2.1 Theoretical Concepts

In learning a second language the student as the learner produces many forms which are not those which would be produced by a native speaker of the standard form of the target language. The realization that the second language learner’s errors are potentially important for the understanding of the process of second language acquisition is a current focus on modern teaching.

The study of error is part of investigation of the process of language learning. Relating to this study, the writer puts some theories as her theoretical concepts which contain about the definition of error and Error Analysis, the differences of errors and mistakes, and also the relationship between Second Language Acquisition and Error Analysis.

2.1.1 Error and Error Analysis

There is a term ‘learning by mistake’. We often hear people made a lot of mistakes in them past tense and eventually be successful in the future. It could be occur in learning a language or a target language. The definition of error can be seen through the classification of errors. Next, there is the explanation of the classification of errors. This classification is very important to explain the errors in Error Analysis.

Jack Richards (1974) classifies errors into two kinds, they are:
a. Interlanguage Errors

Errors According to Richards, Interlanguage errors is errors caused by the interference of the learner’s mother tongue. Through the meaning of Interlanguage errors, can be seen and becomes clear that this kind of errors needs a contrastive analysis. The interference that is mentioned above means the interference of native language into foreign learning and it indicates the learning process.

b. Intralingual and Developmental Errors

Still, according to Richards (1974), Intralingual and developmental errors emphasize the reflection of the learners’ competence at a particular stage, and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition. And the details, Intralingual errors are those that reflect the general characteristics of rule learning, such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply and developmental errors illustrate the learner attempting to build up hypotheses about the English language from his limited experience of it in the classroom or textbook. For that the intralingua and developmental errors classify the errors become:

1. Over-generalization

Before going to the meaning of over-generalization, the writer starts from the meaning of generalization. Jakobvits (in Richards, 1974) defines generalization as ‘the use of previously available strategies n new situation…. In second language learning…some of these strategies will prove helpful in organizing the facts about the second language, but others, perhaps due to
superficial similarities, will be misleading and inapplicable’. Overgeneralization is associated with redundancy reduction. It may be occurred, for instance, with items which are contrasted in the grammar of the language but which do not carry significant and obvious contrast for the learner. The definition overgeneralization is completed through Richards, overgeneralization happened when the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in the target language. Generally, overgeneralization is the creation of one deviant structure in place of two regular structures, and to make it more clear, the writer puts example:

- They *soon*ly found our mistakes.

  This sentence should be: They *soon* found our mistakes.

  There is an over form of a structure adverb of time *soon* becomes *soon*ly.

2. Ignorance of rule restriction

Ignorance of rule restrictions is failure to observe the restrictions is failure to observe the restrictions of existing structures, that is, the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply, for example:

*He walked sadly away.*

This sentence shows that it ignores restriction on the distribution of *away*. The application of *away* to context must be based on the existing structure. *Away* precedes adverb of manner.

3. Incomplete application rules

Through this category of error, we may note the occurrence of structures whose deviancy represents the degree of development of the rules required to produce acceptable utterances. This category emphasizes the systematic difficulty
in the use of questions to be observed. It means that the cases are about: a statement form may be used as a question, one of the transformations in a series may be omitted, or a question word may simply be added to the statement form. Here are some examples:

Teacher’s Question                     Student’s Response
Ask her whether she will come next week. Will you come next?
How do you go to the cinema?           I go to the cinema by bus?

4. False concept hypothesized

In addition to the wide range of Intralingual errors which have to do with faulty rule learning at various levels, there is a class developmental errors which derive from faulty comprehension of distinction in the target language. These are sometimes due to poor gradation of teaching items. To get clear explanation let’s see the examples of the using of the word yet: He has left the office yet. The using of the word yet is an error of false concept hypothesized because yet is occurred in a negative sentence.

According to S.Pit Corder (1997), he also classifies the errors of learner’s language into three types, they are:

a. Transfer Errors

The theory of transfer states that a learner of second language transfers into the learner’s performance in the second language the habits of his mother tongue. On this theory the making of errors is an evitable part of the learning process. It also accounts for the similarity of many errors to the forms of mother tongue. We can call these transfer errors, for example: They sing with happy.
b. Analogical Errors

A learner of second language makes errors because he has not yet discovered the precise set of categories to which the rule applies. Errors of this sort are errors of overgeneralization or analogical errors. thus it is not surprising that errors like *he singed, he cans come and many mens* are produced by learners with any mother tongue. Analogical errors are inherent in the learning process.

c. Teaching-Induced Errors

There is a third type of error which is much more difficult to establish to any particular case, namely, errors arising from the methods or materials used in the teaching. It is not easy to identify such errors except in conjunction with a close study of materials and teaching techniques to which the learner has been exposed.

