

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerinin "belirtme ögesini" nasıl kullandığını Hata Çözümlemesi yöntemleri kullanılarak ortaya koymaktır. "Belirtme ögesi" kullanımı sorun yaratır mı? Eğer sorun yaratıyorsa bu sorunlar nelerdir? Ne tür hatalar ve en çok yapılan hata tür (yada türleri) nelerdir sorularına yanıt aranacaktır.

I.Bölümde genel anlamda dil öğrenim ve öğretimi ile çalışmanın amacından söz edilecektir. II.Bölüm dillerin "belirtili ve belirtisiz" belirtme ögesini nasıl kullandığını ve bu belirtme ögelerinin neler olduğunu içermektedir. III.Bölümde Türkçe ve İngilizcenin belirtme ögelerini nasıl açıkladığını fark ve benzerlikleri ile söz edilecektir. IV.Bölüm Hata Çözümlemesi ve İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerinin belirtme ögesi kullanımındaki hata kaynaklarını içermektedir. V. Bölümde ise bu durum saptama çalışmasının sonuçları tartışılacak ve belirtme ögesi öğretimi için bazı öneriler yapılacaktır.

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to investigate how Turkish students use articles in learning English as a foreign language. Does the use of articles create any problems? If it does what are some of the problems? And if there are errors, where do these errors come from?

In Chapter I, teaching a foreign language in general and aim of the study is explained. Chapter II includes how languages explain the notion indefiniteness and definiteness, (semantically) , and what definite and indefinite expressions are in different languages. Chapter III is a contrastive study of indefinite and definite expressions in English and Turkish including similarities and differences in two languages. Chapter IV contains Error Analysis and sources of errors in the use of articles of Turkish students of English. Chapter V discusses the results of the findings and includes suggestions further studies.

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

TABLE 1.1. The Notion of Indefinite

TABLE 4.1. Examples of errors in the use of indefinite article encountered in the overall performance of the two groups.

TABLE 4.2. Examples of errors in the use of definite article encountered in the overall performance of the two groups.

TABLE 4.3. The percentage of total errors for both group according to use indefinite and definite made by Turkish students in translation test.

TABLE 4.4. The percentage of total errors for both group according to use indefinite and definite made by Turkish students in completion test.

TABLE 4.5. The percentage of total errors for both group according to use indefinite and definite made by Turkish student in free composition test.

TABLE 4.6. The total percentage of errors encountered in the overall performance of grammatical rules in the translation test for the two group.

TABLE 4.7. The total percentage of errors encountered in the overall performance of grammatical rules in the completion test.

TABLE 4.8. The total percentage of errors encountered in the overall performance of grammatical rules in the free writing test.

FIGURES 4.1. The histogram of sources of errors according to the use of articles in the translation test.

FIGURES 4.2. The histogram of sources of errors according to the use of articles in the completion test.

FIGURES 4.3. The histogram of sources of errors according to the use of articles in the free writing test.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Özet	i
Acknowledgements	ii
Abstract	iii
LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES	iv
Content	vj
CHAPTER I 1.0.INTRODUCTION	1
1.1.Language learning and Teaching	1
1.2.Aim of the study	3
CHAPTER II THE NOTIONS OF INDEFINITE AND IN LANGUAGES	4
2.1.Introduction	4
2.2.Language Universals	5
2.3.1.The notion of Indefinite	7
2.3.2.Surface Marking of Indefinite Expressions	8
2.3.2.1.Indefinite Article	8
2.3.2.2.Numeral ONE	9
2.3.2.3.Sortal and Selective Expressions	10
2.4.Definite Expressions	13
2.4.1.The Notion of Definite	
2.4.2.Definite Expressions in Languages	14
2.4.2.1.Definite Articles	15
2.4.2.2.Proper Names	16
2.4.2.3.Diectik Words(Dexies)	16
2.4.2.4.Pronouns	17
2.4.2.5.Determiners	18
2.4.2.6.Cases	19
2.5.Conclusion	20
CHAPTER III A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF INDEFINITE AND INDEFINITE EXPRESSIONS IN TURKISH AND IN ENGLISH	22
3.0.Introduction	22
3.1.Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis	23
3.2.Indefinite Article in English	24

3.2.1.	The Use of Indefinite Article in English	25
3.2.2.	Indefinite Expressions without an overt marker	27
3.3.	Definite Article in English	28
3.3.1.	The use of Definite Article in English	28
3.3.2.	Definite Article Omission in English	31
3.4.	Indefinite and Definite Expressions in Turkish	33
3.4.1.	Indefinite Expressions in Turkish	33
3.4.1.1.	Use of <u>bir</u>	33
3.4.2.	Omission of <u>bir</u>	35
3.5.	Definite expressions in Turkish	35
3.5.1.	Accusative Case	35
3.5.2.	Possesive and Genitive Cases in Turkish	36
3.5.3.	Possesive case as a definite marker in Turkish	37
3.6.	A Contrastive Study of Indefinite and Definite Expressions in Turkish and English	39
3.6.1.	A contrastive study of Indefinite Expressions	39
3.6.2.	A Contrastive study of Definite Expressions	41
CHAPTER IV	ERROR ANALYSIS AND POSSIBLE SOURCES OF ERROR IN THE USE OF ARTICLES BY TURKISH STUDENTS OF ENGLISH	44
4.1.	Error Analysis	44
4.1.1.	Procedures in Error Analysis	45
4.1.2.	Possible Sources of Errors in Error Analysis	46
4.2.	Pedagogical Implications of Error Analysis	49

4.3. Research Design	50
4.3.1. Subjects	51
4.3.2. Procedures	51
4.4. Possible Sources of Errors in the use of articles by Turkish Subjects	51
4.4.1. Examples of the types of errors	51
4.4.2. Itemized Analysis of the Possible Sources of errors	54
4.5. Classification of Errors according to Misapplication of Individual rules	61
CHAPTER V 5.1. Discussion	66
5.2. Implications	68
5.3. Suggestions for further References	71 72
Appendix Test I	78
Test II	80
Test III	82

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1. LEARNING AND TEACHING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Success of teaching and learning a foreign language is affected by how and why people learn a foreign language or fail to do so. How does a teacher expect to understand the principles of foreign language learning and teaching? By first asking questions like:

Who is the learner? What is the learner's native language? What is the learner's personality? Who is the teacher? What is his education or experience? And how the teacher and the student interact with each other in the classroom situation?

How does the learning occur? How can the learner be successful in learning a foreign language and what cognitive strategies or styles does the learner use?

Recent studies on foreign language learning and teaching are interested in experimental work dealing with linguistics, contrastive studies of the learner's native language and the target language he is learning, psychological and pedagogical foundations of learning and teaching.

Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis are two approaches used quite frequently in determining Foreign language learning and teaching strategies. Contrastive Analysis helps teachers of foreign languages to better

understand problems of faulty translation, learning and teaching of certain structures. On the other hand, Error Analysis shows the sources of errors the students make.

Structures which create problems in teaching and/or learning foreign language may have several sources:

a)no correspondance between the structure of native language and target language; b)correspondance between the structures of native and target languages but not within the same categories; c)the existance of semantic discrepancies between the two languages. Definite and indefinite expressions correspond to the second group, where inspite of the semantic correspondances, Turkish and English express these concepts in different syntactic categories. English uses mostly articles whereas Turkish tends to use case markings.

Turkish students have problems in the use of articles while learning English. Here are examples from common observations.

- * I am student
- * A sun rises in east
- * She is teacher
- * The Ali is my friend
- * The money brings the happiness
- * Ararat is highest mountain in
the Turkey

1.2. AIM OF THE STUDY

This study is a case analysis study to show how Turkish student use articles while learning English. And in what situations the use of articles in English creates problems. Finally what kind of source(s) of errors will be the most common ones.

The study has three major goals:

- How Turkish students use indefinite and definite articles in learning English.
- To define types of sources of errors in the use of articles.
- To find out which type of source (s) of error will have higher range than others.

CHAPTER II

THE NOTIONS OF INDEFINITE AND DEFINITE IN LANGUAGES

2.1. INTRODUCTION

An important point to consider with the notion of definite and indefinite is to note, the presence of certain conditions. One of them is the speaker and the hearer relationship. The speaker may have any one reason for thinking that the hearer already knows what subset or instance he is talking about. To large extent these reasons depend on factors which extend accross the boundries of sentences (Chafe,1970,56).

An overall study on the notion of indefinite and definite shows that the " semantic " implications stem from discourse. Concepts such as "first mention", " no comman knowledge between speaker and hearer " all clearly point to the fact that "indefinite "-or "definite " for that matter - is a notion that belongs to the domain of discourse. This seems to be true across the board for many languages. It seems that many languages have a way of marking definite or indefinite one way or the other.

2.2. LANGUAGE UNIVERSALS

A language universal is a feature shared by all languages. The assertion of a language universal is a generalization about language.

"The only useful generalizations about language are inductive generalizations " (Bloomfield, 1933, 20). This explanation explains clearly in that sense that we do not want to invent language universals but to discover them. How to discover them is not so clear.. (Hockett, 1963,1) (Greenburg, 1963, 1).

One of the recurring speculations in linguistics is: how far it is possible to apply semantic analysis to all natural languages. How far , that is , are the rules and categories of meaning , are characteristics of the human faculty of language whenever it may manifest itself. It is commonly felt that " the deeper" one gets into the substructure of language, "the nearer" one gets to a common core of linguistic universals

The first distinction is made by Chomsky between formal and substantive universals:(Leech,1981,231).

"a)All lexical definitions in all languages are analysable as a set of components(formal)

b) All languages have the contrast between
"animate" and "inanimate" (Substantive) "

Formal universals are generally rules or characteristics of language construction which must be postulated by anyone who aims to construct a general linguistic theory. Substantive universals, on the other hand, are universal characteristics of human language in terms of what units or elements a language contains.

Another distinction is made within the category of substantive universals: A strong and a weak interpretation of what "universal" means is made. The strong version of a universal hypothesis would say all languages have a category of " X ". But common observation of variation between languages shows that in many cases, at least, a claim of this strength is false. So with semantic features, it is natural for a weaker version of a universal hypothesis to be suggested. This claims that " there exist " a universal set of features, of which every language has a subset. In other words " strong universals " are the characteristics common to every language. And "weak universals " are language - neutral characteristics, belonging to a universal set from which every language takes a subset (Leech, 1981, 231-2).

