CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Prior Studies

In order to make a different study with the prior study, the writer had found some related literature they are, first; by Elgustus, et. al, students of Towson and Purdue University. Their title is “The Usage of Definite and Indefinite Articles By Children With Specific Language Impairment”. In their study, they focused on article omission and have not made the distinction between definite and indefinite article contexts.

In this study, there were 36 participants; 12 5-years-old with SLI, 12 typically-developing children matched for age, and 12 younger, typically-developing children matched with participants in the SLI group according to mean length of utterance. All 36 children participated in task requiring indefinite article use, and a task requiring use of the definite article, in which the referent of the noun had already been established in the discourse. The children with SLI showed less use of definite articles in particular, relative to both groups of typically-developing children. Substitutions as well as omissions were seen. The findings suggest that the article limitations of the children with SLI were
attributable in part to an incomplete understanding of how definite articles are to be used.\(^1\)

The second research was by Ken Eckert, a student of Keimyung University. The title of his study is “Using Old English to Teach the Articles \textit{a} and \textit{the} in the Classroom: An Etymological and Visual Approach. In his study, he focused about Instructors of composition for Korean students often contend with the difficulty of teaching indefinite and definite articles and the tendency of students to omit them in writing. Students need to parse a grammatical concept absent in Korean, and may encounter teachers who intuitively use them but do not conceptually understand them.\(^2\)

The third research by Monika Ekiert, teacher college of Columbia University. The title of her study is “The Acquisition of Grammatical Marking of Indefiniteness with the Indefinite Article \textit{a} in L2 English. She focused about The article system is a notorious source of difficulty for second language (L2) learners of English, largely because it is based on a complex set of abstract distinctions which are, to some extent, arbitrarily mapped onto surface forms (\textit{a}, \textit{the}, and \textit{zero}). This difficulty is only compounded when learners’ first languages (L1s) do

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\(^2\) Ken Eckert, \textit{Using Old English to Teach the Articles a and the in the Classroom: An Etymological and Visual Approach}, Keimyung University. Accessed on http://www.academia.edu/4020120/Using_Old_English_to_Teach_the_Articles_a_and_the_in_the_Classroom (April 8, 2013)
not share the same surface features and/or the same semantic conceptualizations
with the target language (TL).³

The fourth research by Costas Gabrielatos and Eivind Torgersen, students of
Lancaster University. The title of their study is “A Corpus-Based Sociolinguistic
Analysis of Indefinite Article Use in London English”. In their study, they
focused to discuss about the analysis of the use of indefinite article forms (a/an)
in front of vowel sounds in spoken London English, which formed a part of the
completed project Analysis of spoken London English using corpus tools (funded
by the British Academy).⁴

The different is the writer wanted to investigate Indonesian interference
toward English in using indefinite and definite articles in descriptive text that
made by Indonesian students at the eighth grade students of MTs Miftahul
Jannah Palangka Raya.

B. Second Language Acquisition

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers both to the study of individuals
and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as
young children, and to the process of learning that language.⁵ Second Language
Acquisition (SLA) The learning of another language after the first language has

³ Monika Ekiert, The Acquisition of Grammatical Marking of Indefiniteness with the
Indefinite Article a in L2 English, Columbia University. Accessed on http://journals.te-
library.org/index.php/tesol/article/view/265/224 (April 8, 2013)
⁴ Costas Gabrielatos and Eivind Torgersen, A Corpus-Based Sociolinguistic Analysis of
Indefinite Article Use in London English, Lancaster University. Accessed on
http://eprints.lancs.ac.uk/26562/1/ICAME30-indefinite_article.pdf, (April 8, 2013)
⁵ Muriel Saville and Troke, Introducing Second Language Acquisition, Opit., p.2
been learned. The use of this term does not differentiate among learning situations. Second Language Acquisition (SLA): This is the common term used for the name of the discipline. In general, SLA refers to the process of learning another language after the native language has been learned. Sometimes the term refers to the learning of a third or fourth language. The important aspect is that SLA refers to the learning of a nonnative language after the learning of the native language. The second language is commonly referred to as the L2. As with the phrase “second language,” L2 can refer to any language learned after learning the L1, regardless of whether it is the second, third, fourth, or fifth language. By this term, we mean both the acquisition of a second language in a classroom situation, as well as in more “natural” exposure situations. The word acquisition in this book is used broadly in the sense that we talk about language use (sometimes independently from actual acquisition). Some might prefer the term Second Language Studies (SLS) as it is a term that refers to anything dealing with using or acquiring a second/foreign language.

C. Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis is an approach to the study of SLA which involves predicting and explaining learner problems based on a comparison of L1 and L2

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\(^6\) Susan M. Gass and Larry Selinker, *Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course* Opcit, p.521

\(^7\) Ibid, p.7
to determine similarities and differences. Contrastive analysis is activity which tries to compare L1 and L2 structures for identifying differences both of languages. Contrastive analysis is a way of comparing languages in order to determine potential errors for the ultimate purpose of isolating what needs to be learned and what does not need to be learned in a second-language-learning situation. The goal of CA (as that of still earlier theories of L2 learning) was primarily pedagogical in nature: to increase efficiency in L2 teaching and testing. Contrastive analysis is the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. Robert Lado states this clearly in his introduction to Linguistic Across Cultures (1957), a book which became a classic guide to this approach.

The plant of the book rests on the assumption that we can predict and describe the pattern that will cause difficulty in learning, and those that will not cause difficulty, by comparing systematically the language and culture to be learned with the native language and culture of the student. In our view, the preparation of up-to-date pedagogical and experimental materials must be based on this kind of comparison.

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8 Muriel Saville and Troke, *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*, p. 34
9 Henry Guntur Tarigan and Djago Tarigan, *Pengajaran Analisis Kesalahan Berbahasa*, Opcit., p. 17
10 Susan M Gass and Larry Selinker, *Second Language Acquisition; An Introductory Course*, Opcit., p. 96
11 Muriel Saville and Troke, *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*, Opcit., p. 34
13 Muriel Saville and Troke, *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*, Opcit, p. 34
The strong hypothesis is based on assumptions below\textsuperscript{14}:

1. The main cause in the difficulties learning of language is interference of mother’s language.

2. The difficulties of learning language is caused by the differences of L1 and L2.

3. More bigger the differences between L1 and L2 is more difficult in learning.

4. The result of comparison between L1 and L2 is needed for to predict the difficulties that will be happen in learning language.

5. The material teaching can be determined exactly by comparing both languages.

Methodology of contrastive analysis in Widiastuti’s thesis stated that; first prerequisite of contrastive analysis is one circumstantial analysis descriptively and good concerning languages which will contrast. In this case also theory of analysis of two or more language that will be compare or contrast must to be determined too.\textsuperscript{15}

Second criterion of contrastive analysis is the nature of clearer and not language component that is not contrasted based on experience that the components or elements give and cause the difficulty for students of L2. By itself,

\textsuperscript{14} Henry Guntur Tarigan and Djago Tarigan, \textit{Pengajaran Analisis Kesalahan Berbahasa}, Opcit, p. 21

\textsuperscript{15} Triana Widiastuti, \textit{Contrastive Analysis On English And Indinesian Conditional Sentences}, Palangka Raya: STAIN Palangka Raya, p. 40
contrastive analysis only limits at selected parts about languages that will be compared.\(^\text{16}\)

After selection process generally, hence something important to do is comparison or contrasting. Three ways are possible to be gone through, namely:

1. Similar of structure and formal,
2. Similar in translation, and
3. Similar in translation and structure.

Methodologies above only theoretical, however in fact, contrastive analysis and its function in learning of language continue in variation of experience of teacher. Contrastive analysis will succeed in class or learning of language practically need experienced of teacher in bilingual that is mother language and target language.\(^\text{17}\)

D. Interference

According to Tarigan, Interference is deviation of language norms which is happened in bilingual utterance because of familiarity toward more than one language which causes language connection is happened.\(^\text{18}\) By comparing between two languages many things can be revealed. Some possibilities is as follow:\(^\text{19}\)

\(^{16}\) Ibid, p. 40  
\(^{17}\) Ibid, p. 40-41  
\(^{18}\) Henry Guntur Tarigan and Djago Tarigan, *Pengajaran Analisis Berbahasa*, Opcit., p. 15  
\(^{19}\) Ibid., p. 28-29
1. Nothing difference.

Structure or aspect system in both of languages is nothing differences (consonant/ l, m, n/ pronounced equal in Indonesian and English).

2. Phenomena of convergence

Two cases or more in L1 become one in L2 (padi, beras, nasi, become rice).

3. Unfair

Case or system in L1 is nothing in L2. Example: system of plural with marker s/es in English is nothing in Indonesian; otherwise, system of plural with repetition word in Indonesian (rumah-rumah, daun-daun, ikan-ikan) is nothing in English.

