected to be relevant to

serious theory construction in a psychology of second language learning (43).

In addition, SELINKER stresses the point that to study the fossilizable sentences of a fearner is not an easy task. It demands the knowledge of several psychological problems which involve second language learning. The author says that, at the moment, it is very hard to develop this kind of study since there is not yet a clear definition of the Psychology of Foreign Language Learning. It may be interpreted as the psychology that is concerned with ways of foreign language teaching, or with the mechanism of foreign language learning. It is an open field and there is a lot to be done in it. It is an open field and there is a lot to be done in it. For the time being, he suggests that teachers should encourage the students to produce sentences which will indicate their language development and at the same time minimize the opportunities for fossilization.

DUSKOVÁ (1969) in a study of the errors made by Czech speakers found out that out of 1,007 errors collected, about a quarter (251, i.e., 24, 9 per cent) could not be explained either in CORDER's terms or in SELINKER's, and he has classified these errors as "nonce-mistakes" since they are "unique in character, non-recurrent, and not readily traceable to their sources"(15). He makes a distinction between these mistakes and errors of performance in CORDER's terms with the objective of showing the difference between the two.

1.3. COMMENTS

Careful reflection about the different views demands question inq of issues:

- (1) Is it possible to do CA based on LADO's principles?
- (2) Does HAMP's weak version achieve better results?
- (3) Is it possible to identify the learner's Transtional Competence or his Idiosyncratic Dialect in the terms suggested by CORDER?
- (4) Can an investigator make use of SELINKER's notion of Interlanguage and Fossilization?

I have come to the conclusion that LADO's proposal alone is not adequate to detect the source of the problems that students experience in learning a foreign language. As OLLER says it is not possible to teach languages based only on contrasts. To this statement, one might add GRADMAN's criticism of the procedure. He calls attention to the fact that several courses based on CA give emphasis to the differences which are supposed to be more difficult for the learners than to the similarities, thus leading the students to making wrong generalizations about the language they are learning. He also refers to the difficulties that teachers have to cope with when classes are composed of learners from a variety of native language backgrounds. In such a case, it is impossible for them to develop a CA for each language.

In CATFORD's opinion the theory has its applicability if the teacher—confines himself to those parts which more frequently cause difficulty to the learners (referred to as partial CA).

LADO has also been criticized for leaing out a very important part for the successful use of the theory - the testing part.

The main criticism is that it is not enough to formulated hypotheses about the easy and difficult points, it is also very important to test these hypotheses in order to find out if they are valid. LADO's critics consider that errors in foreign language learning are not only caused by NL interference.

The conclusion is that the hypothesis as presented by LADO does not produce the desired realts, that is, the comparison between the two languages in question does not necessarily bring about successful teaching and learning.

In an attempt to bring new light to the notion of CA, HAMP says that is is valid only if it starts from the errors made and then proceeds to explain them. Since the approach used in CA is a priori and the one claimed by HAMP is a posteriori, which is used in EA, to follow HAMP's orientation is to do EA rather than CA. There is no doubt that the person using one or the other approach is still making use of Contrastive Linguistics.

In his articles, CORDER presents a new approach. It was seen that he makes a distinction between errors of competence and errors of performance. To identify these two types of errors it is necessary for the investigator to know the student well and to accompany his language learning development, otherwise the statements made about the learner's errors cannot be supported. Either close contact and/or longitudinal research can supply the investigator with sufficient data to attribute the error to either type. If neither of the approaches is used, the error can be attributed to either competence or performance but the investigator will not have data to prove what he has

stated.

CORDER also says that every learner possesses an Idiosyncratic Dialect and that the teacher must allow the student the opportunity to test his hypotheses and to correct the sentences he produces by himself. Ideally, these two points are very important. However, from a pedagogical point of view they can cause serious problems in the learning process. The student of a foreign language is hardly ever exposed to the language in the same way the child is when he is acquiring his NL. Insufficient exposure to the new language will inevitably turn wrong hypotheses into deeply rooted mistakes, which are hard, if not impossible, to eradicate. Besides, the amount of language offered is by no means enough to enable the learner to correct himself. He will, therefore, spend most of his learning period producing sentences which can be explained only in terms of his idiosyncratic dialect. Although CORDER's ideas are brilliant, and revolutionary as concerns the explanation of students' errors, under the present conditions of foreign language teaching they cannot be successfully applied. The position here taken is that the teacher, who plays important part in the learning process, must encourage his students to produce sentences, but he must also correct these sentences taking care not to inhibit the student or block the learner's development. The teacher should aim at helping the student to produce sentences which conform to the rules of the TL.

As regards the third issue, the identification of the Transitional Competence or of the Idiosyncratic Dialect of a learner is not an easy task and it cannot be done by means of a

simple collection of errors. It demands longitudinal rearch and/of close contact with the students. The major criticism of CORDER's ideas is that they are too broad and demand longitudinal research.

To identify the learner's Interlanguage, it is also necessary to develop longitudinal research. The investigator must also have an accurate knowledge of Psycholinguistics and of the Psychology of Foreign Language Learning. As the author points out the field is yet unexplored and there are several factors which must be considered in the identification of IL. On the other hand, the study of the learner's fossilizable items can be carried out in a rather simple way. In longitudinal research it is possible to identify all the different types of fossilizable items and in a much simpler study some of them can be identified. The great importance of this concept lies in the fact that it can be applied to any type of data. Furthermore, in an investigation of the learners' output, the errors made can be attributed to more than one cause and they are not limited to NL inteference. The definition given by the author clearly shows the different possibilities for analysis of the students' sentences. This process is more realistic than the others.

NOTES

- (1) The Georgetowh Conference on Contrastive Linguistic and Its Pedagogical Applications (March, 1968); The Cambridge Third Congress on Applied Linguistics (September, 1969); the Hawaii Pacific Conference on Contrastive Linguistics and Language Universals (February, 1971).
- (2) Written in 1970 but not published until 1975.
- (3) Frist published by IRAL in 1967. Republished in 1974.
- (4) It means the knowledge the learner haso of the TL at a specific stage in the learning process.
- (5) It refers to a group of learners with the same cultural background, aims or linguistic history.
- (6) First published by IRAL in 1972. Republished in 1974.
- (7) A learner over the age of 12.
- (8) As used by Chomsky.
- (9) Defined as:
 - "(a) an already formulated arrangement in the brain;
 - (b) the biological counterpart to universal grammar; and
 - (c) transformed by the infant into the realized structure of a particular grammar in accordance with certain maturational stages" (33)
- (10) It means that when somebody tries to learn a language he reactivates the structures which are latent in the brain.
- (11) These are defined thus:
 - "If it can be experimentally demonstrated that fossilizable items, rules and subsystems which occur in IL performance are a result of the NL, then we are dealing with the process of LANGUAGE TRANSFER; if these fossilizable items, rules, and subsystems are a result of identifiable items in training procedures, then we are dealing with the process known as TRANSFER OF TRAINING; if they are a result of an identifiable approach by the learner to the material to be learnerd, then we are dealing with STRATEGIES OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING; if they are a result of an identifiable approach by the learner to communication with native sepakers of the TL, then we are dealing with STRATEGIES OF SECOND LANGUAGE COMMUNICATION; and finally, if they are a result of a clear overgeneralization of TL rules and semantic features, then we are dealing with the OVERGENERALIZATION OF TL LINGUISTIC MATERIAL". (37)

CHAPTER II

2. ARTICLE USAGE

Both English and Portuguese possess definite and indefinite articles which belong to the class of determiners. A comparison between articles in the two language shows how they differ morphologically and syntactically.

The morphological differences are:

1. Definite article

The definite article in English - THE - is invariable as to number and gender while the definite article in Portuguese inflects for number and gender: 0, A, OS, AS.

2. Indefinite article

The English indefinite article A(N) is singular only, the non-singular form being either unstressed SOME or ZERO ARTICLE, whereas in Portuguese the indefinite article inflects for number and gender: UM, UMA, UNS, UMAS.

Syntactically, the articles perform the same function in the two languages, which is that of conferring a status of either definiteness or indefiniteness to the noun they precede.

The use or non-use of an article depends on the type of noun that is the head of a noun phrase; which article - definite indefinite or zero - can be used is, in turn, determined by reference. Therefore articles cannot be studied in isolation

and the class NOUN is also treated to the extent that it is relevant to the purpose of the study.

Countability, or rather, the dichotomy COUNT vs MASS is discussed at greater length as it seems to play a decisive part in the learners' use of articles in English.

The differences and similarities between English and Portuguese in the realization of the same function are highlighted in the following sections where article usage in the two languages is dealt with separately.

As stated in the introduction our main concern is a comparison between co-occurrence restrictions on the articles in English and Portuguese

2.1. ARTICLE USAGE IN ENGLISH

The treatment of article usage here presented is not exhaustive; it is subsidiary to the analysis of the test applied to a group of students.

We shall first consider the classification of NOUNS, then look at articles in terms of reference so as to set up the co-occurrence restrictions on articles, and finally we shall present a table of article usage. In this section we draw on A Grammar of Contemporary English (1974) by QUIRK et al. The examples taken from it appear between inverted commas.

2.1.1. Classification of Nouns

As is known, in traditional grammars nouns are divided into concrete and abstract, the former subdivided into common and proper nouns. They are defined in terms of meaning. Moreover, no mention is made of countability.

JESPERSEN (1933, 206-8) is the first grammarian to take countability into account. He makes a detailed analysis of the relationship between countability and number, stating that both concrete and abstract nouns are either countable or uncountable.

Very well-known grammarians, e.g., the ECKERSLEYS (1960), follow the traditional classification, treating countability very superficially or not at all.

Nouns have been classified according to a number of different criteria. But it is not our intention to discuss them. We have looked for a classification of nouns whose working criteria proved suitable for the purpose of the paper. This was found in A Grammar of Contemporary English (CGE) where the classification of nouns is presented in the following figure (129)

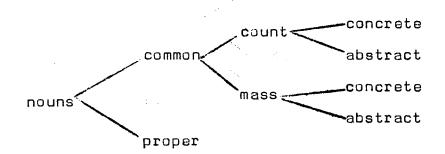


Fig 2:1

Three important criteria are used: the first is grammatical which produces the two primary classes: common nouns: with number inflection and which take articles, proper nouns: those which lack article contrast and rarely inflect for plural. The second is countability in terms of the grammatical distinctions between count and mass nouns. The third is a semantic criterion, which cuts across countability, so that concrete and abstract nouns can belong to either count or mass classes of nouns. This is in keeping with JESPERSEN's concept!

The criterion of countability applies to common nouns only and yields two classes of nouns: count nouns - those that conform to the category of number and mass nouns which have no number contrast and are seen as having no "natural bound" (130). LYONS says that the notion of countability "is inherent in the lexcialstructures of all human languages" (283) although its characteristics vary from language to language. In spite of the fact that there is a tendency for concrete nouns to be count and for abstract nouns to be mass, countability is not determined by logic; nouns such as advice, furniture, information and music are mass nouns in English while in Portuguese they are count.

We need only mention here two co-occurrence restrictions on articles:

- (a) singular count nouns either concrete or abstract cannot take ZERO ARTICLE.
 - (1) 5 Child should be obedient
 - (2) ** This is difficulty
- (b) mass nouns, whether concrete or abstract, never take the INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

- (3) **This is a good butter.
- (4) ***I have a homework to do..

The other restrictions are dealt with in the following section.

2.1.2. Reference and Article usage

The GCE presents the following types of reference: generic, specific, situational, unique and linguistic. The first three apply to common nouns, unique reference applies to proper nouns, while linguistic reference can apply to any kind of noun. Generic reference shows what is normal or common for members of a class, species, etc. Specific reference particularizes, that is, it points to specimens of a class, species, etc. Situational reference also specifies the existence of ONE, but in this case the uniqueness is part of the knowledge of the speakers, as for instance in

- (5) Who is going to answer the telephone?
 Unique reference is restricted to proper nouns, as they unambiguously specify the existence of ONE, e.g. <u>Dickens</u>, <u>England</u>,
 <u>Sunday</u>, etc. Linguistic reference is either anaphoric
 - (6) "John ordered a book and the book has just arrived"

or cataphoric

(7) "The wines that France produces"

From this point onwards, restrictions on articles are marked with an asterisk where they are relevant to the comparison

with Portuguese.