2.3.1. THE NOTION OF INDEFINITE

The notion of indefinite is expressed by (Clark and Clark) as:

"An introduction of the new information of a particular object or idea requires the indefinite expression(s) in languages" (Clark and Clark, 1977, 368).

It is indicated that there is no clear relationship between the speaker and the hearer about who or what is being talked about.

"Some items introduced into the discourse for the first time and if the language makes distinction between definite and indefinite meaning, the introductory expression(s) becomes indefinite" (Stockwell, 1977, 56).

It is mentioned that any particular item used for the first time becomes indefinite.

"Indefiniteness implies a kind of vagueness. The speaker is simply communicating his assumption that the hearer does not know the particular issue that is mentioned for the first time" (Freedle and Carrol, 1972, 187).

It is suggested there is no common knowledge between the speaker and the hearer.

To sum up the notion of indefinite exists when there is the new introductory of items or ideas; when there is no common knowledge between the speaker and the hearer about what or who is being mentioned.

2.3.2. SURFACE MARKING OF INDEFINITE EXPRESSIONS

Languages use indefinite expressions to indicate the notion of indefinite in some way which are manifested as different surface markings.. Here are some examples of indefinite markings.

2.3.2.1. INDEFINITE ARTICLE

Some languages explain the sense of indefinite in expressions with the indefinite article(s). For example English uses "a/an" as indefinite article.

I know a man. The man

There is a car in the corner. The car

There is a boy. The boy

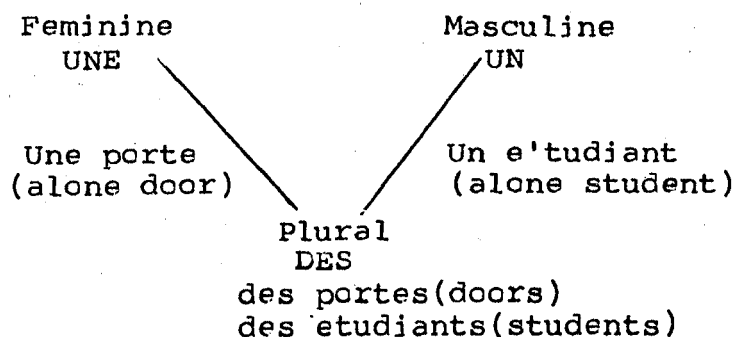
English uses indefinite article to indicate singular countable nouns and it is also used with adjectives.

He is an old man

I have a new dress

She has a beautiful girl

In some languages indefinite article is used to imply feminine and masculine distinction and pluralization. For example, indefinite article in French is the most reliable indicator of gender distinction. Examples are:



Italian has a similar structure with French.

Femiline:UNA/UN (before a vowel)

una strada (a street)

un' amica (a girl friend)

Masculine:UN/UND(before a consonant)

un magazzino(a department store)

uno stadio (a stadium)

German also uses indefinite article and the marker is "EIN"

ein Mann (a man)

ein Frau (a woman)

ein Kind (a child)

2.3.2.2. NUMERAL "ONE"

Some languages have no article system(s) as in English, French or German. And the numeral "one" is used to indicate the indefinite sense. For example, Turkish uses the word "bir" as numeral "one"

Sokakta bir kız var. Bu kızı hiç görmedim.

Bir ev buldum. Evi umarım beğenirsin.

Bir araba adama çarptı.

Bir kalem arıyorum

In Hawai Creole "wan" is used as "one".

I saw wan book

(I saw a/one book)

In Israeli Hebrew "Xad" and "Xat" are used as numeral "one"

Ish-xad ba' h'ena etmol

(A man came here)

Isha- xat bao' heno etmol

(A woman came here)

In Mandarin to disambiguate the singular from the plural "yi" is used as "one"

y^Vou yi gekérén

(there is a guest)

In Swahili "mw" is used:

ni-li-mw ona mtu mmoja

(I saw one person) (Givon, 1978, 327).

Romance languages such as Spanish and Portuguese also use the numerals "uno/una"

No ha' dicha una palabra

(He did not say one word)

Es un buen amigo

(He is a good friend) (Pietro, Opicit:95)

2.3.2.3. SORTAL AND SELECTIVE EXPRESSIONS

Sortal and selective expressions are like determiners or quantifiers. They usually show partitiveness, types or kinds of a particular objects or persons in indefinite expressions

They are:

i) SOME: "Some" imposes division on a given kind of things

or persons. Thus it has a selective(1) function. English examples are:

Some girls went to the cinema

Some mothers go out to work

Some boys like football

Some children went on holiday

Examples in Turkish are:

Bazıları çay sever.

Bazı öğrenciler tembeldir.

Biraz param var.

Mandarin uses partative "le" as some

Wo ting le yinyue(le)

(I listen to (some) music)(Givon,1979,357)

It is suggested that some gives an idea of a group of people of people not individual(as in "some girls" or "children").

ii) ANY: In contrast with "some", "any" imposes a distinction between a kind and everything which is not considered belonging to that kind. That's why any performs a sortal (2) function.

Examples in Turkish are:

Hiç param yok, bunu alamam.

Bir şey söylemeden gitti.

Spanish uses "ninqua" as "any"

No ha dicho ninqua palabre

(He did not say any word)

Expressions introduced by any are often in complementary distribution with expressions introduced by some.

iii) NOBODY: No body (no one) is also one of the indefinite expressions . . . Because, nobody does not clearly express who is being talked about.

No body came (Who are they?),

No one is at home

No body can answer my question

Examples in Turkish are:

Kimse aramadı.

Evde kimse kalmadı, gittiler.

Problemi(hiç) kimse çözemedi.

iiii) EVERY: Another sortal expression is every which gives a general idea about persons or things as a whole.

Everybody is here.

Is everyone dancing?

Did you put everything in your bag?

Everything is ready for dinner.

Everybody is at home.

iiiii) MUCH and MANY: 'Much' and 'Many' are one of the selective expressions.

She earns much money

I've got many books

There were many people in the cinema.

Much and many do not imply the thing's or person's identity clearly, but we can get the idea of quantity depending on context. On the other hand, the idea of quantity can vary from person to person. That is why much and many imply indefiniteness. (Thrane, 1980 ,159-167).

Table 1.1.:The Notion of Indefinite can be shown as in
the Following Table in Languages

	SELECTIVE EXPRESSIONS	SORTAL EXPRESSIONS
QUANTIFIED	Some much/many+N	any + N
DETERMINER	a + N	a + N no every

2.4.DEFINITE EXPRESSIONS

2.4.1.THE NOTION OF DEFINITE

The occurrence of semantic contextual feature can be called as definite. The notion of the definite can be explained as follows:

"When people talk to each other they commonly and rightly assume a large community of identifying knowledge of a particular item. It is often assumed that the speaker and the hearer have knowledge about what is being mentioned." (Seiler,1978,319).

It is said that the use of a definite expression enables the speaker and the hearer to pick out what or who is being referred to.

"Definiteness is the dimension of determination which has to do with the communicative interaction between the speaker and the hearer to the task of reference identification"(Leech,1978,56).

The relationship between the speaker and the hearer is emphasized. Because subject of the discourse is definite rather than indefinite (Givon,1979,51).

"Definiteness is a feature of a selected by a speaker to convey his assumption that the hearer will be able to identify the only thing about What is being talked in the context of utterance"

That book is definite. Because, speaker and hearer can tell which person is being referred to.

The earth is definite. Because, it is the only thing in a normal universe of discourse known by this name" (Hurford and Brendan,1983,71).

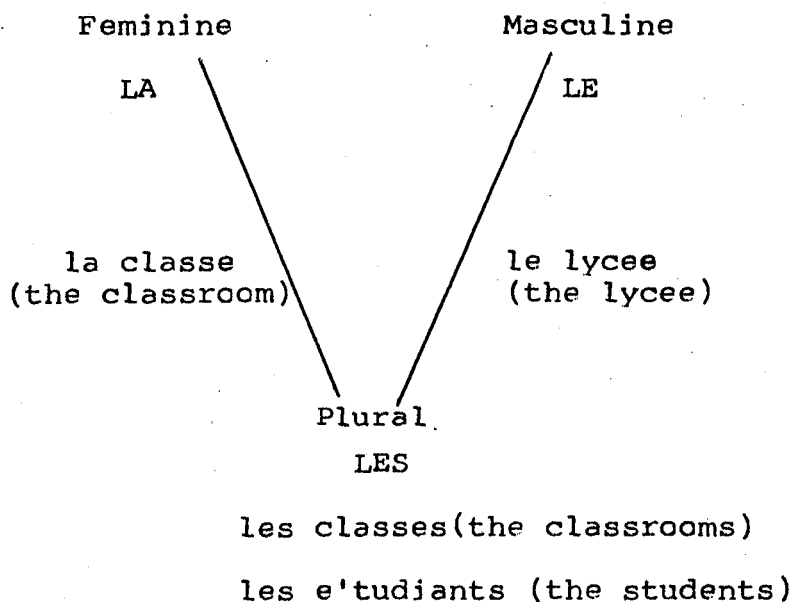
To summarize the presence of the notion of definite occurs to the situations where: a)the speaker knows about a certain subset/instance,b)he assumes that the hearer also has such knowledge c)he assumes that the hearer knows that he is presently talking about this subset and instance. When these three conditions are met, the speaker adds to the noun in question the contextual feature definite. (Chafe,1970,189).

2.4.2. DEFINITE EXPRESSIONS IN LANGUAGES

The sense of definiteness can be marked on the surface in different ways in different languages. Many of the expressions have universal features. Here are some of the surface manifestations definite expressions in different languages.

2.4.2.1. DEFINITE ARTICLES

The definite article is an element of surface structure which is not present in the particular grammar of many languages. Some differences in the use of definite article are also seen. For example, the use of the definite article deals with generic use and/or pluralization. These are examples from French.



The examples in Italian show that the definite article in Italian is used in the same way as in French.

Examples are:

I'amico (the friend) (masculine)

gli amici (the friends)

I' arancia (the orange) (femiline)

le arance (the oranges)

German uses "der, die, das" as definite article.

Examples:

der man (the man)

die Männer (the men)

die Frau (the woman)

die Fraun (the women)

das kind (the child)

die kinder (the children)

English definite article is "the"

The earth is round

I read the book you gave me

A summary, some languages have the definite article(s) to indicate definiteness (i.e. German, French, English). Some other languages do not have article(s) such as Latin, Russian and some Ural-Altaiic languages (Partee, 1976, 303).