Errors have function to be the evidences of how a second language learner acquires and those evidences are processed by analyzing to know the answers of how a second language learner acquires. The process by analyzing through the errors can be called as Error Analysis. Therefore, the writer thinks that it is a need to explain what Error Analysis is. The writer only gives a brief explanation about error analysis and also explains the error analysis of Rod Ellis. In chapter one the writer has explained, in short, Rod Ellis (1997:17) says, “Errors reflect gaps in a learner’s knowledge: they occur because the learner does not know what correct is.” The definition of error analysis as in chapter one by Rod Ellis says that the error analysis is the main way of investigating Second Language Acquisition by collecting and describing samples of learners’ language. It means to do error
analysis research should analyze the errors and also the error analysis has procedures to do it.

Rod Ellis (1997:15) has three steps to do error analysis, they are:

1. Identifying Errors

In this step, we have to compare the error sentences (the writer mentions it as “original sentence”) with what seem to be the normal or ‘correct’ sentences in the target language which correspond with them (the writer mentions it as ‘reconstruction’). But it is, in fact, easier said than done. Sometimes, it is difficult to make the reconstruction when we collide with the learner means to say.

2. Describing Errors

This next step is the step where the errors are described and classified into kinds. This step can be done by several ways. According to Rod Ellis, there are two ways to classify errors, they are:

   a. The first way is classifying the errors through grammatical categories. It means classifying the errors through their word classes and tenses. As an example:

   Original sentence : The children yelled with loud.
   Reconstruction : The children yelled loudly.

   b. The second way of classifying the errors is try to identify general ways in which the learners’ utterances differ from the reconstructed target-language utterances. It means the errors are classified into several types:

   1. Omission

   Omission is the error of leaving out an item that is required for an utterance to be considered grammatical, for example: She talks polite.
This sentence leaves out an item that is required to be considered grammatical for expressing adverb of manner; it is \(-ly\) must be added to the word polite.

2. Misinformation

Misinformation is the error of using one grammatical form in place of another grammatical form, example: The child yelled with loud. This sentence contains misinformation in using the adverb of manner which marked by the using of \(-ly\) after the adjective. Therefore, the word with can not be used to express adverb of manner.

3. Misordering

Misordering is the error of putting the words in an utterance in the wrong order. For example:

He will come \textit{evening tomorrow}.

This sentence has the wrong order of adverb of time \textit{evening tomorrow}. It must be changed becomes: He will come \textit{tomorrow evening}.

4. Overgeneralization

Overgeneralization is the error of using over grammatical form in an utterance.

For example: She types \textit{fastly}.

This sentence uses \(-ly\) to express adverb of manner but it is an over grammatical form because the word fast does not.

3. Explaining Errors

This is the last step of error analysis. In this step, a researcher tries to explain how and why a sentence called to be erroneous.
2.1.2 The Difference of Error and Mistake

There is a problem in analyzing errors. It is how can those things are determined as errors or mistakes or how we can know those things are not just an accidental typing mistake. For that, it is a need to differentiate error and mistake. Ellis (1997:7) says that errors and mistakes are differentiated as errors reflect gaps in a learner’s knowledge that they occur because the learner does not know what is correct and mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance that they occur because, in particular instance, the learner is unable to perform what a learner knows. It can be concluded that a learner makes errors due to their, in particular instance, lack of consciousness through the language knowledge.

The next question is how errors and mistakes, in written data, can be distinguished. To know the errors in written data may be through the consistency of learner’s performance, as an example: the consistency of learner to use ‘well’ and ‘good’, it means the learner always uses the adjective while there should be the form of adverb. But if the learner sometimes uses ‘well’ and sometimes uses ‘good’ while it is still the wrong form that a sentence needs, this shows the mistakes.

2.1.3 The Relationship between SLA and Error Analysis

People need to learn second language when they have to face expanded way of communication that is beyond their local speech communities. When people learn second language it is called Second Language Acquisition.

