CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.1 Background to the Study

The English language has become an international medium of communication among people on earth. The mastery of good English is deemed necessary for bringing a lot of advantages in many ways. This international language is not only used for communication purposes but also in the fields of technology, commerce, education and many other aspects of life. The English language has its own grammar structures which have to be followed in order to understand how it is spoken and written fully. As Pollock puts it, the problem arises when someone comes to understand and learn English without having the basics been taught before, or translating his own language into English, to start a conversation (Pollock 365-424). One of such basics is the expression of temporality.

Students learning a foreign language meet with many kinds of learning problems dealing with its sound system, vocabulary, structure, etc. In the EFL (English as a foreign language) context, knowledge of grammar, particularly tense, is considered to be the most crucial and difficult part for non-native learners to master properly. The errors committed by the learners also indicate what the second language learners do not master and what they have internalized of the interlanguage grammar. Linguists try to find out the causes of the problems and methods to be applied in language teaching, to minimize the problems. They propose contrastive analysis, error analysis and interlanguage theory as means of tackling learners' problems. A key finding of error analysis is that many learner errors are produced by learners making faulty inferences about the rules of the

new language. Richards distinguishes two types of errors, they are interlanguage errors and intralanguage errors. Interlanguage errors are those that are caused by the interference of learners' mother tongue (native language). Whereas, intralingual errors are those that reflect the learners' competence at a particular stage, and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition (173). These intralingual errors can be said to derive from some factors which Richards subdivided into four categories: Overgeneralization, Ignorance of rule restriction, Incomplete application of rule and False concepts hypothesized.

Overgeneralization: According to Jacobvist quoted in Richards (174), overgeneralization or transfer is the use of previously availabe 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 covers instances where the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in the target language. Based on the above statement, one can say that the cause of error in this case is not the influence of the mother tongue alone, but the influence of the target language which they have already learnt for example: "He runs <u>fastly</u>". In this sentence, the learner produces an error because he/she generalizes that adverbs of manner must always be formed by adding 'ly' to the adjectives.

Ignorance of the Rule Restriction: This kind of error is closely related to overgeneralization. The learners fail to observe the restrictions of certain structures. They apply a rule in the context of the sentence where actually it is not necessary. E.g., 'The man whom I saw him yesterday'. The student does not know that it is impossible to mention the person referred to by the relative pronoun and by another pronoun as well.

Incomplete Application of Rules: This means that the learners apply a rule in the context of a sentence, although the rule is not yet complete. The student may use a statement for a question by adding a question mark at the end of the sentence. For example, 'He goes to school?'

False Concepts Hypothesized: False concepts hypothesized refer to faulty rule learning at various levels. There is a class of interlingual errors which derive from faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language. These are sometimes due to poor gradation of teaching items. Some students get confused and cannot differentiate between 'go and come', 'bring and take', 'too and very', etc. They use the present tense instead of the present continuous tense or the other way round. This might be caused by the learners not paying much attention to the difference between items. They consider 'too and very' the same as well as 'go and come'. Igbo second language learners (SLL) of English make faulty inferences about the rules of the English grammar as regards the expression of time (tense and aspect).

The study of temporality in the second language is important because it is a source of L2 learners' errors. Importance and difficulties related to the English tense-aspect system are reported to exist in several countries. In other words, the significance of the problems associated with the learning of the tense is universally pervasive throughout the world (Zengin 2). From the very first studies on the acquisition of tenses, Reyes's and Bhardway et al (eds), observed that the influence of the mother tongue in the acquisition of L2 tense meanings has always been acknowledged. Reyes found that Tagalog speakers reinterpret L2 English tense and aspect systems according to the systems in their own language (In Villanueva, 159). These learners tend to confuse three groups of English tenses: the present perfect and the past perfect, the future and the conditional and the present continuous and the past continuous. This is so because these pairs are not differentiated in Tagalog. They are also not differentiated in Igbo language.

When we talk about situations, we distinguish them in the past or present. Events also differ in their structures as ongoing or completed. Different languages rely on different means to express these basic concepts about time. The learners transfer the characteristics of the L1 into the learning of the English language. Lado, for instance, proposed that Second Language Learner rely almost entirely on their native language in the process of learning the target language (In Powel 1). The researcher is of the same view with Lado in that second language learners already have an idea of time in their L1 and, consequently, they have to acquire a new set of relationships between forms and functions when learning L2. This idea appears in Bhardwaj et al (eds.) who state that

> Our learners acquire a structured repertoire underlying their native language which is a system that generates their utterances within particular contexts. The temporal dimension of the reality they wish to refer to is symbolized to a great extent by the systems they have at their disposal at the time of speaking (84).