2.4.2.2. PROPER NAMES

Proper names are special morphemes used to refer to a particular object or a person. Obviously, any object or a person that is in this group is definite. Every language has proper names, since proper names are forms that give names to the are forms that give names to the persons and objects (Greenburg, 1978, 31).

2.4.2.3. DIETIC WORDS (DEXIES)

Diectic word means the location and identification of a person or an object. The term dexies means "pointing"

(indicating) and is used to refer to the function of personal pronouns and demonstrative pronouns. (Lyons, 1977, 637).

Examples from Turkish are:

Köşedeki araba benim değil.

Şu oğlan camı kırdı.

Bu giden arkadaşın değil mi?

Bak bu çiçekler benim.

Examples from English:

That boy in the corner is my friend.

Those are her students.

2.4.2.4. PRONOUNS

Every language has the first and second person singular pronouns. And in the use of third person singular pronoun there is a gender distinction as in English "he/she", but Turkish has not. When we say "o", only context can tell us "he" or "she" is being talked about.

Here are the some examples:

In English: I saw the queen and the king. She wore black while she wore red.

All languages have pronouns which refer to definite objects or persons. They are grammatical replacements of aforementioned definite items in an utterance. There seems to be overt connection between definite nouns and pronouns in many languages.

In French as well as in the other Romance languages a connection between the definite article and pronouns is obvious.

Je lave la fenetre (I am washing the window)

Je la have (I am washing it) (Pietro,1971,95).

In Turkish:

Ayşe'yi gördün mü? Görürsen ona selam söyle.

Ona çabuk gelmesini söylemişim.

Halamı ziyarete gittim. O çok hasta.

2.4.2.5. DETERMINERS

While determiners are language specific, the capacity to definitize must surely be universal. In some languages the determiner serves as a convenient place to locate other elements of surface grammar such as number, gender and case (Pietro, 1971,94).

The main reason why such words as "the, this, that, some" are grouped as "determiners" (Ritchie,1980,62) is that the use of them is grammatical rather than semantic. They can not co-occur (and inter substitutable) within the same sentence (Liefcrink,1973,68).

In Turkish determiners are also used.

Su köşedeki araba yeni galiba.

Bu öğrenciler aşı oldu mu?

Bu kitap sizin mi?

Biraz param var.

2.4.2.6. CASES

Among the surface markings of the definite expressions cases should also be mentioned in the expression. One of the cases is accusative (definite objective) case.

Israeli Hebrew uses "ET" as a accusative case marker.

Kaniti et ha-sefer etmol

(I bought the book yesterday)

Bemba, a Bantu lang, uses "ICI":

umu-ana a-a fwaaya ici-taba

(The child wanted the book)

Although Japanese has a definite marker sono, it does not cover exactly the same discourse function as its equivalent in English. "WA" is usually used instead of sono as definite-accusative marker :

Watashi-wa otoko-to inu-ni at-ta otoko-wa

aisatsu-o shita(I know the man and the dog and

I greeted the man)

In Mandarin Chinese, the accusative case marker is "O".

Mard-e- dar o boz-kart

(The man opened the door)

Other variations of the definite accusative connection may be found in Hindi, Hungarian and probably many others such as Uralic and Finno-Ugric languages. The definite accusative marking makes great sense in terms of definiteness. Because, the definite accusative marker provides the absence of indefiniteness of the discourse. (Thrane, 1980, 319-320).

Genitive cases is also used to explain the sense of definiteness. Turkish uses genitive case. (Ergin, 1981, 131)

Kedinin kuyruğu (The tail of the cat)

Ahmedin arabası (Ahmet's car)

Possesive case also explains the notion of definite to indicate possession.

Gözüm bozuldu.

Babam kızdı.

Çocuklarınız çok yaramaz.

In English: My friend is Ali

Their work is difficult

2.5. CONCLUSION

The sense of is indefinite and definite expressions is universally common in languages. But there is no reason to assume that the notion of indefinite and definite is expressed in the same way in languages. For example, while in English the mass-count difference is neutralized under the definite article "the", in some languages (as in German, French) indefinite and definite expressions are explained with other features such as number, gender and case inflection (as in Turkish, Israeli, Hebrew). On the other hand, Russian and Turkish Arabic are the languages that have no article systems.

These examples as well as the discussion carried out in this section show that such expressions of definite and indefinite are language specific, while the notions

themselves are universal.

Within the scope of this study a contrastive study between Turkish and English definite and indefinite expressions will be carried out. However, this attempt will be limited to the use articles in English and the use of cases in Turkish. If either language chooses to omit any overt surface markings then the discussion will cover these situations as well.

FOOTNOTES: 1) Selective Expression implies a division on a given kind of items or persons.

2) Sortal Expression imposes a distinction of things between a given kind which is not considered belonging that kind.

CHAPTER III

A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF INDEFINITE AND DEFINITE EXPRESSIONS IN TURKISH AND ENGLISH

3.0 INTRODUCTION

Languages explain the notion of indefinite and definite using different categories. The sense of indefinite is in languages with articles, sortal-selective expressions, numeral one, etc. And these expressions are used for different functions such as case number and gender distinction. The notion of "definite" is also explained in different categories, such as article(s), determiners, proper names, diectic words and cases. Thus, the notion of "indefinite" and "definite" has semantically universal feature. On the other hand, the use of these notions are "language neutral" or "specific" since in surface structure definite and indefinite expressions are not explained in the same way.

In this chapter, English indefinite and definite expressions (articles) and Turkish indefinite and definite expressions -cases- will be contrasted. Needless to say both languages employ further grammatical categories to express semantically indefinite and definite. However, an attempt to contrast all categories involved in both languages is beyond to scope of this study.

To start with it is necessary to answer the question "What is Contrastive Analysis?".

3.1. CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS HYPOTHESIS

Contrastive Analysis hypothesis is one of the hypotheses concerning different aspect of language and language function. Contrastive Analysis is also concerned with language teaching materials and methods.

The Contrastive Analysis hypothesis can be divided into two versions: A strong and a weak version. The strong version of Contrastive Analysis is the idea that is possible contrast the system of one language- the grammar, phonology and lexicon- with the system of a second language in order to construct teaching materials to help students learn that language. On the other hand, the weak version of the Contrastive Analysis requires explanations of similarities and differences between systems. The starting point in the contrast is to indicate problems like faulty translation, learning difficulties, residual foreign accent etc., reference is made to the two systems only in order to explain actually observed interference phenomenon (Wardhaugh, 1974, 12-4).

Oller and Ziahoscinny proposed a moderate hypothesis for Contrastive Analysis. It can be summarized as:

"The categorization of abstract and concrete patterns according to their perceived similarities and differences is the basis for learning; therefore, wherever patterns are minimally distinct in meaning or more systems confusion may result" (Brown, 1980, 150).

In other words, the learning of sounds, sequences and meaning will be the most difficult where the most subtle distinctions are required between the target language and native language or within the target language itself (Brown,1980,159).

Randal Whitman (Brown,1980,150) noted that the contrastive analysis involved four different procedures.

1)Description:The linguists or language teacher using the tools of formal grammar explicitly describes the two languages.

2)Selection:-Is made of certain forms- linguistic items, rules, structures- for contrast. Because it is virtually impossible to contrast every possible phase of languages.

3)Contrast:The mapping of one linguistic system onto the other and a specification of the relationship of one system to the other.

4)Prediction:One formulates a prediction of error or of difficulty on the basis of the first three procedures (Brown,1980,150).

Within the scope of this study, the moderate version of Contrastive Hypothesis will be utilized.

3.2.INDEFINITE ARTICLE IN ENGLISH

The indefinite article "a/an" is used to imply a sense of indefinite. It can also be used as numeral "one".

The choice of "a" or "an" in English based on the initial sound of the word they precede. "A" is used with singular count (countable) nouns beginning with a consonant.

a house	a wife
a university	a door
a woman	a man

"An" is used with singular count nouns beginning with a vowel.

an engineer	an envelope
an hour	an apple
an umbrella	an uncle (Bobrow, 1982, 44-5).

3.2.1. THE USE OF INDEFINITE ARTICLE IN ENGLISH

The use of indefinite article in English is as follows:

I.A/AN is used to introduce new information and it does not represent any particular person or an item that the speaker does not exactly know.

I need a holiday (any holiday)

I know a girl

They live in a bungalow (Soytekin, 1984, 2).

A/AN can also be used before names of people or placed before mr/mrs/miss+Surname:

There was a Mr. Smith here during an holiday

There was an Allan Brown living upstairs.

It is emphasized that there is no clear relationship between the speaker and the hearer (Drummond, 1976, 68).

II. A/AN is used with singular countable nouns as follows:

a) as an example of a class of persons or objects:

(generic nouns):

A teacher teaches

An elephant never forgets

An engineer works in a factory (Swan, 1980, 2).

b) as an example of general statements:

A table has four legs

A triangle has three angles

III. Some nouns generally considered noncount (uncountable) are commonly used like units by the use " a/an "

He ordered a tea

an ice-cream

a coffee

Is it a gas or a liquid?

And it is also with abstract nouns as countable units:

A truth is often more painful than a lie

She has a beauty (Danielson and Hayden, 1973, 113).

This particular usage is very much context bound and quite difficult to come to grips with out of context.

A/AN is also used as exclamations before singular countable nouns:

What a hot day!

Such a pity!

What a beautiful girl!

What a nice surprise! (Allen, 1978, 4).

IV.A/AN is used to indicate numerical expressions such as price, speed, ratio and also instead of the numeral "one".

Take these pills six times a day

She has a brother

A few friends came to my party

A lot of people are unemployed

I need a million liras

He has an hour to have an exam

(Thomson and Martinet, 1977, 2-3).

V.A/AN is used with adjectives denoting materials or style.

a metallic substance

a wollen scarf

a Turkish carpet

a Parisian dress

(Quirk and Greenbaum, 1979, 123).

3.2.2. INDEFINITE EXPRESSIONS WITHOUT AN OVERT MARKER

In some situations the indefinite article "a/an" is not used at all.

I. Nouns that can not be counted have no indefinite markers and usually no plural.

He wanted to drink water

She needs sugar to make a cake

Would you like tea?

Do you like coffee?

Is tea ready?

This bar is made from iron.

II. Plural Countable nouns also do not take an indefinite marker.

a dog	dogs
an apple	apples
a student	students

III. Before abstract nouns "a/an" is not used:

Does money bring happiness?

Beauty-is truth

He has courage

(Except when they are used in a particular sense)

3.3. DEFINITE ARTICLE IN ENGLISH

The definite article "the" is used when there is a clear relationship between the speaker and the hearer such as:

Did you feed the dog?