Generic reference

Singular count nouns can take definite or indefinite articles, while mass and plural counts take zero article.

- (8) The cat eats fish.
- (9) A cat eats fish
- (10) Cats eat fish.

 but ** The cats eat fish.
- (11) Milk is good for children.

 but * The milk is good for children
- (12) Cigars are less harmful than cigarettes.

 but *The cigars are less harmful than the cigarettes.
- (13) Happiness is part of life.
 but *The happiness is part of life.
- (14) I have had several talks with my advisor.
- (15) He dislikes idle talk.

When modified by an <u>of-phrase</u> mass nouns and plural counts take the definite article without loosing their generic refence. The article limits the reference only to a certain extent, but does not take from the nouns its generic characteristic.

- (16) He likes the music of Brazil
- (17) He likes the wines of France

If however the modifier is an adjectival, zero article is used.

- (18) Brazilian women

 but * The Brazilian women
- (19) American Literature

 but * The American Literature

Specific reference

Both count and mass nouns take the definite article.

- (20) The lion (at this circus) is not dangerous.
- (21) The lions (at this circus) are not dangerous.
- (22) The milk (in this bottle) is not good.
- (23) The life they live is unreal.

When the specific reference is indefinite, singular count nouns take zero article while plural count and mass nouns take zero article or the quantifier SOME.

- (24) I bought a house.
- (25) She bought some books.
- (26) She bought some milk.

Nationality nouns can be either generic or specific. There is a group which has only one form for each reference.

- (27) The English drink beer (generic).
- (28) The Englishmen I know drink beer (specific).

 However, if the word has only one form for both generic and specific reference the+plural can refer to either. Outside the context, it is not possible to know if the sentence
 - (29) The Brazilians like Carnival.

refers to the whole people or to a group of people.

There is some connection between tense and reference which should be noticed. Sentences with generic reference are normally in the simple aspect, independent of its notion of countability.

- (30) The tiger lives in the jungle.
- (31) The English drink tea.
- (32) Music is a good entertainment.

If the reference is specific, both the progressive and simple aspect can be used.

- (33) The tiger (at this circus) sleeps in the cage.
- (34) The tiger (at this circus) is sleeping in the cage.
- (35) "The Englishmen (who are my friends) drink tea."
- (36) "The Englishmen (who are my friends) are just now drinking tea".

Names of festivals, seasons and meals when modified take the definite article. In this case they no longer have unique reference, but specific reference.

- (37) I spent the Easter of 75 with my friends.
- (38) The Summer of 74 was very hot.
- (39) The dinner she prepared was very good.

Proper names in specific situations take the definite or indefinite articles.

(a) When we want to express that a person or thing has the same characteristics or qualities as the individual bearing the name in question.

- (40) Ha is a Vila Lobos.
- (41) He is the Vila Lobos of the present days.
- (b) A person bearing the name in question.
 - (42) I have a John in my class.
 - (43) The John in my class is an immigrant.
 - (c) Different aspect of one and the same individual.
 - (44) He is a different John from the one I used to know.
 - (45) The John I used to know was a very different person.
 - (d) A thing made by the person bearing the name.
 - (46) I have a Portinari.
 - (47) The Portinari I have was a present from my friends.

The indefinite article can also be used with proper names when it implies a person who gave his/her name and is unknown or unfamiliar to the hearer.

(48) A Dr. Johnson is here.

Situational reference

It inwolves the use of the definite article "iwth nouns whose reference is immediately understood by the users of the language" (155). When we talk about the sky, there is a presupposition that there is only one sky. The article before it, and also before other words like the earth, the moon, the sun is called "indexical the" (156). Originally these words had a postmodifier but it is so obvious as to be unnecessary. Another type of indexical the is more specific "being restricted to a society, nation, or other locative expressions" (156) e.g. The drama may refer to the drama of a certain period or author,

the radio to the radio of a certain place.

The group of nouns with situational reference comprises certain common nouns which take zero article in abstract or idiomatic expressions. For example - school, church, hospital, class, college, bed, university, when their primary purpose is implied.

- (49) He goes to school alone.

 but * He goes to the school alone.
- (50) She goes to church every day.

 but * She goes to the church every day.
- (51) They are still in bed.

 but * They are still in the bed.
- (52) The students are in class.

 but * The students are in the class.

When these words are used without their primary p activity implied they can take the definite or the indefinite articles.

- (53) They passed by the/a school.
- (54) She admired the/a church.
- (55) She lies down on the/a bed.

Unique reference

This reference is restricted to proper nouns, which normally take zero article or rather lack article contrast.

- (56) My name is John Carroll.
- (57) Mary was here yesterday.

- (58) Mr. Brown has just arrived.
- (59) Brazil is a large country.
- (60) Christmas is enjoyable.

However, some proper nouns take the definite article with restrictive meaning in post-modified structures. Thus - England - which does not take the article, is used with the definite article in the sentence

(61) He visited the England of Queen Elizabeth.

To the group of words with unique reference, there belong some abstract nouns which assume the characteristics of proper nouns due to their uniqueness. e.g. <u>fate</u>, <u>fortune</u>, <u>heaven</u>, <u>hell</u>, <u>paradise</u>.

Geographical names and proper names in the plural take the definite article. In this case, they cause to be proper nouns in the strict sense. e.g. The West Indies, the United States, the Perrys.

Attention will also be given to the nouns which constitute exceptions to the main rule. Proper nouns which derive from a common noun and are either premodified or postmodified take the definite article. e.g. the Ford Eoundation, the Institute of Psychiatry. When there is an ellipted element, the proper nouns take the definite article, since they are still felt as adjectives after which a noun may be added. e.g. the Atlantic (ocean), the Avon (river), The Grand (hotel), the Economist (newspaper).

Linguistic reference

It involves the use of articles before a nouns which has been previously mentioned. The houn with the determiner has an applic reference.

(62) "Last year we went to Devon for a holiday. The holiday we had there was the best we've ever had" (HALLIDAY 1976,73).

Linguistic reference can also be cataphoric, in which case the presence of the article is independent on a foward reference to a noun, postmodified by a prepositional phrase or a relative clause.

- (63) The wines of France are very good.
- (64) The wines that France produces are very good.

It can thus be concluded that reference is very important as regards article usage. The different possibilities here presented have provided evidence that the use of definite, indefinite or zero article before a noun does not depend only on the class to which that noun belongs. At the same time, the reference attributed to the clause has to be taken into consideration.

The different possibilities for article usage in English are summarized in the following table.

Table 2:1

Type of Reference	Type of Noun	Article used	Example
GENERIC	Sing.Concrete Count	Definite or Indefinite	The cat eats fish. A cat eats fish.
	Pl.Concrete Count	Zero	Cats eat fish.
	Sing.Abstract Count	Zero	They have difficulty in learning.
	Pl.Abstract Count	Definite	The worries of modern man.
	Concrete Mass	Zero	Furniture is usually made of wood.
	Abstract Mass	Zero	Happiness cannot be measured.
SPECIFIC	Sing.Concrete Count	Definite	She loved the present I gave her.
	Pl. Concrete Count	Definite	She has broken the old records.
	Sing.Abstract Count	Definite	The difficulty in this case is
Tananin Translation	Abstract Mass	Definite	He likes the music of Chico Buarque.
	Concrete Mass	Definite	The milk she bought is not good.
Transmission of the second of	Proper names	Definite	The John I know is not fair.

:			41
	Festivals	Definite	I have good memories of the Easter of 73.
	Seasons	Def inite	She spent the Winter of 75 in Europe.
	Meals	Definite	The lunch she prepared was good.
	Sing.Concrete Count	In definite	I've bought a present for her.
	Pl.Concrete Count	SOME/Zero	He has bought (some) new tools.
	Concrete Mass	SOME/Zero	She has bought (some) coffee.
	Professions	Indefinite	He is a teacher.
LINGUISTIC	Sing.Count Wouns Anaphoric	Definite	Once upon a time there lived a king. The king had three daughters
	Pl.Count Nouns Anaphoric	Definite	She met some boys from Canada.The boys are engineers.
	Count nouns Cataphdric	Definite	The radio (radios) he bought does (do)not work.
	Mass nouns Cataphoric	Definite	The wine(s) he bought is (are) very good.
SITUATIONA	Sing.Count Wouns	Definite	He wants to visit the church.
	Pl.Count Nouns	Definite	He wants to visit the museums.
	Count nouns activity implied	Zero	He goes to school alone.
	Sing.Count Nouns	Indefinite	He wants to visit a church
	P1.Count Nouns	SOME	He wants to visit some churches in Salvador

;		į	42
UNIQUE	Proper Names	Zero	John wash here.
	Proper Names Plural	Definite	The Perrys have two children.
	Proper Nouns Premodified	Definite	The Ford Foundation
	Proper Nouns postmodified	Definite	The House of Commons
	Proper Nouns with ellipted element	Definite	The Atlan t ic
	Countries	Zero	Brazil is a large country.
	Countries pl.	Definite	The United States
	States	Ze r o	I am going to Bahia.
	Cities	Zero	She is going to Salvador.
	Festivals	Zero	Christmas is enjoyable.
	Seasons	Zero	Summer is my favorite season.
	Meals	Zero	Dinner is ready.
	Months	Zero	December is very hot in Brazil.
	Parts of the day	Definite	We have classes in the morning.

Note: To be read as:

if the REFERENCE is X (generic, specific, etc) and if the NOUN is Y (concrete count singular, etc) then the ARTICLE is P (definite, indefinite or zero).

2.2. ARTICLE USAGE IN PORTUGUESE

We shall follow the procedure outlined in 2.1. for article usage in English.

This analysis is to a large extent bases on EUNHA (1972).

2.2.1. Classification of Nouns

Nouns are classified by grammarians 1 as shown below:

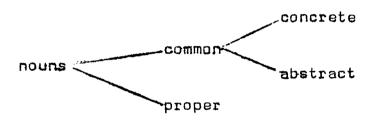


Fig 2:2

As can be seen nouns are not classified in terms of countability. However there are count nouns and mass nouns in Portuguese. But countability as a criterion is not distinctive in that mass nouns behave syntactically like abstract nouns.

2.2.2. Reference and article usage

The same types of reference obtain in Portuguese.

Generic reference

Common singular nouns take the definite article to refer to a whole class.

- (65) O homem é mortal.
- (66) O animal irracional não pensa como o homem.

It is also possible to have the indefinite article before a noun to refer to a whole class.

(67) Um homem de bem não pratica injustiça.

Whenever the common noun is in the plural either the definite or zero article can be used.

(68) (0s) Professores devem ser pacientes.

If the common noun is abstract, either zero or definite article can be used.

(69) (A) Felicidade é parte da vida.

Concrete or abstract nouns used in categorical statements and proverbs can take definite or zero article.

- (70) "O pão pela cor, e o vinho pelo sabor."
- (71) "Pobreza não é vergonha".
- (72) (0) Leite é bom para as crianças.

It should be noticed that whenever common concrete nouns are non-initial, they normally take zero article.

- (73) Ele gosta de gatos.
- (74) Não se vive sem alegria.

Specific reference

Both concrete and abstract nouns take the definite article.

- (75) A felicidade dos noivos era sentida por todos.
- (76) O café da Universidade é muito fraco.
- (77) Os professores que tenho são muito bons.

Geographical names when specified take the definite or indefinite article.

- (78) A Roma de hoje é primaveril.
- (79) Ele conheceu uma Roma sofrida pela guerra.

Proper names when modified take the definite article.

(80) Do Camões lírico apenas sabia o que vinha nas antologias escolares.

When the proper names are used in the plural to refer to a piece of art the definite article is used.

(81) Os Leonardos do Louvre foram fotografados.

Situational reference

Although the grammars consulted do not refer to this type of reference, we can say that in Portuguese when we talk about

a lua (the moon), o sol (the sun), a Terra (the earth) there is a pressuposition that there is only one of each.

When the reference is to places whose primary objective is implied the definite article is used.

- (81) Ela está no hospital.
- (82) Eles compram frutas e legumes na feira.

