CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Theoretical Concepts

It would be quite unreasonable to expect the students of foreign language not to make such errors since English is not their mother tongue in other words in learning a second language the students as the learner produces many forms which are not those which would be produced by a native speaker of standard form of 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.

2.1.1 Error and Error Analysis

Agnes in Webster’s New Word Dictionary (1998:222) defines error is the state of believing what is untrue, a wrong belief, something incorrectly done.

Richard (1985:95) states that error (in the speech or writing of second or foreign learner), the use of a linguistic item (e.g. a word, a grammatical word, a speech act, etc) in way which a fluent of native speaker of the language regards as showing or incomplete learning. It results from incomplete knowledge.

While, Richards in Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics (1985:96) defines error analysis is the study and analysis of the errors made by second and foreign language learners. Error analysis may be carried out in order to find out how
well some one knows a language, how a person learns language, and to obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching material.

Brown (1980:166) cites the fact that learners do make errors and these errors can be observed, analyzed and classified to reveal something of system operating within the learner to lead a surge of study of learner’s errors called error analysis.

Corder (1979:167) says that a learner’s errors are significant in (that) they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in the discovery of the language.

Furthermore, Strevens (1969) in Richard (1974:4) hypothesizes that errors should not be viewed as problems to be overcome, but rather as normal and inevitable features indicating the strategies that learners use. He conjectured that if a regular pattern of errors could be observed in the performance of all learners in a given situation, and if a learner was seen to progress this pattern, his errors could be taken as evidence not of failure but of success and achievement learning. Errors in this case are not inhibitory, but rather evidence of one’s learning strategies.

To get clearer explanation, the definition of error can be seen thorough the classification of errors. Errors are classified into two kinds such as Interlanguage Errors and Intralanguage Errors (Richards, 1974: 173), Misinformation, Omission, Overgeneralization and Incomplete Rules of Application (Ellis, 1985:27)


Jack Richards classifies errors into two kinds: Interlanguage Errors and Intralanguage Errors.

a. Interlanguage Errors
Richards (1974:173) says that interlanguage errors are errors caused by the interference of the learner’s mother tongue. The interference mentioned above means the interference of native language into foreign learning and it indicates the learning process. Furthermore, he explains that Interlanguage errors as one of the two classifications of errors refer to language of the second language users. The term interlanguage was introduced because learner’s language studied up to the time has regularly displayed formal features both the target language and some of other language, notably thought not exclusively of mother tongue.

Interlanguage errors may happen when someone wants to learn another language besides his native language, and he will bring his native language into the foreign language situation which is being learnt. In other word, the learners tend to transfer his native language into the second language.

b. Intralingual Errors

Richards( 1974:6) says that intralingual errors refers to item produced by the learner which reflect not the structure of the mother tongue, but the generalizations based on partial exposure to the target language. Many intralingual errors represent the learning difficulty of what are often low level rules in target language such as differences between the verb inflection in I walk, she walks. It may be inferred that once basic rules such as those concerning subject object relationships, predication, negation, etc are acquired, a considerable amount of difficulty in second language learning is related to selectional restrictions and to surface structure and contextual rules of language. For the Intralingual errors classify the errors become:

1) Overgeneralization
Jacobvits (in Richards, 1974) defines overgeneralization as the use of previously available strategies in new situations. 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 generalizing an item because of previous items.

For example:

1. I goed to school two days ago

This sentence is wrong, the right one is I went to school two days ago. There is an over form by adding –ed to all past verbs, while the verb is irregular verb.

2) Ignorance of Rule Restriction

Both the overgeneralization and the ignorance of rule restrictions are very similar because they both ignore the limitations of the existing structures and apply these structures in contexts where this is impossible.

For example:

2. I ask him to do it, and someone produces: make him to do it.
This sentence is wrong, as we know that this is causative sentence, the verb *make* must be followed by infinitive.

3) Incomplete Application of Rules

These errors reflect the degree of rule acquisition and the ability correct utterance to be produced. In this respect the production of negative and interrogative sentences reflects most successfully the difficulties in this direction. Usually either an auxiliary verb is omitted or inversion is forgotten.