However, the studies which have been briefly reviewed above, show that this work also deals with the influence of the mother tongue in the acquisition and use of tense and aspect meanings. The focus is on Igbo as L1 and English as a second language. It is hypothesized that the different relationship between form and meaning in Igbo, on the one hand, and English, on the other, may lead learners to apply the patterning in L 1 tenses and aspects to L2 tenses and aspect and thus use the English present perfect in those contexts where a simple past should be used.

Nemser argued that what gives rise to interlanguage (IL) is that learners sometimes made the first (L1) or second language (L2) categories equivalent and sometimes they did not. At times, the learner falls back on structures or patterns from the L1 in order to get a message across. This may

lead to transfer which may be positive or negative (116). 'Transfer' is also used by educational psychologists to refer to the use of past knowledge and experience in a new situation, e.g. a literate SLL does not have to learn that written symbols represent the spoken form of the new language. So the learner knowing that written symbols represent his native language will also know that written symbols represent the target language. Similarly, concept such as deixis are already acquired when a learner comes to learn a second language and could be transferred to the target language. The transfer errors will reflect the equivalent structures of the L1. Thus, for example, an Igbo learner of English will reproduce structures like the one below:

O/Ha jere ahia unyahu.   He *go to market yesterday.

O na-amu akwukwo ya kwa ubochi   He is studying his books every day.

Last year, my family *go to America (went).

Many people *come to my birthday party last week (came).

Referring to the examples, it is interpreted that these were the result of interference of L1 because in English, verbs are inflected according to time (tenses). These erroneous sentences are as a result of overgeneralization of the tense rules. Error in language learning and knowledge of grammar has become one of the most important aspects that indicate development of second language (L2) learners' Interlanguage (ILG) system (Lightbown and Spada 45). Corder has argued that errors are considered to be the features of the learner's utterances which are in one way or another different from those of the native speakers (260). He further states that the learners of a target language are not aware of their errors and thus are unable to correct these errors themselves. The process by which these errors are encountered, computed and analyzed is called Error Analysis. Richards

(cited in Tomlinson 96) has contended that Error Analysis includes the study and analysis of the errors made by the learners of a second or a foreign language.

The implication of this view is that errors are a permanent feature in the L2 classroom. Richards et al. define an error in language as follows:

> (In speech or writing of a second or foreign language learner) the use of a linguistic item (e.g. a word, a grammatical item, a SPEECH ACT, etc.) in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning. A distinction is sometimes made between an error, which results from incomplete knowledge and a mistake made by a learner when writing or speaking and which is caused by lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness or some other aspect of PERFORMANCE... (127).

Van Els et al have this to say about the occurrence of errors in L2 acquisition: " Like sin, error is to be avoided and its influence overcome, but its presence is to be expected"(262) .Students, however, continue to make the same errors which seem to be impervious to treatment and correction. Numerous and varied views have been given to account for why many learners do not master the rules and features of English L2. The reappearance of errors, even after treatment in a classroom situation, continues to mystify language teachers and researchers. The process in which incorrect linguistic features (errors) become a permanent part of the way in which a person uses language is called fossilisation.

According to Nakuma, fossilisation is a "term used to denote what appears to be a state of permanent failure on the part of an L2 leaner to acquire a given feature of the target language"

(247). Nakuma further explains that fossilisation indicates the recurrence during L2 performance of a form that is not only "deviant" from the correct target language form, but also believed to be "unchangeable" to the correct form, no matter the degree of exposure to the target language.

Analyzing the errors made by the learners is the best way to show the true proficiency level of the target language at a particular point in time. Grammatical structure does not only have a morphosyntactic form but also it deals with questions of how is it formed? (Accuracy) It is also used to express meaning (semantics) to answer question of what does it mean? (Meaningfulness) and in context-appropriate use to answer questions of when/why is it used? (appropriateness). These three dimensions are often called form, meaning and use. They are interrelated where a change in one will involve a change in another.

In the English language classroom, priority is given to the communicative language teaching and learning approach, which entails developing the ability of learners to communicate by using the language. Communicative competence, which entails discourse, grammatical, strategic and socio-linguistic competence, is also emphasized. English teachers are also required to integrate teaching by combining the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Communicative language teaching also requires language teachers to use skills which students already possess. The focus is on starting from where pupils are rather than from an idealistic notion of where they ought to be.

The purpose of this work is not to look at the whole Igbo speakers of English interlanguage but rather to take the issue of temporality as expressed in the English language and how it constitutes problems to learners of English as a second language. As a matter of fact, acquisition of tense and aspect systems has been the focus of many descriptive and pedagogical accounts of language and has always occupied an important place in the curricula of many language programmes (Bardovi-Harlig 356). In order to correctly express temporal references in English, a learner must at least

have a good command of: (1) the English tense and aspect systems; (2) the interaction of grammatical aspect and inherent lexical aspect; (3) the establishment of temporal relations of events on the discourse level (Bardovi- Harlig 260).