 The only exceptions being PALÁCIO (when we refer to the government of President's office) and CASA (meaning <u>lar</u>(home)) which take zero article.
 - (83) O Governador chamou-o a Palácio.
 - (84) Logo chegaremos em casa.

Unique reference

Article usage with proper nouns is very flexible and idiomatic.

The grammars list the different possibilities, without assigning
a logical reason to the use of the definite or zero article.

CUNHA says that proper names take zero article mainly when we refer to the name of well-known people. e.g. Mpoleão, Alencar, Camões. The use of the definite article is common in every day conversation, and usually with a connotation of familiarity.

(5)0 João esteve aqui.

However, there is a tendency in some parts of Brazil to use the definite article before the proper names of well-known people even when there is no familiarity involved.

(86) O (Presidente) Geisel assinou o decreto.

Before the titles <u>senhor</u>, <u>senhora</u>, <u>senhorita</u> when we talk about the person, the definite article is used. But if we address the person, only zero article is possible.

- (87) Vi a Senhora Sonia.
- (88) Como vai, Senhora Sônia?

Before geographical names the use of the article is also very flexible and idiomatic. There are some names of countries, continents and states which take the definite article. e. g., o Brasil, o Pará, a América, o Mediterrâneo. The definite article is also used before geographical names which come from common nouns. e.g. o Porto, o Rio de Janeiro. CUNHA says that there are no rules; he lists them and says that they must be learnt. e.g. a Bahia, o Maranhão, Pernambuco, Santa Catarina. However most geographical names take the definite article.

Names of seasons and festivals normally take the definite article. Whenever they are modified by the preposition DE, zero article is used.

- (89) O inverno é o melhor tempo para amar.
- (90) O Natal foi muito alegre.
- (91) As noites de inverno são muito longas.
- (92) A véspera de Natal foi festiva.

Months and dates take zero article. When the date is part of the cultural environment the definite article is used.

- (93) Maio é o mês das noivas.
- (94) 27 de setembro é feriado.
- (95) O 7 de setembro amanheceu chuvoso.

Linguistic reference

The definite article is used to refer to a noun which has been mentioned before. The definite article has anaphoric reference.

(96) Era uma vez um homem que queria conhecer o mundo.

O homem arrumou tudo que tinha, pegou os filhos e....

The definite article is also used when the noun is modified by a prepositional phrase or relative clause. In this case the definite article has cataphoric reference.

- (97) Ele perdeu o livro de Matemática.
- (98) O livro que ele perdeu era de um amigo.

The different possibilities for article usage in Portuguese are summarized in the following table.

Table 2:2

Type of Reference		Article used	Example
GENERIC	Concrete Sing.	Definite	O homem é mortal.
	Concrete Sing.	Definite/ Zero	(A) Mulher é vaidosa.
	Concrete Sing.	Indefinite	Ela parece uma mulher.
	Concrete Pl.	Zero	Ele gosta de gatos.
	Abstract sing.	Definite	A vida começou do nada.
	Abstract sing.	Definite/ Zero	(A) Felicidade é parte da vida.
	Abstract sin g.	Zero	Todos nós precisamos de ajuda.
	Mass	Definite/ Zero	(0) Leite é bom para as crianças.
SPECIFIC	Concrete sing.	Definite	O carro de minha ami+ ga é branço.
	Concrete pl.	Definite	Os cachorros do circo sabem dançar.
	Abstract sing.	Definite	A alegria das crianças afasta a tristeza dos adultos.
	Proper names	Definite	O Camões lírico.
·	Professions	Zero	Ela é professora.
SITUATIONAL	Concrete Sing.	Definite	Ele visitou a escola.
	Concrete sing.	Indefinite	Ele visitou uma escola.
	Concrete Pl.	Definite	Ele visitou as escolas.
	Concrete Pl.	Indefinite	Ele visitou umas escolas
	PALÁCIO	Zero	O Presidente recebeu as autoridades em Palácio.
	CASA (Home)	Zero	Passei o dia em casa.

UNIQUE	Prope r names	Definite/ Zero	(O)João esteve aqui.
	Proper names plural	Definite	Os Prados chegaram.
	Proper names unfamiliar	Zero	Alencar foi um escritor.
	Countries	Definite/ Zero	O Brasil Portugal.
	Cities	Definite/ Zero	o Porto Salvador
	States	Definite Ze r o	o Paraná Santa Catarina
	Seasons	Definite	o Verão
	Festivals	Definite	o Carnaval
	Months	Zero	Maio
	Dates	Zero.	27 de maio
	Meals	Definite	o almoço

NOTE: To be read as for table 2:1 p. 42

2.3. CO-OCCURRENCE RESTRICTIONS

The comparison of the two systems of article usage shows that co-occurrence restrictions between articles and nouns in Portuguese differ from those in English. We are led to conclude that the restrictions in each language are related to REFERENCE. Therefore, any consideration of the differences in article usage between Portuguese and English has necessarily to deal with classes of nouns in terms of reference.

The aim of the following table is to show the co-occurrence restrictions between articles and nouns in English which differ from Portuguese.

Table 2:3

Type of Reference	Portuguese	English
GENERIC	Os gatos comem peixe	*The cats eat fish.
	Gato come peixe	*Cat eats fish.
	As crianças dormem cedo	*The children go to bed early.
	Criança dorme cedo.	*Child goes to bed early.
	A felicidade é parte da vida.	*The happiness is part of life.
	O leite é bom.	*The milk is good.
	As mulheres brasileiras	*The Brazilian women

SPECIFIC	Ela é enfermeira *She is nurse.
INDEFINITE	Este é um leite bom. *This is a good milk.
	Comprei uma tinta nova.* I have bought a new ink.
	Ele tocou uma música * He played a music by de Chico Buarque. Chico Buarque.
SITUATIONAL	Ela acabou de chegar * She has just arrived da escola from the school.
UNIQUE	Ela visitou a Europa * She visited the Europe.
<u>.</u>	A reuni ão foi n a * The meeting was in the France.
	O João esteve aqui. * The John was here.
	Ele esteve na Paraíba. * He was in the Paraíba.
	O Sr. Souza acabou * The Mr. Souza has just de chegar. arrived.
	O Natal é em Dezembro. *The Christmas is in December.
	O inverno é muito frio. * The Winter is very cold.
	O jantar está ponto. * The dinner is ready.

NOTE

(1) BECHARA, 1976 CEGALLA, 1976 LIMA, 1974 CUNHA, 1972 SACCONI, 1972 MELO, 1971

CHADTER III

3. THE FIELD WORK

The primary objective of the field work carried out was to find out whether the learners' output confirmed the predictions made by CA.

The secondary objective was to find out whether the learners' output revealed the existence of errors in article usage which were only explainable by EA.

The following questions were posed:

- (a) To what extent is CA effective?
- (b) Can errors be attributed only to NL interference?
- (c) If not, what are the source(s) of the errors made by the learners?
- (d) Do CA and EA together provide better evidence for the analysis of the students' errors?

To investigate the above points, a test about article usage in English was: prepared and applied to a selected group of students.

Preparation of the test

In the preparation of the test the following points were observed:

- (a) The items were prepared so as to _test the hypothesis.
- (b) The level of the foreign language knowledge of the population was carefully considered, so that the items presented did not contain anything that was not familiar to the learners.
- (c) Each possibility for article usage tested appears with the same number of sentences.

The test was prepared taking into consideration the above points and the references attributed to the nouns. Within each reference there are several possibilities for article usage. The ones selected for the test were:

- (1) Generic reference : Count Singular Nouns

 Count Plural Nouns

 Concrete Mass Nouns

 Abstract Mass Nouns
- (2) Definite Specific reference : Concrete Count Nouns

 Abstract Count Nouns

 Concrete Macs Nouns
- (3) Indefinite Specific reference & Councrete_Count Nous

 Mass in English and

 Mass in English and

 Count in Portuguese

 Professions
- (4) Situational reference : Known element

 Activity implied
- (5) Linguistic reference : Anaphoric

(6) Unique reference: Proper names

Countries, cities and states

Parts of the day

Months

Days of the week

Festivals

These possibilities when contrasted with article usage in Portuguese yield 32 cases. The sentences belonging to the same group were spaced out so that, e.g. sentences number 1, 20, 41, 61 and 81 were taken from the group of COUNT PLURAL NOUNS with GNNERIC REFERENCE.

The sentences for each type of reference are grouped accordance to the criterion of "SAME versus DIFFERENCE article usage in English versus Portuguese". e.g. COUNT PLURAL NOUNS with SPECIFIC REFERENCE or COUNT PLURAL NOUNS with GENERIC REFERENCE.

The test is of multiple-choice and contains 100 items. Its final format is presented in Appendix I. The four options
(a) THE, (b) A, (c) AN, and (d) NENHUM ARTIGO or (ZERO ARTICLE)
appear in the same order for all items and the students were instructed to mark only one of the options. The grades obtained by the testees varied from 47 to 89 (see Appendix II).

The test was applied by the class teachers rather than by the investigator. Such a decision was made, considering the need to collect serious data and to avoid the risk of careless responses if the class had known that the test was experiemental.

The curriculum program

The curriculum followed by the Language Laboratory at the "Fundação Universitária da Região de Blumenau" (FURB) is based on an audio-visual method. It was developed in France and later adapted to English. The Center for Curriculum Development in Philadelphia, United States of America has made some adaptations to American English and named it Implementing American English by the Audio+Visual Method.

In this method the students learn the language through situations and dialogues and the main objective is to develop in the learners a native like ability. The method is deductive and no grammatical points are taught in isolation.

The teachers should observe the four teaching phases of the audio+visual teaching procedures: presentation, explanation, repetition and transposition.

In the preparation, the teacher presents the filmstrip and tape of an entire situation or segment. It serves to establish the situational context, that is, it sketches the setting, characterizes people and defines the circumstances of a plot. The purpose"is to provide students with a global understanding of the situation" (WASHINGTON 1969, 6).

In the explanation phase, by asking questions, the teacher guides the learners to understand the meaning of the sound groups of the dialogue. The students discover the language through "a general process which involves a progression from the simple to the complex, the concrete to the abstract and the known to the unknown" (33).

In the repetition phase each student, in the presence of the corresponding picture, is asked to reproduce "each semantic group in a native-like way, referring to the tape as the constant model" (35). The students are led to communicate and thus assimilate the dialogue. Phonetic corrections must be made whenever necessary.

In the transposition phase, the student

... manipulates the variable dements and transposes the acquisitions from the context in which they have been assimilated to a variety of new situation (45).

Thus, the already implicit structures are transferred to new situations increasing the range and applicability of the elements and the learners ability top produce and understand sentences which were not heard before. The teacher starts this phase by avoiding the sound of the dialogue and in a later stage, the pictures, so that the learners can make use of their language repertoire to produce new sentences.

In the course of the Language Laboratory at the FURB, this methodology is strictly observed, with additions in the form of reinforcement activities.

In the first and second stages of the course, extra exercises are given to the learners as homework, in which they practice the structures presented in class and at the language laboratory. The written expression is reinforced by means of guided description of simple pictures in the first stage and guided description and natration in the second one.

In the third stage, the students have guided narration and start free composition about simple topics. In the fourth stage,

composition is more intensively practised.

The method recommends that additional reading be given to the students. The language laboratory is using simplified stories. The learnersp prepare the readings at home and their comprehension is tested orally or sometimes by questions which they answer in writing.

Consequently, the students take part in a large variety of activities which aim at developing oral and written communication and expression.

The population

To select the population, the following requirements were established:

- (1) The subjects should be either in their fourth or fifth semester of English.
- (2) They should have started their course at the FURB at the Iniciação 1 or first semester of English.
 - (3) They should have followed the same audio+visual method.
- (4) They should have passed all the stages of the course up to the present.

This population was selected because the investigator was interested in applying the article test to a group of students who had not learnt the grammar of the language systematically in order to find out how far NL interferes with the learning of TL before the pupils start studying the TL grammar systematically.

After consulting the Head of the Language Laboratory about the possibility of having a group of students who fulfilled the

above requirements and consulting the individual information cards of the students in the Language Laboratory files, the final population was selected.

The subjects of the present study are 30 students of English enrolled in a course offered by the Language Laboratory at the FURB. These learners have six one hour English period a week; half the time is spent in the language laboratory and half in class with the teacher. Their progress in English is: tested periodically by means of oral and/or written tests.