For example:

3. *How you go to school?*

This question is wrong, the right one is *how do you go to school?* After W+H question must be followed by Auxiliary verbs.

4) False Concept Hypothesized

These errors are sometimes due to poor gradation of teaching items in other words, such mistakes resulted from a poor rule presentation. To get clear explanation let us see the examples of the using of the word *yet*:

For example:

4. *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.

**B. Ellis (1997)**

Ellis (1985:27) says that error analysis is a procedure used 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. In relation to kinds of errors Ellis (1997:15) classifies four kinds of errors through explaining three steps of analyzing the errors, they are:

a. Identifying Errors

In this step, we have to compare the error sentence (the writer mentions it as “original sentence”) with what seem to be normal or “correct sentence” in target language which correspond with them (the writer mentions it as ‘reconstruction’).

b. Describing Errors

This next step, 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:

- The first way is classifying the errors through grammatical categories. It means classifying the errors through their word classes and tenses.

  For example:

  5. Original sentence : I goed to school two days ago.

  5.a Reconstruction : I went to school two days ago.

- 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:

6. *She make cake.*

This sentence leaves out an item that is required to be considered grammatical. In order to get correct sentence, it should be *she makes cake* because *she* is third singular subject that must be followed by the word which is added by inflectional -s or -es.

2) Misinformation

Misinformation is the error of using one grammatical form in place of another grammatical form,

For example:

7. *The students study with serious*

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:

8. *I will go morning tomorrow.*

This sentence has the wrong order of adverb of time morning tomorrow, the right one is *I will go tomorrow morning.*
4) Overgeneralization

Overgeneralization is the error of using over grammatical form. Generalizing past verbs by adding –ed.

c. Explaining Errors

This is the last step of Ellis’ theory. In this step, a researcher tried to explain how and why a sentence called to be erroneous.

Besides those experts and their theories above, error analysis has been analyzed by some previous persons. One of them is Yuanita (2003) in her thesis entitles an Analysis of Errors in English Past Tense by Students of Politeknik Kesehatan. Her subject is students of Politeknik Kesehatan. She applies field research and quantitative study in her research method. She counts the percentage of correct and incorrect answers of past tense by students of 100 questions. She finds the most errors made by the students in simple past (48.23 %), past future (45.45%), past perfect (48.50 %) and the last is past continuous tense (39.91). Honestly, her thesis gives contribution in completing this thesis although the writer’s findings are different from hers. The writer’s title is an Error Analysis in Using Tenses Made by the Third Year Students of SMK 7 Medan. The subject is the students who get first until fifth rank; it means that the source data is taken purposively. The scope of analysis is just for tenses that the students have learnt. The writer’s apply both field research and qualitative research method. One of the writer’s objectives is to classify the kinds of errors made by the students based on the kinds of errors such as omission, misinformation, misordering, and overgeneralization.

2.1.2 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

Hakuta in (Ellis 985:248) says that 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 earner’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 constituents the learners’ interlanguage at any point in development.

In conclusion, 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 English Tenses

In Macmillan Dictionary (1979:1028) states that tense means the form of a verb that shows the time of its action or state of being or set of such forms indicating a particular time. If we go back to the history that tense comes from Latin “tempus” which means time. If someone wants to talk about Tense, he or she may not escape from grammar because tense is a part of structure. The major challenges in teaching students how to use the tenses of English is not so much having the students learn the uses of each individual tense but getting students sensitized to the differences between and among the tense. Tense means time. It is assumed by a verb for indicating:
a. The time in which an event occurs, for example, that an action is done in Present, as *he comes*; that an action is done in past, as *he came*; that it will be done in future time, as, *he will come*

b. The degrees of completeness ascribed to an event at the time of its occurrences there are four different forms to each tense.

