

**ENGLISH ARTICLES
AND
THE PROBLEMS IN LEARNING THEM**



by

Suharyanto

I. 2232



**Faculty of Language and Literature
Institute of Education and Teacher Training
SANATA DHARMA**

Yogyakarta

1988

**ENGLISH ARTICLES
AND
THE PROBLEMS IN LEARNING THEM**

**A Thesis
Presented to
English Department
Faculty of Language and Literature
Institute of Education and Teacher Training
SANATA DHARMA**

**A Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for
the Degree of
Sarjana Pendidikan**

by

Suharyanto

I. 2232

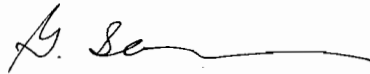
**Yogyakarta
April, 1988**

Approved by



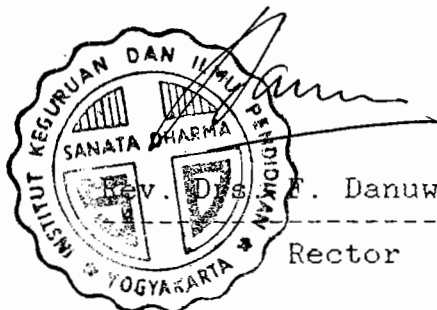
Drs. A. Aryanto, M.A.

Major Sponsor



Dr. Gloria Poedjosoedarmo

Sponsor



Dr. Danuwinata S.J.

Rector



Dr. Soepomo Poedjosoedarmo

Head of the Department



CONTENTS

	page
APPROVAL.....	iii
CONTENTS.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	viii
CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION.....	1
A. The Background of the Study	1
B. The Purpose of the Study	4
C. The Scope of the Study	4
D. The Rationale for Using Error Analysis	5
E. The Methodology of the Study	6
F. The Organization of the Thesis	7
CHAPTER TWO - ENGLISH ARTICLES.....	10
A. The Origin of Articles	12
B. Articles as Determiners	13
C. The Position of Articles	14
D. The Forms and the Pronunciation of Articles	15

E. Articles and Noun Classes	16
F. Specific and Generic Reference	23
G. The System of Article Usage	24
1. Generic Reference	24
a. Mass Nouns and Plural Nouns with Modifiers	27
b. Adjectives as Heads	28
c. Nationality Words	29
2. Specific Reference	30
a. Definite Reference	31
b. Indefinite Reference	35
c. Common Nouns as Complements	36
d. Mass Noun with Articles	38
e. Common Nouns with No Article	39
3. Unique Reference	42
a. Proper Nouns with No Article	44
b. Proper Nouns with the Definite Article	47
CHAPTER THREE - ERROR ANALYSIS.....	51
A. The Means of Obtaining the Data.....	51
1. Part A	52
2. Part B	54
3. Part C	54
B. The Source of the Data	55
C. The Results of Observation of the Data	56
1. The Achievement in Each Group	57
2. The Number of Students Who Achieved 75% Correct Articles	58
3. The Achievement in Each Part of the Test	59

4. Individual Achievementnt	61
a. Individual Achievement in Part A	61
b. Individual Achievement in Part B	62
c. Individual Achievement in Part C	63
D. The Types, the Percentage and the Number of Errors ..	63
1. Part A/Part B	65
a. The Number and the Percentage of Addition, Omission and Substitution of Articles ..	67
b. The Number and the Percentage of Wrong Uses of Each Article.....	68
2. Part C	69
a. The Types, the Number and the Percentage of Error	70
b. The Number and Percentage of Wrong Uses of Each Article	71
E. The Possible Sources of Difficulty	71
1. The Possible Sources of Difficulty Lying in the Target Language	72
a. Unfamiliarity with the Pronunciation of Words	73
b. Unfamiliarity with Noun Classes	74
c. The Concept of Generic/Specific and Definite/Indefinite	74
d. Many Exceptions in Article Usage	77
2. Interference from the Mother Tongue	77
3. The Possible Sources of Difficulty Lying in the Present Teaching	80
CHAPTER FOUR - SUGGESTIONS TO IMPROVE STUDENT'S MASTERY OF	

THE USES OF ARTICLES	91
A. Suggestions for the Syllabus	91
B. Teaching English Articles Situationally and Context- ually	88
CONCLUSION.....	101
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	103
APPENDIXES.....	106

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

With the accomplishment of this thesis first of all I wish to express my deep gratitude to Mr. A. Aryanto, my major sponsor, for his kind encouragement, his sincere willingness to read through the thesis even in the midst of his busy work, and his suggestions and comments on its content.

Then I would like to thank Mrs. Gloria Poedjosoedarmo, my sponsor, for her meticulously reading the first draft of this thesis and her correction on grammatical errors. Her suggestions on the typing were also of great value to make this thesis look in its present form.

I am deeply indebted to the Managing Staff of Yayasan Santo Louis Palembang, not to mention their names one by one, and to Mr. Masidjo of IKIP Sanata Dharma for giving me an invaluable opportunity to study in this institute and for their help and supports in any form, so that I succeeded in finishing my study.

I am also obliged to the teachers and students of the first semester and of all programs, of the English Department of IKIP Sanata Dharma, in the academic year of 1987/1988 for their willingness to provide the data in this study.

My special thanks also go to Imelda, D. A. for her encouragement when I was down-hearted writing the thesis and for her suggestions and criticisms which proved to be very valuable.

Finally, I would like to dedicate this thesis to my parents, brothers and sisters for their prayers and great concern and other indirect supports so that I managed to keep my spirit in finishing my study.

April, 1988.

Y.M.S.

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

A. The Background of the Study

The English articles a(an) and the are only small words, each of which consists of one syllable. They are classified as function words and are usually unstressed in speech. Furthermore, when they stand by themselves, they do not have any lexical meanings. In certain cases, even if all the articles are left out of a sentence, its meaning can still be understood as shown by the following examples:

- (1) *My mother bought bunch of flowers in market yesterday.
- (2) *Sun rises in east and sets in west.

Given the above facts, however, we cannot say that articles are of little importance and can be overlooked in learning English. There are several factors which make them an important grammar item to master.

First of all, in contrast to the above examples, in other cases the presence or absence of and the choice

between the articles before nouns are very important because they greatly affect the meaning of the nouns and, consequently, the meaning of the sentence. Compare the following two pairs of sentences:

- (1) I want an apple. (2) I want the apple.
(3) These are apples. (4) These are the apples.

The two sentences in each pair consist of exactly the same words except for the articles; an and the in the first pair, the absence of an article and the presence of the in the second. But it is the articles which make the two sentences have different meanings. If those sentences are put into a conversation, for example, in sentence (1) any apple will be all right for the speaker while in (2) the speaker means the particular apple which both he and the hearer know about. In sentence (3) the speaker wants to show the hearer the class of things called 'apple', but in (4) he wants to show the particular apples, for example, which he promised the hearer.

Secondly, articles are among those words which are often used or, in other words, which have a high frequency of occurrence. This is because articles are used with nouns, while nouns are almost always present in English sentences. It will not take a long time for one to find articles used in a piece of speech or writing.

Thirdly, articles are one of the basic items of grammar in learning English and therefore are usually set to

be a minimum requirement. In many English course books (e.g. An Intermediate English Practice Book by S. Pit Corder and Stannard Allan's Living English Structure) articles are dealt with in the beginning of the books. This can be understood since even in dealing with the simplest sentences, articles are often present there. Note the following sorts of sentence which English learners usually begin with:

- (1) This is a book.
- (2) Where is the book?
- (3) He is a good teacher.

Finally, it is obviously better to use articles correctly and to understand their meanings appropriately when used with nouns.

In contrast to the importance of mastering the item, however, it has been widely noted that in learning English as a second or foreign language, articles are the smallest but one of the most difficult items to be learned. The difficulty in dealing with the item is faced even by the teacher.

This situation also seems true among Indonesian learners. To be more precise, the teaching of articles is mentioned in GBPP Kurikulum SMP 1975 (the Outlines of the Teaching Programs of Curriculum for Junior High School 1975), items 1.11.1 and 3.11.1. If we look further at the syllabus, we will notice that articles are mostly presented in the first semester. This means that this item is explicitly taught at the early stage of learning English. In my

experience as a student and a teacher of English, however, even after studying English for six years or more, the learners still find difficulties in using articles appropriately. The uses of articles as in the following sentences are frequent errors that they make:

- (1) *University is place where student and teacher learn.
- (2) *I go to the school by a bicycle.
- (3) *This is an useful tool.
- (4) *I have a homework to do this evening.

Based on the importance of mastering English articles on the one hand, and the fact that Indonesian learners still find difficulties in using this small item on the other hand, I am interested in discovering what makes the item difficult to master? Is it really difficult in itself? Or are there any other factors which may cause the difficulties? And what can teachers do in facing this problem?

B. The Purpose of the Study

By analyzing learners' errors, this thesis attempts to discover what kinds and causes of Indonesian learners' difficulties in using English articles there are and then tries to give some suggestions for overcoming or at least reducing the difficulties.

C. The Scope of the Study

In this thesis, first of all we are going to talk about

English articles themselves. Secondly, we will see the types and percentages of errors the students make. The errors are then analyzed to find out the possible causes of difficulties faced by the learners in learning the articles. Finally, we will discuss some suggestions for a better teaching of the articles based on the analysis, thus for improving the mastery in using them.

D. The Rationale for Using Error Analysis

As implied in the previous discussion, in this study I implement error analysis. The rationale for using this type of analysis mainly comes from its considerable usefulness in language teaching, including the teaching of a foreign language as is the case of English in Indonesia.

According to the error analysis (EA) approach, people cannot learn a language without first committing errors. In this case, learners' errors must be seen not as signs of failure, but as signs of learning the language. S. Pit Corder puts this as follows:

"No one expects a child learning his mother tongue to produce from the earlier stages only forms which in adult terms are correct or non deviant. We interpret his incorrect utterances as being evidence that he is in the process of acquiring language"1)

Then, by analyzing learners' errors, in other words by conducting error analysis, the teacher can gain variable and valuable information which later can be used in helping the

students progress in learning the target language. In the first place, EA can show learners' competence of the language being learned at a particular stage. In this study this means that it can show us Indonesian students' mastery in using the articles after learning English for six years.

Furthermore, in foreign language learning, EA has been presented as 'the shortest way' in analyzing learners' difficulties.²⁾ In this case the teacher should know not only that his students find difficulties but also the types and causes of the difficulties. In this way when he designs a remedial or a new program, the students' difficulties can be avoided.

Finally, EA can tell the teacher many things related to his teaching techniques, materials, and the syllabus he is following, as described by S. Pit Corder in his Introducing Applied Linguistics:

"Errors provide feedback, they tell the teacher something about the effectiveness of his teaching materials and his teaching techniques and show him what parts of the syllabus he has been following have been inadequately learned or taught and need further attention. They enable him to decide whether he can move on to the next item on the syllabus or whether he must devote more time on the item he has been working on. This is the day-to-day value of errors."³⁾

E. The Methodology of the Study

Before conducting the analysis, first of all the writer composed a written test to get a corpus of data. The test was constructed to elicit the use of the English articles.

It was then given to the students of S1, D3, and D2 program in the English Department of IKIP Sanata Dharma.

After conducting the test, the writer began examining the students' work on the test, which resulted in the students' achievement in using the articles. The achievement of each program and group and of all the students involved in this project were recorded. The students' errors were collected to become the data for the analysis.

With the data available the writer began analyzing the errors. At this stage, the students' errors were classified and the percentage of each type of errors was counted. In this way the degree of difficulty of a particular article was discovered. In addition, the students' errors in dealing with the particular uses of an article were also counted.

Finally, the errors were analyzed again and the writer tried to discover the possible causes of the difficulties.

F. The Organization of the Thesis

This thesis consists of four chapters and is presented in the following organization:

Chapter One is the introduction of this thesis where we can look at several general points of the whole thesis concerning the background, the purpose, the scope of the study etc. which we are now discussing.

In Chapter Two the description of English articles is presented. Here several aspects of the articles are discussed such as their origin, forms and pronunciation, and

their system of usage.

Chapter Three deals with the analysis of students' errors in using articles. It starts with the means and the source of data and proceeds with the results of observing the data in the form of the students' achievements. Then it talks about the types of error the students made, the percentage of each type and the possible causes of learners' difficulties.

Based on the findings in the previous chapter, Chapter Four discusses some suggestions for overcoming or at least reducing the learners' difficulties and therefore for improving their mastery in using English articles.

Notes

- 1) S. Pit Corder, "The Significance of Learners' Errors," in International Review of Applied Linguistics, p. 162.
- 2) Stig Johansson, "The Uses of Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis," in English Language Teaching, p. 249.
- 3) S. Pit Corder, Introducing Applied Linguistics, p. 265.

CHAPTER TWO

ENGLISH ARTICLES

As implied in the introduction, the most important part of this thesis is the analysis of Indonesian learners' errors in using English articles. From this analysis it is hoped that some useful suggestions can be proposed for overcoming the learners' difficulties in learning this item.

In this chapter we are going to discuss English articles themselves. However, this must not be considered a special and elaborate study of the articles, either on the whole or from one of their aspects. In this thesis the description of articles will be used, in the first place, as the basis of judgement in analyzing the learners' errors in using them. Secondly, in suggesting better teaching of this item, it is hoped that some useful pedagogical views can be taken from the description of the nature and characteristics of the articles in addition to that taken from the results of the error analysis.

As regards the description of the articles themselves, there have been many, not to say too many, books and

articles which present elaborate illustrations about them or which study a certain aspect of them. This can be understood since articles form one of what is traditionally called 'parts of speech' through which English words have been analyzed from classical times. Therefore, the description of articles which is presented in this chapter is only a compilation from several grammar books and articles which are available to the writer.