3.1. STATISTICAL RESULTS

The statistical results arrived at were obtained through the application of INGRAM's Item Analysis procedure and LADO's Reliability coefficient.

Item Analysis

Item Analysis is one measure used when a pre-test is applied and the investigator wants to find out which items should be maintained and which should be disregarded for a second application of the test.

In this dissertation Item Analysis was performed with another objective. The results obtained in this analysis revealed that the similar items in both language were, generally, very easy, and the different items, very difficult (see Appendix III).

To disregard these items would imply in the impossibility to test the CA hypothesis. Thus, Item Analysis is used as a device to prove that the learners' output revealed low Facility Value for different items in both languages and high Facility Value for similar items.

Two kinds of information can be obtained from Item Analysis: Facility Value and Discrimination Index.

Facility Value reflects the percentage of correct answers in relation to the total possible answers. The higher—the percentage the easier the item and vice-versa. Normally, items which show a Facility Value of above 85% and below 15% should be disregarded. INGRAM (1968) says that "it is difficult to give absolute limits"(202), since items which are very easy or very difficult may be perfectly all right in themselves when applied to other groups of testees.

Discrimination Index shows if the best students in the test performed better than the weaker ones. It can vary from +1 to -1. Positive values show that more learners in the upper third than in the lower third answered the item correctly.Negative values occur when there are more correct answers in the lower thirds than in the upper. It is also possible to have a Discrimination Index of "O" in which case the item does not discriminate, that is, the upper and lower thirds score about the same number or correct answers.

To obtain Facility Value and Discrmination Index, INGRAM presents the following method:

(a) Arrange the test in order of merit and divide it into three thirds: upper, middle and lower.

- (b) Add, for each item, the number of testees in each third which answered it correctly.
- (c) Compute the total correct answers in relation to the total possible answers. The figure obtained is the Facility Value.
- (d) Compute for each item the difference between the number of correct answers in the upper third, and the number of correct answers in the lower third; divide the difference by N/3, where $\underline{\mathbb{N}}$ is the total number of students who took the test. The result is the Discrimination Index. INORAM says that this procedure is known as "the Estimate of the first group in ratio to the third group of E_{1-3} " (199).

Reliability~

Reliability refers to the stability of test scores. A testing instrument is reliable when the results are consistent. In other words, it means that, on repeating the procedures, the scores should not vary much. Test reliability can be estimated by statistical means and expressed in terms of a coefficient. Such a coefficient can vary from -1 to +1. The higher the cuefficient the higher the reliability of the test.

The reliability for the whole test on article usage was obtained by applying the Split-Half or Chance-Half as explained by LADO (LADO 1967, 335-7):

- (a) Apply to test to a group of students.
- (b) Obtain the scores made by each testee on the even and odd items.

 $\mathcal{L}(oldsymbol{\omega}_{i})$, the constant of the constant of the constant $oldsymbol{\omega}_{i}$, the constant $oldsymbol{\omega}_{i}$

- (c) Correlate the scores of the even items against the scores of the odd items, by means of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation. The results produces the reliability for half of the test.
- (d) Apply the Spearman-Brown formula to estimate the reliability of the whole test (337).

The result obtained for the whole test was .88. The grades obtained by each testee for the even and odd items are shown in Appendix IV.

3.2. RESULTS AND COMMENTS

Two types of analyses are presented: quantitative and qualitative.

The first consists of tables with numerical results obtained in the test. These tables are organized as follows: items in which article usage is similar in both languages (Tables S: 1-7), items in which article usage is different (Tables D: 8-11) and items in which the differences and similarities are not clearcut (Tables SD: 12-14). These tables are arranged in terms of reference.

In the second analysis we shall try to find answers to the following questions:

- (1) Are all the discrepancies due to transfer of NL structures?
- (2) What other factors might be respussible for the learners' errors?

The results will be considered satisfactory if the CA predictions reach the rate of 63% for correct responses in tables S and the same percentage for wrong responses in tables D and SD.

3.2.1. Quantitative analysis

The high percentage of correct responses in Tables S confirms the prediction made through CA. The exceptions, as well as any significant facts shown by the figures, will be discussed in 3.2.2..

The asterisked numbers indicate unexpected results. C.R. and W.R. stand for correct responses and wrong responses respectively. The notation used in each table is explained immediately after the results, preceded by the number of the group to which it belongs. The number in parenthesis before each sentence, corresponds to the item of the test.

Table S 1

Type Reference	Group	Nº of Sent.	C.R.	W.R.
	1. CPL	60	60 ×	40
GENERIC	2. ConM	90	69	31
	3. AbsM	60	63* *	37
	TOTAL	210	64	36

(G.1)	COUNT PLURAL NOUNS
	(41) He likes dogs.
	(61) They hate cats.
(6.2)	CONCRETE MASS NOUNS
	(22) He likes to drink tea.
	(43) My parents drink coffee after every meal
	(83) You should eat fruit every day.
(G.3)	ABSTRACT MASS NOUNS
	(44) Nahady can live without joy.

Table S 2

(84) They like ___ music very much.

Type of Reference	Group	. Nº of Sent.	C.R. %	W.R. %
Specific	4.ConC	150	67	33
	5.ConM	150	88	12
Definite	6.AbsM/C	150	6 F	39
	TOTAL	450	73	27

(G.4)	CONCRETE COUNT NOUNS
	(5) She showed me letter she received.
	(24) Lion at the circus is not dangerous.
	(45)Teachers I have are very good.
	(65) He lent me book he bought.
	(85) Americans who are my friends are going
	to arrive.

(G.5)	CONCRETE MASS NOUNS
	(6) Milk in this bottle is not good.
	(25) Tea I drank was delicious.
	(46) Icecream my mother made was good.
	(66) Ink she bought is blue.
	(86) Coffee I made was very strong.
(G.6)	ABSTRACT MASS AND COUNT NOUNS
	(7) Happy days they lived together did not last very long.
	(26) They have forgotten sad moments of their lives.
	(47) Stupidity of the man impressed me.
	(67) She will always rememberkindness of her friends.

Table S 3

(87) ___ Life they live isu unreal.

Type of Reference	Group	Nº of Sent.	C.R.	W.R. %
Indefinite Specific	7.ConC	150	85	15
	TOTAL	150	85	15

(G.7)	CONC	RETE COUNT NOUNS
	(15)	She bought book.It is very interesting.
	(36)	She sold watch. It belonged to her father.
	(56)	They had cat. It died last year.
	(76)	My friends want house. It must be
		big and comfortable.

(96) I want ___ car. It must be cheap and small.

Table 5 4

Type of Reference	Group	Nº of Sent.	C.R. %	W.R. %
Definite or Indef.	8. K.E.	150	88	12
Situational	TOTAL	150	88	12

(G.8) KNOWN ELEMENT

- (16) He passed by ___ school yesterday.
- (37) They want to visit ___ church.
- (57) She is sitting on ___ bed.
- (77) They are going to visit ___ new prison.
- (97) His house is near ___ hospital.

Table 5 5

Type of Reference	Group	Ng of Sent.	C.R.	W. R. %
Linguistic	9. Ana.	150	93	7
*	TOTAL	150	93	7

(G.9) ANAPHORIC

- (19) She bought a house. ___ house is new.
- (40) She received a letter. Letter was from her father.
- (60) Mary bought a new dress. ___Dress is yellow.
- (80) He sold a car. ___ Car was very old.
- (100) I have a dog. ___Dog is black and white.

Table S 6

Type of Reference	Group	Nº of Sent.	C.R.	W.R. %
Unique	10. PN	30	90	<u>1</u> 23
	11. CCS	60	78	22
	12. Mths.	150	92	8
	13.CP	150	71	29
	TOTAL	390	80	20

(G.10)	PROPER NAMES
	(48) I am going to visit Johnsons.
(G.11)	COUNTRIES, CITIES and STATES
	(49) I spent my vacation in United States.
	(69) They are going to Portugal next month.
(G.12)	MONTHS
	(30) We have exams in November.
	(33) Her birthday is in May.
	(53) In July, we went to the mountains.
	(73) Last December I went to the beach.
	(93) August is the coldest month of the year
(G.13)	CARDINAL POINTS
	(13) Santa Catarina is in South of Brazil.
	(34) She comes from Northeast.
-	(54) My house is in East part of the city.
	(74) Pará is in North of Brazil.
	(94) They live in a town in West part of the
	city.

Table S 7

Type of Reference	Group	Nº of Sent.	C.R. %	W.R.
Indefinite Spe c ific	14.ME=MP	30	53*	47
	15.ME×CP	30	10**	90
55002.20	TOTAL	60	30	70

- (G.14) MASS NOUNS IN ENGLISH AND PORTUGUESE
 - (99) He writes ___poetry.
- (G.15) MASS NOUNS IN ENGLISH AND COUNT IN PORTUGUESE
 - (39) Mary bought ___ furniture for her house

According to CA, tables D should produce a high percentage of wrong responses per group. However some show a much higher percentage of correct responses than might be expected. These are quite interesting cases and will be dealt in 3.2.2.

Table D 8

Type of Reference	Group	Nº of Sent.	C.R. %	W.R.
Generic	16.CSing.	150	27	73
	13.AbsM	30	7	93
	18.ConM	3 0	60	40 A
	TOTAL	210	29	71

(G.16) COUNT SINGULAR NOUNS

- (2) Table usually has four legs.
- (21) Chair is usually made of wood.
- (42) ____ Blackboard is to write on.
- (62) ___ House has windows and doors.
- (82) ___ Car has four tyres.

(_	171	ABSTRA	CT MA	CC NICHA	10
ا ا	. 1 ()	ABSIKA	LI MA:	รร พบบท	C

(23) How did ___ life begin?

(G.18) CONCRETE MASS NOUNS

(63) ___ Gold is a metal.

Table D 9

Type of Reference	Group	Nº of Sent.	C.R. %	W.R. %	
Situational	19. I.A.	150	23	77	
	TOTAL	150	23	77	

(G.19) NOUNS WITH IMPLIED ACTIVITY

- (14) He escaped from ___ prison.
- (35) He went to ___ school alone.
- (55) He goes to ___ church every day.
- (76) They are still in ___ bed.
- (95) The students are in ___ class.

Table D 10

Type of Reference	Group	Nº of Sent.	C.R. %	W.R. %
Unique	20. PN	60	93	7*
	21. CCS	90	68	3 2#
	22. DS	150	69	31*
	2 3. PD	30	90	16 #
	24. FES	150	21	79
	TOTAL	480	58	42

(G.20)	PROPER NAMES
	(27) I travelled with Mr. Brown.
	(68) Mrs. Johnson called you half an hour ago.
(G.21)	COUNTRIES, CITIES and STATES
	(9) They went to Bahia last year.
	(28) My family visited Europe a year ago.
	(69) The meeting was in Rio de Janeiro.
(G.22)	DAYS OF THE WEEK
	(10) He usually travels on Sunday.
	(29) He visits me on Friadys.
	(70) I love Sundays.
	(50) On Saturday mornings, they go shopping.
	(90) I do not like Mondays.

(C .	231	PART	rs n	FT	HF	ומח	,
ŧ.		211	PAR	.	Г 1	11 -	UH!	Ł

(71) The bus leaves at ___ noon.

(G.24) FESTIVALS

- (12) They spent ___ Christmas with their relatives.
- (32) My friends are going to spend ____ Carnival in Salvador.
- (52) ___ Easter was enjoyable.
- (72) My family will get together to celebrate _______ Independence Day.
 - (92) ___ Teacher's Day is in October.

Table D 11

Type of Reference	Group	Nº of Sent.	C.R. %	W.R.
Indefinite Specific	25. ME=MP	60	8	92
	26.Prof.	150	81	19#
	TOTAL	2 1 0	60	40

(G.25) MASS NOUNS IN ENGLISH AND COUNT IN PORTUGUESE

- (18) They can give you ____ information about the city.
- (59) It is difficult to find ___ parking in this city.

(G.26) PROFESSIONS

- (17) He wants to be ____ doctor.
- (38) She does not want to be teacher.
- (58) My friend is ____nurse.
- (78) My sister is ____engineer.
- (98) My father is ___ lawyer.