1) Indefinite; denotes Present, Past or Future time in its simplest form as:

9. I drink.
10. I drank.
11. I will drink.

2) Continuous; denotes that the event in Present, Past, Future time is still continuing, and it’s not yet complete, as:

12. I am drinking.
13. I was drinking.
14. I will be drinking.

3) Perfect; denotes the event in Present, Past or Future time is in a complete or perfect state, as:

15. I have drunk.
16. I had drunk.
17. I will have drunk.

2.2.1 The Rule of Sequence of Tenses

Pyle (1995:204) states that when two clauses make up a sentence, they show a time relationship based on certain time words and verb tenses. This relationship is called “sequence of tenses,” The verb tenses of the main clause will determine that on the dependent clause.
If the main clause is Present tense the dependent clause will be
1. present progressive
2. will, can, or may +verb
3. past tense
4. present perfect

• By using a present progressive with a present tense, we show two simultaneous actions.

18. I see that Harriet is writing her composition.
19. Do you know who is riding the bicycle?

• These modals in the dependent clause indicate that the action take place after that of the main verb. (be going to also used in this pattern).

20. I know that she is going to win that prize
21. Mary says that she can play the piano

• Past tenses in the dependent clause show that this action took place before that of main clause.

22. I hope he arrived safely.
23. They think he was here last night.

• Use of the Present Perfect in the dependent clause indicate that this action took place at an indefinite time before that of the main clause.

24. He tells us that he has been to the mountains before.
25. We know that you have spoken with Mike about the party.

If the main clause is Past tense then the dependent clause will be
1. past progressive or simple past
2. would, could, or might +verb
3. past perfect

• Simple Past or Past Progressive in the dependent clause indicates a simultaneous action with the main clause.

26. I gave the package to my sister when she visited us last week.
27. Mike visited the Prado Art Museum while he was studying in Madrid.

- These modals in the dependent clause indicate that the action takes place after that of main verb.

28. He said that he would look for a job next week.

29. Mary said that she could play piano.

- Past Perfect in the dependent clause shows that the action occurred before that of the main clause.

30. I hoped he had arrived safely.

31. They thought he had been here last night.

2.3. Explanation about English Tenses

2.3.1 Simple Present Tense

Azar (1993:2) says that simple present expresses events or situations that exist always, usually, habitually; they exist now, have existed in the past, and probably will exist in the future.

Werner (2007:15) states that the usual time of the simple present tense is extended present. The tense is used in these ways: to describe habits, to make general statements of fact and to express opinions.

**Verbal Sentence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>+ Infinitive +...............................</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I / you/they/we</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She/he /it</td>
<td>+ Verb (s) or (es) +..........................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I / you/they/we</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She/he /it</td>
<td>+ do + not + infinitive +.....................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do</td>
<td>+ I / you/they/we + infinitive ................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does</td>
<td>+ she/he /it + infinitive ....................</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For examples:

32. He likes apples. (+)
   He does not like apples. (-)
   Does he like apples?
33. It runs fast. (+)
   It does not run fast. (-)
   Does it run?
34. You speak two languages. (+)
   You do not speak two languages. (-)
   Do you speak two languages?

Dokme (2003:157) says that there are some usages of simple past tense, they are:

a. The Simple Present Tense describes customs and habits

For examples:
35. Alice eats dinner at 7.00 every morning.
36. They go on holiday every summer.

b. We use Simple Present Tense to talk about things that are true in general, and
   fact that were true in the past, remain true in the present and will be true in the
   future

For examples:
37. The moon goes around the earth.
38. Cacao comes from Brazil.

c. Simple Present Tense expresses activities that are relatively permanent.
   For example:
39. The University of North Sumatera is in the city of Medan.

d. The Simple Present Tense expresses activities which will take place in future
   time.
   For examples:
40. The guest arrives at 3 p.m.
41. The concerts start in five minutes.

- **Spelling rules**
a. We add *s* to the base form of verbs used with singular nouns, the person singular subject pronouns (*she, he, it*) and singular countable nouns to form the Simple Present Tense.

For plural nouns, the base form of the verb is used.