To present a short, but as far as possible, complete illustration about the articles, the writer consulted several different grammar books. They include those which were written in recent years, such as A Grammar of Contemporary English (1972), Modern English (1972) and those which can be said 'old' grammar books such as English Grammar (1947) and Descriptive English Grammar (1950). In addition some articles from language journals and magazines were also sought for their information. The whole list of the sources can be seen in the bibliography.

It is also necessary to mention here that the description of the system of article usage in section G. is mostly based on the description presented by Quirk et. al. in their A Grammar of Contemporary English. This choice is taken since their description is considered the most systematic and comprehensible and can cover most problems of article usage. Here and there, however, notes from other books or articles are also given to complete what has not been included by Quirk et. al. or to get a clearer explanation.

A. The Origin of Articles

Unlike Indonesian articles toward which grammarians have not had a unified consensus regarding their definition, functions, and members, English articles have been well defined in those respects. As regards their members, there are two articles in English, i.e. a(an) which is traditionally called the indefinite article and the called the definite article.

A and an are in effect two forms of the same word, of which an is the earlier or original.¹⁾ The n is retained before a word beginning with a vowel sound, for example 'an egg, an old man'. A(an) is the unstressed form of the numeral one.²⁾ Old English an (one), when unstressed became an; when stressed it became one. In some cases, the meaning of one is still clear, as in the following examples:

- (1) The stick is a foot long.
- (2) He has waited for an hour.
- (3) I want a pencil.

The definite article the is the weakened form of an old demonstrative adjective now represented by that.³⁾ In the following sentences its demonstrative force is quite clear:

- (1) The man over there is my uncle.
- (2) Who is the boy in white shirt?

When saying these sentences, the speaker might, at the same

time, look at or point to the man and boy he means.

B. Articles as Determiners

As mentioned before, articles form one of the parts of speech in the traditional classification of words. However, in the system of classification which is preferred nowadays they are grouped into the class of words called determiners. This class of words functions to specify the range of reference of a noun in various ways.⁴) In this respect, articles make the reference of a noun to be definite or indefinite as their names imply. The difference in reference is particularly important when we talk about specific things or, as will be termed in the following discussion, when a noun has specific reference. (For further explanation, see section G.2. Note the following examples:

(1) Give me a pencil.

(2) Give me the pencil.

In the first sentence a makes the noun have indefinite reference because here 'a pencil' refers to any one pencil. This is not the case in the second sentence where the makes the reference definite, because 'the pencil' refers to a particular pencil which both the speaker and hearer know about.

It should be noted, however, that articles are different from other determiners in that they have no lexical meaning in themselves and no function independent of the

nouns they precede. They have functions when they come with nouns and in this way they contribute definite or indefinite status to the nouns.5) On the other hand, other determiners can have lexical meaning and become independent pronouns as shown by the following examples.

(1) I want	{	four books. some books. <u>the books.</u>	(2) Please take	{	four some * <u>the</u>
------------	---	---	-----------------	---	------------------------------

In the second sentence we can see that the use of 'four' and 'some' (both are determiners) without the following noun head is normal, while the is not. Here is an example with the definite article:

(1) How many books do you have?

(2) {	One. Some. *A.
-------	----------------------

Again, the use of a without a noun is unacceptable here.

C. The Position of Articles

Articles generally go with nouns and as determiners they always precede the nouns. The position they may take, however, can be further illustrated as follows.

First of all, in the absence of other determiners, articles may be placed immediately before a noun head or separated by other premodifying words. Look at the following

examples:

- (1) I saw a man on the corner.
- (2) The man is a teacher.
- (3) I have an interesting novel for you to read.
- (4) The old grammar-translation method has begun to disappear nowadays.

In the first two sentences the articles are not separated by other words while in the last two they are.

Secondly, as implied in the above paragraph, articles may come together with other determiners. In this regard, it is useful to distinguish three determiners sub-functions, i.e. predeterminers, central determiners, and postdeterminers, in which articles are grouped into central determiners.⁶⁾ As the three names imply, articles may be preceded by predeterminers and followed by postdeterminers. Although convenient to discuss, however, predeterminers and postdeterminers are not going to be explained here. Let us now

predet.	article	postdet.	premodifier	head
all	the		beautiful	pens
	the	first	beautiful	pen
	a	more	beautiful	pen
twice	a			day

Note: predet.=predeterminer postdet.=postdeterminer

Table 2-1

just look at the position of articles when they come

together with the other two types of determiner and premodifiers in modifying a noun head. The position can be summarized by Table 2-1 above. In this table it can be seen that articles are preceded by 'all' and 'twice' (predeterminers) and followed by 'first' and 'more' (postdeterminers).

Thirdly, in reference to central determiners themselves, it should be noted that there are other words which are also grouped into this type of determiners beside the articles. They are:

- a. demonstratives : this, that, these, and those
- b. possessive adjectives : my, your, his, etc.
and genitives : John's, father's, etc.
- c. quantifiers : some, any, no, every, each, either,
neither, enough, much, another
- d. wh-determiners : what(ever), which(ever), whose and
whoever.7)

All these words have a common characteristic which is important to note. In general they are mutually exclusive from each other, meaning that there cannot be more than one occurring before a noun head. As termed by Quirk et. al., they are in 'choice relation'. i.e. they occur one instead of the other.8) The following uses of articles together with other central determiners, therefore, are unacceptable:

- *a the book
- *the my book
- *the John's book
- *a this book

*a some books

*the which book

They are still unacceptable even if the articles and the other determiners are changed in position.

D. The Forms and Pronunciation of Articles

The definite article, written the, does not change in form but the spelling of the indefinite article depends on the initial sound of the following word. A is used before a consonant sound and an before a vowel sound. Look at the following examples:

the	{	book, pencil, ruler, etc.
	}	apple, egg, ant, etc.
a	—	pen, flower, lamp, etc.
an	—	egg, arrow, oven, etc.

Note here that it is the pronunciation, not the spelling of the following word that determines the choice between a and an. In the following examples the first two words begin with vowels in spelling but with consonants in pronunciation, and, therefore, use a. Likewise, the second two words use an because they begin with vowels in pronunciation but with consonants in spelling: 9)

a useful /ju:sfl/ book

a European /juərəpiən/ country

an FBI /ef bi: ai/ agent

an X-ray /eks rei/

Note also that there are words beginning with silent h, for example 'an hour, an heir, an honor, an honest man'. In all these words the h is not pronounced.

In some words, however, usage varies, depending whether the h is pronounced or not, for example 'a(an) hotel, a(an) historical event'. The initial h is not pronounced especially in British speech.

Articles are normally unstressed. The unstressed definite article is pronounced /ðə/ before consonant sounds and /ði/ before vowel ones, for example:

the /ðə/	{	box
		cat
		useful tool
		university

In the last two examples above, the is followed by consonant sounds. The last two examples in the following begin with vowel sounds:

the /ði/	{	eye
		apple
		SDI program
		X-ray

The indefinite article is pronounced /ə/ before consonant sounds and /ən/ before vowel one. Here are some examples:

a /ə/	{	hammer	an /ən/	{	egg
		letter			ocean
		usual event			FBI agent
		unity			S1 student

However, articles may also be stressed for special emphasis. Here the definite article is pronounced /ði:/ regardless of the following sound while the indefinite article is pronounced /ə/ for a and /ən/ for an. Note the following examples:

the /ði:/	}	cat, book, door, university, union etc.
a /ə/		
the /ði:/	}	apple, eye, elephant, hour, ox, etc.
an /ən/		

The stressed forms are chiefly used when they are pronounced by themselves, for example in a slow dictation and in casting about for a noun.¹⁰ Here are some examples:

- (1) Don't forget to use a /ə/ before singular count nouns.
- (2) Be sure of not placing the /ði:/ in a wrong position.
- (3) He has just bought a /ə/, er, a /ə/ radio.
- (4) Can you give me the /ði:/, er, the /ði:/ cheque?

Sentences (1) and (2) are examples of articles being pronounced by themselves and sentences (3) and (4) are examples of those pronounced in casting about for a noun.

In addition, the strong-stressed definite article, usually printed in italics, is often used to indicate ex-

cellence or superiority in some respect, as in the following examples: 11)

- (1) Is he the /ði:/ writer? (=the famous writer)
 (2) This is the /ði:/ boot for present wear. (=the ideal boot)

To end the description in this section, Table 2-2 shows the changes in form and pronunciation of the articles, as presented by Flor Aarts and Jan Aarts.12)

articles	forms	pronunciation	
		unstressed	stressed
definite	the	/ðə/ before C	/ði:/
		/ði/ before V	
indefinite	a before C	/ə/	/ei/
	an before V	/ən/	/an/

Note: C = consonant sounds V = vowel sounds

Table 2-2

E. Articles and Noun Classes

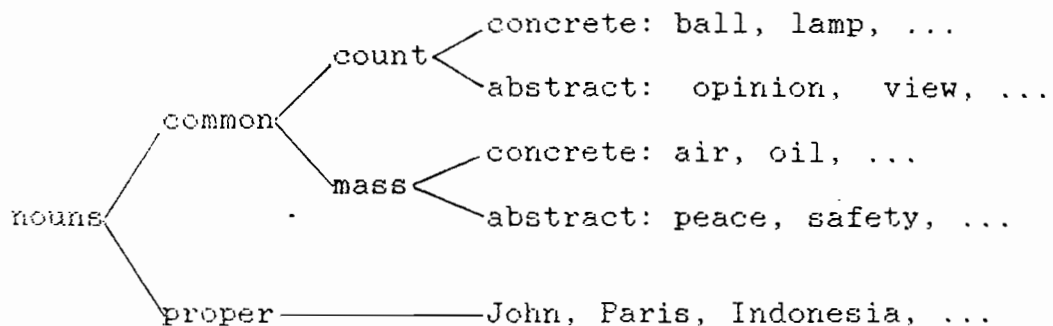
Beside the structural factors which have just been discussed in the previous sections, there are three semantic factors which should be considered in using English articles. The three factors will determine the use or non-use of and the choice between the articles. They are noun classes, generic or specific reference and definite or indefinite reference. In this section we are going to discuss the first factor. The second and the third factors will be

presented in the next section.

When discussing about articles, we are really dealing with nouns since articles are meaningful only when together with nouns. Then, when using a certain article we need to know the kind of noun we are using with the article, for example whether it is a singular or a plural count noun. Take, for example, the use of the indefinite article. Because of its basic meaning of singularity, a(an) is normally used with singular count nouns. Thus, we can say, for example, 'a radio, an egg, a pencil, an apple'. But we cannot say '*a books, *a tables, *an insects, *an islands', etc. because they are plural count nouns.

In this section, therefore, it is considered necessary to talk about noun classes. However, since a complete illustration of the noun classes is not the concern of this chapter, we will look at them briefly.

To begin with, let us look at the diagram of noun classes in the following as presented by Quirk et. al.: 13)



The diagram shows that, first of all, nouns can be further divided into common nouns and proper nouns. The latter are names of specific people (Mary), places

the reference to 'birds' is generic because we are thinking the class 'birds' without referring to specific birds. In other words, we are talking about birds in general sense. From the two examples above we can see that the reference which a noun has will determine the use of articles.

It is further said by Quirk et. al. that generic reference is basic in this distinction since when a noun is used gene-rically, the distinctions which are important for count nouns with specific reference, between definite and indefinite and between singular and plural disappear.17) In the following examples, although the noun 'whale' is put in singular or plural, definite or indefinite, they all refer to whale in general.

- (1) The whale is a mammal.
- (2) A whale is a mammal.
- (3) Whales are mammals.

In addition to generic and specific reference with common nouns, there is another type of reference with proper nouns, i.e. unique reference which will be discussed in section G.3.18) In the following discussion the system of article usage will be described according to each type of reference just mentioned above.

G. The System of article Usage

1. Generic Reference

The use of articles with common nouns in generic

reference can be summarized in the following figure: 19)

	count noun	mass noun
GENERIC	the bird	
REFERENCE	a bird	music
	birds	

From this figure it is clear that with most count nouns generic reference can be expressed in three ways. (See 1.c. for words denoting nationalities) First of all, the indefinite article a(an) is used with singular count nouns, for example:

- (1) A horse is an animal.
- (2) A cat likes to eat meat.
- (3) An eagle can fly very fast.

In this use a(an) emphasizes an individual representative of a class, rather than a specific specimen.

Secondly, plural count nouns are used without articles, emphasizing all members of the class. Thus, the previous three sentences become:

- (1) Horses are animals.
- (2) Cats like to eat meat.
- (3) Eagles can fly very fast.

Thirdly, since everyone is familiar with the class, we can use the definite article with singular count nouns, emphasizing the class itself. This is the true generic use



of the since it refers to what is general or typical for the whole class of objects. Thus, we can say:

- (1) The horse is an animal.
- (2) The cat likes to eat meat.
- (3) The eagle can fly very fast.

Note that generic the requires singular concord.

It should be noted, however, that there is a difference between the use of a(an) and the in this type of reference. Because of its basic meaning of singularity, one has to be careful that in some cases a(an) and the are not interchangeable as in the examples above. We can say, for example:

The motor car has become very popular

but we cannot say:

*A motor car has become very popular.

In the second sentence 'a motor car' has unnecessarily become popular. In other words, it refers to a specific specimen of the class rather than to the class itself.

In addition, there is an exception to the rule, i.e. when man (meaning all mankind or all men) and women (all women) are used generically. Observe the following examples from Otto Jespersen:

- (1) Man is mortal. (=the human race, all mankind)
- (2) Man is destined to be a prey to woman (man= all men,

woman = all women)

- (3) Woman is best when she is at rest. (=all women) 20)

As we can see here, 'man' and 'woman' are only used singularly without articles and require singular concord.