4. Difference of distribution

The case in L1 is different distribution with the same case in L2. Example: phonemic η in Indonesian is on beginning, middle, and last from word.

5. Nothing similarity

The case in L1 doesn’t have similarity in L2. Example: predicate of adjective in Indonesian; example: Dia Kaya (Indonesian) becomes He is Rich (English).

6. Phenomena of divergence

One case in L1 becomes two cases in L2. Example, we (English) can be kita or kami in Indonesian.
D. Syntactic categories

There are some syntactic categories as presented in the following table:²⁰

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Abbr.</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>Hear, think, kill, shorten.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Good, obscene, demented, lovely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>By, in, with, from, to, at, inside.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>Adv</td>
<td>Slowly, often, now, mostly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Determiner</td>
<td>D or Det</td>
<td>a, the, this, those</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ways of identifying syntactic categories²¹:

1. Nouns

   Traditionally: person, place, or thing.

   Distributionally:

   - modified by adjectives

   - follow determiners (the, a, this, etc. or the possessive my, your etc.)

   - can be singular or plural

   - can’t take an object.

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2. Verb

Traditionally: Action (sometimes state)

Distributionally:
- can combine with auxiliary verbs can, will, might, etc. or to.
- can agree with the subject
- takes tense (-ed), aspect (-en) affixes.
- can take an object

3. Adjectives

Traditionally: State (modifying), qualities, attributes

Distributionally:
- follows very
- modifies noun (and follows determiner)
- can’t take an object
- takes derivational affixes like –ish, -some.

4. Adverb

Traditionally: Modifier of anything other than a noun

Distributionally:
- takes -ly suffix
- cannot appear where adjectives often appear (e.g. between determiner and noun.)
- can appear between subject and aux.

5. Prepositions
-Traditionally: Locations, space, directions.

Distributionally:

- Take no morphology
- Can take an object
- Can be modified by right

E. Determiner

Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman describes determiner as a special class of words that limits (or determine) the nouns that follow them. These words could be in the form of articles (the, a, an), demonstratives (this, that, these, those), and possessive determiners (my, your, his, her, its, our, their). Structurally, determiner precedes an adjective if there are adjective in the noun phrase. In cases where no adjectives are present, they are positioned directly in front of a noun. Where the English structure is concerned, we can say that a determiner is an optimal element in the noun phrase that occurs at the front most position in the noun phrase. It can be in a form of definite / indefinite articles, demonstrative or possessive determiners and of course, quantifiers.22

Below is the deep structure of a noun phrase with various forms of determiners.23

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23 Ibid., (Online on July 3, 2013)
G. Article in English

1. Indefinite Article

Indefinite article is an implicit word that does not clarifies noun, people and specific person. The part in indefinite article are “a” and “an”. We use “a” before a consonant sound. We use “an” before a vowel sound. Sometimes a consonant has a vowel sound. And a vowel sound has a consonant sound. Indefinite article in English beside to clarify that the definition of noun is singular (hanya satu, sebuah, seorang, sebutir, dsb). It is also used to clarify general definition or conceptual.

Usage of Indefinite article “a” and “an”:

1. Front of names of degrees, employment, position or job, example:

   Mr. James is a doctor

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26 A. Widyamartaya, Seni Menerjemahkan, Yogyakarta: Kanisius, 1989, p. 46
2. Front of religion, example:
   He is a moslem

3. Front of national of person, example:
   I am an Indonesian

4. Front of title or clan, example:
   She is a simanjutak

5. Front of countable noun singular formed, example:
   I bought a book last night

6. Front of “hundred”, “thousand”, million: etc, example:
   A hundred

7. After “as”, example:
   He is very clever as a student in this school

8. After “half”, example:
   Half an hour

9. Used in saying “one and a half”, example:
   One and a half days

10. In a definite saying like as “make a …”, indefinite form is used, example:
    To make a mistake

11. In saying or first sentence of a story or fable, example:
    Once upon a time

12. Before uncountable noun which is sometime used as countable noun, example:
He has a good life

But form of indefinite article “a” and “an” can not be used: 28

1. Before uncountable noun, example:
   
   He wants some coffee

2. Before plural form, example:
   
   Dogs are faithful animals

3. After “kind of” or “sort of”, example:
   
   What kind of book do you want?