*Open – opens  write-writes  look-looks*

b. **After –y two options for singular verbs are possible**

- if a word ends in –y and if there is *a vowel* (*a,e,i,u,o*) before –y we add a final –s.

  - buy
  - play
  - pay
  - enjoy

- if a word end in –y and if there is *a consonant* (*b,c,d,g,...*) before –y, we drop –y and add –ies.

  - Cry  cries
  - Fly  flies
  - Study  studies

c. We use special endings to indicate that singular form of the simple Present Tense for certain verbs.

After –sh, -ch, -ss, and –x we add –es.

- Finish  finishes
- Brush  brushes
- Teach  teaches
- Pass  passes
Fix  fixes
d. Have, go, and do are irregular. They have special singular simple Present Tense forms.
does  do
have  has

- **Adverb of Frequency**

Adverb of frequency (or frequency adverbs) tells us how often an action takes place.

100% always
usually
often
sometimes
seldom
rarely
never

0%

**Never** is a negative adverb of frequency. It means **not at any time**. Therefore, It can not be used with **not**.

For examples:

42. He **never** drinks alcohol. (correct)

43. He **never not** drinks alcohol. (incorrect)

The position of adverbs of Frequency in a sentence

- Adverbs of frequency usually come between the subject and the verb.

- **Question Words**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What</th>
<th>Where</th>
<th>When</th>
<th>Why</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do + I/You/They/we</td>
<td>infinitive</td>
<td>+...........?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>does+ she/he/it</td>
<td>infinitive</td>
<td>+...........?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
How
Who + V(s) or (es) +…………………………………?

For examples:

44. Mr John gets up at six o’clock every morning.
Who gets up at six o’clock every morning?

45. They live In London.
Where do they live?

46. I eat my dinner at restaurant every weekend.
Where do you eat dinner every weekend?

Nominal Sentence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I</th>
<th>you/they/we</th>
<th>are</th>
<th>She/he/it</th>
<th>is</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>am</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+ complement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>complement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>are + not</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>complement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is + not</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>complement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>you/they/we</td>
<td>She/he/it</td>
<td>+ complement?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For examples:

47. They are beautiful secretaries. (+)
   They are not beautiful secretaries. (-)
   Are they beautiful secretaries?

48. He is rich. (+)
   He is not rich (-)
   Is he rich?

49. The teacher is at office. (+)
   The teacher is at office. (-)
   Is the teacher at office?

2.3.2 Present Continuous Tense/ Present Progressive Tense

Azar (1993:11) says that present progressive expresses an activity that is in progress at the moment speaking. It began in the recent past, is continuing at present, and will probably end at some point in the future.

<p>| I | am | You/ they/we | are | V– ing |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>She/he/it</th>
<th>is</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You/ they/we</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She/he/it</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Am</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For examples:

50. They are waiting for us at the bus station now. (+)
    They are not waiting for us at the bus station now. (-)
    Are they waiting for us at the bus station now?

51. He is speaking in the class now. (+)
    He is not speaking in the class now. (-)
    Is he speaking in the class now?

52. It is barking now. (+)
    It is not barking now. (-)
    Is it barking now?

Dokme (2003:157) says that there are some usages of Present Continuous Tense, they are:

a. Present Continuous Tense describes actions that happening at the moment of speaking.

For examples:

53. Shhh, the baby is sleeping.

54. Listen, the telephone is ringing.

b. The Present Continuous tense describes a fixed arrangement in the near future

For examples:

55. Indonesia is playing against Uruguay next week.

56. We are flying to Chicago tomorrow.

- **Time expression**

- Certain time expressions signal the Present Continuous Tense. These time expression include *now, just now, right now, at this moment, for the time being, and at present.*
57. The plane is landing at this moment.
58. They are staying at a hotel for the time being.
   
   o To describe a fixed arrangement in the near future we may use, tomorrow, next week, tonight, and the like.
   
   For examples:
59. Our class is watching a good film tonight.
60. Schools are closing next month.

- **Spelling rules**

a. To form the Present Continuous of most verbs we simply add –ing.
   
   dream           dreaming
   read             reading

b. If the verb ends in –ie, replace –ie with –y and add –ing.
   