According to Hakuta (Ellis 1985: 248), the main goal of Second Language Acquisition is the game of language acquisition research can be described as the research for an appropriate level of description for the learner’s system of rules. In
other words, the main goal of Second Language Acquisition is to describe the process of learner acquisition, exactly the nature of the linguistic categories that constitutes the learner’s interlanguage at any point in development.

As the writer has explained before that the error analysis is the main way of investigating Second Language Acquisition by collecting and describing samples of learners’ language. From that short explanation, there is implied the relationship between Second Language Acquisition and Error Analysis. Error Analysis is the way to investigate how the learners of second language acquire the language. For that, the Second Language Acquisition becomes the object of the research and Error Analysis is the way of the research.

2.2 An Overview of Adverb

In English grammar, there are eight parts of speech that can be used in sentences based on the grammatical rules, they are: noun, verb, pronoun, adjective, adverb, preposition, interjection, and conjunction. Relating to this, the role of adverb is very important to modify the verb in clause or phrase.

According to Richards (1985:6) says, “Adverb is a word that describes or adds to the meaning of a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or a sentence and which answers questions as how?, where?, or when?. In English many adverbs have an –ly ending.”

Adverbs range in function from close to loose modifiers of the verb; from close modifiers of single words, prepositional phrases or clauses, to loose modifiers of entire sentence. Adverbs range in form from words clearly marked as adverbs to those that have the form of other parts of speech. Some adverbs merge
with nouns or prepositions because of their form; some merge with interjections because of their ability to express emotion and to serve as sentence modifiers; some merge with conjunctions because of their ability to perform connecting function.

2.2.1 Form of Adverbs

Form of adverbs are divided into two types, they are:

a. Inflectional form

The adverb has an inflectional form only for comparison. Short adverbs (mostly one syllable adverbs) that have the same form as adjectives are compared by the addition of –er, -est. These adverbs are of several types:

1. Adverb of manner, such as: hard, fast

   One group of manner adverbs has two forms, one with, and one without, an –ly ending like: slow-slowly, quick-quickly, cheap-cheaply, dear-dearly, loud-loudly, clear-clearly.

   For example: He slowly drives of sight.

2. Adverb of time, for example: early, late, often, soon, yet

   For example: She usually comes late.

3. Adverb of distance and direction, for example: close, far near, straight, low

   The –ly adverbs of manner are compared by the use of more-than, the most or less-than, the least. For example: She dresses more elegantly than her sister.

b. Derivational form

   Derivational form of adverb is the formation of adverbs by adding the derivational suffix ly to descriptive adjective, for example: intelligently. Most adverbs of manner, many sentence adverbs of frequency and degree are formed by
adding the derivational suffix –ly to a descriptive adjective. Adjectives that already end in –ly are often used in unchanged form as adverbs such as:

- Adverb of manner, for example: friendly, lively, orderly

A few spelling rules need to be observed when adding –ly to adjectives:

1. Final y preceded by consonant is changed to i such as: happily, busily.
2. With adjectives ending in ble, ple, tle, dle, the le is dropped before –ly such as: possibly, simply.
3. With adjectives ending in –ic, -al is added before –ly such as basically, historically.

Some caution must be observed in adding –ly to adjectives with other endings:

1. With adjectives ending in silent e, the e must be retained before –ly such as: extremely, entirely.
2. With adjectives ending in l, the l must be kept before –ly such as: beautifully, accidentally.

Derivational suffixes other than –ly that distinguish adverbs:

a. –ward, such as: frontward, backward.

b. –wise, such as: lengthwise, otherwise, etc.

The last element in certain compound words may also classed among derivational endings that signals adverb:

a. – where, such as: anywhere, nowhere, elsewhere.

b. – ever, such as: forever, whenever. For example: I want you leave me forever.

c. –place, such as: someplace. For example: I must have left my jacket someplace.

There is one derivational prefix that signals adverbs, i.e. a- such as: aside, ahead, aloud, along, etc. For example: Could you put the cake aside for me?
2.2.2 Types of Adverbs

The classifications of adverbs are classified by its meaning and function.

a. Types of adverbs classified by meaning

1. Adverbs of Manner

Adverbs of manner tell us how something happens. They are usually placed after or before the main verb or after the object. In other words, these adverbs can not be place between verb and object. The manner adverb has the most characteristic adverbial form (an –ly ending added to a descriptive adjective). Example:

- He swims well (after the main verb).
- They eat the bread greedily (after the object)

2. Adverbs of Place

Adverbs of place indicate where something happens. This include: abroad, there, here, etc. Example: He plays there.