In tables SD all the sentences have more than one possibility for article usage in Purtuguese, without any change of reference. As the use of the definite article is more usual in this case, a high percentage of wrong responses was expected.

Table SD 12

Type of Reference	Graup	Nº of Sent.	C.R. %	W.R.
Generic	27. CPL	90	20	80
	28. ABSM	60	47	5 3
	29. ConM	30	80	20*
	TOTAL	180	39	61

(G. 27) COUNT PLURAL NOUNS

- (1) ___ Children like to play
- (20) ___ Lions are wild animals.
- (81) ___ Teachers must be patient.

- (G.28) ABSTRACT MASS NOUNS
 - (4) Happiness is part of life.
 - (64) We all need ___ help from our friends.
- (G.29) CONCRETE MASS NOUNS
 - (3) ___ Milk is good for children.

Table SD 13

Type of Reference	Group	Nº of Sent.	C.R. %	W.R. %
Indef.	30. ME=MP	30	. 57	43·
Specifi c	TOTAL	30	57	43

(G.30) MASS NOUNS IN ENGLISH AND PORTUGUESE

(79) His hobby is ___ photography.

Table SD 14

Type of Reference	Group	Nº of Sent.	C.R. %	W.R. %
Unique	31. PN	6 0	95	5*
	32. PD	120	88	12*
	TOTAL	180	91	9

(G.31)	PROPER	NAMES
--------	--------	-------

- (8) ____ John was here.
- (88) ___ Mary visited me last year.

(G.32) PARTS OF THE DAY

- (11) We have classes in ___ murning.
- (31) I watch TV in ____ evening.
- (51) She arrived after ___ midnight.
- (91) In ____ afternoon, they prepare their lessons.

3.2.2. Qualitative analysis

By analysing the results presented in each table, we shall try to find answers to the questions raised in 3.2., namely:

Are all the discrepancies due to transfer of NL structures?

What other factors might be responsible for the learners'
errors?

Table S 1 - Group 1 - COUNT PLURAL NOUNS GENERIC REFERENCE:
ZERO ARTICLE in English and Portuguese

The total percentage of correct answers should have been higher since article usage is similar in both languages. Why this happened will be here discussed.

Item (41) He likes ___ dogs, - 30% - of the students chose
THE while - 13% - chose AN. The reason for the first choice might
be attributed to the fact that GOSTAR requires the preposition DE.
LIKE was chosen for exactly this reason; it was our intention to
see if the students knew the correspondence between LIKE and
GOSTAR DE in which case article usage is the same, that is, ZERO
ARTICLE in the two languages. It seems that the students use
the definite article instead of the Purtuguese preposition. The
choice of AN by four students can only be classified as a
"nonce+mistake".-

Item (61) They hate __ cats, - 16% - chose THE and - 20% - A. The first choice is a transfer error. In Portuguese "OS" limits the reference. It might be possible that the learners

ignore NL restrictions and have trungfarred the form they use more frequently. The choice of A is a case of "nonce-mistake".

Table S 1 - Group 2 - CONCRETE MASS NOUNS GENERIC REFERENCE:
ZERO ARTICLE in English and Portuguese

Although the learners! output do not refute the predictions made, we feel that the wrong responses should be looked into as English MASS NOUNS, especially when CONCRETE, are the main source of our students' errors.

Item (22) He likes to drink _____ tea, and (43) My parents drink ____ coffee after every meal, - 20% = chose A. It might be possible that the students have associated TEA and COFFEE with the expression "a cup of...". In such a case, the error might be attributed to the generalization of a TL structure.

On the other hand, it was observed that for item (43) - 13% - chose THE, which is must likely a "nonce-mistake".

Item (83) You should eat ____ fruit every day - 33% - was caused by the choice of A. It is possible that the learners do not distinguish UMA numeral from the indefinite article and they have, thus, transferred a problem of the NL to the TL.

Table S 1 - Group 3 - ABSTRACT MASS NOUNS GENERIC REFERENCE: ZERO ARTICLE in English and Portuguese

The total percentage of correct answers although higher than for wrong answers is equal to the rate established. In this group, the wrong answers do not follow a consistent pattern.

In items (44) Nobody can live without ___ joy and (84) They like ___ music very much we get THE or A.

The choice of THE for (44) - 20% - might be attributed to transfer of a NL structure. JOY (alegria) can be used with the definite article when it is the subject of the sentence. There are some grammarians (cf. CUNHA 1972, 151) who say that the use of the definite article before abstract nouns with generic reference is optional. However, if the abstract noun is the complement of the sentence only ZERO ARTICLE can be used. It is thus possible that these learners have transferred artice usage with abstract nouns as subject to the same as complement.

The choice of A - 20% - seems to be a clear case of overgeneralization as JOY belongs to two classes, namely, MASS and COJNT.

Item (84) They like ___ music very much, we find _ 24% _ with THE and _13%_ with A. The use of THE might be regarded as a "nonce-mistake". However, A requires a different interpretation. We presume that the source of the error comes from the fact that MUSIC, always MASS in English, may be either MASS or COUNT in Portuguese. Therefore those who put in A most probably thought of a specific piece of music. Thus, this is a case of wrong interpretation. Perhaps, this sort of mistake would not have occurred if the sentence had appeared in a situational context.

The "troublesome" items just discussed were seen to be responsible for the figures obtained for this group.

Table S 2 - Group 4 - CONCRETE COUNT NOUNS DEFINITE SPECIFIC REFERENCE: DEFINITE ARTICLE in English and Portuguese

THE LAST WATER

The results obtained for this group correspond to the predictions made. However there are two striking results: item (5) She showed me ___ letter she received, shows -67% - of errors and item (65) He lent me ___ book he bought, - 60% -. At first sight these two figures would refute the predictions. But, a careful analysis shows that these are caused by NL transfer through erroneous interpretation of the reference of the item in question. It can thus be concluded that those learners took the reference to be indefinite specific.

Table S 2 - Group 5 - CONCRETE MASS NOUNS DEFINITE SPECIFIC REFERENCE: DEFINITE ARTICLE in English and Portuguese

Although very few errors of overgeneralization were observed in this group - item (6) ___ Milk in this bottle is not good _ 17% -, (25) __ Tea I drank was delicious - 13% -, (46) __ Ink she bought is blue - 10% - and (86) __ Coffee I made was very strong, it is worth analysing the source for the choice of ZERO ARTICLE. Having examined the book used in the course, it was seen that concrete mass nouns appear mostly with generic reference. So, in this case we might say that the high percentage of correct responses was arrived at through NL transfer - this time a positive transfer.

Table 2 - Group 6 - ABSTRACT MASS AND COUNT NOUNS DEFINITE SPECIFIC REFERENCE: DEFINITE ARTICLE in English and Portuguese

The total percentage of correct answers although higher than that of wrong responses is still below the rate established for tables S. ZERO ARTICLE provides the following figures: items (7) ___ Happy days they lived together did not last very long __ 33% __, (26) They have forgutten ___ sad moments of their lives __ 47% __, (47) __ Stupudity of the man impressed me __ 20% __ (67) She will always remember ___ kindness of her friends __ 17% __ and (87) ___ Life they live is unreal __ 7% __. The errors are clear examples of overgeneralization. It should be noted that the nouns in (7) and (26) appear with a premodifier, which seems to have been a disturbing factor, as seen from the comparison between the percentage of errors with those items and that with the other three items.

Table 3 - Group 7 - CONCRETE NOUNS INDEFINITE SPECIFIC REFERENCE: INDEFINITE ARTICLE in English and Portuguese

The results obtained fully confirm the CA hypothesis. The 15% of wrong responses was caused by the learners' choice of THE. The figures per item are: (15) She bought ____ book. It is very interesting - 23% -, (36) She sold ___ watch. It belonged to her father - 37% -, (56) They had ___ cat. It died last year - 3% - and (76) My friends want ___ house. It must be big and comfortable - 13% -. Item (96) I want ___ car. It must be chead and small scored 100% correct responses.

Without further consideration, we might take THE in (15) and (36) to be a "nonce-mistake", as this choice would require a context of situation, such as, for instance, THE 800K being ONE already mentioned or recommended, or in the case of (36) the knowledge that she had only one WATCH. One of the difficulties in tests of this kind is that we never know what context occurs to the students. It is therefore fair to consider that these results are not indicative either of errors of competence or performance and are consequently irrelevant as data in view of the very high percentage of correct besponses, with the other items. The wrong responses to (56) and (76) can be attributed errors of competence in both NL and TL.

Table 3 4 - Group 8 - CONCRETE COUNT DEFINITE OR INDEFINITE SITUATIONAL REFERENCE: DEFINITE OR INDEFINITE ARTICLE in English and Portuguese

The results confirm the CA hypothesis. The errors made in items (16) He passed by _____ school yesterday - 37% -, (97)His house is near ____ hospital - 17% - can be attributed to over:- generalization. The students must have learnt that they should not use the article before SCHOOL and HOSPITAL.

Errors of overgeneralization - ZERO ARTICLE - were also observed to a much lesser extent in items (57) She is sitting on ___ bed - 3% - and (77) They are going to visit __ new prison - 3% -.

Table S 5 - Group 9 - ANAPHORIC LINGUISTIC REFERENCE: DEFINITE ARTICLE in English and Portuguese

The learners' output reveals a very high percentage of correct responses and the two errors that occured are "nonce-mistakes".

Table S 6 - PROPER and COMMON NOUNS UNIQUE REFERENCE:

DEFINITE or ZERO ARTICLE in English and Portuguese

All the items show results which correspond to the expectations of the CA hypothesis. However, a number of wrong responses are worth detailed analysis.

In group 10 - item (48) I am going to visit ___ Johnsons __ 10% - and in group 11 - item (49) I spent my vacation in ___ United States - 23% - of the errors are of the overgeneralization type. The learners had only practised structures in which proper nouns go with ZERO ARTICLE.

In group 11, item (69) They are going to visit ____ Portugal - 20% - chose THE. This error has been considered as a "noncemistake".

The errors made by the learners for groups 12 and 13 are also "nonce-mistakes" and they do not deserve further consideration.

Table S 7 - Group 14 - MASS NOUNS IN ENGLISH AND PORTUGUESE INDEFINITE SPECIFIC REFERENCE: ZERO ARTICLE in English and Portuguese

Item (99) He writes ___ poetry, deserves attention. The errors - 43% - were the same throughout: A instead of ZERO ARTICLE. It is likely that the learners mistook POETRY for POEM as in Portuguese "puesia" (=puetry) has the two meanings (puetry and poem). Even if "puema" were possible the indefinite article would be wrong because the simple present tense witout an adverbial of frequency would black its use. Thus, this error is not a case of mere transfer related to article usage; it involves the relation of interdependence between reference and verbal aspect.

Table S 7 - Group 15 - MASS NOUNS IN ENGLISH and COUNT IN PORTUGUESE INDEFINITE SPECIFIC REFERENCE: ZERO ARTICLE in English and Portuguese

In group 15 - item (39) Mary bought ____ new furniture for her house, the result obtained differs considerably from the predictions. Although the Portuguese equivalent of FURNITURE (mass) is count plural, it occurs with ZERO ARTICLE when the reference is specifi indefinite: "Ela comprou móveis novos para sua casa". Even if the less usual synonyms "mobilia" or "mobiliário" had been though of, it would still be ZERO ARTICLE. The explanation seems to be that learners took FURNITURE to be the singular count corresponding to the Portuguese

word "movel", the singular of "moveis". That such an interpretation may be correct is confirmed by the use of <u>furnitures</u> when students translate "moveis" into English. It is therefore a transfer error of a more complex kind.

As it can be seen, in this table the results obtained do not correspond to the predictions made.

We shall now deal with Tables D. Here the opposite is expected: a high percentage of wrong answers which, according to CA hypothesis, will reveal the students' problems.

Table D 8 - Group 16 - COUNT SINGULAR NOUNS GENERIC
REFERENCE: INDEFINITE ARTICLE in English vs. DEFINITE ARTICLE
in Portuguese

The results obtained correspond to the predictions made. All the errors were caused by NL interference. The percentages obtained for the choice of THE are: items (2) __ Table usually has four legs - 47% -, (21) __ Chair is usually made of wood - 97% -, (42) __ Blackboard is to write Jn - 91% -, (62) __ House has windows and doors - 63% - and (82) __ Car has four tyres - 67% -.