   Die             dying
   Lie             lying

c. If the verb end in a consonant +e drop –e and add -ing
   
   Drive           driving
   Write           writing

   d. If the verb has only one syllable, and if it ends in a consonant and has only one vowel, double the consonant and add –ing
   
   cut              cutting
   get              getting

   Do not double w, x, and y
   
   cry              crying
   snow             snowing
**Question Words**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronoun</th>
<th>Question Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What</td>
<td>am + I + V-ing +………?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where</td>
<td>are + you / they / we + V-ing +………?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why</td>
<td>is +she/he/it + V-ing +………?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For examples:

61. **My father** is driving the car.
   Who is driving the car?
62. Timmy is drinking **milk**.
   What is Timmy drinking?
63. The baby is crying **because she is hungry**.
   Why is the baby crying?

### 2.3.3 Simple Past Tense

Azar (1993:24) says that Simple Past Tense indicates an activity or situation began and ended at a particular time in the past.

Pyle (1991:59) states that the simple past tense is used for a completed action that happened at one specific time in the past.

**Verbal Sentence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb Form</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I/You/They/We</td>
<td>+ Past Tense</td>
<td>+………</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She/He/It</td>
<td></td>
<td>did not + infinitive +……</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I/you / They/ We</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>did not + infinitive +……</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She/He/it</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For examples:

64. She saw a good film last night. (+)
    She did not see a good film last night. (-)
Did she see a good film last night?

65. Chey came here yesterday. (+)
Chey did not come here yesterday. (-)
Did they come here yesterday?
66. He went to Bali last week. (+)
He did not go to Bali yesterday. (-)
Did he go to Bali yesterday?

**Spelling Rules**

**A. Regular verbs**

The simple past Tense of the most verbs is formed by adding *–ed* the base form.

Walk-walked  
start-started

Climb-climbed  
pick-picked

However, special rules apply to certain verbs.

a. If the verb ends in *a consonant + -e* we add *–d.*

bake-baked  
smile-smiled

excuse-excused  
guide-guided

b. If the verb ends in *a vowel + a consonant,* we double the consonant and add *–ed.*

prefer-preferred  
admite-admitted

stop-stopped  
rub-rubbed

We do not double the consonant if:

a. The consonant is *x* or *w.*

fix – fixed  
snow-snowed

b. The verb is two syllable verb and the stress is on the first syllable.

listen - listened  
visit- visited

answer – answered

c. If the verb ends in *two vowels + one consonant,* we add *–ed* and do not double the consonant.
Seem – seemed  look- looked  rain- rained

d. If the verb ends in *a consonant +−y*, we change −y to −i and add −ed.
    cry-cried  study-studied  cry-cried

e. If the verb ends in *a vowel +−y*, we do not change −y and add −ed.
    play – played  enjoy-enjoyed

f. If the verb ends in *two consonants*, we do not double the *final consonant* and add −e.
    finish – finished  count- counted
    help-helped  walk – walked

B. Irregular Verbs

Some verbs do not have −ed forms. They have special irregular past tense forms. Some common irregular verbs are listed below.

Break-broke  do- did  cut-cut  get-got
Go-went  meet-met  keep-kept  run-ran
Come-came  eat-ate  see-saw  sit-sat
Have-had  read-read  stand-stood  write-wrote

Dokme (2003:157) says that there are some usages of simple past tense, they are:

a. We use the Simple past tense when we want to talk about an event that occurred at a particular time in the past.

For Examples:

67. Idea went to England last Sunday.
68. Shakespeare wrote his famous plays.

There are some time expressions that signal in the Simple Past Tense. *Yesterday, last* and *ago* are the most commonly used.

yesterday
last____ (last night, last week, last month, etc)

______ ago (ten minutes ago, some days ago, six weeks ago, etc)

b. We can use the time expression either at the beginning or the end of a sentence.