"the dog" refers to "a particular dog" which is already known between the participants of the discourse (Palmer, 1976, 108). Thus there is shared knowledge about what or who is being referred to (Leech, 1980, 157). One of the basics of definiteness, besides aforementioned conditions, is the idea of common at least to the participants in the discourse (Leech, 1980, 156).

3.3.1. THE USE OF DEFINITE ARTICLE IN ENGLISH

The speaker uses the definite article in English uses when the identity of the person or object he is

talking about is clear to him and the person he is addressing. The use of definite article in English is as follows:

I. "The" is used when the person or the item has been mentioned before. Thus "the" provides a chain of identification.

There is a man. The man wears a hat. The hat has a feather on it. The feather is green.

Here is a pen. Please return the pen when you through with it.

She bought a dress. The dress was expensive.

II. Common knowledge or mutual familiarity requires the use of definite article:

Please, close the door (Presumably there is one door)

He went to the doctor (His own doctor)

Ann is in the garden (the garden of this house)

III. "The" is used because of uniqueness of a person or an object:

Man has realised his dream of going to the moon.

The sun and the planets remain mystery (Jackendoff, 1972, 277).

IV. "The" is used before cardinal numbers and superlatives:

The best speech came first. The worst came last.

What is the first month of the year?

Mona Liza is one of the most valuable painting in the world.

V. "The" is used with singular nouns to represent a class of objects such as:

The cockoo is lazy

The fish can swim

It is also used before an adjective (without a noun) when the adjective refers to a general group or notion:

The old and the young should be able to live together

There is no peace for any but the dead

The blind can not see

The rich must help the poor

VI. In some situations "the" is used with proper names. However, only if there are several people or objects with the same noun and the speaker is specifying one of them. Then "the" is used to indicate a particular person or object: (Vendler, 1971; 19) (Steinberg and Jakobovits, 1971).

Do you watch the Benny Hill Show?

The Browns will go on holiday

"the + proper name" is also used: to express nationality (ethnic groups) to mean "the people of that country"; to refer to countries used in; plural; to refer to some organizations, to give the names of news, papers, buildings, and places. Here are some examples:

The Turks like coffee

The Aztecs lived in Mexico

The Americans live in the United States

The Food Agricultural Organizations helped the people in Africa.

She always reads the Times

There is an exhibition at the Tate Gallery

VII. "The" is used to indicate some geographical features:
a chain of mountains, islands, rivers and directions:

The Mounth Everest is the highest mountain in
the world.

The Ararat Mountain is in Turkey.

The River Amazon is not in Germany.

He always wanted to see the Hawai Islands.

The south is warmer than the north.

VIII. "The" is also used to indicate some machines,
inventions or musical instruments:

Bell invented the telephone.

Does she play the guitar well?

The bicycle is an excellent means of transport.

3.3.2. DEFINITE ARTICLE OMISSION IN ENGLISH

In some situations English definite article is not
used in such situations as follows:

I. "The" is not used before proper names such as: names
of people; countries that are not used in plural; names
of streets, roads, squares; names including two words;
names of languages. Examples are:

Ali is his best friend.

Turkey is in Europe.

English is spoken in England.

How can I get to Regent Street?

Kennedy Airport is far from the city center.

Some groups have the concerts in Hyde Park.

In addition before the names of "lakes" "the" is not used:

Lake Van is in Turkey.

Lake Superior is big.

II. "The" is omitted before abstract nouns:

Mean fear death.

Beauty or brain? (Murphy, 1985, 154).

Is happiness important for people?

III. Before part of the body and articles of clothing "the" is not used. A possessive serves this purpose:

Raise your hand.

He took off his coat (Thomson and Martinet, 1977, 4).

To summarize the use of articles in English is complicated although they are not complex in structure. Because, the use of articles depends on different factors.

One of the criteria which determines the use of a particular type of article is discourse. The speaker-hearer relation mostly plays a role in the choice of the article.

The type of noun used is also a determining factor. As it is mentioned earlier abstract nouns do not take any article. On the other hand, countable vs uncountable nouns, generic nouns, geographical nouns all require one or the other article.

In most applications, the use of articles because of the variety of application becomes a nightmare for the English learning student, who tries to memorize different usage patterns without really grasping the real need or the function of the articles.

3.4. INDEFINITE AND DEFINITE EXPRESSIONS IN TURKISH

The sense of definite and indefinite is expressed via different surface constructions. However, in the following sections only "cases", the use of numeral "bir" an omission of an overt definite and indefinite marker will be discussed.

3.4.1. INDEFINITE EXPRESSIONS IN TURKISH

3.4.1.1. USE OF "BİR"

Turkish uses the numeral bir and bir indicates indefiniteness. The distribution of the use of bir is as follows:

I. The word bir is used as the numeral equivalent of a/an in English (Aksan, 1980, 91).

Bir kitap almak istiyorum.

(I want to buy a book)

Bir kardeşim var.

(I have a brother)

Bir kilo elma aldım.

(I bought a kilo of apple)

Bir sayfa kağıt versene.

(Give me a page)

Bir parça kek alabilir miyim?

(Can I have a piece of cake?)

II. Turkish adjectives are often used as nouns; if the idea is expressed singular, then bir is used to indicate that whatever or whoever is referred to is indefinite (Banquoğlu, 1974, 325).

The numeral bir is also used with adjectives to modify noun. If there is a bir before the noun, the adjective precedes bir. (Underhill, 1980, 38).

Eski bir ağaç (an old tree)

İyi bir adam (a good man)

III. Bir is used in indefinite expressions where English marks the indefiniteness by some and its derivations such as something, somebody and somewhere. Examples:

biri, birisi (someone)

bir şey (something)

bir yer (somewhere)

bir ara, bir zaman (some time)

Any of these expressions may be used with suitable adjectives after the pattern yeni bir şey (something new).

Ondan yeni bir şey istiyorum.

(I want something newer than that)

Şehre yakın bir yerde çalışıyor.

(He works somewhere near the city)

Çalışkan birini arıyoruz.

(We are looking for someone industrious)(Underhill, 1980,258).

3.4.2.OMISSION OF BİR

In some situations bir is omitted. For example:

Çay içermisiniz?

Şeker alırmısınız?

3.5.DEFINITE EXPRESSIONS IN TURKISH

The sense of definiteness, in part, is expressed with cases in Turkish.

3.5.1.ACCUSATIVE CASE

When the object of a verb is definite that there is no doubt which person, place or item is meant accusative case is used. The accusative case morpheme is -I- and it follows the vowel harmony (Lewis,1983,27).

Çayı içtik (We drank the tea)

İlacı getirdi (He brought the medicine)

Kitabı aldım (I bought the book)

If the noun ends in a vowel a-Y-is inserted as a buffer consonant to keep the suffix distinct from the body of the word (Hatipoğlu,1972,327).

Kahveyi içtik(We drank the coffee)

Radyoyu tamir ettin mi?(Did you repair the radio?)

Çayı kaynattın mı?(Did you boil the tea?)

Accusative case is also used as a complement to show place and time:

Evi beğendim.

Yurdu, vatanı özledi.

Tarlayı sürdüler.

Yuvayı terketti.

Köyü hep aklındaydı. (Dizdaroğlu, 1976, 50)

As a summary, the accusative case is used to indicate that the object is definite. The accusative case semantically indicates a sense of definiteness.

2.5.2. POSSESSIVE AND GENITIVE CASES IN TURKISH

The genitive and possessive cases refer to one another and both are used mutually. A noun in the genitive in a Turkish sentence normally means that there must be a noun with a possessive suffix somewhere later in the sentences. A noun with a possessive suffix means that there must be a noun in the genitive somewhere earlier. Thus, in Turkish the genitive and possessive cases are mutually inclusive.

The case marker in the genitive morpheme is -N-, indicating the possessor - and the possessive morpheme in - I - indicating the possessed, as shown in the examples below.

evin bahçesi

bahçenin kapısı

Ayşe'nin elbisesi

Ali'nin parası

Çocuğun dergisi

Both genitive and accusative morphemes follow the vowel harmony rules in Turkish. That being the case, in comparison, possessive case and accusative case morphemes end up having allomorphs which are homophonous. The ambiguity that may arise is resolved quite simply by the use of buffer consonants. -Y- is used as a buffer to the accusative morpheme whenever the root ends in a vowel, whereas this function is carried out by -S- in case of the possessive morpheme.

This variation in the use of buffer consonants not only indicates the particular case used but also prevents ambiguities.

3.5.3. POSSESSIVE CASE AS A DEFINITE MARKER IN TURKISH

Turkish also uses possessive compound constructions and possessive compounds. In compounds genitive suffix is omitted from the first noun although the possessive suffix is always attached to the second noun.

The use of possessive in Turkish is as follows:

I. Possessive compound construction is used to show gender (or variety) of nouns that are commonly used:

Çalı fasulyesi

Şeker fabrikası

Türk kahvesi

Petrol kuyusu

Terzi makası

Çocuk bahçesi

Kalkan balığı

Kuş yuvası

Diş fırçası

Millet meclisi

Yoğurt kasesi

İşkembe çorbası (Sander, 1961, 56).

II. Possesive Compound construction is also used with proper names and titles:

Anadolu Üniversitesi

Sakarya Köprüsü

Maltepe sigarası

Tütünbank

Cumhuriyet Gazetesi

Atatürk Caddesi

Konya Ovası

III. Possesive compounds are used:

a) To modify someone or something:

Kahveci güzeli

Cihan pehlivanı

Dünya güzeli

Bekir rezili

Ali uçkağıtçısı

Medine fukarası

Zeynep çalgını

b) With abstract nouns:

Avcı insafsızlığı

Deve kini

Keçi inadı

Sınav heyecanı (Emre, 1945,423)

c)To make metaphoric comparisons:

Parmak üzümü

Sünger taşı

Kar beyazı

Ekmek ayvası (Edizkun and Dürder,1981,63)

d)To show a concept:

Ne oldum budalası

İnsanlık hali

Güvenlik sorunu

Şark meselesi

3.6.A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF INDEFINITE AND DEFINITE EXPRESSIONS IN TURKISH AND ENGLISH

Although definite and indefinite expressions are manifested in different categories in Turkish and English there must be some features that can be contrasted in their use. In this section, contrastive study of definite and indefinite expressions in both languages will be mentioned.