You will tell me the plot of the film at home tonight.

3. Adverbs of Time

a. Definite Time

These adverbs have a fixed boundary in time, example: yesterday, today, tomorrow. Most of these words have noun form and some used in plural form such as Saturdays. In addition, a group of words may function as a single time expression, example: last week, a month ago, on Sunday.

b. Indefinite Time

This kind of time has no fixed boundary, i.e.:

- Words like recently, yet, still, soon, already.

Example: He hasn’t finished his lunch yet.
• Words denoting a sequence in time, example: *now, before, next*. For example: They are playing football *now*.

• Words denoting frequency. Frequency words range in meaning from *at all times* to *at no time*, such as: *always, often, sometimes, never*.

Example: The teacher always gives us difficult tests.

4. Intensifying Adverbs. This type of adverbs can be classified as:

a. Adverbs of Degree (Quantifiers)

1. Adverbs of degree denoting *how much* with respect to adverbs, such as: very, too, quite, rather, even, only, hardly, fairly, etc.

Example: He always walks *rather quickly*.

I feel *so terribly* tired tonight.

2. Adverbs of degree denoting *how complete*, such as: *almost, entirely, nearly, partially*. Most of these adverbs have the same –ly form as adverbs of manner do and are often classed with manner adverbs, they are:

• Degree of completion with respect to verbs, example:

They have *almost* finished the work.

He has partially recovered from his stroke.

He *completely* misunderstood his wife’s remarks.

• Degree of completion with respect to adjectives, for example: They are *practically* ready to begin the show.

b. Adverbs of distinguishing (emphasizers)

These adverbs emphasize particular words or grammatical construction, such as: *especially, even, exactly, just, simply, solely*. Such adverbs usually appear immediately before the words or construction they modify.
Certain adverbs of time may serve as distinguishing adverbs before preposition or conjunction of time, such as: immediately, just, right, soon.

For example: *Soon* after dinner he fell asleep.

- **Types of Adverbs Classified by Function**

  **a. Sentence Adverbs.** These adverbs often have a loose grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence, and one are looked upon as modifying the whole sentence rather than the verb, example: fortunately, presumably, actually, obviously, evidently. Such adverbs maybe considered as equivalent of a sentence or a clause; thus presumably may be interpreted as representing *as may be presumed*. Many of these words have the –ly form of manner adverbs, but actually they often reflect *the independent opinion of the speaker* rather than the manner of an action. For example: Fortunately, no one was hurt. Many words ending in –ed + –ly are sentence adverbs, for example: unexpectedly, decidedly, advisedly. Sentence adverbs can serve as single word answers to question, especially if they express affirmation (yes), negation (no), possibility (possibly). Interjections expressing a mild degree of feeling are sometimes classified among the sentence adverbs, for example: well.

  **b. Conjunctive Adverb**

    These adverbs establish a relationship between one sentence or clause and the preceding sentence or clause. Conjunctive adverbs indicate such relationships as result (therefore, accordingly), addition (moreover, besides), contrast (however, nevertheless), condition (otherwise), time (when). Groups of words may be used to establish the same kinds of relationships as conjunctive adverbs do, example: In addition, for this reason, after this, if not.
c. **Explanatory Adverbs.** These adverbs illustrate or enumerate, example: namely

d. **Relative Adverbs,** for example: when, where, why, how.

1. Relative adverbs. These adverbs introduce adjective clauses, for example:
   
   We visited the house *where* a famous poet once lived.

2. Interrogative adverbs
   
   In questions-, for example: *When* will he arrive? and in noun clauses derived from questions, for example: I asked *when* he would arrive.

e. **Exclamatory adverbs.** For example: How beautifully she dresses!

### 2.2.3 Function of Adverb

An adverb modifies a verb, adjective, adverb or an entire sentence.

1. Adverb as modifier of a verb

   Sentence: The boy threw the ball *quickly.*

   Adverbs of manner modify the verb most directly. Adverbs of place and time also be considered as modifying the verb, although some grammarians consider these as modifying the entire sentence.