For examples:

69. Two days ago, Jeff took his friend out for dinner at a nice restaurant.

70. I met my teacher last Sunday. We were both at a music store.

c. We can use today, this morning, this evening, and this month. When they mean before now.

For example:

71. I called my mom this evening. Note (It is 10 pm. Now. I called at 8 pm)

- **Question Words**

| What | Where
|------|------|
| When | + did + I/You/They/we + infinitive +………..?
| Why | she/he/it
| How |

| Who | Past Tense +…………………………………….

For examples:

72. He arrived **yesterday**.
   When did he arrive?

73. She went to school **by bus**.
   How did she go to school?

74. Mira answered the questions.
   Who answered the questions?

- **Nominal Sentence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I You/they/we</th>
<th>She/he/it</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>was</td>
<td>was</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>were</td>
<td>+ complement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I you/they/we</th>
<th>She/he/it</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>was</td>
<td>was</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>were + not</td>
<td>+ complement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Was I
Were you/they/we complement…? +
Was she / he/it

For examples:

75. They are good teachers. (+)  
They were not good teachers. (-)  
Were they good teachers?
76. The house was expensive. (+)  
The house was not expensive. (-)  
Was the house expensive?
77. She was at home. (+)  
She was not at home. (-)  
Was she at home?

2.3.4 Past Continuous Tense/Past Progressive Tense

Werner (2007:26) says that the past continuous tense describes action in progress in the past. Furthermore, he says that this tense is often used to “set the scene” in speaking or in writing by telling what was happening what people were doing, wearing, and so on, at a given time in the past. The “given time” may be in the recent past or it may be in the more distant past, in either case, the time is normally specified.

| I | You/ they/we | was |
| She / he /he/ it | + | were + Verb-ing +………………… |
| I | You/ they/we | was |
| She / he /he/ it | + | were + not +Verb-ing +………………… |
| Was | I | was |
| Were | you/ they/we + Verb-ing……. ? |
| Was | she / he /he/ it |

For Examples:

78. He was playing the guitar. (+)  
He was not playing guitar. (-)  
Was he playing the guitar?
Dokme(2003:157) says that there are some usages of simple past tense, they are:

a. We use the Past Continuous Tense for actions which were progress when something else happened. 
   For examples:
   81. When the alarm clock rang, I was dreaming.
   82. You were eating lunch when your friend called.

b. We use past Continuous Tense for temporary actions which continued for some time in the past. 
   For examples:
   83. I was reading at 10 o’clock last night.
   84. They were playing tennis this morning.

c. We use the Past Continuous Tense for actions which were in progress at the same time. 
   For examples:
   85. While we were having an exam, they were making a lot of noise outside
   86. While she was cooking, she was listening to the radio.

We can change the order of clauses if the conjunction is between the clauses.

We do not need a comma, but if it is at the beginning we use comma (,) 

For examples:

87. They were cleaning the windows while we were vacuuming the floor.
88. While we were vacuuming the floor, they were cleaning the windows.

- **Question Words**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Formulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What</td>
<td>+ was + I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where</td>
<td>+ were + you/they/we + Verb-ing +……?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When</td>
<td>+ was + she/he/it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why</td>
<td>+ was + she/he/it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For examples:

89. **He** was playing the piano when you came in  
   Who was playing the piano when I come in?

90. **We were diving** in the beach  
   Where were we diving?

91. The children were laughing **because they were watching a cartoon on TV**  
   Why were the children laughing?

### 2.3.5 Simple Present Future Tense

Werner (2007:17) says that the simple future tense and *be going to* are used for several specific meanings. She explains that *will* is often used to express the future in written. In spoken English, it is frequently used with predictions, promises, offers, and requests, while *be going to* is also used in conversational English. It often involves actions that have been planned before the moment of speaking. Both *will* and *be going to* are followed by the simple form of a verb.

- **The Future** - *will*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Formulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I/ you/they/we</td>
<td>will + infinitive+………</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She/he/it</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I/ you/they/we</td>
<td>will + not + infinitive+………</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She/he/it</td>
<td>will + not + infinitive+………</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I / you / they / we + infinitive

Will

She / he / it + infinitive

+ ....... ?