3.6.1. A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF INDEFINITE EXPRESSIONS

There are some similarities and differences between Turkish bir and English a/an as an indefinite marker. Here are the similarities and differences in use:

I. Turkish bir is as an equivalent of English a/an:

a) Both languages explain the new information (aforementioned) in the same way.

Bir adam sizi görmek istiyor..

(A man wants to see you)

Bir kız tanıyorum. Bu kız

(I know a girl. The girl)

Bir ev arıyor.

(He is looking for a house)

Bir çocuk camı kırdı.

(A child broke the window)

It is mentioned that there is no clear idea of what/ who is being referred to between the speaker and the hearer. Thus new informations is being introduced.

b) Bir and a/an is also used in the same way with adjectives:

Eski bir ev (an old house)

Zeki bir öğrenci (an intelligent student)

iyi bir baba (a good father)

c) Bir and a/an are used to indicate singularity of nouns:

Odada bir masa var.

(There is a (one) table in the room)

II. However bir is opposed to a/an: Wherever a/an is used in English Turkish does not use bir. For example:

Mehmet kasaptır.

(Mehmet is a butcher.)

Mehmet (bir) kasaptır.

Ali öğrencidir.

(Ali is a student.)

Ali (bir) öğrencidir.

Where English uses a/an bir is omitted in Turkish. Because, when a noun is used as the predicate of the sentence, in Turkish bir is omitted.

3.6.2. A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF DEFINITE EXPRESSIONS

I. In some situations both English and Turkish use definite expressions:

a) With Superlatives: The superlative is made with en preceding adjective in Turkish: en ucuz/pahalı. Either the genitive or locative may be used in superlative adjectives in Turkish whereas English uses the:

Dünyanın en büyük binası nerede?

(Where is the highest building in the world ?)

Şimdiye dek yediğim en güzel yemek bu.

(It is the best meal I have ever had).

Bu işi en kısa zamanda bitireceğim.

(I will finish this job in the shortest time)

(Underhill, 1980, 226).

b) Shared knowledge between the speaker and hearer is definite in two languages:

Kitabı okudum (I read the book)

Bebeği doyurdun mu? (Did you feed the baby?)

Halil kitabı bitirdi. (Halil finished the book)

Here kitap and kitabı are not in the same sense.

Because, the speaker and the hearer are familiar with who is being talked about. Thus, the participant in the discourse have aforementioned citation and the subject of

the discourse is common to the participant.

c) In proper names and titles, a possessive compound construction in Turkish is used and English uses the.

They are:

Cumhuriyet Gazetesi

Nokta Dergisi

Türk Dil Kurumu

Birleşik Krallık

The Times

The President of Turkey

The Middle East Technical University

d) With cardinal numbers Turkish uses -INCI- suffix but English uses definite article the:

Birinci (the first)

Yılın en son ayı (the last month of the year)

Beşinci (the fifth)

Üçüncü (the third)

II. In some situations, English definite article the is omitted whereas Turkish uses one of the definite expressions.

a) Turkish uses accusative case or possessive but English has no article with abstract nouns:

Güzelliği kalıcı sanma.

İyiliği unutma.

Yurt sevgisi.

Deve kını.

Keçi inadı.

CHAPTER IV

ERROR ANALYSIS AND POSSIBLE SOURCES OF ERRORS IN THE USE OF ARTICLES BY TURKISH STUDENTS OF ENGLISH

4.1. ERROR ANALYSIS

"Error Analysis is a process based on analysis of learners errors with one clear objective; to develop a suitable and effecting teaching-learning strategy and remedial measures necessary in clearly marked out problem areas of the target language. It is a multidimensional and multifaceted process which involves much more than simply analyzing errors in the written (or spoken) in a language of the learners" (Sharma,1986,76).

The first step in Error Analysis is to define the term error and mistake. As Miller said (1966) it is useful to refer to error of performance as mistakes. And error to refer to the systematic errors of the learner from which we are able to reconstruct his knowledge of the language to date.(i.e transitional competence). Mistakes are of no significance to the process of determining what is a learner's error is one of some difficulty and involves analysis of error(Corder,1974,19).

4.1.1. PROCEDURES IN ERROR ANALYSIS

There are two procedures in the process of analysis of errors: identification and description of errors.

Identification of errors is the recognition of error by recognizing what the speaker intends to say.

For example:

*What he can ride in?

*Does John can sing?

When an error is identified, the next step is to describe it. Describing errors is to classify them. In describing errors addition, omission and substitution may be seen. In English a "do" auxiliary might be added "does he can sing?"; an indefinite article is omitted "I am student"; an item is substituted "I lost my road"; or a word order is confused "I store to went". These are all clearly generalized categories. Each type / source of error can be encountered at different levels of language learning; ie, phonology, syntax, semantics, etc.

Corder (1971) suggested three cross-referenced data to indicate that the error is what he calls "systematicity of error". They are: a) Pre-Systematic: They are those made by a learner while he is groping about trying to understand a new point. For example: "John cans to sing". At this stage the learner is not able to correct his error. b) Systematic: Systematic errors are those produced when the learner has formed some conception at the point

at issue. For example: "I lost my road" instead of "I lost my way". At this stage the learner can correct himself. c) Post Systematic: The third category covers deviant language forms which occur previous systematic errors have been corrected. In other words, where there is a good reason to believe that a point has been correctly understood and performance has been accurate but the learner has temporarily forgotten it. (McDonough, 1981, 113).

4.1.2. POSSIBLE SOURCES OF ERRORS IN ERROR ANALYSIS

Why are certain errors made? What cognitive strategies and even personality variables underlie certain errors. In this section strategies for production will be mentioned as "source of error" with different forms. Some of the errors are related to learning strategies and some to other factors. A list of some of the major sources of errors can be listed as follows.

1. Interlingual Transfer (Interference): It is the transfer from the native language. For example, any English learner can say "sheep" for "ship" or "the book of Jack" instead of "Jack's book" All these errors are the negative interlingual transfers. Because, before the system of the second language is familiar, the native language is the only linguistic system in previous experience upon which the learner can draw information from.

This type of error can also be called interference

(language transfer) which is the transfer of rules or elements from the native language to the target language (Brown, 1980, 172).

2. Intralingual Transfer: (Overgeneralization): Errors caused by extension of target language rules to areas where they do not apply. Overgeneralization of target language rules is a phenomenon well known to language teachers. Speakers of many language(s) could produce a sentence as follows:

* What did he intended to do?

Here, the past tense morpheme "-ed" is applied to both the auxiliary and the main verb by the learner. This can be logically appropriate but it is the wrong application of the rule (Selinker, 1974, 38).

3. Performance Errors: Unsystematic errors that occur as the result of such things as memory lapses, fatigue, confusion or strong emotion. For example, omission of articles. When a sentence is heard like "I am boy", the error can be interference from the native language, second possibility which can be attributed to as well as performance. Perhaps the student can correct himself when he has time to think about it. Because, this is done by a native speaker of English.

Performance errors are quite normal aspects of language use. This error can be the result of the length of the sentence the speaker is trying to produce. That is, it

may be related to memory limitations rather than competence (Richards, 1974) (Stenson and Schumann, 1974, 41).

4. Markers of Transitional Competence: (Developmental):

Errors that result from a natural and perhaps inevitable developmental sequence in the second language process is called developmental errors.

In first language learning we can hear sentences like "what he can ride in". They seem to be produced by all English speaking children before they are able to use the form of the adult grammar-"What can he ride in?". Are some of the errors observed in second language learning also representative of developmental errors by means of which the learner has the rules of second language grammatical system? (Richards, 1974, 42).

5. Induced error: Error resulting from pedagogical procedures contained in the text or employed by the teacher (Schumann and Stenson, 1974, 5).

This type of error is known as context of learning. Context (Brown, 1980) refers to the classroom within which the teacher and materials take place or the social situation where second language learning happens. In a classroom context the teacher or the textbook can lead the learner to make faulty hypotheses about language. For that reason students can make errors because of a misinformation from the teacher, faulty representation of a structure or a word in the textbook.

6. Communication Strategies: This source of error is employed by the learner while getting a message to a hearer. Communication strategies are:

a) Avoidance: The most common type of avoidance is syntactic or lexical avoidance within a semantic category. For example, "I lost my road". When the speaker realises that this sentence is not suitable for the context, the sentence can be paraphrased as " I got lost".

b) Prefabricated Patterns: Patterns that are memorized (phrases or sentences). They are also called cliches. For example any English speaking tourist can produce a sentence like ."Where is the bank?". This a well-formed sentence depending on memorizing certain patterns. (Brown, 1980, 175).

c) Cognitive and personal styles: One's own personal style or manner of thinking can be a source of error. It is usually related to discourse errors.

d) Language switch: The learner simply uses his native language whether the hearer knows that language or not. (Brown, 1980, 180-81).

4.2. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF ERROR ANALYSIS

Error analysis has an important role in teaching. Three categories summarize that importance correction of error in the classroom, providing grammatical explanations and designing materials and curricula.

In the correction of error, the teacher have two problems: What to correct and how to correct . A decision

on what to correct is based on the teacher's perception. This is connected with the effectiveness of the communication act. How much an error breaks up the comprehension? Minor errors do not necessarily need correcting when and if they give an accurate enough message.

The knowledge of possible sources of error and linguistic features of the second language can help the foreign language teacher to provide grammatical explanation or correction. This enables the learner to set up an efficient system of interlanguage.

In foreign language classes, the course books used are designed to meet the needs of the students-more or less. However, most of the time the sequencing of the grammatical points, their presentation and the time allocated to each, has nothing to do with the possible difficulty areas and problem spots.

As a summary, the field of Error Analysis may be defined as a discipline dealing with the differences between the way people learning a language speak and the way adult native speakers of the language use their own language.

4.3. RESEARCH DESIGN

In order to find out the possible error types and sources a three stage diagnostic test was given to the students of Electrical Engineering at Anadolu University.

4.3.1. SUBJECTS

Two groups of students learning English as a foreign language were from the Engineering Faculty. Each group included twenty-five students.

4.3.2. PROCEDURES

Different types of tests have been administered to be able to provide out a wider spectrum.

i) Translation Test: A translation test (Appendix Test I) was given and the students were asked to translate sentences.

ii) Completion Test: Two completion tests (Appendix Test II.A and B) were given and the subjects were asked to fill in the blanks where necessary.

iii) Free Composition: A picture (Appendix III) was shown and the subjects were asked to write a free composition using the picture as a source.