4. Before nominal words like as “work, fun, health, permission, etc”, example:
   
   She is great fun

5. Before some words like as “furniture, luggage, baggage, thunder, lightning, etc”, example:
   
   Lighting struck the tree

6. Before nominal words which plural formed, like as “scissors, spectacles, shears, trouser, pliers, etc”, example:
   
   I use bad scissors

Indefinite article “a” is used front of singular noun which the first letter is consonant or vowel which has sound like as consonant, example: 29

A university

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28 Ibid., p. 151-153
29 Ibid., p. 148
Indefinite article “an” is used front of singular noun which the first letter is vowel or consonant which has sound like as vowel, example.\textsuperscript{30}

An honest girl

2. Definite Article

Definite article is an explicit word that clarifies noun, people and specific person.\textsuperscript{31} The part of definite article is “The”.\textsuperscript{32} We use “the” after specific objects or things you have mentioned before. Noun that is followed by “The” can be singular and plural noun, example “the book (buku itu)”, “the cat (kucing)”, “the cars (mobil-mobil itu)”, “the girls (gadis-gadis itu)”; it also can be followed by countable and uncountable noun. Example, “the boy (anak laki-laki itu)”, “the car (mobil itu)”, “the gold (emas itu)”, “the paper (kertas itu)”, etc. “The” is another of “this, these, that, those”.\textsuperscript{33}

Usage of definite article “The”\textsuperscript{34}:

1. Name of thing which only one, example:

   The moon

2. Noun that has been mentioned or determined in prior sentence, example:

   I have a new bag. The new bag is red.

3. Name of nationalism which describes people collective, example:

\textsuperscript{30} Ibid., p. 149
\textsuperscript{31} Hotben D. Lingga dan Lim Ali Utomo, \textit{Intisari Tata Bahasa Inggris Kontemmporer}, Opcit., p.295
\textsuperscript{32} Rudy Hariyono and Andrew Mc Carthy, \textit{ABC Plus English Grammar Complete Edition}, Opcit., p. 134
\textsuperscript{33} Ibid., p. 134
\textsuperscript{34} Ibid., p. 135-140
4. Singular noun which is used for to proclaim a group, example:
   The Indonesia

5. Name of school, example:
   The SMU Brawijaya

6. Names of canals, sea, and ocean, example:
   The Indian ocean

7. Names of rivers, example:
   The rhine

8. Names of straits and bays, example:
   The bali strait

9. Names of mountains or rows of mountains, example:
   The Balkan mountains

10. Names of islands, example:
    The Hawaiian islands

11. Names of hotels, example:
    The Hilton hotel

12. Names of theatres, example:
    The supermall theatre

13. Names of restaurants, example:
    The mahkota restaurant

14. Names of museums, example:
The British Museum

15. Names of countries which plural formed, example:
   The United States of America

16. Names of political parties, example:
   The Republican party

17. Names of organizations in complete form (not acronym), example:
   The United Nations Organization

18. Proper names of books, example:
   The Bible

19. Uncountable noun which is limited by adjective or superlative degree form, saying or subordinate clause, example:
   The best English

20. Combination of noun which is the first rate on the main factor, example:
   The Harry company
   But form of definite article “the” can not be used in front of:

1. Plural noun which is used in a common sense, example:
   Flowers are nice to look at

2. Proper noun in a case of possessive, example:
   Yongky’s shoes

3. Abstract noun which is used in common definition, example:
   Patience is a great dignity

4. Material noun which is used in common definition, example:
Gold is a valuable metal

5. Uncountable noun in common statement, example:
   He teaches english

6. Name of season which is used in common form, example:
   In winter

7. Names of streets, example:
   Arjuna street

8. Names of eating period, example:
   I have break fast every morning

9. Names of buildings, if stating the use of itself, example:
   I go to school everyday

10. Names of mountains in singular meaning, example:
    Mount merapi

11. Names of person, example:
    Jimmy

12. Names of languages, example:
    She speaks English very well

13. Names of games or sports, example:
    Basketball

14. Names of disease, example:
    Typhus

15. Names of color if used as noun, example:
Blue and green are my favorite colours

16. Names of human’s five sense, example:

   Sight is one of the five sense

17. Names of days and month, example:

   I go on picnic on Sunday

18. Names of cities, example:

   Tokyo

19. Names of provinces, example:

   Central java

20. Names of countries that consist of singular noun, example:

   Indonesia

21. Names of lakes which use “lake”, example:

   Lake toba

22. Names of capes which use “cape”, example:

   Cape kennedy

23. Names of continents, example:

   Asia

24. Names of organizations in acronym form, example:

   UNO

25. Names of titles or professions, example:

   Queen victoria
26. In sayings strong position that consist of an intransitive verb that is followed by the object, therefore noun that follows verb does not use definite article “the”