For examples:

92. She will go to hospital tonight. (+)
   She will not go to hospital tonight. (-)
   Will she go to hospital tonight?

93. They will see him tomorrow. (+)
   They will not see him tomorrow. (-)
   Will they see him tomorrow?

94. You will come to my party next week. (+)
   You will not come to my party next week. (+)
   Will you come to my party next week?

The short form will is ‘ll and the short form of will not is won’t

Dokme (2003:157) says that there are some usages of Future will; they are:

a. We use will to state a prediction or opinion about something in the future. We use verbs such as think, hope, believe, know, be sure, etc., in the sentence with will.

   For examples:

   95. I don’t think it will rain this afternoon.

   96. We probably won’t go tomorrow.

b. We use will for actions which the speaker decides to do at the moment of speaking.

   For example:

   97. A: answer the phone, Henry!

   B: Okay, mom, I’ll get it.

c. We use will for promises.

   For Examples:

   98. I’ll never tell a lie again.

   99. I’ll tidy it after dinner.

- Question Words
What + will + I / you/ they / infinitive+………….. ?
Where + will + I / you/ they / infinitive+………….. ?
When + will + she/he/it + infinitive +………….. ?
Why + will + she/he/it + infinitive +………….. ?
How + will + she/he/it + infinitive +………….. ?
Who + will + she/he/it + infinitive +………….. ?

For examples:

100. My parents will go to Japan next month.
   Where will your parents go next month?
101. Sarah will help you to answer the questions.
   Who will help me to answer the questions?
102. I think we will have our final semester in next January.
   When will we have our final semester?

Nominal Sentence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I/ you/they/we</th>
<th>will + be + complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She/he/it</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I/ you/they/we</th>
<th>will + not + be + complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She/he/it</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Will</th>
<th>I / you/ they/we +be +complement?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She/he/it</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For examples:

103. They will be here. (+)
    They will not be here. (-)
    Will they be here?
104. It will be funny. (+)
    It will not be funny. (-)
    Will it be funny?
105. I will be a good lecturer. (+)
    I will not be a good lecturer. (-)
    Will I be a good lecturer?

➢ The Future – Be Going To

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I</th>
<th>am</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>you/they/we</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She/he/it</td>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this/they/we</td>
<td>are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She/he/it</td>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Am</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>are</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is</td>
<td>she/he/it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For examples:

106. I am going to go by car. (+)
    I am not going to go by car. (-)
    Am I not going to go by car?

107. It is going to fall. (+)
    It is not going to fall. (-)
    Is it going to fall?

108. They are going to come here.
    They are not going to come here.
    Are they going to come here?

Hewings (1999:24) says that there are some usages of Future – Be Going To, they are:

a. We use be going to for making report predictions about activities or events over which we have no control (we can’t arrange these):

   For examples:

   109. It is going to rain.

   110. Scientists say that the satellite is going to fall.

b. We use be going to talk about future activities and events that are intended of have already been arranged:

   For Examples:

   111. We are going to do some climbing in the Pyrenees

   112. I’m tired. I’m not going to work any more tonight.

**Question words**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What</th>
<th>+ am + I + going to+ infinitive</th>
<th>…………………….?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Where</td>
<td>+ are + you/ they / we. + going to + infinitive</td>
<td>………..?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Nominal Sentence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I</th>
<th>You/they/we</th>
<th>She/he/it</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>am</td>
<td>are</td>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+going to+be+complement</td>
<td>+going to+be+complement</td>
<td>+going to+be+complement</td>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>You/they/we</td>
<td>she/he/it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+going to+be+complement…..?</td>
<td>+going to+be+complement…..?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For examples:

113. I am going to be a doctor.(+)
    I am not going to be a doctor. (-)
    Am I going to be a doctor?

114. They are going to be here. (+)
    They are not going to be here. (-)
    Are they going to be here?

115. She is going to be a singer. (+)
    She is going to be a singer. (-)
    Is she going to be a singer?