Finally, for mass nouns, there is only one way of using them in generic reference, i.e. without articles. Here are some examples:

- (1) Water is very useful.
- (2) Music is beautiful to listen.
- (3) Education greatly affects one's way of life.

a. Mass Nouns and Plural Count Nouns with Modifiers

As shown in the description above, mass nouns, both concrete and abstract, and plural count nouns are used without articles in generic reference. This is also true when they are modified by qualifying phrases or clauses. Note the following examples:

- (1) Modern art is difficult to interpret. (abstract mass)
- (2) My grandfather likes Indian tea very much. (concrete mass)
- (3) Films about love are always interesting. (plural count)
- (4) Coffee without sugar can recover a headache. (concrete mass)
- (5) I like teaching students who are dilligent and active. (plural count)
- (6) Butter which is made from milk is very expensive. (concrete mass)

In sentences (1) and (2) we find the nouns modified by adjectives, in (3) and (4) by prepositional phrases, and in (5) and (6) by postmodifying clauses.

However, when they are postmodified by of-phrases, they require the definite article more strictly than by other prepositional phrases.21) Compare the following examples:

I like	{	Indonesian people.
		the people of Indonesia.
		*people of Indonesia.
		the people from Indonesia.
		people from Indonesia.

In these examples we can see that the omission of the in the last noun phrase is normal while in the third is not.

b. Adjectives as Heads

There are adjectives which can function as heads of noun phrases.22) They usually take the definite article and have generic reference. There are two kinds of such adjectives, i.e. those denoting:

1). a class of people having the quality of the adjective (plural): the poor = those who are poor or poor people. Here are two examples put in sentences:

- (1) The poor often envy the rich. (poor people - rich people)
- (2) The young often criticize the old nowadays. (young people - old people)

In this type of adjectives are also included those adjectives that denote nationalities. (See 1.c)

2). an abstract quality (singular) : the beautiful = that which is beautiful. Here are some examples:

- (1) We live to look for the good.
- (2) The expensive is not always the useful.
- (3) The mystical often becomes a topic in literature.

c. Nationality Words

Adjectives and nouns denoting nationalities can be used generically, referring to the nations as a whole. The words can be used in several ways as follows:

1). Nationality adjectives, usually ending in -(i)sh (English, Danish, Welsh), -ch (Dutch, French), and -ese (Japanese, Chinese, Portuguese) are used with the definite article and take plural the concord. Here they function as noun-phrase heads as described in subsection 1.b. above. Look at the following examples:

- (1) The Chinese have begun to make progress in nuclear arms.
- (2) In Asia the Japanese are number one in economy.
- (3) The French are known for their wine, fashion and perfume.

2). A singular noun denoting a person or native of a nation is used with the indefinite article. This kind of nouns mostly end in -an (an American, an Indonesian), some

in -man (an Englishman, a Dutchman), and others have irregular endings (a Pole, a Dane, a Turk). Here are some of the words put in sentences:

- (1) A Dutchman is very industrious.
- (2) An American likes to brag about his future.
- (3) A Dane likes to drink wine.

3). The plural form of the singular noun mentioned in 2). is used without an article, e.g.

- (1) Indonesians eat rice, fruit, and vegetables.
- (2) Italians are known for making shoes.
- (3) Australians are great at making ice cream.

4). The plural form of nouns in point 3). can be used with the definite article. It is particularly used when the class is considered as a body which is in contrast with others, e.g.

- (1) The Russians always compete in arms with the Americans.
- (2) The Poles have been governed by a communist government since 1952.
- (3) The Italians were allied with the Germans in World War II.

2. Specific Reference

The use of articles in specific reference can be summarized in the following figures: 23)

		definite		indefinite	
		count noun	mass noun	count noun	mass noun
SPECIFIC REFERENCE		the bird	the ice	a bird	(some) ice
		the birds		(some) birds	

As shown in these figures, with definite specific reference, the *is* is used with singular count, plural count, and mass nouns. With indefinite specific reference, singular count nouns take *a(an)*, plural count and mass nouns take no article or, usually, the unstressed *some* (*any* in negative and interrogative sentences).

It is also clear that in talking about specific things or persons it is necessary to make a distinction between definite and indefinite reference that a noun may have. This is the third semantic factor which should be considered in using articles. In the following two sections the two types of reference will be described, together with the use of articles.

a. Definite Reference

One of the two principal factors which determine the use of articles put forward by Greene is the speaker's and hearer's familiarity with the thing or person being talked about. 24) This factor especially applies to the distinction between definite and indefinite reference.

As regards the definite reference, Leech and Svartvik clarify that a noun has definite reference when the speaker

presumes that he and his listener know which particular thing or person is being talked about. 25) In a classroom situation, for example, the teacher can say to one of his students:

Please clean the blackboard.

Here the teacher (speaker) presumes that the student being asked (listener) knows which particular blackboard he means, i.e. the one in the front of the class. Therefore the noun is said to have definite reference and is used with the definite article.

Leech and Svartvik describe further that there are several circumstances in which definite reference arises. Points 1) - 4) in the following are taken from their description: 26)

* We use the definite article:

1). When identity is established by an earlier mention, often with an indefinite article. For instance:

I had an egg and a glass of coffee for my breakfast. The egg was very delicious.

In this use the is said to have **anaphoric reference**, i.e. it points back to the noun mentioned before.

It is also necessary to note further that in this use the is not only found at the level of syntax, i.e. within a sentence independent of another (other) sentence. The also has an important function of making cohesion at discourse level, that is to link sentences within a text together into

a cohesive whole. In the following example, 'the man' in the second and the third sentence refer to the man in the first sentence and in this way there is a cohesion among the sentences:

Once there was a man and a woman who lived in a forest. The man was very old but wise. One day a farmer came to the man and

2). When identity is established by the postmodification that follows the noun. In this use the is said to have cataphoric reference in that it points forward to the prepositional phrase or relative clause following the noun. The is especially used strictly with of-phrases. Here are some examples:

- (1) The book that I bought yesterday is very interesting.
- (2) The tea without sugar is mine.
- (3) Last semester we learned about the history of China.

3). When the object or group of objects is the only one that exists or has existed, e.g. 'the sun, the moon, the stars, the earth, the world, the equator, the North Pole'.

4) When reference is made to an institution shared by a particular society, nation, or country. For example, we speak about 'the press, the television, the train, the radio' without using any modifying phrases or clauses, but we know that they belong to this country.

As pointed out by Quirk et.al. this kind of nouns may be both concrete and abstract, such as the case of radio and television.27) Note the following examples:

- (1) Would you turn off the radio, please? (concrete = the radio set)
- (2) What was on the radio this morning? (abstract noun)

With 'television', however, the abstraction is usually with no article:

- (1) Don't forget to cover the television after using it. (concrete noun = the television set)
- (2) The President will be on television tomorrow morning. (abstract noun)

5). When identity is established by restrictive adjectives that precede the noun. The adjectives can be in the forms of:

- a). superlatives of adjectives: best, happiest, highest, easiest etc.
- b). ordinals: first, second, third, etc.
- c). sequential adjectives: next, last, following
- d). other ranking adjectives: chief, principal, main, only, etc.28)

Here are some of the adjectives put in sentences:

- (1) He is the best student in my class.
- (2) On the first day I did nothing.
- (3) The next chapter will be about English articles.

(4) The main reason I left the job is I don't like my boss.

6). When reference is understood from the immediate situation which the speaker and hearer share with. In a house situation, for example, we speak about 'the house, the kitchen, the dining room' etc. Similarly, when having lunch we can say:

(1) Would you pass the butter please?

(2) Don't eat up the rice. Daddy has not eaten yet.

b. Indefinite Reference

As can be inferred from its name, indefinite reference is in contrast with definite reference. There are two circumstances in which true indefinite reference arises:

1). When we presume that our listener does not know which particular thing or person we are talking about. Note the following examples:

(1) I met a friend of yours in the supermarket yesterday.

(2) Father bought a fan and a clock.

(3) There is an ant on your shoulder.

In these examples, the speakers surely knows which particular 'friend, fan, clock, and ant' he means, but the listener does not know.

This kind of use is often found when things or persons are mentioned for the first time, followed by another

(other) mention. Here is an example:

There were a man and a women who fell in love. The man was a soldier and the woman was a nurse. ...

Here are more examples using plural count and mass nouns. Note that the nouns are used with no article or the unstressed some:

- (1) There are (some) eggs in the plate if you are hungry.
- (2) Use some water to clean this table.
- (3) Some friends of mine visited me this morning.

2). When reference can be made to any member of a particular class, which member being unimportant.²⁹ In terms of the speaker's and hearer's familiarity, both the speaker and the hearer do not know yet which particular thing or person is identified. Note the following examples:

- (1) Go to the market and buy me a umbrella.
- (2) If you find some problems, come to me.
- (3) Can you lend me a pencil?
- (4) Did you buy any apples?

c. Common Nouns as Complements

English requires articles when singular count nouns are used as complements. The indefinite article is used with indefinite reference. Here are some examples:

- (1) My father is a doctor.

- (2) This is an apple not a mango.
- (3) A lion is an animal.
- (4) Mary is considered a genius by her friends.

After turn, however, no article is used. For instance:

- (1) After the war he turned communist.
- (2) Jack was a soldier before he turned teacher.

It should be known that a(an) used with nouns as complements is rather different from a(an) used in part b. above. A noun used with a(an) in part b. has a true indefinite reference since it refers to one but unidentified individual of a class. This a(an) is often called the individualizing a(an). A(an) used with a noun as a complement, however, does not refer to one particular individual as differentiated from other individuals in the class. Rather it refers to the class itself. Therefore, this kind of a(an) is often called the classifying a(an).

The difference between individualizing a(an) and the classifying a(an) can be clearly seen when singular nouns are made into plural. In this case nouns with individualizing a(an) can be preceded by some (or any) but those with classifying a(an) are used only with no article. Compare the first and the second two following sentences:

- (1) There are some ants on your shoulder.
- (2) I did not buy any eggs in the market yesterday.
- (3) My father and mother are doctors.

(4) These are apples, not mangoes.

The definite article is used with definite reference. Here are some examples:

- (1) John is the best student in his class.
- (2) Mary is the genius of her family.
- (3) Mr. Anwar is the doctor in this hospital.

However, when a noun denotes a unique task or office, usually after be and verbs like 'appoint, elect, declare', it is used with the or no article.³⁰ For instance:

- (1) We appointed John (the) captain of the team.
- (2) I was elected (the) chairman of the committee.

The definite article is especially omitted when in a given circumstance there is only one person who can hold the position. The noun is often spelled with an initial capital letter. Look at the following sentences:

- (1) Ronald Reagan is President of the USA now.
- (2) As Secretary of State on Foreign Affairs Mrs. Flora MacDonald participated in the meeting.
- (3) He was Governor of this province between 1976 - 1978.

d. Mass Nouns with the Articles

In the previous discussion we have seen that mass nouns, both concrete and abstract, can be used with the in definite reference and with no article or some in indefinite reference. But they normally do not take a(an). Here are

more example:

- (1) Please take the meat in the refrigerator. (definite)
- (2) I drank (some) coffee before going to work. (indefinite)
- (3) The death of his father makes him very sad. (definite)
- (4) Please give us wealth and justice. (indefinite)

The nouns in (1) and (2) are concrete mass nouns and those in (3) and (4) are abstract mass.

In special uses, however, concrete mass nouns can take a(an) to mean 'a portion' or 'a kind of' the thing mentioned. In restaurants we say, for example, 'a coffee, a beer, a coke', meaning a glass, a bottle, or a can of it. Specialists, dealers and the like say, for example

- (1) A tea grown in china is more expensive.
- (2) Carbondioxide is a gas.

to mean a kind of it.

Similarly, abstract mass nouns may take a(an), especially if they have restrictive modifiers. Here are two examples from Greene: 31)

- (1) He felt a new happiness growing within him.
- (2) He displayed an astounding endurance.

e. Common Nouns with No Article

Common nouns which can be counted are supposed never to be without an article or some other determiner. But there are many count nouns which are used with no article. We

often say, for example:

- (1) I go to school by bicycle.
- (2) Mother has to stay in hospital because of the accident.
- (3) We cast anchor when evening came.

All the underlined nouns are used with no article.

Concerning this, Olive Greene comments, "When a noun is used in an unusual way, it is to show that it conveys a special meaning."³²) She puts further:

"... we go home, to school, to church And we say we are at or in all these places--without an article. Our minds are not on the schoolhouse or particular church building--not on the place, but on what goes on there, what we will do there.

Likewise, we cast anchor, take ship, shut up shop...--not thinking of the objects of the verbs very much, but of the action Certainly our spotlight not on the noun"³³)

In certain cases the dividing line between count and mass nouns is not easy to draw. For example, it is difficult to say whether 'dinner, breakfast or lunch' are count or mass nouns.

In other cases, as pointed out by Greene, habit plays its part.³⁴) We say for example, when 'morning came' but 'in the morning'.

In what follows are a number of common nouns used in this way. They mainly occur in idiomatic expressions, as enumerated by Quirk et.al.: ³⁵)

seasons

spring
summer
autumn

		fall winter
some 'institutions' (often with <u>at</u> , <u>in</u> , <u>to</u> , etc.)	be in go to	bed church prison hospital class
	be at go to	school college sea university
	be at/go home be in/leave town	
means of transport (with <u>by</u>)	travel leave by come	bicycle bus car boat train plane
times of the day and night (particularly with <u>at</u> , <u>by</u> , <u>after</u> , <u>before</u>)	at dawn/daybreak at sunrise/sunset at /around noon/midnight at dusk/twilight at/by night (by) day and night before morning came before evening came on after night fell	
meals	stay for have before at after	breakfast lunch tea dinner supper
illnesses	appendicitis anaemia diabetes influenza	the plague (the) flu (the) measles (the) mumps
parallel structures	arm and arm hand in hand day by day face to face from right to left, etc.	

Here are more examples given by Frank, in the forms of

verbs+objects and prepositional phrases: 36)

verbs + objects	make friends, beg pardon, take care of take revenge, shake hands, take pity on, take part in, give way to, etc.
prepositional phrases	by accident, in fact, in front of, in case of, in general, on purpose, on foot, on account of, by means of, with regard to, etc.