4.4. POSSIBLE SOURCES OF ERRORS IN THE USE OF ARTICLES BY TURKISH SUBJECTS

4.4.1. EXAMPLES OF THE TYPES OF ERRORS

The analysis of the errors showed a number of different errors. Table 1 and Table 2 exemplifies the types of errors encountered in the students overall performance in all three tests.

Table 4.1: Examples of errors in the use of indefinite article encountered in the overall performance of the two groups.

Confusion of a/an	an university an hour
Omission of a/an in first mention	I know man There is boy
a/an is not used with adjectives	She is beautiful girl He is intelligent boy
a/an is used instead of THE: i)with superlatives ii)with unique nouns	A highest mountain... A sun, an earth
usually <u>one</u> is prefered in place of a/an	I have one apple, I am one student, one hundred, one million
a/an is used instead of Ø	a good news a work

TABLE 4.2: Examples of errors in the use of definite article encountered in the overall performance of the two groups.

DEFINITE ARTICLE OMISSION	
Countries used in plural	He went to U.S.A
With the names of instruments, invention	She plays guitar
Unique nouns	Earth is round
The adjective	Important things is
Before nationality	Turks, Americans
Before nouns made particular in context	At end of lesson
Before names of magazines/papers	Sun, Times
With superlatives	Highest mountain
Before a noun modified by a/an "of phrase"	Department of mechanical engineering
In some particular situation	There are three Susan Parker S.Parker I know
With regions/ directions	Boy in corner is Eskişehir is situated middle
THE IS USED INSTEAD OF Ø	
Before proper names	The Ankara, the Turkey
Before abstract nouns	The happiest, the truth
With the names of meal times	At the breakfast (dinner)
With two words	The Cambridge University
With some words: bed, school, home ...	I am going to the bed (home)
Before nouns which refer to general	The students go to the schools
THE IS USED AS NEW INFORMATION	
a/an is not used but <u>the</u> is used as first mention	I know the man I saw the boy

4.4.2. ITEMIZED ANALYSIS OF THE POSSIBLE SOURCES OF ERRORS

Source(s) of errors encountered in each type of the tests is classified as follows.

I. The Translation Test: The sources of errors in the translation tests were:

a) Interference Errors: Confusion was observed in the use of the articles one and bir.

* Ben bir öğrenciyim

(I am one student)

* Bin liraya ihtiyacım var.

(I need one thousand liras)

-Definite article the was not used with unique nouns.

Indefinite article a/an was used with unique nouns. The reason can be that bir in Turkish is used as one of the definite expressions.

* A sun rises in east

* An earth is round

-With the use of abstract nouns either indefinite article or definite article was seen.

* I have one new

* You can not buy the happiness

This may imply that Turkish and English have different categories of abstract nouns.

-Turkish uses possessive compounds with titles. This may be the reason why students use definite article the with the titles.

*The Anadolu University

*The Sakarya Köprüsü

-The same type of interference was also seen with the names of meal times. In Turkish the names of meal times are explained with cases.

* I usually have the breakfast at seven.
The is used to refer to something in general. On the other hand Turkish uses in the same circumstances.

* I am going to the bed.

* The children go to the school.

b) Developmental Errors:

-The introduction of new information was done either by using the definite article or with no article.

* There is little boy. The little boy

* There is the little boy. The little boy

-Definite article was not used with superlatives and ordinal numbers.

* Highest mountain in Turkey is

-Another developmental error was the deletion of definite or indefinite articles before the adjectives.

* He is hardworking student

* Important thing

These developmental errors imply that the students are unaware of the discourse requirements in English.

c) Overgeneralization Errors: Overgeneralization errors are observed when the application of a rule where it is not needed. As a rule, proper names do not take a definite article. And only certain group of proper names take article. The student not being aware of the differences omits the

definite article for all proper names.

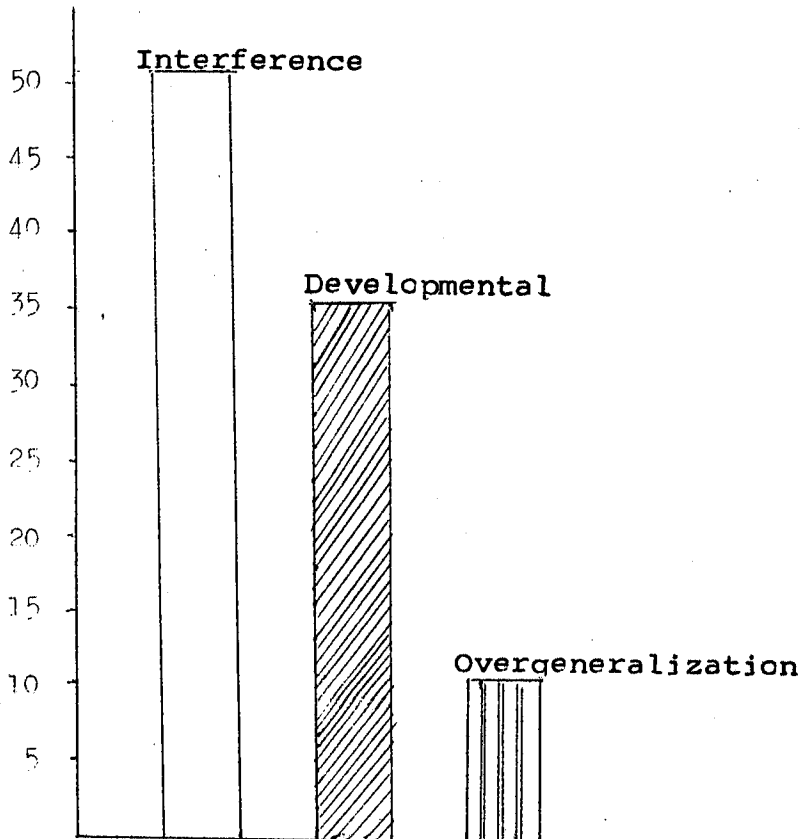
* She reads Sun

* Americans live in United States

TABLE 4.3: The percentage of total errors for both group according to use indefinite and definite article made by Turkish Students in translation test.

Total number of students :	Interference Error		Developmental Error		Overgenalization Error	
	Indefinite	Definite	Indefinite	Definite	Indefinite	Definite
50	14.37	38.26	15.71	20.32	∅	11.34
TOTAL	52.63		36.03		11.34	

FIGURE 4.1: The histogram of sources of errors according to the use of articles in translation test for both group.



II. Completion Test: The sources of errors in the completion tests were:

a) Interference Errors:

-In the use of unique nouns indefinite article a/an was used instead of the definite article.

* An earth is round.

-Either indefinite or definite article was seen in the use of abstract nouns.

* Money brings the happiness.

* Truth is a beauty.

b) Developmental Errors:

-In the use of the new information was referred to with the definite article or the indefinite article was used ommitter.

* There is the man. The man

* There is man. The man

c) Overgeneralization Errors:

-The was not used to refer to countries used in plural, geographical features, the names of papers and magazines.

* She goes to the bed early.

* Eskişehir is in central part of Turkey.

* She reads Times.

-"The" was used with abstract nouns, the names of meal times and with general concepts.

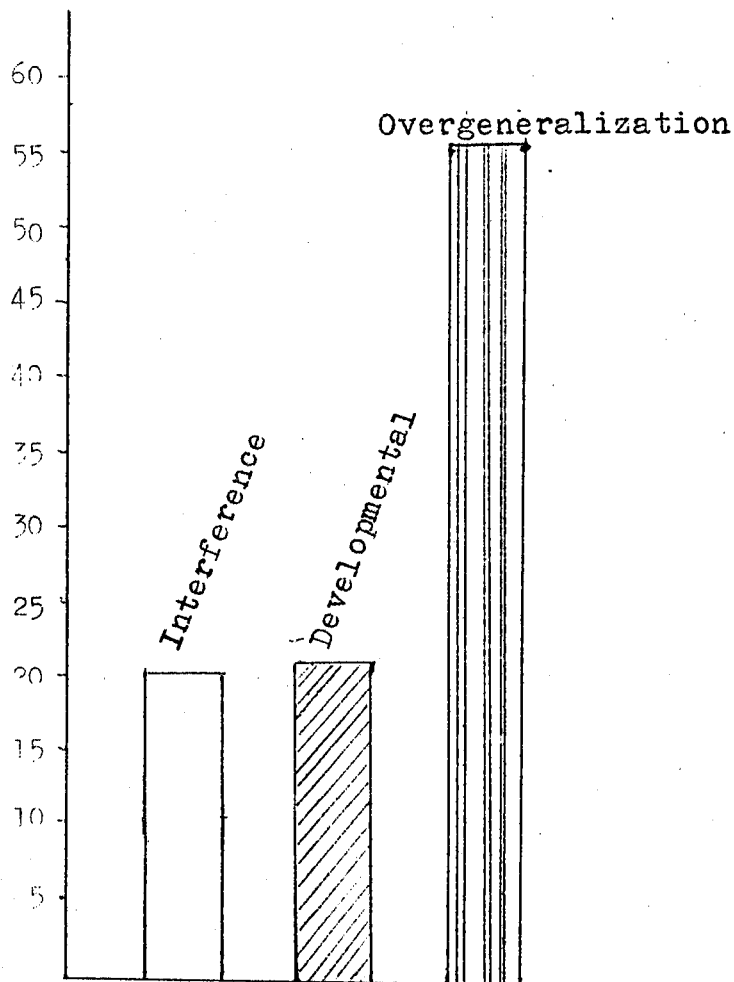
* The cats catch the mice.

* Do you watch the TV at the home.

TABLE 4.4: The percentage of total errors for both group according to use indefinite and articles in the completion test.

Total number of students :	Interference Error		Developmental Error		Overgenalization Error	
	Indefinite	Definite	Indefinite	Definite	Indefinite	Definite
50	8.76	12.68	7.55	14.66	10.57	45.78
TOTAL	21.44		22.21		56.35	

FIGURE 4.2: The histogram of sources of errors according to the use of articles in completion test for both group .



III. Free Composition:

These were sources of errors from the free composition given as an uncontrolled practice.

a) Interference Errors:

-The subjects used definite article the for first mention.

* I know a man. The man ...

b) Developmental Errors:

-They did not use indefinite article for first mention and with adjectives.

* He is cleaver student.

c) Overgeneralization error:

-The only overgeneralization error in the writing test was the use of indefinite article with directions/regions.