   Sentence: The boy *quickly* threw the ball *there twice yesterday.*

2. Adverb as modifier (intensifier) of an adjective or an adverb

   Intensifying adverbs of degree modify adjectives or adverbs in the same way as *very* in this sentence.

   The *very* small boy threw the ball *very quickly.*

3. Adverb as modifier of an entire sentence.

   Sentence: *Fortunately,* the boy threw the ball *quickly.*
### 2.2.4 Position of Adverb

Some types of adverbs may occupy all three possible adverbial positions, others only one or two of these positions. The following chart summarizes the positions for the different types of adverbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Adverb</th>
<th>Most Usual Position</th>
<th>Other Possible Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverbs of manner</td>
<td>• final position: The army advanced toward the enemy <em>slowly</em>.</td>
<td>• mid-position: She <em>quickly</em> left the room.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• mid-position: <em>Quickly</em>, he took out his gun.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• initial position: <em>Here</em> comes the train.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• initial position: <em>Today</em> we submit the report.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• initial position: <em>Soon</em> we found our mistake.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• mid-position: We <em>next</em> take up the use of verbs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbs of place</td>
<td>• final position: <em>It’s</em> cold <em>outside</em>.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• mid-position: <em>She</em> quickly left the room.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• initial position: <em>Here</em> comes the train.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbs of time</td>
<td>• final position: The bus arrives <em>today</em>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. definite time</td>
<td>• initial position: <em>Today</em> we submit the report.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• initial position: <em>Soon</em> we found our mistake.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• mid-position: We <em>next</em> take up the use of verbs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. indefinite time</td>
<td>• initial position: <em>Soon</em> we found our mistake.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. adverbs like</td>
<td>• initial position: <em>Next</em>, we take the use of adverbs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>soon, recently</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. adverbs of sequence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 3. Adverbs of Frequency

#### Intensifying Adverbs

**a. Adverbs of Degree**
- Position preceding the word being intensified:
  - The weather is *very* hot this summer.

**b. Distinguishing Adverbs**
- Position preceding the word or structure being emphasized:
  - *Only* Mary passed in Greek.

#### Sentence Adverbs

**Conjunctive Adverbs**
- Initial position:
  - *Obviously* they will not finish on time.

- Initial position:
  - *Therefore* I must tell John.

- Initial position:
  - *Often* they have trouble with their television set.

- Initial position:
  - *Often* they have trouble with their parents.*

---

Often they have trouble with their television set.

- Final position:
  - They have trouble with their parents.*

- Final position:
  - They win the competition completely.

- Distinguishing adverbs may follow nouns or pronouns:
  - Mary passed in Greek *only*.

- Initial position:
  - *Obviously* they will not finish on time.

- Mid-position:
  - They *obviously* finish on time.

- Final position:
  - They will not invite you, *obviously*.

- Final position (only if the sentence is short):
  - He quit his job. He needs to look for work *therefore*.
Notes:
When two or more types of adverbs appear in the same sentence, they follow the order of *place, manner, time*. For example: He walks along the street quietly today.

2.3 Review of the Previous Study

Maretta Suderia (2007) in her thesis: “The Errors of Using Auxiliary Verbs of Senior High School Students: A Study Case of Letters of Second Year Students of SMU 13 Medan”, analyzes the data by using qualitative method. The result of her research is the most kind of error that made by the students of SMUN 13 Medan is the error of ‘omission’ with nominal 41, 40%. It means that most of the students omit or do not use the auxiliary verbs in their sentences while the sentences need the auxiliary verbs.

Isa (1996) in his thesis: “Some Mayor Errors in Using Tenses: A Case of the Third Year Students in SMU 1”, analyzes the data by using field and library research. The result of his research is the mayor errors that made by students while they use Simple Present Tense.”

Rod Ellis (1997:17) says that errors reflect gaps in a learner’s knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct.

Rod Ellis (1985:297) says that errors analysis is a procedure use by both researches and teachers. It involves collecting samples of learner language, identifying the errors in sample, describing these errors, classifying them according to their hypothesized causes, and evaluating their seriousness.
Geoffrey Leech (1973:202) says that most adverbs are formed from adjectives with the suffix –ly: frank/frankly, happy/happily, etc.

Hornby (1954:175) says that adverbs may be classified according to their function (e.g. adverb of time, frequency, manner) and according to their position in the sentence.