In this below are some basic form of sayings in sentences that not using definite article “the”, example:

To set foot
To strike foot
To cast anchor
To take breath
To catch fire
To shake hands
To send word
To give ear
To give battle
To take fire
To drop anchor
To leave school
To keep house
But there are some of sayings above that can be used with article, but meaning of the saying will be changed, example:

To leave school – To leave the school
To keep house – To keep the house

27. In saying that consist of a preposition that is followed by the object, used for everyone and in the same chance, therefore it does not use article, example:

He begins work at daybreak
I only know her by name

There are two ways to read definite article “the”, they are:

1. “The” is read “dhze”, if followed by noun which is begun with consonant sound or vowel which the sound like as consonant, example:35

   The cat

2. “The” is read “dhzi”, if followed noun which is begun with vowel sound or consonant which the sound like as vowel, example:36

   The umbrella

H. Article in Indonesian

In Indonesian indefinite article has various meaning based on noun that is followed. Example, sebuah, sebutir, seekor, sebatang, selembar, sepucuk, sehelai, sebiji, sepapan, sepotong, etc. Indefinite article in English beside to clarify that

35 Ibid., p. 134-135
36 Ibid., p. 135
the noun is singular, it also used to clarify general definition or conceptual. but sometimes it is not translated although it still mentions that article hasn’t been known.\textsuperscript{37} Definite article has the same meaning in Indonesian like as –nya, itu, tersebut, tadi. Sometimes in Indonesian, it is not translated. But it still mentions that article has been known certainly.\textsuperscript{38}

Words that have function become determiner is mentioned article. It is In Indonesian are SI and SANG.\textsuperscript{39}

1. Artikel Si

Artikel SI has function become determiner used front of name of person, close friends, and adjective.

Example : a. Itu dia Si Hasan.

b. Si adik sejak pagi tidak ada.

c. Mana Si gendut, sejak tadi tidak nampak.

2. Artikel Sang

Artikel Sang has noble function used front of name of hero, name of story figure, or name of honourable.


b. Sang Kancil adalah tokoh cerita binatang Indonesia.

\textsuperscript{37} Ibid., p. 148
\textsuperscript{38} Ibid., p. 134
\textsuperscript{39} Abdul Chaer, \textit{Tata Bahasa Praktis Bahasa Indonesia}, Jakarta: Rineka Cipta, 2011, p.193-194
c. Upacara berikutnya adalah pengibaran Sang Merah Putih.

Note:
- The use of Artikel Si and Sang can clarify ridicule or praise based on intonation
- The use of Artikel in Indonesian is not same with the use of article in English or Dutch the, de, or het.  

I. Descriptive Text

Descriptive text is a text which describes a particular person, place or thing. Its purpose is to describe a particular person in details.

Example 1:
Melissa bought an iron and a dress. She bought them yesterday. Now, she is ironing the dress, with the iron.

Example 2:

The Stairway

When I was two or three years old, I lived in a house that had a strange atmosphere. I do not remember anything about the house except the stairway. It was dark, squeaking, and quite narrow, and its steps were a little high for me to climb up. From the bottom of the stairway, it seemed like an endless

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40 Ibid., p.193-194
41 Marta Yuliani and Yuniarti Dwi Arini, Bahasa Inggris Untuk SMP/MTs Kelas VII, Opcit., p. 102
42 Ibid., p. 9
43 Ibid., p. 10
climb to the top. Beyond the darkness at the top of the stairway, there was an elegant, middle-aged lady leaning against the wall. I had to pass her every time I went to my room, for my room was the first room beyond the stairs on the second floor.

The lady wore a beautiful dress with a quiet pattern and a tinge of blue, and her peaceful eyes stared at me every time I went up the stairs. As I carefully climbed up the last step, her eyes became fixed on me. She didn’t talk, nor did she move. She just stood there and watched me clamber up the stairs. One day I touched her, but she did not react. Her face did not change expression, nor did she even blink. She just kept staring at me with her glittering eyes. Later, we moved out of the house, and I never saw her again.

Now I know that the lady was a mannequin. My aunt, who lived in the house, used it for her dressmaking class. I did not know my mother. Maybe I imagined the mannequin standing at the top of the stairs was my mother. The stairway with the strange atmosphere has an important place in my earliest memories.44

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