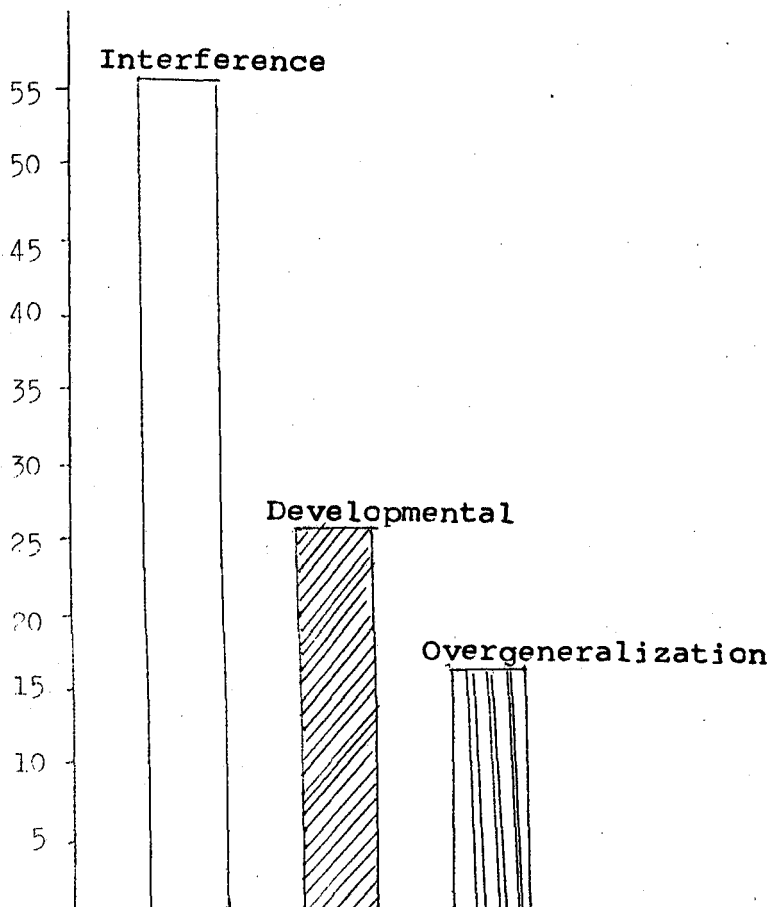
* The man is on left.

* Boy is near shore.

TABLE 4.5:The percentage of total errors for both group according to use of articles in free composition test.

Total number of students :	Interference Error		Developmental Error		Overgeneralization Error	
	Indefinite	Definite	Indefinite	Definite	Indefinite	Definite
	50	15.71	40.00	12.00	13.70	Ø
TOTAL	55.71		25.70		18.59	

FIGURE 4.3:The histogram of sources of errors according to the use of articles in free composition test for both group .



4.5. CLASSIFICATION OF ERRORS ACCORDING TO MISAPPLICATION OF INDIVIDUAL RULES

The study of student errors and describing the possible sources for these errors in all tests indicated three major sources: interference, overgeneralization and developmental. However, a systemized analysis of misapplication of each individual rule for indefinite and definite articles can prove to be useful to further the analysis carried out here. Tables 4.6, 4.7, 4.8 show a classification of each error that was encountered as a misapplication of grammatical rules of definite and indefinite articles.

TABLE 4.6: The total percentage of errors encountered in the overall performance of grammatical rules in the translation test for the two groups.

	Total of wrong answers	Total percentage %
INDEFINITE ARTICLE USED		
First mention	50	63.8
A/AN as ONE	42	53.6
With adjectives	30	38.3
INDEFINITE ARTICLE IS NOT USED		
Abstract nouns	37	47.2
Unique nouns	26	33.2
Names of meal times	21	26.8
DEFINITE ARTICLE USED		
Countries used in plural	33	42.14
Unique nouns	56	71.5
Ethic groups	36	45.9
Particular situation (ie the - propername)	30	38.3
Ordinal numbers, adjectives, superlatives	65	83.0
Geographical features and regions (directions)	27	34.4
Names of paper/magazines, places	38	50.0
DEFINITE ARTICLE IS NOT USED		
Countries not used in plural, continents, city, names and streets	60	76.6
Proper names languages	27	34.4
First mention	49	64.6
Abstract nouns	63	80.0
Something in general	64	81.7
Names of meal times	29	37.0
TOTAL ERROR	783	

TABLE 4.7: The total percentage of errors encountered in the overall performance of grammatical rules in the completion test for the two groups.

	Total of wrong answers	Total percentage %
INDEFINITE ARTICLE USED		
First mention	33	54.3
A/AN as ONE	30	49.4
With adjectives	27	44.4
INDEFINITE ARTICLE IS NOT USED		
Abstract nouns	15	24.7
Unique nouns	22	36.2
Names of meal times	20	32.9
DEFINITE ARTICLE USED		
Countries used in plural	37	60.9
Unique nouns	30	49.4
Ethnic groups	30	49.4
Particular situation (ie the - propername)	35	57.6
Ordinal numbers, adjectives, superlatives	45	74.1
Geographical features and regions (directions)	32	52.7
Names of paper/magazines, places	38	62.6
DEFINITE ARTICLE IS NOT USED		
Countries not used in plural, continents, city, names and streets	52	86.5
Proper names languages	18	29.9
First mention	27	44.4
Abstract nouns	35	57.6
Something in general	48	79.0
Names of meal times	30	49.4
TOTAL ERROR	607	

TABLE 4.8: The total percentage of errors encountered in the overall performance of grammatical rules in free composition test for the two groups.

	Total of wrong answers	Total percentage %
INDEFINITE ARTICLE OMISSION		
First mention	38	27.7
Adjective	28	20.5
DEFINITE ARTICLE USED AS A/AN		
First mention	31	22.7
OMISSION OF DEFINITE ARTICLE		
Regions and directions	39	28.6
TOTAL ERROR	136	-

Errors encountered in the Translation Test, Completion Test and Composition Test are categorized according to the misapplication of individual grammatical rules in both group.

As can be seen from the tables and previous analysis eventhough the sources of errors permormed vary, where and when they are comitted by the students can be generalized. For example, in all three tests, students have difficulty with the use of indefinite article in "first mention, adjectives, one" situations. With the definite article the errors are concentrated in the use of definite article with "proper names abstract nouns, and particular situations" such analysis can indicate to an EFL(English as a Foreign Language) teacher is which rule area to concentrate and the additional information about the source of errors will only help to further improve the curricula.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1. DISCUSSION

The diagnostic test given to two groups of students tried to identify and describe the errors and possible error sources of the Turkish learners of English when they encountered definite and indefinite articles.

In the analysis of the data only three major groups of error sources were considered -overgeneralization-interference-developmental. The other possible sources of errors were not encountered.

Three different types of test were given to have a better generalized view of the students performance on different tasks.

The first test given was a translation test where students were required to translate sentences from Turkish to English. As table 4.3 indicates, the percentage of interference errors was 52.63; developmental 36.03 and overgeneralization 11.34. The nature of the test itself may account for the high percentage of interference errors.

In a translation test quite naturally, students are interfacing the two languages they are dealing with one their native to other the target language. In such an exercise, if and when information gaps occur, the native

language which offers more information to the student affects the students performance in the target language. The native rules are transferred to the target language where, in most cases, they stick out like a sore thumb. The second test involved a completion task. As table 4.4 indicates, in this particular test the percentage of error according to their sources was; interference 21.44; developmental 22.21, overgeneralization 56.35. Unlike the translation test results the highest percentage in the error sources was the developmental errors. Again, the test type employed may account for such a difference.

In a completion test where students are required to fill in blanks where necessary, there seems to be less of a native language interference. The task involved is more mechanical in the sense that the activity required from the students is to fit a learned memorized rule in the required slots. If the rules the student has learned -memorized more likely-are confused or not remembered, the student will apply a remembered one across the board. In some cases, the student will perform on sheer guess work.

The third test employed to the students was a less controlled and required more creativity, initiative and free rule application from the students. The students were most unsuccessful in this particular test. When the overall percentages are studied, the interference errors were

56.70, with developmental 25.7 and overgeneralization 18.59.

As in the case of translation test, interference errors takes up the highest percentage in this section as well. The reasons quite obvious. Students faced with a free composition task, first involve the native language in the exercise then go into the target language.

As for the individual violation of rules on the use of definite and indefinite articles, there seems to be a general trend of misuse for certain rules (Tables 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8). This indicates that inspite of its source, each rule missused need be taught a new to the students.

5.2.IMPLICATIONS

As explained in Chapter II the notions of indefinite and definite are semantically universal. All languages have some way of overtly marking these notions. However, the categorical differences that are seen in the surface grammar, may confuse students of a foreign language. The students, unaware of the semantic universality of the concept they are studying, all of a sudden will find themselves facing a construction that seems quite alien to them. This handicap can be overcome in a foreign language class by creating an awareness in the students on these particular semantic concepts. Unfortunately,

many grammatical rules are taught as mechanical skills with any concentration on the semantic implications.

Each course designed in EFL(English as a Foreign Language) is usually based on text books that are prepared for general use. These text books usually present grammatical rules in a systemized manner without paying any special attention to particular problem areas of course, it is up to the instructor to modify the use of the text book according to the needs of the students. This is where contrastive and Error Analysis come into the picture. As demonstrated in this Study, the use and application of grammatical rules can be explained from a different light.

Apart from these general implication drawn from this study further the results of this study indicate an important lack of instruction concerning the indefinite and definite articles.

As was mentioned in Chapter II notions of definite and indefinite can be studied in the realm of discourse. The results clearly show that the students lack the awareness of this function- i.e. The first mention errors. This implies that in many cases students are faced with lists of rules telling the students where and where not about the place of indefinite and definite articles. Therefore, students task in only to memorize these rules without any reference to their use in discourse. This

might be one of the major reason, up to date, why Turkish Students of English have found the application of indefinite and definite article rules so confusing. it not downright difficult.

In the light of this limited study and the ones that can be further constructed, the indefinite and definite articles can be presented in a different light with possible error sources in mind and in context.

5.3. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCHES

- The study did not take the proficiency level of the students into account. A study can be conducted to find out the effect of proficiency level on students performance.
- In this study, only three sources of errors were found. Further research may reveal more sources.
- The effectiveness of different style of teaching and material presentation can also be studied.
- Different test types can be used to find out which better reflects the student performance.