No article is also used with nouns in headlines, telegrams, notices, instruction etc. Here are some examples:

- (1) Woman Killed in Accident
- (2) Please send package immediately.
- (3) Put cap tightly after use.

3. Unique Reference

Proper nouns are said to have unique reference because they refer to specific persons or things, not to others. Since one of the functions of the articles is to make differentiation, we use no article with proper nouns.³⁷⁾ When we speak about John, for example, there is no need to differentiate him from other Johns. He is just himself, unique, undifferentiated.

But there can be, for example, two John Smiths in one school. In this situation 'John Smith' does not refer to one specific person or, in other words, the name does not have unique reference anymore. Therefore, when we intend to speak about one of them, we need to differentiate him from

other John Smith. And here we may use an article. So, we might say, for example:

The John Smith in the first grade is not as clever as the John Smith in my class.

In this kind of use proper nouns require some sort of postmodification beside an article to show the differentiation. In the example given, the first John Smith is postmodified by 'in the first grade' and the second by 'in your class'.

Similarly, when we intend to speak about a certain aspect of a proper noun or, in other words to show its partitive meaning, we may also use an article. Note the following examples:

- (1) The Jakarta of today is very different from the Jakarta under the Dutch colonialism.
- (2) A New York without skyscrapers is hard to imagine.
- (3) The young David liked to play baseball very much.

Besides the need of an article with a proper noun to make differentiation as described above, we also know that there are many proper nouns that use the definite article, for example:

the White House

the Grand Hotel

the United States of America

In this case, as stated by Olive Greene the names are often basically common nouns which have been elevated to the status of proper nouns, overtly shown by initial capital

letters.38) The White House is just a very good example which can illustrate this process. It derived from a two-word phrase consisting of a common noun + an adjective-- 'white house'. After being elevated to a proper noun, it refers to a particular building where the president of the USA governs the country.

On the other hand, there are originally-true proper nouns which are used as common nouns and therefore take articles. In this case the names refer to different persons who have the same characteristic(s) with the original bearers'. For example, in Indonesia we can say:

In a crisis of nationality we long for a Soekarno.

In this sentence we refer to a different person, but who has the same characteristic with Soekarno (the first president of the Republic of Indonesia), that is someone who puts national interests above regional or racial ones.

In the following description, proper nouns with unique reference are divided into two main categories, i.e. the proper nouns with no article and those with the definite article, as enumerated by Quirk et.al.: 39)

a. Proper Nouns with No Article

1). Personal names (with or without titles):

Nancy

Mr. and Mrs. Steven Langem

President Reagan

Dr. William Smith etc.

Similarly, family terms and vocatives with unique reference are used with no article, e.g.:

- (1) Where is Mother?
- (2) I am going to meet Uncle.
- (3) Hello, Darling!
- (4) Sweetheart!

(1) and (2) are examples of family terms, (3) and (4) are of vocatives. Some exceptions:

the Lord (but God)
 the Emperor Napoleon
 the Duke of Wellington

The indefinite article is often used with a name to mean 'a certain'. For instance:

- (1) A Mr. Smith came to see you this morning.
- (2) Last year a Mr. John offered me a car.

2). Temporal Names

a). names of festivals:

Christmas (Day)
 Independent (Day)
 Passover etc.

b). names of the months and the days of the week:

November, December, etc.
 Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, etc.

3). Geographical Names

a). names of continents (normally with no article also with premodifying adjectives):

(North) America
 (Medieval) Europe
 (Central) Australia etc.

b). names of countries, counties, states (normally with no article also with premodifying words adjectives):

(modern) China - (country)
 (west) Scotland - (county)
 (nothern) Arkansas - (state)
 etc.

c). names of cities and towns (normally with no article also with premodifying adjectives):

(ancient) Rome
 (modern) Jakarta
 (suburban) London etc.

Exceptions: the Hague, the Bronx.

Note also: the City of New York, the city of New Delhi, etc.

d). names of lakes:

Lake Toba
 Lake Michigan
 Salt Lake
 Eagle Lake etc.

e). names of mountains:

Mount Everest

Mount Merapi

Mount Blanc etc.

4). Names + Common Nouns

a). Combinations of names and common nouns denoting buildings, streets, bridges, etc. are used with no article, e.g.

Soekarno-Hatta Airport

Buckingham Palace

Westminster Bridge

Scotland Yard

b). Names of universities, colleges or institutes where one part of the names is a place name can usually have two forms, e.g.

Western Australia University or

the University of Western Australia

Those which are named after a person have only one form, for example:

Gadjah Mada University

Harvard University

b. Proper Nouns with the Definite Article

The following classes of proper nouns are used with the definite article:

1). plural names (in general):

the Johnsons (= the Johnson family)
 the Netherlands
 the Philippines (= the Philippine Islands)
 the Rockies (= the Rocky Mountains)
 etc.

2). geographical names:

rivers: the Thames, the Euphrates, the Nile, etc.
 seas: the Carribean (Sea), the Black Sea, the Red Sea, the Dead Seas, etc.
 oceans: the Atlantic (Ocean), the Indian Ocean, the Pacific (Ocean), etc.
 canals: the Panama Canal, the Suez Canal, etc.

3). Public institutions, facilities, etc.:

hotels: the Startler-Hilton (Hotel), the Ambarukmo Hotel, the Grand (Hotel), etc.
 theatres, cinemas, clubs, etc: the Criterion, the Globe, the Mataram (Theatre), etc.
 museums, galleries, libraries, etc.:
 the Metropolitan Museum, the Tate Gallery, the Huntington Library, etc.

4) Newspapers:

The Jakarta Post, The New York Times, The Observer, The Washington Post, etc.

Note that magazines and periodicals normally have no article, e.g. English Language Teaching, Tempo, Time, Forum, etc.

Notes

- 1) Homer C. House and Susan Emolyn Harman, Descriptive English Grammar, p. 76.
- 2) Homer and Susan, op. cit., p. 78.
- 3) George O. Curme, English Grammar, p. 226.
- 4) Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik, A Communicative Grammar of English, p. 225.
- 5) Randolph Quirk et. al., A Grammar of Contemporary English, p. 137.
- 6) Flor Aarts and Jan Aarts, English Syntactic Structures, p. 105.
- 7) ibid.
- 8) Quirk et.al., op. cit., p. 137.
- 9) See A. S. Hornby, The Teaching of Structural Words and Sentence Patterns - Stage 1, for the simplified phonetic transcription used here.
- 10) R. W. Zandvoort, A Handbook of English Grammar, p. 134.
- 11) Leech and Svartvik, op. cit., p. 205.
- 12) Flor Aarts and Jan Aarts, op. cit., p. 46.
- 13) Quirk, et.al. op.cit., p. 129.
- 14) Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum, A University Grammar of English, p. 60.
- 15) Quirk, et. al., op. cit., p. 128.
- 16) ibid., p. 147.

- 17) *ibid.*
- 18) *ibid.*, p. 148.
- 19) *ibid.*, p. 150.
- 20) Otto Jespersen, A Modern English Grammar, p. 132.
- 21) Quirk, et.al., *op.cit.*, p. 153.
- 22) *ibid.*, p. 251.
- 23) See Quirk et. al., *op.cit.*, p. 149.
- 24) Olive Greene, "The Problem of the Article." p. 13.
- 25) See Leech and Svartvik, *op. cit.*, p. 52.
- 26) See Leech and Svartvik, *ibid.*, pp. 52 - 53.
- 27) Quirk, et. al., *op. cit.*, p. 156.
- 28) Marcella Frank, Modern English, p. 130.
- 29) Gloria Poedjosoedarmo, "The Concepts of 'Definite' and 'Indefinite' in English and the Marking of Noun Phrases in Indonesian: A Trans-Language Semantico-Fragmatic Exploration," p. 3.
- 30) Quirk, et. al., *op. cit.*, pp. 159 - 160.
- 31) Greene, *op. cit.*, p. 15.
- 32) *ibid.*, p. 4.
- 33) *ibid.*
- 34) *ibid.*
- 35) Quirk, et. al., *op. cit.*, pp. 157 - 159.
- 36) Frank, *op. cit.*, pp. 139 - 140.
- 37) Greene, *op. cit.*, p. 13.
- 38) *ibid.*
- 39) Quirk, et. al., *op. cit.*, pp. 161 - 165.



CHAPTER THREE

ERROR ANALYSIS

After looking at the system of English articles, particularly at their system of usage, in this chapter we are going to look at the articles as being used by Indonesian learners represented by the students in this study. As mentioned in the introduction, it is obvious that the learners find difficulties in using articles and therefore often make errors. By analyzing their errors, however, we want to discover what may cause the difficulties.

Before describing the analysis, let us first look at two things which should be considered before conducting the analysis, which manifest themselves in the two following sections; the source of the data and the means of obtaining them.

A. The Means of Obtaining the Data

In the attempt to obtain the necessary data for the error analysis, the writer constructed a written test which

elicited the students' use of articles. This means that the students' errors in spoken English were excluded. This, however, does not reduce the maximum representation of their competence in English since it is supposed that the competence is better represented by their written than spoken English. Besides, an analysis of their speaking will require more time and will cost more.

The test consisted of three parts: Part A - a cloze type test, Part B - a completion test, and Part C - a translation test (See Appendix). As can be seen, each part of the test constituted a different form of test, but they all were used to elicit the same data. In what follows we are going to look at the nature of each part in more detail.

1. Part A

Part A was composed of an English passage of 331- word length, about supermarkets. Almost all of the indefinite articles in this passage (It happened that there was no "an") were deleted and other nouns with no articles (\emptyset) were put in blanks. The students were asked to fill in the blanks with a, an, the, or one where necessary, meaning that if they thought that a noun (phrase) did not use an article or one, the noun must be put in \emptyset .

It is also necessary to note that the passage was an original one, written by native speakers whose English was hopefully correct and natural, including their use of articles. It was taken from Breakthrough Part I by J. C.

Richards and M. N. Long, an English course book which, as far as I know, has not been used as a student book in Indonesian schools.1) Therefore, the students who took the test, most probably had not read the passage before.

As mentioned above, not all the articles in the passage were deleted. After asking some native speakers to fill in the blanks in the passage where all the articles were deleted, there were some nouns which could be filled with two different articles correctly. For the ease of classifying and counting the students' errors, therefore, those nouns which could have more than one correct article were maintained with their original articles. This resulted in the final cloze-type test with 60 blanks which means 60 items, where there was only one correct answer for each item.

As indicated by the use of a passage as the instrument, Part A tested the students' use of articles at discourse level. It was considered that at this level, articles were used in a more real and natural linguistic level if compared to their being used at syntax level.

Since the students were only required to use correct articles, it was as far as possible avoided that they would find difficulties with vocabularies, which in turn would influence their comprehension of the passage. Therefore it was instructed that if they didn't understand the meaning of a word, they were allowed to ask and would be given its equivalent in Indonesian.

2. Part B

If compared to Part A, Part B tested the students' mastery in using articles at syntax level. It consisted of loose sentences where there was no relation between one sentence and another (other) sentence. It was also constructed to include the various uses of articles as described in Chapter Two, where it was not possible to include them in the other parts of the test.

The instruction in this part was just the same as that in Part A. The students were required to fill in the blanks with a, an, the or one where necessary. There were 20 sentences, but some of the sentences contained more than one blank. All the sentences made up 29 blanks, meaning 29 items.

3. Part C

In Part C the students were required to give the English equivalents of Indonesian sentences which were specially constructed to elicit the use of English articles. The sentences were put in three numbers (number 1, 2 and 3). Number 1 consisted of one sentence only, number 2 three sentences and number 3 four sentences. If compared with the other two parts, in Part C we cannot determine the number of articles which should be used and the particular articles which should be chosen.

B. The Source of the Data

The test was given to the first semester students of the English Department of IKIP Sanata Dharma in September 1987. The students were from all programs, i.e. D2, D3, and S1 program, of which the last program consisted

Program	Group	Number of Students
S1	A	40
S1	B	34
D2	-	26
D3	-	40

Table 3-1

of two groups. The total number of the students providing the data was 140. Table 3-1 above shows the number of the students according to their programs and groups.

Data is also available concerning the schools from which the students graduated and the regions where the schools are located. Most of the students are graduates of SMA (Senior High Schools), both public and private. A few of

Type of School	Public	Private	Number of Students
SMA	70	59	129
SMEA	5	-	5
SPG	4	-	4
STM	2	-	2

Table 3-2

them are from SMEA (Economic High Schools), SPG (Teacher Training Schools), and STM (Technical High Schools). In Table 3-2 we can see the number of students attending each type of school.

In addition, the schools from which the students graduated lie in various provinces in Indonesia. In Table 3-3

Province	Number of Students
D.I. Yogyakarta	60
Jawa Tengah	52
Sumatera Selatan	6
Jawa Timur	5
Jawa Barat	5
Sumatera Utara	2
Sumatera Barat	2
R i a u	2
Kalimantan Barat	2
Nusa Tenggara Timur	2
Sulawesi Utara	1
B a l i	1

Table 3-3

we can see that most of the schools lie in the Special Territory of Yogyakarta and the Province of Central Java as indicated by the number of the students. But it should be noted that they consist of many different schools although located in the same province.

The purpose of presenting the data is to show that the students are sufficiently representative to be the source of data in the analysis of the problems of learning English articles faced by Indonesian learners.

C. The Results of Observation of the Data

By examining the students' work on the test, the writer managed to get the students' achievements which, in this analysis, show their mastery in using English articles. In order that we get a thorough description of their mastery, the achievements will be presented in several tables, classified into different aspects. These aspects include the students' programs, groups, each part of the test, and so on.