Table D 8 - Group 17 - ABSTRACT MASS NOUNS GENERIC
REFERENCE: ZERO ARTICLE in English vs. DEFINITE ARTICLE IN
Portuguese

In this group the number of wrong responses is high and the hypothesis has been confirmed. In item (23) How did _____

life begin?, the errors - 73% - were consistent in that the students used THE following NL pattern, while - 20% - used A which is a "nonce-mistake".

Table D 8 - Group 18 - CONCRETE MASS NOUNS GENERIC REFERENCE:
ZERO ARTICLE in English vs. DEFINITE ARTICLE in Portuguese

Item (63) ____ Guld is a metal, produced an unexpected low percentage of errors. More than half of the learners answered it correctly. This might be attributed to the fact that CONCRETE MASS NOUNS had already been presented to the learners and so intensively drilled that they had assimilated the rule of the TL. Nevertheless, the students who failed to answer the item correctly - 40% - followed the pattern of the NL.

Table D 9 - Group 19 - NOUNS WITH IMPLIED ACTIVITY
SITUATIONAL REFERENCE: ZERO ARTICLE in English vs. DEFINITE
ARTICLE in Portuguese

In this group we have -54% - with THE, which again shows NL interference and -23% - with A which is a "nonce-mistake".

Table D 10 - PROPER and COMMON NOUNS UNIQUE REFERENCE:
ZERO ARTICLE in English vs. DEFINITE ARTICLE in Portuguese

Only one item confirms the hypothesis. The others show a high percentage of correct answers.

Group 20 - Proper Names - items (27) I travelled with ______ Mr. Brown and (68) ____ Mrs. Johnson called you half an hour ago, - 7% - of the students answered the item wrongly. These followed the NL pattern.

The success of the students is attributed to the methodology followed by the FURB course. From the first lesson of the audio: visual method, sentences with proper names are intensively drilled.

Group 21 - Countries, cities and states - The results do not coincide with the predictions. The wrong choice was THE. The percentage obtained is: item (9) They went to ____ Bahia last year - 17% -, item (28) My family visited ___ Europe a year ago - 57% -, and item (69) The meeting was in ___ Rio de Janeiro - 23% -. As it can be noticed, item (28) provided the highest percentage of wrong responses. Why interference was more serious in this item is beyond explanation.

Group 22 - Days of the week - the predictions were not confirmed. The learners' success might again be attributed to the methodology of the course.

In group 23 - Parts of the day - the wrong choice was A, which is a "nunce-mistake".

Group 24 - Festivals - the hypothesis is confirmed. Item (12) They spent ___ Christmas with their relatives - 33% - chose THE, 17% - A, and - 10% - AN. The first two are cases of language transfer but of different kinds. In Portuguese,

when Christmas (Natal) is used with recurrent meaning, that is, celebrated every year, it comes with "O" but with reference to an indefinite past or future "NATAL" the indefinite "UM" is used. These learners may not have made this distinction and have transferred one of the NL forms. The choice of AN seems to be a performance mistake.

Item (32) My friends are going to spend ___ Carnival in Salvador, here we have: THE - 54% -, A - 13% - and AN - 13% -. The analysis for item (12) also applies here.

Item (52) ___ Easter was enjoyable, - 64% - chose THE, - 3% - A and - 3% - AN. The first choice is again clear case of language transfer and the other two are "nonce-mistakes".

In items (72) My family will get together to celebrate_______

Independence Day - the prediction was confirmed without exception (100% wrong answers).

Item (92) ___ Teacher's Day is in October - also shows a high percentage (83%).

Table D 11 - Group 25 - MASS NOUNS IN ENGLISH AND PORTUGUESE SPECIFIC INDEFINITE REFERENCE: ZERO ARTICLE in English vs. INDEFINITE ARTICLE in Portuguese

Item (18) They can give you ____ information about the city - 67% - chose AN while - 16% - preferred THE. The first choice

is a clear case of language transfer. It must be noticed that the learners transferred the NL use but followed the TL form. The choice of THE is also transfer but of a different type of reference.

Item (59) It is difficult to find ___ parking in this city, we have -73% - with A and -27% - with THE. The analysis of item (18) applies here.

Table D 11 - Group 26 - PROFESSIONS SPECIFIC INDEFINITE REFERENCE: INDEFINITE ARTICLE in English vs. ZERO ARTICLE in Portuguese

The result does not confirm the hypothesis. The learners' success can only be attributed to the methodology used in the course. The students had practised structures in which those elements appear and have assimilated the TL form.

Table SD - 12 - Group 27 - COUNT PLURAL NOUNS GENERIC REFERENCE: ZERO ARTICLE in English vs. DEFINITE or ZERO ARTICLE in Portuguese

In this group all the errors were caused by NL interference. Almost all the testees chose THE. As in Portuguese either the DEFINITE or ZERO ARTICLE can be used, the students have transferred the form which is more common in their dialect, that is, the one with the definite article, thus confirming our prediction.

Table SD 12 - Group 28 - ABSTRACT MASS NOUNS GENERIC

REFERENCE: ZERO ARTICLE in English vs. DEFINITE ARTICLE or ZERO

ARTICLE in Portuguese

Item (4) ____ Happiness is part of life - 53% - of the learners have THE. Here again Portuguese allows the use of either the DEFINITE or ZERO ARTICLE without any change of reference. But in this group the difference in usage is not as marked as in group 27, because the nouns are abstract, in which the DEFINITE and ZERO ARTICLE are practically interchangeable.

Item (64) We all need ____ help from our friends. This item has raised a more complex problem. In Portuguese if the reference is generic, ZERO ARTICLE is used; if the reference is specific, then the DEFINITE ARTICLE is used. Only - 10% - took the item to have specific reference; - 23% - preferred A which although possible in other context is very unusual in this one.

Table SD 12 - Group 29 - CONCRETE MASS NOUNS GENERIC
REFERENCE: ZERO ARTICLE in English vs. ZERO or DEFINITE ARTICLE
in Portuguese

Item (3) ___ Milk is good for children - the prediction here was of a high percentage of correct answers as in Portuguese ZERO ARTICLE is more usual with categorical statements equivalent to general truths. The prediction has been confirmed for only

- 20% - chose THE.

Table SD 13 - Group 30 - MASS NOUNS IN ENGLISH AND PORTUGUESE INDEFINITE SPECIFIC REFERENCE: ZERO ARTICLE in English vs. ZERO or DEFINITE ARTICLE in Portuguese

Item (79) His hubby is ____ photography, we have - 27% - with THE and - 17% - with A. Those who chose THE have followed the more usual NL pattern. The choice of A shows that they mistook photography (fotografia = abstract mass) for photograph (fotografia, retrato = concrete count) which does not make sense in the context.

Table SD 14 - Group 31 - PROPER NAMES UNIQUE REFERENCE:
ZERO ARTICLE in English vs. DEFINITE or ZERO ARTICLE in
Portuguese

(tem (8) ____ John was here and (88) ____ Mary visited me last year. In Portuguese the DEFINITE ARTICLE denotes familiarity and in some parts of Brazil, Santa Catarina included, there is a strong tendency to use it in all cases. The high percentage of correct responses is most probably due to the high frequency of occurrence of proper names in the course book.

1.12 THE LOW THEE

Table SD 14 - Group 32 - PARTS OF THE DAY UNIQUE REFERENCE:

DEFINITE ARTICLE in English vs. ZERO or DEFINITE ARTICLE IN

Portuguese

Despite the fact that Portuguese allows ZERO or DEFINITE article only - 12% - of the learners followed NL pattern, thus refuting the prediction. The analysis of group 31 also applies here.

3.3. CONCLUSIONS

- (1) The analysis shows that the greatest difficulty is connected with generic reference.
- (2) As to the type of noun, it is mass nouns that present major problems.
- (3) In tables 5 there were no transfer errors, as expected. Most of the errors were overgeneralizations.
- (4) In tables D the errors are mostly caused by NL transfer, which confirms the predictions. The average is 47% -: There have occurred some examples of "nonce-mistakes" and a few of performance mistakes.
- (5) In tables SD we find again transfer errors but the average is lower (34%).

CONCLUSIONS

It is our belief that this study has proved that the combination of the analysis a priori (CA) and the analysis a posteriori (EA) is a valid approach for studying learners' difficulties, for with CA alone we would not have been able to analyse the source of the errors. Besides, it brings to light a number of elements which had not been thought of, thus opening up prospectus for analysis. An example taken from our experience in this paper is the outstanding role that type of reference plays in article usage.

The study is only a first step in the investigations of the interference of NL in the learning of a TL as well as of errors only accounted for by EA.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- BECHARA, Evanildo. 1976. Moderna Gramática portuguesa. São Paulo: Nacional.
- BOUTON, Lawrence F. 1976. The problem of equivalence in contrastive analysis. <u>International review of applied linguistics</u>, Heidelberg; Germany, 14 (2): 143-63, May.
- CEGALLA, Domingos Paschual. 1976. <u>Novíssima gramática da lín</u>gua portuguesa. São Paulo, Nacional.
- CHAU, Tran-Thi. 1975. Error analysis, contrastive analysis and student's perception: a study of difficulty in second-language learning. <u>International review of applied linguistics</u>. Heidelberg; Germany, 13 (2): 119 43, May.
- CHRISTOPHERSEN, P. & SANDVED, A. O. 1976. An advanced English grammar. London, Macmillan.
- CARROLL, John B. 1968. Contrastive analysis and interference theory. In ALATIS, James E (ed). Report of the nineteenth annual round table on linguistics and language studies.

 Washington, D.C., Georgetown University Press, 21: 113 22.
- CATFORD, J. C. 1968. Contrastive analysis and language teaching. In: ALATIS, James E. (ed). Report of the nineteenth annual round table meeting on linguistics and language studies.

 Washington, D.C., Georgetown University Press. 21: 139 73.
- CORDER, S. P. 1974. The significance of learners' errors. In: RICHARDS, Jack C. (ed). Error analysis, perspective on second language acquisition. London, Longman, 19-27.
- In: RICHARDS, Jack C. (ed). Error analysis; perspective on second language acquisition. London, Longman, 159 71.
- . 1974. Error analysis. In: ALLEN, J. P. B. & CORDER, S. P. (eds). <u>Techniques in applied linguistics</u>. London, Oxford University Press, v. 3, 122 54.
- CRYSTAL, David. 1967. English. <u>Lingua 17</u>, Amsterdan, North-Holland Publishing: 24 56.

- CUNHA, Celso. 1972. <u>Gramática da língua portuguesa</u>. Rio de Janeiro, Fundação Nacional de Material Escolar.
- DUSKOVÁ, Libuse. 1969. On sources of errors in foreign language learning. International review of applied linguistics, Heidelberg; Germany, 7 (1): 11 36, February.
- ECKERSLEY, C.E. & ECKERSLEY, J. M. 1969. A comprehensive English grammar. London, Longman.
- FERGUSON, Charles A. 1968. Contrastive Analysis and language development. In: ALATIS, James E. (ed) Report of the nineteenth annual round table meeting on linguistics and language studies, Washington, D.C., Georgetown University Press, 21: 101 12.
- FRENCH, F. G. 1961. <u>Common errors in English</u>. London, Oxford University Press.
- FRIES, Charles C. 1945. <u>Teaching and learning English as a</u> foreign language. Ann Arbor, <u>Mniversity of Michigan Press</u>.
- GEORGE, H.V. 1972. Common errors in language learning; insights from English. Massachusetts, Newbury House Publishers.
- GRADMAN, Harry L. 1971 a. The limitations of contrastive analysis predictions. Working papers in linguistics. [Hawaii], University of Hawaii, 3 (4): 11 5.
- . 1971 b. What methodologists ignore in contrastive teaching. Working papers in linguistics.

 [Hawaii] , University of Hawaii, 3 (4): 11 23.
- . 1970. The contrastive hypothesis: what it is and what it isn't. (umpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Indiana University).
- HALLIDAY, M.A.K. & HASAN, Ruquaiya. 1976. <u>Cohesion in English</u>. London, Longman.
- HAMP, Eric P. 1968. What a contrastive grammar is not, if it is. In: ALATIS, James E. (ed) Report of the nineteenth annual round table meeting on linguistics and language studies.