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TEST I : TRANSLATE THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES INTO ENGLISH

- 1.Sami Güzel Sanatlar öğrencisidir.
- 2.Şemsiye al. Hava bulutlu.
- 3.Ben mühendis olmak istiyorum.
- 4.Güneş doğudan doğar.
- 5.Dünya yuvarlaktır.
- 6.Elmalı çörek sever misiniz?
- 7.Köşedeki oğlan benim arkadaşım değil.
- 8.Kızkardeşim üniversite öğrencisi değil.
- 9.Ağrı Türkiye'nin en yüksek dağıdır.
- 10.Ağabeyimin doğum günü Temmuzun üçünde.
- 11.Ali'nin babası ona bisiklet aldı.
- 12.İstanbul endüstriyel bir şehirdir.
- 13.Ankara Türkiye'nin başkentidir.
- 14.Amerikalılar ABD'de yaşar.
- 15.Write number in letters:
 - a)125.815 :
 - b)1.138.005 :
 - c)100 :
 - d)199.979 :

16. Mutluluęu satın alamazsın.
17. Gerçek güzelliştir.
18. Sana haberim var.
19. Bin liraya ihtiyacım var.
20. Sabahları genellikle 7 de kahvaltı ederim.
21. Çocuklar okula gider.
22. Yatmaya gidiyorum.
23. Bir adam tanıyorum.
Bu adam geçen hafta trafik kazası geçirdi.
24. Çalışkan bir öğrencidir.
25. Kediler fareleri kovalar.
26. Akşamları evde televizyon izler misiniz?
27. Anadolu Üniversitesinde öğrenciyim.
28. Küçük bir oğlan var. Bu oğlan çok yaramaz.
29. En önemli şey plan yapmaktır.
30. Güzel bir kızdır.
31. Sakarya Köprüsünü geç, dosdođru git.
32. Ankara'ya gidiyorum.

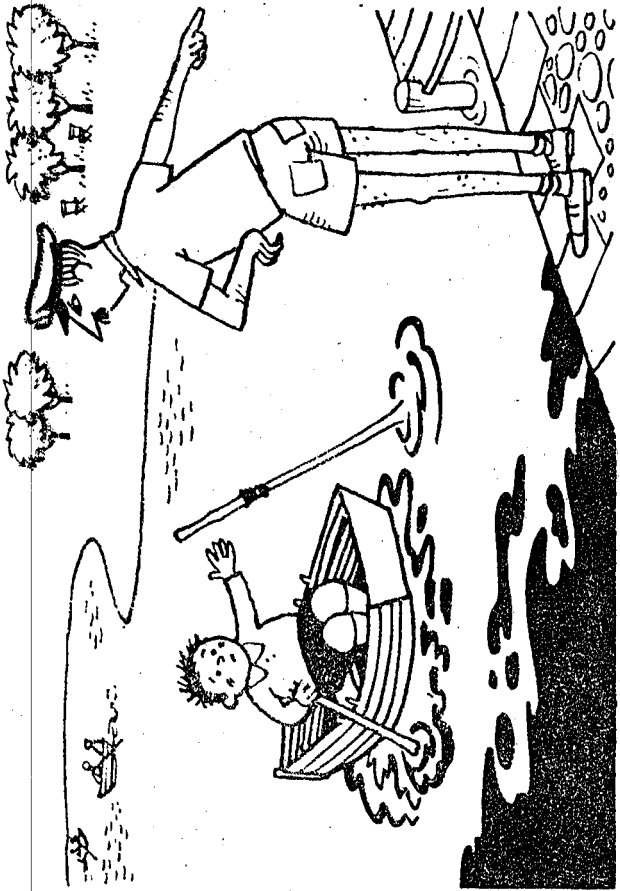
TEST II-A) PUT A/AN OR THE if it's necessary. Write NO when you don't need to use any of them.:

1. Please buybottle of milk for me.
2. There're only few seats left for tonight's musical at university.
3.Florida State University is smaller thanUniversity of Florida.
4. Her sister plays guitar.
5. Do you watchTV at home in evenings?
6. What do you usually have at breakfast?
7. There are three Susan Parkers in telephone director.S. Parker that I know lives on First Avenue.
8. First World War started in 1914.
9. Statue of Liberty is in New York
10. Aztecs lived in Mexico.
11. cats catch mice.
12. Last night there was bird singing outside my house.
13. Mel's father's in hospital, so we went to visit him yesterday.
14. My car is four years old.
15. River Amazon flows into Atlantic Ocean.

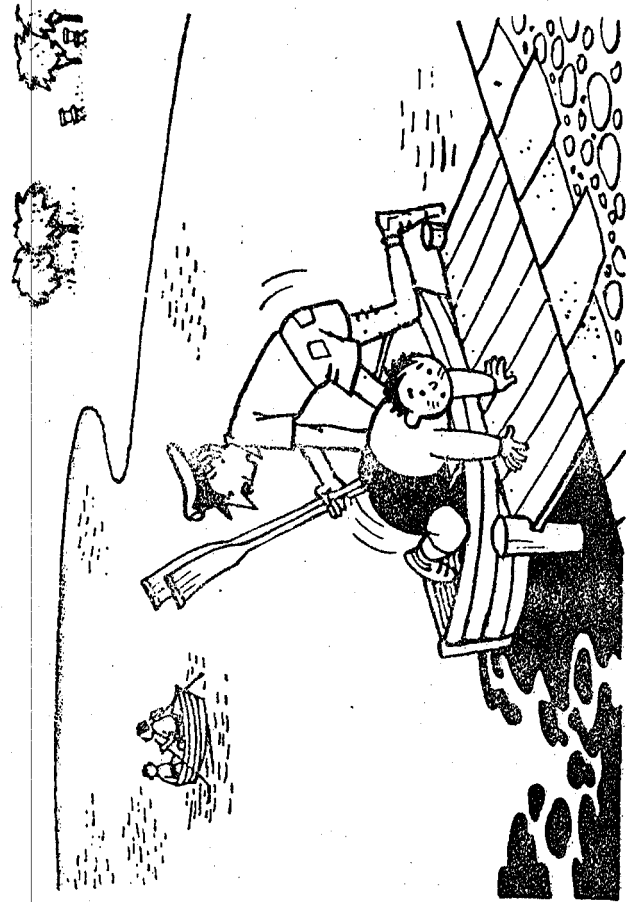
TEST II-B)

I. Most things around us carry small amount of ... electricity. If we comb our hair with nylon comb, then hold comb above our hair on end. If we rub plastic pen on handkerchief, we can pick up pieces of paper with pen. We can also do experiment in lab at school. We can make simple cell and produce electricity. Put zinc rod and copper rod into some acid in beaker. Connect rods with piece of copper wire to produce electric current.

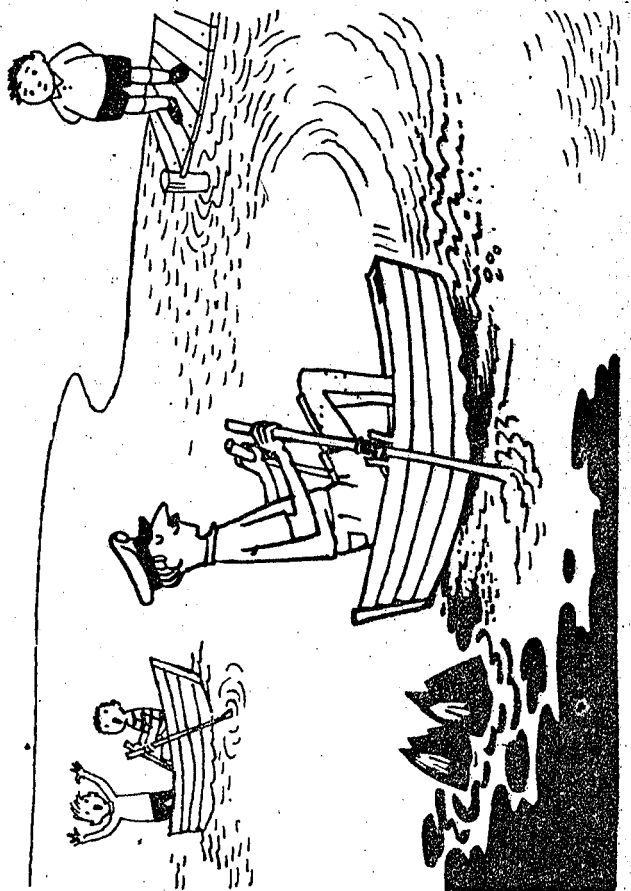
II. Mary Johnson is secretary. She works in office. She lives in Woolton, suburb of Liverpool. She's also university student. She studies at Liverpool University. She's hardworking student. She usually gets up early and has breakfast at 7.30. She buys newspaper on way to work. She reads Times. She has her lunch in canteen. She goes to evening courses to learn Spanish. She goes to bed at II.



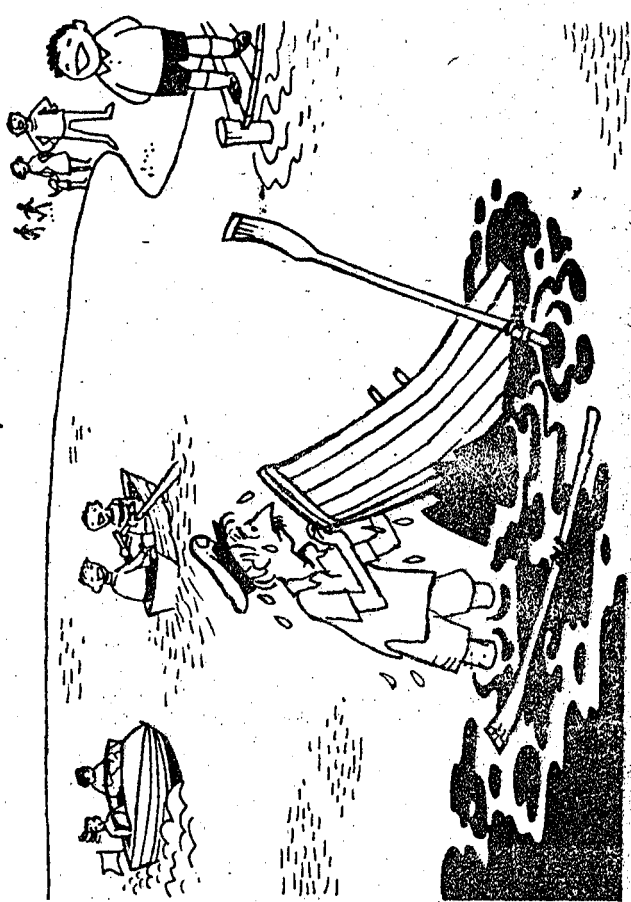
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2



3



4

TEST III