It should be noted, however, that the figures representing the number of articles used and that of correct articles also include the use of \emptyset in addition to a, an, and the. The use of \emptyset is also included here since reference is also expressed by the use of no article with nouns and therefore cannot be separated from the use of articles. This consideration is also taken when we deal with the errors made by the students in using articles. On the other hand, the correct use of one, that or another determiner are excluded from the figures. These words, however, were also counted and will be presented in the next section. Let us begin with the achievement of each group in the following table.

1. The Achievement of Each Group

In Table 3-4 we can see that as a whole the students' mastery of articles is a little higher than 50%. There is no program/group which managed to achieve 75% of correct articles, the limit set up by Curriculum 1975. It is also

rather surprising that D3 students have a lower achievement than D2 students. In fact, if we consider their program, we would expect that D3 students would have a higher mastery of English in general, including that of articles in particular.

Program	Group	Number of art. used	Number of correct art.	Percentage of correct art.
S1	A	4326	2863	66.18
S1	B	3469	2136	61.57
D2	-	2417	151	51.76
D3	-	4312	1821	42.23
All programs		14524	8071	55.57

Table 3-4

2. The Number of Students Who Achieved 75% Correct Articles

In Table 3-5 we can see that the number of students who achieved 75% of correct articles is only a small fraction of all the students. The number of students who achieved 75% in Group A and that in Group B are in accordance with the percentage of correct articles achieved by each group. With the students of D2 and D3, however, the case is on the contrary. Although the percentage of correct articles achieved by D2 students is higher than that by D3 students, no D2 student managed to achieve 75% of correct articles.

Program	Group	Number of Students	Number of Students Who Achieved 75%	Percentage
S1	A	40	6	15
S1	B	34	3	8.82
D2	-	26	-	-
D3	-	40	2	5
All programs		140	11	7.89

Table 3-5

3. The Achievement in Each Part of the Test

Table 3-6 shows all students' achievement in each part of the test.

Part of test	Number of art. used	Number of correct art.	Percentage of correct art.
A	8070	4008	49.67
B	3878	2367	61.04
C	2576	1696	65.84

Table 3-6

From this table we can see that the students achieved the highest percentage of correct articles in Part C where they used articles more freely than in Part A and Part B. At a glance we might conclude that when they use articles freely, the tendency to use correct articles is higher. But just from the figures in the table above, we must not come quickly to such a conclusion. We should look more carefully

at the difference in nature between Part C and Part A/Part B.

Part C is very different from Part A/Part B in the way of eliciting the students' use of articles. In the first two parts the students' performance in using articles was highly controlled. In the first place, they had to choose only a, an, the or Ø and put it in the available place. Secondly, there was only one correct answer for each item. This means that once a student was not sure of the correct answer for an item, he would most probably make an error. There was no chance for him to avoid the error. In short, Part A/Part B provoked errors in themselves. And this means that there was a greater possibility to make errors in these two parts.

This was not the case in Part C. In this part the students were not so controlled in using articles. They did not have to choose only a, an, the or Ø and there was not only one correct answer. It was up to them whether to use generic a, the or Ø when expressing generic reference. Or when expressing specific reference they could use a + singular nouns or Ø + plural. If they were not very sure of the correct article for a certain noun phrase, they could use some other determiner such as this and that or replace the phrase with its appropriate pronoun. In this part lies the so-called avoidance of errors, meaning that the students had a chance to avoid errors. And this caused their probability of making errors to be lower.

Still another reason, the variety of article uses covered in Part C was simpler and more limited than that in

the other two parts. In Part C there were no uses of articles with a group of islands, a musical instrument, a means of transport, an idiomatic expression, and so on as in Part A/Part B.

4. Individual Achievement

From the preceding tables of achievement, we do not know how individual students managed to use correct articles, since the achievements are put according to the students' programs/groups or each part of the test. For example, given that in Part C the students achieved 65.84% of correct articles, we do not know further how many students achieved above or below this percentage. How many students achieved 75%, 50% or even below 25%? In this subsection, therefore, we are going to look at the students' individual achievement.

Because of the factors pointed out in subsection A.3 above, the individual achievement will be presented according to each part of the test. In order that we get a fine description about the achievement, the percentages of correct articles used by the students are put at 5% intervals.

a. Individual Achievement in Part A

Let us look at Table 3-7. If the interval is changed to 25%, we will discover that there are 68 students (48.57%) who fall between 50% - 75% of correct articles, 46 students (32.86%) between 25% - 50%, 21 students (15%) below 25% and

only 5 students (3.57%) above 75%.

Percentage of Correct Articles	Number of Students
75 - 79	5
70 - 74	8
65 - 69	17
60 - 64	22
55 - 59	14
50 - 54	7
45 - 49	9
40 - 44	10
35 - 39	10
30 - 34	5
25 - 29	12
20 - 24	13
15 - 19	7
10 - 14	1

Table 3-7

b. Individual Achievement in Part B

Percentage of Correct Articles	Number of Students
85 - 89	1
80 - 84	-
75 - 79	8
70 - 74	10
65 - 69	32
60 - 64	22
55 - 59	38
50 - 54	13
45 - 49	12
40 - 44	2
35 - 39	2

Table 3-8

As in Part A, the greatest part of the students (115 = 82.14%) achieved between 50% - 75% of correct articles for Part B. There are 9 students (6.43%) who achieved higher than 75%. What is different from the achievement in Part A is that no students fall below 25%. Only 16 students (11.43%) achieved below 50% of correct articles.

c. Individual Achievement in Part C

Percentage of Correct articles	Number of Students
95 - 100	1
90 - 94	9
85 - 89	6
80 - 84	8
75 - 79	15
70 - 74	14
65 - 69	20
60 - 64	14
55 - 59	14
50 - 54	15
45 - 49	3
40 - 44	9
35 - 39	5
30 - 34	4
25 - 29	1
20 - 24	1
15 - 19	1

Table 3-9

In Part C more than a half of the students (77 = 55%) achieved between 50% - 75% of correct articles. There are 39 students (27.86%) who achieved higher than 75% and only 24 (17.14%) who achieved below 50%.

D. The Type, the Percentage and the Number of Errors

Before coming to the classification and counting of the errors made by the students, we should consider again the nature of each part of the test used to elicit the students' use of articles. This consideration is perhaps not very important in classifying the errors but it is crucial in interpreting their numbers and percentages.

As stated before, the three parts of the test were all

used to elicit the same data. This, however, does not mean that we can treat all the data obtained in the same way without considering the means of obtaining them, especially as we know that there are some differences among the three parts of the test.

As pointed out in subsection C.3., Part A/Part B greatly differ from Part C in the way of eliciting the students' use of articles. This difference surely had an influence on the types and particularly the number of errors the students made. Because of this difference, it is considered better to separate Part C from Part A/Part B in classifying and counting the errors. However this does not mean that we cannot draw some general conclusions from the errors made by the students in the three parts of the test.

As regards the classification of errors in using articles, it is noted that there are usually three major types of errors which in this thesis are called the addition, the omission, and the substitution of articles. The first type of errors is the case when students use unnecessary articles with noun phrases which should be with \emptyset . In contrast with the first type, the omission of articles occurs when students omit articles from noun phrases which should have articles. Finally, the substitution is the case when the wrong article or some other determiner is substituted for the correct one. For example, one is substituted for a(an). To clarify this explanation, here are some examples of each type of error:

Addition

- (1) *The water is very essential.
- (2) *Last week we climbed the Mount Merapi.

Omission

- (1) *I am looking for a job.
- (2) *My father always listens to a radio in the morning.

Substitution

- (1) *Bryan wants to be the film actor. (the for a)
- (2) *A boy in the white shirt is my close friend.
(a for the)
- (3) *I asked for just an apple, but you have given me two.
(an for one)
- (4) ?There are a book and a pencil on the table. That book
is blue. (that for the)

In these sentences the wrong articles are indicated by the underlines. Now let us begin with the types and percentages of the students' errors in Part A/Part B.

1. Part A/Part B

As mentioned in subsection C.1., in the table of achievement of each group, the total number of articles used is 14524 and that of correct articles is 8071. Thus, the total number of wrong articles is $14524 - 8071 = 6453$. This number is all the errors in the three parts. Since there are 880 errors in Part C, the total number of errors in Part A/Part B is $6453 - 880 = 5573$. Of this number, there are 97 errors made by the students in the two items of Part C which

can be filled with two answers correctly. For the ease of counting, therefore, these 97 errors are excluded. This means that the last total number of errors in Part A/Part B which will be classified and counted in the following is $5593 - 97 = 5476$.

Then it is necessary to note again, first of all, that the 5476 errors are just errors in using articles which include a, an, the and Ø. The uses of one instead of articles are counted as errors in using one, and therefore are excluded from the number of errors. On the other hand, the uses of articles instead of one are errors in using articles and therefore are included. The use of one and its number, however, will also be presented here.

Secondly, there are 60 items in Part A which must be filled with 10 a's, 14 the's, and 36 Ø's while in Part B (after being reduced by the two items having two answers) there are 27 items which must be filled with 1 one, 2 an's, 13 the's and 7 Ø's. If the two parts are treated as one, there must be 1 one, 2 an's, 14 a's, 27 the's and 43 Ø's. Since 140 students did the test, if they all gave correct answers, there would be 140 one's, 280 an's, 1960 a's, 3780 the's, and 6020 Ø's. Each of these numbers becomes the number of probability of occurrence of the respective article or one and will be used as the divisor in counting the percentage of each type of errors. This way of counting is employed since it is more objective and representative.

Now here are the results of counting and classifying the errors:

a. The Numbers and the Percentages of Addition, Omission and Substitution of Articles.

In the following counting and classification when we emphasize meaning, a and an are treated as one article which is symbolized by a(an). They are treated separately when

Number	Type of Error	Number of Errors	Percentage
I	Addition	3417	56.76
1	a(an)	952	15.81
2	the	2465	40.95
	*one	130	
II	Substitution	1412	22.92
1	a(an) for one	48	34.28
2	the for a(an)	582	25.98
3	a for an	67	23.93
4	a(an) for the	582	12.75
5	an for a	131	6.68
6	the for one	2	1.43
	*one for a	97	
	*one for the	83	
	*one for an	6	
III	Omission	647	10.75
1	the	437	11.56
2	a(an)	212	9.46

*excluded from the 880 errors

Table 3-10

compared to each other or when our emphasis is on grammati-

cal correctness.

From the results of counting above, we can draw some conclusions about the types of errors by making a comparison among the percentages of the types of errors. It turns out that the students tend to add articles rather than to omit them. This is a surprising fact if we look at their mother tongue, Indonesian, where most noun phrases use no article or marker. Substitution of articles falls in the second rank, between addition and omission.

b. The Number and the Percentage of Wrong Uses of Each Article

The total number of errors 5476 consists of errors in using a, an, the and \emptyset . In Table 3-11 we can see the number and percentage of each article which altogether make up the 5476 errors.

Article	Number of Errors	Percentage
the	3048	55.68
a	1183	21.24
an	817	11.27
\emptyset	647	11.81

Table 3-11

If a and an are treated as one article since they are similar in meaning/function, their percentage of wrong uses is 32.51.

From these figures we can see that the students made most errors in using the (25.03%), less in a(an) (14.61%)

and least in Ø (5.31%).

2. Part C

The types of errors the students made in this passage are mostly the same as those in the other two parts. As we shall see later in the following description, the errors can be classified into three main types. In the substitution of articles, however, there is a small difference in that the students also used **that** as the equivalent of Indonesian "itu", instead of using **the** or pronouns.

In the counting of errors, however, there is a big difference between Part C and the other two parts. In the first place, with some noun phrases we cannot determine firmly what kind of erroneous article the students used. For example, if a student makes the following error in the first noun phrase

Ø University is a place where both teachers and students learn

we can surely say that he has omitted an article. But we cannot determine whether **a** or **the** has been omitted, since the two articles can be used correctly with the noun. Therefore in such a case the error is counted as the omission of **a/the**.

Secondly, since we cannot determine the number of probability of occurrence of a certain article as in Part A/Part B in counting the error percentage of the article we will divide its number of wrong uses by the total number of

the article used. Then in determining the percentage of omission, substitution, and addition of articles, we divide the articles omitted, substituted and added by the total number of all types of errors.

As mentioned when dealing with Part A/Part B, the total number of wrong use of articles in Part C is 880. In Table 3-12 we can see the number and the percentage of each type of errors which altogether make up the 880 errors.

a. The Types, the Number and Percentages of Errors

Number	Type of Errors	Number of Errors	Percentage
I	Omission	578	65.68
1	a(an)	225	38.93
2	the	124	21.45
3	a/the	229	39.62
II	Substitution	198	22.50
1	the for a(an)	111	56.06
2	a(an) for the	53	26.77
3	an for a	24	12.12
4	a for an	10	5.05
	*that for the	86	
	*one for a(an)	3	
III	Addition	104	11.82
1	the	88	84.62
2	a(an)	16	15.38

*excluded from the 880 errors.

Table 3-12

As we can see from Table 3-12, there is a big difference between the errors made by the students in Part C from those in Part A/Part B. In Part C most of the errors are of omission. Substitution is in the second rank. Errors of addition are the lowest percentage.

b. The Number and the Percentage of Wrong Use of Each Article

In Table 3-13 we can see the number and percentage of each article that make up the 880 errors. Here A and an are treated as one article.

Article	Number of Errors	Percentage
Ø	578	65.68
the	199	22.61
a(an)	103	11.70

Table 3-13

In Part C most of the errors are the use of Ø. This is in contrast with in Part A/Part B where the wrong use of Ø is the least number. What is similar in all parts of the test is that the students' wrong use of the is higher than that of a(an).

F. The Possible Sources of Difficulty

In this section we are going to discuss the possible sources of difficulty which may account for the errors made

by the students. It should be noted that in the attempt to discover the possible sources, the students' errors in the three parts of the test are treated as a whole.