 Washington, D.C., Georgetown University Press, 21: 137 47.
- HEATON, J. B. 1975. Writing English language tests. Lundon, Longman, 197.
- INGRAM, Elizabeth. 1970. Item Analysis. In: DAVIES, Allan (ed)

 Language testing symposium; a psycholinguitic approach.

 London, Oxford University Press, 191 203.

- JACK30N, Kenneth L. 1971. The verification and comparison of contrastive analysis. Working papers in linguistics.

 [Hawaii], University of Hawaii, 3 (4): 201 9.
- JAIN, M. P. 1974. Error analysis: source, cause and significance.
 In: RICHARDS, Jack C. (ed) Error analysis; perspective on
 second language acquisition. London, Longman, 189 215.
- JESPERSEN, Otto. 1949. A modern English grammar on historial principles. Copenhagen, Ejnar Munksgaard, v. VII.
- . 1960. Essential of English grammar. London, Morrison and Gibb.
- JOHANSSON, Stig. 1975. The uses of error analysis and contrastive analysis. English language teaching. London, Oxford University Press, 29 (3): 246 336, April.
- LADO, Robert. 1957. <u>Linguistics across cultures</u>. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press.
- . 1967. <u>Language testing</u>. London, Longmans.
- . 1968. Contrastive linguistics in a mentalistic theory of language learning. In: ALATIS, James E. (ed)

 Report of the nineteenth annual round table on linguistics and language studies. Washington, D.C., Georgetown University Press, 21: 123 35.
- LEECH, Geoffrey N. 1969. Towards a semantic description of English. London, Longman.
- LEE, W.R. 1968. Thoughts on contrastive a linguistics and textbook structures. In: ALATIS, James E. (ed) Report of the nineteenth annual round table on linguistics and language studies. Washington, D.C., Georgetown University Press, 21: 185 93.
- LIMA, Carlos Henrique da Rocha. 1974. Gramática normativa da língua portuguesa. 17 ed., Rio de Janeiro, J. Olympio.
- LYONS, John. 1971. <u>Introduction to theoretical linguistics</u>. Cambridge, Ingl. University Press.
- MELO, J. Nelino de. 1971. Estudos práticos de gramática normativa da língua portuguesa. 2. ed., Rio de Janeiro, Bruno Buccini.

- NEMSER, W. "Recent trends in contrastive linguistics" [s.n.t.]
- & SLAMA-CAZACU, T. 1970. A contribution to contrastive linguistics; a psycholinguistic approach: contact analysis. Revue Roumaine de Linguistique, [s.e.], 15 (2): 101 28.
- . 1974. Approximative systems of foreign language learners. In: RICHARDS, Jack C. (ed) <u>Error analysis; perspective</u> on second language acquisition. London, Longman, 55 -63.
- NICKEL, G. 1971. Problems of learner's difficulties in foreign-language acquisition. <u>International review of applied linguistics</u>, Heidelberg; Germany, 9 (3): 219 27, August.
- OLLER, John W. Jr. 1971. Difficulty and predictability.

 Working papers in linguistics. Hawaii, , University of Hawaii, 3 (4): 79 98.
- POLITZER, R. L. & STAUBACK, C.N. 1961. <u>Teaching Spanish: a linguistic prientation</u>. New York, Balisdel.
- POTTIER, Bernard et alii. 1972. <u>Estruturas lingüísticas do</u> português. 2. ed., rev., São Paulo, Difusão Européia.
- RENARD, Colette & HEINLE, Charles Henry. 1969. <u>Implementing</u>
 voix et images de france; part I. Philadelphia, Chilton
 Books.
- RICHARDS, Jack C. 1974. A non-contrastive approach to error analysis. In: RICHARDS, Jack C. (ed) <u>Error analysis; perspective</u> on second language acquisition, London, Longman, 172 88.
- RIVERS, Wilga M. 1968. Contrastive linguistics in textbook and classroom. In: ALATIS, James E. (ed) Report of the nineteenth annual round table meeting on linguistics and studies. Washington, D.C., Georgetown University. 21: 151 7.
- SACCONI, Luiz Antonio. 1972. <u>Português...bem mais fácil: livro</u> de texto. São Paulo, Atlas.
- SCIARONE, A.G. 1971. Contrastive analysis; possibilities and limitations. International review of applied linguistics, Heidelberg; Germany, 8: (2): 20-32, May.
- SELINKER, Larry, 1971. A brief reappraisal of Contrastive linguistics. Working papers in linguistics. [Hawaii], University of Hawaii, 3 (4): 1 10.

- ed). Error analysis; perspective on second language acquisition. London, Longman. 31-54.
- SCOTT, Margaret Sue & TUCKERS, Richard. 1974. Error analysis and English language strategies of Arab students. Language learning ajournal of applied linguistics, s. e. , 24 (1): 69 97, June.
- STOCKWELL, Robert P. et alii. 1965. The grammatical structures of English and Spanish. Chicago, The University Press.
- STRANG, Barbara M. H. 1969. Modern English structure. London, Ednard Arnold.
- STREVENS, P. 1969. Two ways of looking at error analysis. Pre-publication draft. Washington, D. C., Eric Document Reproduction Semice.
- THOMSON, A.J. & MARTINET, A.V. 1968. A practical English grammar. 2nd. edition. London, Oxford University Press.
- VAN BUREN, Paul. 1974. Contrastive analysis. In: ALLEN J.P.B. & CORDER, S. P. (eds) Techniques in applied linguistics. London, Oxford University Press, v.III, 279 306.
- WASHINGTON, Carrol G. 1969. Implementing American English by the audio-visual method in American schools and colleges. Philadelphia, Center for curriculum development.
- WARDAUGH, Ronald. 1975. The contrastive analysis hypothesis. in: SCHUMAN, John H. & STENSON, Nancy (eds). New frontiers in second language learning. Massachusetts, Newbury House Publishers.
- WILKINS, D.A. 1974. Linguistics in language teaching. Great Britain, Edward Arnold.
- ZANDVOORT, R.W. 1975. A handbook of English grammar. 7th. edition. London, Longman.
- ZYBATIB, Wolfgang. 1976. A 'kiss of life' for the notion of error. International review of applied linguistics, Heidelberg, Germany, 12 (3): 231 7, August.

Appendix I

	Marque	com um	"X" a	artie	30 que v	ocê ju	lgar	o ma	is adequado)
para	cada un	a dessa	s fra	ses.	Se você	achar	que	não	é necessári	O
usar	artigo,	assina	le a	letra	"d "					

			A Company of the	19 (4)	14.		,			
(01)	••••	CHILD	REN LIKI	TO	PLAY.	•	<u>.</u> .			
	a.()the	b.()a		C & ()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(02)	- And though the trapp	TABLE	USUALLY	HAS	FOUR I	EGS.				
	a.()the	ъ.()a		c. ()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(03)	-	MITK I	S GOOD 1	FOR C	HILDRE	EN.				
	a.()the	b.()a		c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(04)		_HAPPIN	ess is i	PART	OF LIE	TE.				
	a.()the	ъ.()a		c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(05)	SHE	SHOWED 1	VICE	LETT	ER SHE	RECI	EIVED.			
	a.()the	b.()a		c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(06)		MILK I	N THIS I	BOTTL	E IS N	OT GO	DD.			
	a.(3)the	b.()a		c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(07)		HAPPY D	AYS THEY	riv	ED TOG	ETHEF	DID :	AL TON	ST VERY 1	CONG.
	a.()the	b.()a		c.()an	a.()nenhum	artigo
(08)		JOHN WAS	S HERE Y	ESTE	RDAY.					
	a.()the	ъ.()a		c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(09)	THEY	WENT TO	O I	BAHIA	LAST	YEAR.	•			
ε	a.() the	b.()a		c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(10)	HE U	SUALLY !	PRAVELS	on _	SUN	DAY.				
								d.()nenhum	artigo
(11)	WE H	AVE CLAS	SSES IN		MORNIN	IG.				
)nenhum	artigo
			CHRIS							
)nenhum	artigo
			INA IS I	-						
						c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
			en e							
		14 4	n. (Ìs.		11 4 1		(s .	14 Marie 1	January B

114)	HE I	SCAPEI	FROM		PRISON.				
	a.()the	b.()a	e.()an	a•()nenhum	artigo
(15)	SHE	BOUGHT	B(OK.	IT IS VE	RY INT	TERESTING,		
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(16)	HE P	PASSED	BY	SCH	OOL YESTE	RDAY.			
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.(nenhum	artigo
(17)	HE W	ANTS I	O BE	_ D	OCTOR.			-	
	a.()the	ъ.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(18)	THEY	CAN C	OY AVI	J	_ INFORMA!	TION A	BOUT THE	CITY.	
	a.()the	ъ.()a	e.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(19)	SHE	BOUGHT	A HOUS	E.	Hous	e is n	EW.		
	a.()the	ъ.()a	c.()an	d .()nenhum	artigo
(20)	***************************************	LIONS	ARE WI	IID 1	ANIMALS.				
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an.	d.()nenhum	artigo
(21)		CHAIR	IS USUA	LLY	MADE OF 1	WOOD;			
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(2 2)	HE L	IKES I	O DRINE		TEA.				
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(23)	HOW	DID _	_ LIFE	BEG	IN?				
							d.()nenhum	artigo
(24)		•			JS IS NOT				
							d. ()nenhum	artigo
					DELICIOUS				
							đ.(artigo
							OF THEIR		
							d.()nenhum	artigo
					MR. BROWN				
	a.()the	Ъ. ()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo

(28)	MY F	AMILY VI	SITED	-	EUROPE A	YEAR	AGO.		
	a.()the	b.() a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(29)	HE V	ISITS ME	on _	FRI	DAYS.				
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(30)	WE H	AVE EXAM	S IN .	NO	VEMBER.				
	a.()the	b•(()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(31)	I WAT	CH TV I	N	EVENI	NG.				
	a.()the	b •()a	c.()an	d.())nenhum	artigo
(32)	MY FI	RIENDS AI	RE GO	ING TO	SPEND	CAR	NIVAL	IN SALVA	DOR.
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(33)	HER I	BIRTHDAY	IS II	N N	MAY.				
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhun	artigo
(34)	SHE (COMES FR	OM	NORT	HEAST.				
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(35)	HE W	ent to _	SCI	A LOOE	LONE.				
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d. ()nenhum	artigo
(36)	SHE S	SOLD	WATCH	H. IT	BELONGED	TO HE	R FATH	ER.	
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(37)	THEY	WANT TO	VISI	<u> </u>	CHURCH.				
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(38)	SHE I	DOES NOT	WANT	TO BE	TEA	CHER			
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d. ()nenhum	artigo
(39)	MARY	BOUGHT	NI	ew fur	NITURE F	OR HER	HOUSE	•	
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(40)	SHE I	RECEIVED	A LET	PTER.	LETT	ER WAS	FROM	HER FATH	ær.
a	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(41)	HE L	IKES	DOGS	•					
	a.()the	b.() a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(42)		BLACKBO	ARD IS	S TO W	RITE ON.				
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo

(43)	MY FF	RIENDS	DRINK	co	FFEE A	AFTER E	VERY N	EAL.	
	a.()the	b. ()a	es ()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(44)	NOBOI	OY CAN	LIVE V	VITHOUT	ranjende e e e	JOY.			
	a.()the	७.€) a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(45)		TEACHE	RS I F	HAVE AR	e ver	GOOD.			
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(46)		ICECRE	AM MY	MOTHER	MADE	WAS VE	RY GOO	D.	
	a.'()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(47)		STUPID	ITY OF	THAT I	MAN I	/IPRESSE	D ME.		
	a. ()the	b.()a	c.()an	d. ()nenhum	artigo
(48)	I AM	GOING	TO VIS	SIT	JOHNS	SONS.			
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(49)	I SPE	ENT MY	VACATI	on in	UI	VITED S	PATES.		
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	a.()nenhum	artigo
(50)	ON _	SATU	RDAY M	ORNING:	s they	GO SH	OPPING	֥	
	a.()the	b.()a	c. ()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(51)	SHE A	RRIVED	AFTER	1	MIDNI	HT.			
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d. ()nenhum	artigo
(52)	endpagamanen	EASTER	WAS E	enjoyab	LE.			٠	
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(53)						OUNTAIN			
	a.()the	ъ. ()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(54)	MY HO	OUSE IS	IN _	EAST	PART	OF THE	CITY.		
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(55)	HE GO	DES TO	CH	TURCH E	VERY I	AY.		,	
	a.()the	b.()a	e.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(56)	THEY	HAD	_ CAT.	IT DI	ED LAS	T YEAR	•		
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	rtigo

(57)	SHE	is sitti	NG ON	BE	D,				
	a.()the	b.()a.	c, ()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(58)	MY F	RIEND IS	I	NURSE.					
					•)nenhum	
(59)	IT IS	5 DIFFIC	ULT TO	O FIND	PA	RKING	IN TH	HIS CTTY	•
8	a.()the	b.()a	o, ()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(60)	MARY	BOUGHT	A NEW	DRESS.	I	DRESS :	IS YEI	LLOW.	
	a.()the	b.()a	e.()an	a,()nenhum	artigo
(61)	THEY	HATE	CATS	5.					
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(62)		HOUSE H	AS DO	DRS AND	WINDO	ows.			
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(63)	(CID IS	A META	L.					
	a.()the	b.() <u>e</u> .	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(64)	WE AI	LL NEED	H	ELP FROM	I OUR	FRIEN	DS.		
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(65)	HE LI	ent me	B(OK HE	30 UGHI	! •			
	a.()the	b •()a	c.()an	d. ()nenhum	artigo
(66)]	INK SHE	BOUGHI	IS BLU	Æ.				
	a.()the	ъ.()a	c.()an	ā.()nenhum	artigo
(67)	SHE V	VILL ALW.	AYS RE	MEMBER	K	INDNE	SS OF	HER FRIE	ENDS.
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	a. ()nenhum	artigo
(68)	1	RS.JOHN	SON CA	LLED YO	OU HAI	F AN F	HOUR A	.GO.	
	a.()the	h.t)a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(69)	THE N	EETING	WAS IN	RI	O DE	JANEIF	20.		
	a.(.)the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo

(70)	I TO.	VE	SUNDAYS.						
	a.()the	ეზ. ()a	e.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(71)	THE :	LUS LE	AVES AT	-	NOON.		<u>\</u>		
	a.()the	ъ.()a	e.()an	d. ()nenhum	artigo
(72\$	My P	AMILY	WILL GET	T 00	SETHER TO	CELI	EBRATE _	INDEPENI	DENCE DAY
	a.()the	ъ.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(73)	LAST	D	ecember i	W	ENT TO THE	BEA	ACH.		
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	đ.()nenhum	artigo
(74)	PARA	IS IN	NORI	H (OF BRAZIL.	•			
	a.()the	- ზ.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(75)	THEY	ARE S	rill in		BED.				
	a.()the	b. ()a	c.()an	a.()nenhum	artigo
(76)	MY F	RIENDS	WANT	H	OUSE. IT N	ust	BE BIG	AND COMF	RTABLE.
	a.()the	ъ.()a	c.()an	d •()nenhum	artigo
(77)	THEY	ARE G	OING TO V	'IS	T NE	PR	ISON.		
	a.()the	v. ()a	e•()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(78)	MY S	ISTER :	IS EN	GIN	EER.				
	a.()the	b.()a	0.()an	ā.()nenhum	artigo
(79)	HIS I	HOBBY :	IS PH	OTO	GRAPHY.				
	a.()the	ъ.()a	c.()an	. a.()nenhum	artigo
(80)	HE SO	OLD A	CAR.	CAF	WAS YERY	OII	O•		
	a.()the	ъ.()a	c.(,)an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(81)	-	GEACH	ers must	BE	PATIENT.				
	a.()the	ъ.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(82)	******************	CAR H	AS FOUR T	YRE	S.				
	a.()the	ъ.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(83)	YOU S	SHOULD	EAT	FH	UIT EVERY	DAY	₹•		
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo

(84)	THEY	LIKE	MUS:	IC VI	ERY MUCI	I.			
	a.()the	ъ.()a	c.()an	•	a.()nenhum artigo
(8 5)		AMERIC	ANS WHO	ARE	MY FRIE	ends	ARE	GOIN	G TO ARRIVE.
	a. ()the	`b.()a	c.()an	(d.()nenhum artigo
(86)		COFF	ce i mai	DE WA	AS VERY	STR	ONG.		
	a.()the	ъ.()a	ਰ•਼()an	•	d.()nenhum artigo
(87)		LIFE	THEY LI	VE IS	S UNREAL	٠.			
	a ()the	b .()a	o.()an	•	a.()nenhum artigo
(88)	~	MARY	VISITED	ME 1	LAST YEA	R.			
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	•	a.()nenhum artigo
(89)	THEY	ARE G	OING TO	-	POR TUGA	LĻ NI	EXT M	ONTH	•
	a.()the	b.()a	o.()an	(ā.()nenhum artigo
(90)	I DO	NOT L	IKE	MONI	DAYS.				
	a.()the	ъ.()a	c.()an	(a.()nenhum artigo
(91)	IN _	AFT	ernoon.	THEY	PREPAR	E TH	EIR	LESS	ons.
	a.()the	b.()a	e.()an	().f)nenhum artigo
(92)	-	TEACH	ER'S DAY	rıs	IN OCTO	BER.	•		
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	Ċ	i.()nenhum artigo
(93)		AUGUS!	r is T HE	E ODDI	LDEST MC	NTH	OF T	HE :	YEAR.
	a.()the	b.()a	c.()an	Ċ	1.()nenhum ætigo
(94)	THEY	LIVE :	IN A TOV	N IN	WE	ST I	PART (OF N	HE STATE.
	a.()the	ъ.()a	e.()an		<u> </u>)nenhum artigo

(9 5)	THE :	STUDEN	TS ARE	IN _	CLA	SS.			
	a.()the	ъ.()a	c.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(96)	I WAI	TY	CAR. 1	T MU	ist be	CHEAP	AND SM	IALL.	
	a.()the	ъ, ()a	a.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(97)	HIS I	HOUSE	IS NEAF		HOSPI	TAL.			
	a.()the	b. ()	a	c•()an	a.()nenhum	artigo
(98)	MY F	ATHER	IS	LAWY	ER'.				
	a.()the	b •()a	e.()an	d.()nenhum	artigo
(99) I	ie wr	ITES _	POE	TRY.					
	æ ()the	b. ()a	a.()an	d .()nenhum	artigo
(100)	I HAV	VE A D	og	DOG	IS BLAG	CK ANI) WHITE	i i	
	a.()the	b •()a	c.()an	d. ()nenhum	artigo

Appendix II

Grades obtained by the students on the Article Test

Students	Grade	Students	Grade
OI	89	16	61
02	84	17	61
03	82	18	61
04	77	19	60
05	72	20	60
06	72	21	58
07	72	55	58
08	71	23	58
09	71	24	57
10	69	25	52
, 11	69	27	52
12	69	27	50
13	66	28	50
14	65	29	49
15	63	30	47

Appendix III

ITEM ANALYSIS

Test: Article usage

School: Language Laboratory - FURB Date: August, 1977

Level: 5th and 6th grades: N:30 N/3:10

l Item	2 Upper	3∂ Middle	4 Lower	5. to.	6 %	7 Dif.	8 E ₁₋₃
01	2	1	0	3	10	2	.20
02	7	5	4	1.6	53	3	.30
03	10	8	6	24	80	44	•40
04	7	1	0	8	27	7	•70
05	6	1	3	10	33	3	•30
06	9	10	6	25	83	3	•30
07	6	5	5	16	53	1	•10
08	10	10	10	30	100	0	0
09	10	9	6	25	83	4	•40
10	9	7	6	22	73	3	.30
11	10	10	9	29	97	1	.10
12	8	2	2	12	40	6	•60
13	7	7	4	18	60	3	.30
14	2	1	2	5	17	0	0
15	10	8	5	23	77	5	•50
16	8	7	4	19	63	4	.40
17	9	9	5	23	74	4	40
18	1	1	3	5	17	-2	-:20
19	10	9	9	28	93	1	.10
20	6	2	0	8	27	6	.60

1.	1	٥	0	7	3		† 1
21	1	0	. 0	1	.3	1	.60
22	10	7	7	24	8 0	3	•30
23	1	0	1	2	7	0	0
24	9	8	7.	24	80	2	•20
25	10	7	9	36	87	1.	.10
26	6	3	0	9	90	3	•30
27	10	10	7	27	90	3	•30
28	7	3	3	13	43	4	•40
29	9	8	7	24	80	2	•20
30	10	9	10	29	97	0	0
31	10	10	9	29	97	1	.10
32	3	2	1	6	20	2	•20
33	10	10	9	29	97	1	.10
34	4	6	4	14	47	0	0
35	4	3	2	9	30	2	•20
36	5	7	7	19	63	-2	20
37	9	12	9	30	100	0	0
38	7	9	5	21	70	2	•20
39	3	0	0	3	30	3	•30
40	10	10	10	30	100	0	0
41	8	6	3	17	57	5	•50
42	2	1	0	3	10	2	.20
43	8	7	5	20	67	3	•30
44	9	5	14	18	60	5	.50
45	9	8	9	26	87	0	0
46	9	8	8	25	83	1	•10
47	9	8	3	20	67	6	•60
48	9	8	6	23	77	3	•30

49	8	6	8	22	73 🗓	0 .0	0
50	9	8	6	23	77.	3 3	∙30 35
51	8	8	6	22	73	2	.20
52	4	1	4	9	30	0	0
53	10	10	8	28	93	2	.20
54	7	9	8	24	80	-1	10
55	1	1	0	2	7	1	•10
56	10	9	10	29	97	0	0
57	11	10	8	29	97	3	•30
58	10	10	6	26	87	4	•40
59	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
60	10	10	10	30	100	0	0
61	10	6	3	19	63	7	•70
62	6	4	1	11	37	5	•50
63	8	6	4	18	60	4	•40
64	8	6	6	20	67	2	, 20
65	6	3	3	12	40	3	•30
, 66	9	9	9	27	90	0	0
67	10	6	5	21	70	5	•50
68	10	10	9	29	97	1	.10
69	9	7	7	23	77	2	•20
70	9	3	3	15	50	6	.60
71	10	8	9	27	90	1	.10
72	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
73	10	9	6	25	83	4	•40
74	10	9	6	25	83	4	•40
75	8	4	3	15	50	5	•50
76	10	9	7	26	87	3	•30
77	10	6	3	19	63	7	.70

	•		•	1	:		?
78	9	9	10	28	93	-1	10
7 9	10	4	3	17	· 57	7	.70
80	10	10	10	30	100	0	0
81	5	2	0	7	23	5	•50
82	4	5	1	10	33	3	•30
83	6	7	7	20	67	-1	10
84	8	8	3	19	63	5	.50
85	10	9	9	28	93	ı	.10
86	10	9	10	29	97	0	0
87	9	8	9	26	87	0	0
88	9	9	9	2 7	9 0	0	0
89	10	9	6	25	83	4	•40
90	9	6	5	20	67	4	•40
91	9	9	8	26	87	1	.10
92	3	1	1	5	17	2	•20
93	10	10	7	27	90	3	•30
94	10	7	9	3 6	87	1	.10
95	2	1	0	3	10	2	•50
96	10	10	10	30	100	0	0
97	8	7	7	22	73	1	.10
98	10	8	7	29	97	1	.10
99	8	5	2	15	50	6	•60
100	10	10	10	30	100	0	0

Appendix IV

Grades obtained by the testees on the Even and Odd Items

+					
Students	Even	Odd	Students	Even	Odd
01	44	45	16	34	27
02	43	41	17	32	39
03	42	40	18	32	39
04	38	39	19	31	29
05	35	37	20	29	31
06	35	3 7	21	31	27
07	34	38	22	30	28
08	37	34	23	32	26
09	39	32	24	31	26
10	32	37	25	28	24
11	32	37	26	23	29
12	36	33	27	24	26
13	. 33	33	28	28	22
14	32	33	29	27	22
15	31	32	30	26	21
		11	1		