After looking at the system of English articles, by analyzing the students' errors, and by observing the present teaching of this item, the writer managed to discover several possible sources of difficulty which can be classified into three main groups. As we shall see in the following description, the first group is the sources of difficulty which lie in the nature of the target language itself. The second group consists of those sources which lie in the students' mother tongue, Indonesian. Finally there are some sources of difficulty which lie in the present teaching, which are classified in the third group.

1. The Possible Sources of Difficulty Lying in the Target Language

As we have seen in Chapter Two, there are several factors, both semantic and structural, which determine the use or non-use and the choice of an article in English. The structural factors are the function, the position and the forms and pronunciation of articles. The semantic factors are the categories of singular/ plural, generic/specific, and definite/indefinite. These factors are the possible sources of Indonesian learners' difficulty in using articles. In what follows we are going to discuss how the factors become the sources of difficulty.

1. The Possible Sources of Difficulty Lying in the Target Language

As we have seen in Chapter Two, there are several factors, both semantic and structural, which determine the use or non-use and the choice of an article in English. The structural factors are the function, the position and the forms and pronunciation of articles. The semantic factors are the categories of singular/ plural, generic/specific, and definite/indefinite. These factors are the possible sources of Indonesian learners' difficulty in using articles. In what follows we are going to discuss how the factors become the sources of difficulty.

a. Unfamiliarity with the Pronunciation of words

This unfamiliarity particularly causes the students to make wrong substitution of a for an and vice versa. In speaking they will also interchange the pronunciation of /ə/ and /i:/. The students are unfamiliar particularly with the pronunciation of words with silent h such as 'honor' and 'honest', words with vowels sounding like consonants such as 'university'. Here are some of the errors:

- (1) *There are an universal protest in front of the Parliament Building.
- (2) *Be a honest person.
- (3) *France is an European country.

But the students also made errors with words they often use

and pronounce correctly.

*They live in a old house.

b. Unfamiliarity with Noun Classes

Dealing with English articles is actually dealing with nouns. Since students still have great difficulty with nouns, they will find the uses of articles difficult too. The difficulty lies in determining whether a noun is a count or mass noun and, if it is a count noun, whether it is singular or plural. Although they know the rule that a(an) must be used with a singular noun, they often fail to recognize the class of a noun when in use. This causes them to make the following errors:

- (1) *A sugar made in the United States is expensive.
- (2) *A public health in Indonesia is still low.
- (3) *Last semester we learned about an ancient history.

c. The Concept of Generic/Specific and Definite/Indefinite

This is the major source of difficulty in using English articles. As we know the categories of generic/specific and indefinite/definite determine the uses of articles. These are the categories which are important to differentiate and to indicate in some way in English. As stated by Olive Greene, to use an article is in fact to make a differentiation.²⁾ When one says 'I have a dog,' first of all he differentiates between one and more than one since a ba-

sically means one. Secondly he differentiates his dog from other dogs of the same class. And this differentiation is indicated by the use or non-use of an article, the form of a noun, or even the concord and the tense of the verb in which the idea is expressed. Note the following sentence:

I bought an apple in the market.

The differentiation made on 'apple' is indicated by the use of an, the singular form of the noun, and the verb in past tense. We cannot express the same idea by changing the sentence into:

*I buy an apples in the market.

For a native speaker the process of differentiation has become a habit. He does it quickly or even unconsciously. If he is asked why he uses a, and not the with a certain noun, perhaps he cannot tell why. He can only answer 'That is the way we use it.' For non-native speakers, and this is the case with Indonesian learners, the differentiation has not become a habit. This is because in their mother tongue they are not trained to make such differentiation when using a noun (phrase). In Indonesian the differentiation is often unnecessary and, especially, is not expressed explicitly. Note the following Indonesian sentences:

- (1) Mau membeli apa? Mau membeli payung.
- (2) Kalau kau punya anjing, berarti kau punya mamalia.
- (3) Kucing termasuk binatang buas



(4) Tolong ambilkan air di ember itu.

In these sentences the underlined nouns use no markers though they have definite or indefinite, specific or generic reference. In the first sentence, for example, the speaker knows for sure that he is going to buy one umbrella, not two but he does not use "sebuah" or "satu" with the noun. That the differentiation is not explicitly expressed can be proved by a following question usually raised by the shopkeeper "Berapa (buah)?" . But this question is often not raised by the shopkeeper since he knows that the buyer wants 'one umbrella'. Similarly, in the last sentence, the water asked is known by both the speaker and the listener. But it is used with no marker.

When the students learn English they have to make the differentiation mentioned above and should indicate it by the use of an article, an appropriate form of a noun, or even a concord. Since they have not acquired the habit, they often fail to recognize the type of reference of a noun phrase and, as a result, choose wrong articles. They will make such errors as the following:

- (1) *I like eating an apple.
- (2) *If you have the dog, you have the mammal.
- (3) *The supermarkets are different from the other types of stores.

In addition, the fact that generic and indefinite reference can be expressed in more than one way, also adds the com-

plexity of the uses of articles.

d. Many Exceptions in Article Usage

Beside the uses of articles on which we can draw some general rules, there are so many cases where articles are used inconsistently, which can be treated as exceptions. For example, with 'United States' we use the but with 'France' no article. No article is also used with the phrases 'go to church, to school, to hospital', etc. but the is used with 'go to the market, to the bank, to the post office', etc. This inconsistency often makes students apply a wrong analogy which results in errors. The worst comes when the teacher does not remind students of the use and non-use of articles with this kind of nouns, leaving the students in confusion. Here are some of the errors made by the students in the test together with their percentages:

- (1) *I always go to work by a bicycle. (51.43%)
- (2) *Can you play a guitar? (48.57%)
- (3) *Listen to the radio and watch the television every day.
(72.14%)

2. Inteference from the Mother Tongue

In this subsection the writer will not discuss Indonesian articles elaborately in order to show their differences from English articles which may cause learners' difficulties. This is mainly because Indonesian articles them-

selves are still a controversial matter among grammarians. In addition, if we look at the description of articles which have been put forward by grammarians so far, and compare it with that of English articles, we will not benefit very much. Let us just look at the errors made by the students and trace their sources in Indonesian.

The first type of errors which may be caused by the interference from the mother tongue is the omission of articles. This omission is because in most cases where English requires articles with nouns, Indonesian does not use an article or a marker. Since the students still think in Indonesian when expressing their ideas in English, they will most probably omit articles. They will make errors such as the following:

- (1) *ØUniversity is Øplace where Øteacher and Østudent learn.
- (2) *Do you have Ødog? If you have Ødog, you have Ømammal.
- (3) *There is Øsmall village near the river.

The second type of errors is the interchanges of a(an) and one. In Indonesian se- with a classifier can have the meaning of a(an) and one in English. Note the following sentences:

- (1) Kamu habis berapa potong? Cuma sepotong.
- (2) Di desa ini hanya sebuah rumah yang tidak memakai listrik.
- (3) Di kaki gunung itu ada sebuah telaga yang indah sekali.
- (3) Kemarin saya menembak seekor elang di hutan.

"Se-" + classifier in the first two sentences has the meaning of one contrasting with two, three etc. In the last two it has the meaning of indefinite one. In English the nouns in (1) and (2) will use one while in (3) and (4) will use a(an). The interchangeability between "satu" and "se-" + classifier in Indonesian will make students interchange a(an) and one in English.

The errors will be like the following:

- (1) *Can you give me one apple? (to mean any one apple)
- (2) *I only need a ticket, but you have given me two.
- (3) *There is one village on the other side of the mountain.

Finally the students also interchanged the and that. We can trace the source of this type of errors in the use of "itu" in Indonesian as a demonstrative contrasting with ini and as a marker of definite reference. In the following sentences itu as a demonstrative is used in (1) and (2) and as a definite marker in (3) and (4).

- (1) Lihatlah singa itu.
- (2) Tolong ambilkan buku itu. (pointing to a book the listener does not know yet)
- (3) Di kaki gunung itu ada sebuah telaga. Namanya Tegalwangi. Telaga itu indah sekali.
- (4) Saya kehilangan sebuah buku. Buku itu warnanya merah.

In this kind of sentences English is different in that it uses that in the first two sentences and anaphoric the in the last two and does not interchange them.

Again, this interchangeability causes the students to substitute **that** for **the** and vice versa in English as in the following sentences:

- (1) ?There is a small village called Madang Kara. When I came for the first time to that village, it rained very hard.
- (2) ?Would you please close that door. (to mean the only one door in the immediate surrounding)
- (3) ?If she got on well, she shouldn't have broken up that relation.

When the noun phrase marked by "itu" in Indonesian is a plural one, those might be used as in (4)

- (4) ?I have just found some books on the ground. Those books are all wet.

It seems that the use of **that** instead of **the** or **those** in these sentences is not completely wrong, but for native speakers it sounds odd.

3. The Possible Sources of Difficulty Lying in the Present Teaching.

The last factor which may also become the sources of difficulty is the teaching of articles itself. Into this factor the writer includes not only the teaching techniques and materials commonly employed by teachers but also the syllabus which gives the guidelines for teaching the item because what is mentioned in the syllabus will most probably be realized in the teaching.

If we look at the English syllabus for SMP (Junior High

School) and that for SMA (Senior High School), the first thing we will find is that articles are only mentioned in the syllabus for SMP. In the syllabus for SMA they are not mentioned. This means that articles are explicitly taught only in SMP. Secondly, if we look further at the syllabus for SMP itself, articles are mostly presented in the first semester. This means that students deal with this item in the very early stage of their learning of English.

If we take into account the fact that articles are a basic grammar item, most certainly we will agree that they should be introduced from the early stage of 'students' learning English. This is because the students will often find them used in even the simplest sentences they are learning. But if we consider the complexity inherent in English articles and the difficulties Indonesian learners will likely to face when learning them, we will ask whether it has been a right policy to teach articles only in SMP, let alone mostly in the first semester.

The writer does not ignore the fact that the students will find abundant use of articles in English sentences they are going to read or write in the following years and that they can internalise the system of article usage from those exposures. The problem is that the syllabus which gives the guidelines to teachers, instructs that articles are taught only in SMP. Since articles are not mentioned in the syllabus for SMA, most probably SMA teachers will not present this item anymore, especially as there are so many items in the syllabus which must be taught. Meanwhile we know the

fact that even when students enter SMA, they are still very confused about articles usage. It should be remembered that up to this consideration we have not taken into account the teaching techniques commonly employed which may also cause difficulties. In short, by mentioning the teaching of articles only in the syllabus for SMP, the teaching of articles is limited regardless of the fact that SMA students still find great difficulty with this item.

After looking at the syllabus, let us now observe the teaching of articles which takes place in class. By this the writer means the teaching techniques and materials commonly used in teaching the item. After conducting the test in each class (the test mentioned in the beginning of this chapter), several students came to the writer and told that the test was very difficult and that they were not very sure of the answers they gave. When asked about the way their teachers taught articles, most of them said that their teachers did not teach them the item when they were in SMP or SMA. But the writer believes that their teachers did teach them articles. What caused them to give such a claim, the writer thinks, is because the teachers did not indicate clearly the use or non-use of articles when they presented this item. They did present the use of articles as in the patterns
This is a book, He is a student, I want a book, The pen is on the table'. What they did not do was to show clearly the presence or absence of articles in those sentences, to show the difference between Indonesian and English in this

matter, etc. This way of teaching left these students with uncertainty with the use of articles. They did not know even that they had learned articles.

The phenomenon mentioned above, that teachers do not explain clearly the use or omission of articles when dealing with the item, is basically also present in the following technique commonly employed. The procedures followed in this technique are also in line with the presentation of articles in most student books used in SMP.

Articles are explicitly taught for the first time by the introduction of classifying a(an) in the patterns 'This is a book, That is an apple or I am a teacher'. The procedures that teachers follow are as follows:

a. The teacher writes down some sentences on the blackboard, for example:

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| (1) This is a book. | That is a pencil. |
| (2) This is a box. | That is a table. |

b. The teacher reads aloud the sentences followed by the students in unison. After he is sure that the students have read the sentences correctly, he moves on to the following step.

c. The teacher takes, for example, a book from one of his students or from his table, raises it and says 'This is a book'. He takes other articles available in the class and does the same thing until he is sure that the students have understood what he means. When using the pattern of 'That is

....', he points to an object available inside or outside the class which is far from him and says, for example 'That is a tree. That is a picture.' When the teacher is doing this activity, the students look at the teacher, paying attention.

- d. Then the teacher gives some practice by asking the students to use the pattern just taught as the answer to his question 'What is this?' while showing the object. So, the activity will be like the following:

Teacher : What is this? (showing a ruler)

Students: That is a ruler.

Teacher : What is that? (pointing to a picture)

Students: That is a picture.

Another way of practising which might be taken is by asking the students to say 'This is' according to the noun the teacher mentions.

Teacher : a book

Students: This a book.

Teacher : a pen

Students: This is a pen.

Then the pattern 'That is' is practiced.

In the following day or hour, still dealing with the indefinite article in the patterns mentioned above, the teacher introduces the use of an with nouns beginning with

vowel sounds. Using the same procedures described above, he presents the use of an, for example with the following nouns:

- (1) This is an apple.
- (2) This is an egg.
- (3) That is an ant.

In showing the use of an, the teacher gives this rule "An is used with nouns beginning with a, i, o, e, u." There are also some teachers who help their students master the use of a and an by giving a list of words which use a and of those which use an. The students are asked to learn them by heart. The list will be like this:

a pen	an apple
a book	an ant
a banana	an egg
etc..	etc.

In this way when the students are given the following exercises, they are guaranteed not to make mistakes, if they really have learned by heart the words in the list.

A. Fill in the blanks with a or an:

1. This is table.
2. This is egg.
3. That is orange.
4. That is cup.

B. Make sentences:

1. ant (This) -- This is an ant.

2. ruler (That) -- That is a ruler.

In addition to the common nouns which are discrete entities like those used above, the teacher also presents unique nouns such as 'the sun, the moon, the sky, the stars'. The teacher might also give a list of this kind of noun and asks the students to learn them by heart.

If we look at this way of teaching with this kind of nouns, that is by giving a list of the nouns together with the article, it is in fact very effective. When later the students have to use these nouns they will most certainly use correct articles. But with nouns like book, apple, and cup, we might question this way of teaching. This kind of noun can use not only a or an, but also the or they can be put in plural with Ø. And we know what will happen if the students have acquired a fixed rule in their mind that book, ruler, window, etc. must be used with a and that egg, orange, apple, etc. must be used with an.

The introduction of unique nouns above make the students deal with the definite article. But the use of the with nouns having definite reference is deliberately introduced for the first time by presenting its use in sentences such as the followig:

(1) This is a pen. The pen is blue.

(2) That is an apple. The apple is red.

In teaching this material, the teacher uses more or

less the same procedures as those used in teaching the indefinite article.

- a. The teacher writes down some examples on the blackboard.
- b. The teacher reads aloud the sentences followed by the students.
- c. He takes a book, a pen or a pencil, raises it and says

This is a book. The book is blue.

Or he points to a picture on the wall, a window, etc. and says

That is a picture. The picture is on the wall.

That is a window. The window is open.

- d. The exercises may take the following forms:

A. Repetition (oral)

a pen

an egg

This is a pen.

This is an egg.

The pen is short.

The egg is round.

B. Completion (written)

1. This is ... ant. ... ant is black.

2. That is ... boy. ... boy is tall.

From the writer's observation, the uses of articles which are specially taught by teachers are only the use of a(an) and the mentioned above. It can be said that other uses of articles are accidentally presented. Students are indeed exposed to the uses of articles as in the following

sentences:

- (1) I do not want a book.
- (2) There is a book on the table.
- (3) The picture is on the wall.

However, when presenting these sentences, the articles are not discussed since the emphasis has moved on to other items of grammar. In sentence (1) above, for example, the emphasis is on negative sentences, in (2) is on the pattern 'There is', and in (3) is on prepositional phrases. It looks that the uses of articles in such sentences have been taken for granted. When teaching other grammar items such as tenses, noun phrases with adjectives, noun clauses, the teacher uses the following sentences as examples without worrying very much about the use of the articles:

- (1) The boy is standing at the door. (present continuous tense)
- (2) The man who is walking is my friend. (adjective clause)
- (3) I will go to a school. (modal auxiliary)
- (4) I want a pen and a pencil (conjunction and)

There is also another factor which makes the teacher tends to leave the further teaching of articles. In English tests conducted either by the school or the government, articles are very seldom or almost never included in the tests. Grammar items which are often tested are tenses, positive and negative sentences, conditional sentences, adjective clauses etc. Teachers give a test on articles only

when presenting the item itself.

Summarizing the discussion about the teaching above, we can say in some words that articles are taught inadequately and unclearly to students. The teaching is inadequate because it is limited firstly by the syllabus and secondly by the teacher. It is not clear because when teaching articles, the teacher often employs a technique which does not indicate clearly the use or non-use of articles. The syllabus, the teaching techniques and materials work together in presenting English articles poorly to the student. The result is that the students are left with uncertainty about the uses of articles. And what is more, this situation continues until the students finish their study of English when they leave Senior High School, because in SMA articles are not taught explicitly.

Notes

- 1) J. C. Richards and M. N. Long, Breakrough Part I, pp. 46 -47.
- 2) Olive Greene, "The Problem of the Article, Part 2," p. 7.

CHAPTER FOUR
SUGGESTIONS TO IMPROVE
STUDENTS' MASTERY OF THE USES OF ARTICLES

Basing on the findings of the error analysis in Chapter Three, in this chapter the writer would like to propose the following suggestions which hopefully can improve the teaching of articles and therefore the students' mastery of the uses of articles.

A. Suggestions for the Syllabus

At the cost of repetition, the writer would like to point out again that articles are a basic item of grammar which students are going to meet from the beginning of their learning English. On the other hand, they are a grammar item which is difficult to learn by Indonesian learners. If we take into account the latter fact, teaching articles and especially presenting most of the materials in the first semester of SMP will make students get confused since they have just started their learning English. However, if we consider the former fact, postponing the teaching of ar-

ticles until the second or the third year of SMP will let the students be confused with the abundant use of articles they are going to meet in sentences or passages learned up to that time limit.

As an attempt to solve this problem the writer suggests that articles should be also taught in SMA. To start teaching this item in the first semester of SMP, is all right. But only teaching articles in SMP let alone mostly in the first semester is inadequate. sufficient. In the first place, articles are not only used in the patterns 'This is a book, I want a book, The book is on the table' which have been really taught in SMP. There are still many other uses which are also important and will be met by the student in English sentences they learn. In the second place, it is very possible that what have been taught in SMP have not been learned well, especially since articles are difficult in themselves. In short the student needs further learning of articles.

If the teaching of articles is not mentioned explicitly in the syllabus for SMA, however, there is a danger that most probably SMA teachers will not teach this item anymore although they know for sure that students still find many difficulties in using articles. The tendency not to deal with this item is also supported by the fact that most student books used in SMA do not present this item either, since they are also written based on the teaching items mentioned in the syllabus.

By this explicit mention in the syllabus, we may hope that the teacher will deal with articles. This good chance can be used by the teacher to teach further other uses of articles such as in general statements using count and mass nouns, in idiomatic expression, and in special uses such as with geographical names. At least this opportunity can be used to establish students' mastery of the uses of articles which have been learned in SMP by giving more exercises or remedial work.

By the teaching of articles also in SMA, students are much helped in learning this item since they are supposed to have acquired other items of grammar which have been learned in SMP, which are necessary to master when using articles, such as the noun and the tense. In this way students will not make such errors as the following:

- (1) *We learned about an ancient history last semester.
- (2) *Dogs and cats are a mammals.
- (3) *An Americans like to brag about their future.
- (4) *A sugar made in Cuba is more expensive.

As we can see in these sentences, the students make the errors in using the articles because they do not master noun classes. By suggesting the teaching of articles also in SMA, the writer does not mean to overemphasize the students' mastery of articles, or to teach about articles themselves elaborately. As we have seen in Chapter Two, the use or non-use of articles has enormous influence on meanings. Since articles are frequently used at discourse level, that is in

the passages students read, their comprehension of the passages is also much influenced by their mastery of articles. The writer does not also ignore the fact that in the teaching of English in SMA reading ability is emphasized. But if we compare articles with other grammar items taught in SMA, we might question why present tense, countable and uncountable nouns, negative and interrogative sentences etc. which have been dealt with in SMP are taught again elaborately in SMA while articles are not. As we know, articles are as difficult as or even more difficult than the simple present tense. If one argues that the present tense must be taught again because if students make errors in using it, the errors will influence meaning very much, why are such following errors fought to a finish?

- (1) *He go to school every day.
- (2) *Why you don't like me?
- (3) *I not work here anymore.

In these sentences the errors do not influence meaning very much. Adult speakers of English will know exactly what the student wants to say.

In summary, if we agree that students are to master the uses of English articles or at least to improve their mastery, they need to learn this item further in SMA. And in assuring that articles will most probably be taught again, the item should be mentioned in the syllabus for SMA.

B. Teaching Articles Situationally and Contextually

As we have seen in Chapter Three, one of the sources of students' difficulty in using English articles is their unfamiliarity with noun classes. This shows us that if we teach articles through noun classification such as countable or uncountable, singular or plural, students, especially those in lower semesters in SMP, will find great difficulty. Therefore, the writer suggests that articles should be taught situationally and contextually as an attempt to reduce the difficulty. This way of teaching can be considered an approach to the teaching of this item.

By the teaching of articles situationally the writer means the uses of a concrete situation in the class where objects such as 'tables, chairs, books, pens, the door, the ceiling' can be used by the teacher to provide examples of the uses of articles. For example, in teaching the use of the with nouns of which identity can be understood from the immediate physical surrounding, the teacher can point at, approach, or touch the door, the floor, the blackboard while saying:

- (1) I am going to close the door.
- (2) I am writing on the blackboard.
- (3) I drop my keys onto the floor.

Teaching articles contextually is to use a language context in providing examples of the uses of articles. In terms of article uses, as pointed out by Pittman, the use of

situations and contexts is basically the same thing since the rules that apply for the use or non-use of articles still hold. The two mediums are different only in the level of communication.1) In a real situation the student can see directly real objects being talked about and see how articles are used in the situation. In a language context, however, the student has to understand the situation from the words or sentences in which the situation is built. Therefore learning how articles are used in a context can be more difficult for students than in a situation. But situations and contexts can complement each other.

As pointed out further by Pittman, the context can be in the form of a sentence, a paragraph, or a story consisting of more than one paragraph.2) However, as stated by Poedjosoedarmo, since to teach articles in isolated sentences will pose difficulty for Indonesian students, it is suggested that articles are taught by using a context of discourse.3)

Before we discuss how the approach above is realized in the forms of teaching procedures, the writer would like to point out an important principle that should be noted when teaching articles. Since articles are only small words which do not have any lexical meaning in themselves, in some cases their influence on the meaning of a sentence is not very significant, and particularly they are different from Indonesian system of noun marking, there is a great tendency for students to forget or to leave them. This tendency is especially potential when they produce their own sentences.

Therefore it is necessary for the teacher to show clearly the presence or absence of articles in the examples he gives. He can also show how English is different from Indonesian in this respect. From the writer's experience, by this patient reminding, bit by bit the student becomes aware of the importance of using an article with a noun phrase and internalize the grammar of articles.

Since there are so many kinds of use of articles, let alone if we also include all their special and idiomatic uses, and since each type of use needs a special teaching technique or at least a rather different one, it is impossible to present the teaching technique for each type of use of articles in this short discussion. This kind of discussion will take a separate book, as we can see in Pittman's The Use of the Article and Related Linguistic Features. Therefore in what follows the writer will present only the technique used in teaching a versus the with count nouns as an example of the realization of the approach mentioned previously. Here a is used with a noun firstly introduced and the is used with a noun which has been mentioned or cited before.

The procedures:

1. The teacher can say to the students that he wants to tell them something and ask them to listen carefully since he will say it in English:

'I have a pen in my bag.'

He repeats the sentence twice. Then he asks the students (in students' mother tongue):

'Do you know its colour?'

'John, where is the pen made in?'

'Where did I buy it?'

Students give answers 'No' for all the questions.

2. Then the teacher says in students' mother tongue:

'All right, it doesn't matter you don't know. I will tell you how it is like. But I will explain it in English. So you have to listen very carefully.'

Then he says:

'The pen is red.'

'The pen is made in Taiwan.'

'I bought the pen in the market yesterday.'

3. The teacher then asks the students again in their mother tongue about the pen:

'Rudi, what is the colour of the pen?'

'Yanti, where is the pen made in?'

'Tono, where did I buy the pen?'

The students know all the answers to these questions.

4. Then he writes down all the sentences he said on the blackboard:

I have a pen in my bag.

The pen is red.

The pen is made in Taiwan.

I bought the pen in the market yesterday.

5. The teacher explains the use of a and the in this kind of use. He indicates clearly the use of a and the in the sentences. After explaining how a and the are used in those sentences, the teacher can give another example like the following:

Yesterday Mary went to a shop and bought a pencil. The pencil was not expensive but very nice. When she was in the shop, a man touched her shoulder. The man was her own uncle. He gave some money to Mary.

6. In giving exercises, as far as possible the teacher uses not only one or two sentences but at least one paragraph, which indicates a situation. This is what the writer means by the use of a context of discourse. Here is an example:

Insert a or the in the blanks:

Yesterday man came to me and told me story. I believed story and gave man some money. This morning man came again with small boy.boy was in poor clothes. man told me that boy was his own son.

Notes

1) G. A. Pittman. The Uses of Articles and Related Features, p. 101.

2) Ibid.

3) Poedjosoedarmo. "Discourse Structure," Linguistic III, pp. 30 - 31.

CONCLUSION

The analysis done on students' errors in using articles shows that English articles are really difficult for Indonesian learners. The primary source of learners' difficulty lies in the complexity of English articles themselves. In using articles, there are many factors which should be considered. And some of these factors are the categories which are difficult to understand because in the students' mother tongue the categories are often inexplicitly expressed or indicated in different ways. The complexity becomes greater since there are many cases in which articles are used inconsistently.

The teaching of English articles in Indonesian schools also constitutes another source of difficulty. Articles are only taught in SMP, and most of their materials are presented in the first semester, the very early beginning of students' learning English. Since they have just started learning English, this causes the students to face great

difficulty in acquiring the system of article usage.

The other source of difficulty lies in the teaching of articles themselves. Although students are exposed with many examples of article uses, teachers do not indicate clearly the use or non-use of articles in those examples and the concept of differentiation conveyed by the use of articles. Some teachers also apply such a technique which causes students to apply a wrong analogy when using articles.

The results of the analysis also show us that the implementation of the Aural-Oral approach suggested by Curriculum 1975 has not been very effective. In acquiring the complex rules of article usage students also need cognitive knowledge.

By mentioning articles also in the syllabus for SMA, so that SMA teachers will teach this item further, we may hope that students' mastery of articles can be improved. The students' difficulty in learning articles can also be reduced by teaching this item situationally and contextually. However, teachers' patient guides and a lot of exercises are also very important factors in achieving this goal.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Aarts, Flor and Jan Aarts. English Syntactic Structures.
Oxford: Pergamon Press Ltd., 1972.
- Allen, Stannard. B. A. Living English Structure. London:
Western Printing Services Ltd., 1957.
- Close, R. A. A Reference Grammar for Students of English.
London: Longman Group Ltd., 1975.
- Corder, S. Pit. "The Significance of Learners' Errors," in
International Review of Applied Linguistics, Vol. 5,
No. 4, November 1967, pp. 161 - 169.
- , Introducing Applied Linguistics. England:
Penguin Book Ltd,
- Curme, O. George. English Grammar. New York: Barnes and
Noble Inc., 1947.
- Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan. Kurikulum Sekolah
Menengah Pertama (SMP) 1975. Jakarta: 1975.
- Frank, Marcella. Modern English Grammar. New Jersey: Prentice
Hall, Inc. 1972.

- Greene, Olive. "The Problem of the Article, Conclusion,"
English Teaching Forum, Vol. IX, No. 3, 1971.
- , "The Problem of the Article, Part 2," English Teaching Forum, Vol. IX No. 1, 1971.
- Harsono, A. Tatabahasa Tradisional Secara Singkat. Yogyakarta: IKIP Sanata Dharma, 1984.
- Hill, L.A. A Guide to Correct English. Second ed. Singapore: Oxford University Press, 1985.
- Hornby, A. S. A Guide to Pattern and Usage in English. Second edition. London: Oxford University Press, 1959.
- , The Teaching of Structural Words and Sentence Patterns - Stage 1. London: Oxford University Press, 1959
- House, Homer C. and Susan Emelyn Harman. Descriptive English Grammar. New York: Prentice - Hall, Inc., 1950.
- Jespersen, Otto. A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles, Part Two, Vol. 1. London: George Allen and Unwin Ltd, 1954.
- Johansson, Stig. "The Uses of Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis." English Language Teaching. London: Oxford University Press 1971.
- Keraf, Gorys. Tatabahasa Indonesia untuk Sekolah Menengah Lanjutan Atas. Seventh edition. Ende: Nusa Indah, 1980.
- Kridalaksana, Harimurti. Kelas Kata dalam Bahasa Indonesia. Jakarta: PT Gramedia, 1986.
- Leech, Geoffrey and Jan Svartvik. A Communicative Grammar of English. London: Longman Group Ltd. 1975.
- Foedjosoedarmo, Gloria. "The Concept of 'Definite' and

- 'Indefinite' in English and the Marking of Noun Phrases in Indonesian; A Trans-Language Semantico-Pragmatic Exploration." The First English Department Seminar, IKIP Sanata Dharma, 1987.
- ."Discourse Structure," in Linguistic III. English Department of IKIP Sanata Dharma, 1986.
- Pittman. G. A. The Uses of the Article and Related Linguistic Features. London and Harlow: Longmans, Green and Co. Ltd., 1969.
- Quirk, Randolph, et. al. A Grammar of Contemporary English. London: Longman Group Ltd., 1972.
- Quirk, Randolph and Sidney Greenbaum. A University Grammar of English. London: Longman Group Ltd., 1972.
- Baharjo, Irawati. "A Comparison Between Indonesian and English Articles." Thesis. IKIP Sanata Dharma
- Richards, J. C. (ed.). Error Analysis. London: Longman, 1974.
- Richards, J. C. and M. N. Long. Breakthrough Part I. Oxford: Univ. Press., 1985
- Swan, Michael. Practical English Usage. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1980.
- Thomson, A. J. and A. V. Martinet. A Practical English Grammar. Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1970.
- Zandvoort, R. W. A Handbook of English Grammar. Groningen - Jakarta: J. B. Wolters, 1950.

APPENDIX I
THE TEST FOR ELICITING
THE STUDENTS' USE OF ARTICLES

Nama :

No. Mahasiswa:

Sekolah asal :

=====

TEST A

- Petunjuk: 1. Bacalah teks bacaan tentang supermarket di bawah ini dengan teliti.
2. Kemudian isikanlah a, an, the, atau one di mana perlu sehingga teks ini menjadi sempurna.
3. Bila ada kata yang tidak anda mengerti, silakan bertanya. Saya akan memberikan terjemahan kata itu dalam Bahasa Indonesia.
-

Today, ... supermarkets are found in almost ... every large city in ... world. But ... first supermarket was opened only fifteen years ago. It was opened in ... New York by ... man named Michael Cullen.

... Supermarket is different from ... other types of ... stores in ... several ways. In ... supermarkets, ... goods are placed on ... open shelves. The customers choose what they want and take them to ... check-out counter. This means that ... fewer employees are required than in ... other stores.

... Way products are displayed is another difference between ... supermarkets and ... many other types of ... stores. For ... example, in ... supermarkets, there is usually ... display of ... small inexpensive items just in ... front of ... check-out counter: ... candies, ... chocolate, ... magazines, ... cheap books, and so on. Why are they there?

... Most customers who go to ... supermarket buy from ... shopping list. They know exactly what they need to buy. They shop according to ... plan. By ... time he reaches ... check-out counter, ... customer is feeling pleased and relaxed because ... task of ... shopping is finished. In this happy mood, ... customer sees an ... attractive display of ... inexpensive goods that were not on his shopping list. Now he feels like buying ... something just for his own pleasure and enjoyment. ... Many customers buy from these displays of ... products near ... check-out counter, and this is exactly what ... owner of ... supermarket hopes they will do.

Another important fact in helping a customer choose what to buy, is where a product is placed on a shelf. ... Product that is placed at ... eye level on a shelf sells much better than one which is placed on ... lower or higher shelf. ... Product which is easy to see sells best. ... Manufacturers pay ... higher price to have their products placed at ... eye level on the shelves.

... Comfort and convenience of ... supermarkets is another factor which makes them popular with ... customers. ... large parking spaces are provided and ... many supermarkets stay open until very late at ... night.

TEST B

Petunjuk: Isikanlah a, an, the, atau one ke dalam titik-titik di bawah ini, di mana perlu.

1. I always go to work by ... bicycle in ... morning.
2. ... France is ... European country.

3. ... Public health in Indonesia is still low.
4. Can you play ... guitar very well?
5. I only need ... ticket but you have given me two.
6. They appointed John ... captain.
7. I am going to ... prison this afternoon. My friend has been kept there for three days.
8. There was ... universal protest against the new rule in front of ... Parliament Building.
9. ... Philippines do not lie in ... Indian Ocean.
10. Listen to ... radio and watch ... television every day.
11. We can see ... moon in ... sky at ... night.
12. Be ... honest person.
13. ... Robinsons will move here next month.
14. ... Sugar made in ... United States is more expensive.
15. This is ... apple, not ... mango.
16. I stayed in ... Ambarukmo Hotel when I was in Yogya.
17. What ... lovely garden you have!
18. We learned about ... ancient history last semester.
19. ... Indonesia's economic problems are increasing nowadays.
20. ... Americans like to brag about their future.

TEST C

Petunjuk: Terjemahkanlah kalimat-kalimat berikut ini ke dalam Bahasa Inggris yang baik dan benar. Terjemah pada kertas folio bergaris yang dibagikan.

1. Universitas adalah tempat mahasiswa maupun dosen belajar.
2. Apakah binatang peliharaanmu mamalia? Jika engkau mempunyai anjing, engkau mempunyai mamalia. Sapi dan domba juga mamalia.
3. Di kaki Gunung Slamet ada sebuah desa bernama Madang Kara. Di sana tinggal sebuah keluarga kecil. Ketika saya datang pertama kali ke desa itu tahun yang lalu, mereka tinggal di sebuah rumah tua. Minggu lalu saya datang ke sana lagi dan keluarga itu sudah mempunyai rumah baru.

Beberapa kosakata pembantu:

binatang peliharaan: pet

mamalia: mammal

domba: sheep

dosen: teacher, lecturer.

APPENDIX II THE ANSWERS OF THE TEST

TEST A

Today, \emptyset supermarkets are found in almost \emptyset every large city in the world. But the first supermarket was opened only fifteen years ago. It was opened in \emptyset New York by a man named Michael Cullen.

A supermarket is different from \emptyset other types of \emptyset stores in \emptyset several ways. In \emptyset supermarkets, \emptyset goods are placed on \emptyset open shelves. The customers choose what they want and take them to the check-out counter. This means that \emptyset fewer employees are required than in \emptyset other stores.

The way products are displayed is another difference between \emptyset supermarkets and \emptyset many other types of \emptyset stores. For \emptyset example, in \emptyset supermarkets, there is usually a display of \emptyset small inexpensive items just in \emptyset front of the check-out counter: \emptyset candies, \emptyset chocolate, \emptyset magazines, \emptyset cheap books and so on. Why are they there?

\emptyset Most customers who go to a supermarket buy from a shopping list. They know exactly what they need to buy. They shop according to a plan. By the time he reaches the check-out counter, the customer is feeling pleased and relaxed because the task of \emptyset shopping is finished. In this happy mood, the customer sees an attractive display of \emptyset inexpensive goods that were not on his shopping list. Now he feels like buying

Ø something just for his own pleasure and enjoyment. Ø Many customers buy from these displays of Ø products near the check-out counter, and this is exactly what the owner of the check-out counter, and this is exactly what the owner of the supermarket hopes they will do.

Another important fact in helping a customer choose what to buy, is where a product is placed on a shelf. A product that is placed at Ø eye level on a shelf sells much better than one which is placed on a lower or higher shelf. A product which is easy to see sells best. Ø Manufacturers pay a higher price to have their products placed at Ø eye level on the shelves.

The comfort and convenience of Ø supermarkets is another factor which makes them popular with Ø customers. Ø Large parking spaces are provided and Ø many supermarkets stay open until very late at Ø night.

TEST B

1. I always go to work by Ø bicycle in the morning.
2. Ø France is a European country.
3. Ø Public health in Indonesia is still low.
4. Can you play the guitar very well?
5. I only need one ticket but you have given me two.
6. They appointed John Ø (the) captain.
7. I am going to the prison this afternoon. My friend has been kept there for three days.
8. There was a universal protest against the new rule in front of the Parliament Building.
9. The Philippines do not lie in the Indian Ocean.
10. Listen to the radio and watch Ø television every day.
11. We can see the moon in the sky at Ø night.
12. Be an honest person.
13. The Robinsons will move here next month.
14. The sugar made in the United States is more expensive.
15. This is an apple; not a mango.

16. I stayed in the Ambarukmo Hotel when I was in Yogya.
17. What a lovely garden you have!
18. We learned about \emptyset ancient history last semester.
19. \emptyset Indonesia's economic problems are increasing nowadays.
20. The (\emptyset) Americans like to brag about their future.

TEST C

(The following are the possible correct answers for Test C)

- 1.-A university is a place where both \emptyset students and \emptyset teachers learn.
 - \emptyset Universities are \emptyset places where \emptyset students and \emptyset teachers learn.
 - The university is a place where both the student and the teacher learn.
 - 2.-Is your pet a mammal? If you have a dog, you have a mammal. A cow and a sheep are also \emptyset mammals.
 - Are your pets \emptyset mammals? If you have \emptyset (some) dogs, you have \emptyset (some) mammals. \emptyset Cows and sheep are also \emptyset mammals.
 3. At the foot of \emptyset Mount Slamet there is a village called Madang Kara. There live a small family. When I came to the village (there) for the first time, the family (they) lived in an old house. \emptyset Last week I went to the village (there) again and the family had a new house.
-

APPENDIX III
AREAS OF ERROR THE STUDENTS MADE
TOGETHER WITH THEIR PERCENTAGE

(To know the complete phares or sentences where the following errors occur, look at the appropriate part of the test)

TEST A

TEST A

1. at ... eye level: a = 7
an = 112
the= 141 95.36%
one= 7
2. for ... example: an = 66
the= 13 57.14%
one= 1
3. ... fewer employees: a = 36
an = 1
the= 37 54.29%
one= 2
4. ... most customers: a = 1
the= 74 54.29%
one= 1
5. at ... night: a = 6
the= 46 42.86%
one= 8
6. ... every large city: a = 5
an = 29
the= 4 30.71%
one= 5
7. ... New York: a = 4
the= 30 30%
8. ... something: a = 11
the= 19 27.14%
one= 6
9. ... many other types, supermarkets, customers:
a = 15
the= 80 25.25%
one= 14
10. ... several ways: a = 25
one= 4 19.29%

10. by ... bicycle: a = 72
the= 2 62.86%
11. ... universal protest: an = 55
the= 9
one= 4 54.29%
∅ = 8
12. ... Ambarukmo Hotel: an= 1
∅ = 62 45%
13. ... Philippines: a = 2
one= 1 42.45%
∅ = 57
14. at ... night: a = 7
the= 39 37.14%
one= 6
15. only ... ticket: a = 48
the= 2 35.72%
16. ... France: a = 4
an = 1 35%
the= 14
17. ... Robinsons: a = 3
∅ = 45 34.29%
18. ... Indian Ocean; an = 10
∅ = 32 30%
19. go to ... prison: a = 15
∅ = 14 20.71%
20. ... moon: a = 22
∅ = 4 18.58%
21. What ... lovely garden: the= 12
∅ = 7 13.57%
22. ... Parliament building: a = 6
∅ = 9 10.72%
23. ... United States: ∅ = 13 9.29%

TEST C

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. an university: 24 | the students: 24 |
| Ø university: 57 | the lecturers/teachers: 17 |
| the place: 1 | a student: 21 |
| Ø place: 28 | a lecturer: 17 |
| Ø student: 40 | |
| Ø lecturer: 50 | |
| | |
| 2. Ø mammal: 132 | Ø bull: 27 |
| the mammal: 22 | Ø goat: 48 |
| Ø dog: 45 | Ø lamb: 26 |
| the dog: 6 | the mammals: 7 |
| Ø cow: 71 | a mammals: 12 |
| | |
| 3. at Ø foot of: 22 | Ø year ago: 4 |
| at a foot of: 8 | an--the old house: 31 |
| the Mount Slamet/ Slamet Mountain: 29 | |
| a Mount Slamet: 4 | an--a old house: 10 |
| a--the village: 7 | an--one old house: 1 |
| a--the small family: 5 | the last week: 5 |
| a--one small family: 2 | Ø week ago: 4 |
| for Ø first time: 12 | the week ago: 4 |
| that village: 46 | the--that family: 40 |
| the--a village: 7 | a--the new house: 10 |
| the last year: 5 | Ø new house: 12 |
| the year ago: 3 | |