1.2 Statement of the Problem:

Many L2 students find it extremely difficult to express themselves in grammatically correct English. The occurrence of errors in the English of L2 students seems inevitable. The underlying problem is that the English tense and aspect system cannot entirely be acquired by Igbo learners of English. It poses a major problem to them. They produce written language which is riddled with tense and aspect errors that appear to be prevalent and persistent. So they have to reset the parameter of expressing time and process information on temporal reference cognitively on the basis of their preexisting linguistic knowledge. Indeed, research in English L2 corroborates this view. Finn states that a common failing among Vista students is the incorrect use of the continuous present tense and the incorrect sequencing of different tenses in a single sentence (3).

It is common place that learners of English as a second language use tense and aspect inappropriately. There is, therefore the need to proffer solutions to these pitfalls in the use of the language.

1.3 Purpose of the study: The specific objectives of the study include

To examine the different ways of expressing temporality in English language

To ascertain students errors in the expression of temporality in English language

To determine the grammatical errors in the use of tense and aspect by ESL learners in a given test

To evaluate the relationship/differences between the GJT scores of students in the urban and rural schools

To evaluate the relationship/differences between the EWPT scores of students in the urban and rural schools

1.4 Scope and Delimitation of the Study:

The study was delimited to SS3 students of randomly selected 10 secondary schools in Awka educational zone. The focus is Igbo as L1 and English as a second language. It is hypothesized that the different relationship between form and meaning in Igbo, on the one hand, and English, on the other hand, may lead learners to apply the patterning in L1 tenses and aspects to L2 tenses and aspects and thus use the English present perfect on those contexts where the simple past should be used.

1.5 Significance of the Study:

The study will enable researchers in ESL to appreciate the challenges encountered by students in the expression of temporality. The result of the study will assist the English language teachers in designing appropriate and effective lesson plans. The study will improve the grammatical expression of language learners. It will sensitize curriculum planners towards a possible re-design of English language curriculum to mitigate errors in grammatical expression and satisfy the actual academic needs of the students. Scholars in ESL will find it useful in enhancing already existing curriculum in English   language. It will secure a strong basis for further research in relevant areas.

1.6 Research Questions:

1.   What are the different ways of expressing temporality in the English language?

2.   What are students' errors in the expression of temporality in the English language?

3.   What are the grammatical errors in the use of tense and aspect by ESL learners in a given test?

4.   What are the differences between the GJT scores of students in the urban and rural schools.

5.   What are the differences between the EWPT scores of students in the urban and rural schools.

1.7 Hypotheses

Ho_1: There are no different ways of expressing temporality in the English language

Ho_2: There are no students' errors in the expression of temporality in the English language.

Ho_3: There are no grammatical errors in the use of tense and aspect by ESL learners in a given test.

Ho_4: There are no statistically significant differences between the GJT scores of students in the urban and rural schools.

Ho5: There are no statistically significant differences between the EWPT scores of students in urban and rural schools.

1.8 Definition of terms

1.8.1 Interference - This term was used to describe any influence from the L1 which would have an effect on the acquisition of the L2. This was the origin of the term transfer, and a distinction was made between positive and negative transfer. Positive transfer occurred where there was concordance between the L1 and L2. In such a situation, acquisition would take place with little or no difficulty. Negative transfer, on the other hand, occurred where there was some sort of dissonance between the L1 and L2. In this case, acquisition of the L2 would be more difficult and take longer because of the 'newness' (hence, difficulty) of the L2 structure.

1.8.2 Transfer - The word "transfer" can be compared to "interference" which refers to the process of using elements of L1 (phonemes, vocabulary, structures, etc.) in the second language system.

1.8.3 Interlanguage

The term is coined by Selinker to refer to the systematic knowledge of a second language that is independent of both the learners' first language and the target language.

1.8.4 Telicity in English

In linguistics, **telicity** (from the Greek meaning "end" or "goal") is the property of a verb or verb phrase that presents an action or event as being complete in some sense. A verb or verb phrase with this property is said to be *telic*, while a verb or verb phrase that presents an action or event as being *incomplete* is said to be *atelic*. The telic vs. atelic contrast is determined by whether there is a well-defined endpoint inherent in the nature of the situation; an atelic predicate only indicates an arbitrary terminus. According to Garey who introduced this term, **telic** verbs are *verbs expressing*

an action tending towards a goal envisaged as realized in a perfective tense, but as contingent in an imperfective tense; **atelic** verbs, on the other hand, are *verbs which do not involve any goal nor endpoint in their semantic structure, but denote actions that are realized as soon as they begin*.

One common way to gauge whether an English verb phrase is telic is to see whether such a phrase as *in an hour*, in the sense of "within an hour", (known as a *time-frame adverbial*) can be applied to it. Conversely, a common way to gauge whether the phrase is atelic is to see whether such a phrase as *for an hour* (a *time-span adverbial*) can be applied to it. This can be called the *time-span/time-frame test*. According to this test, the verb phrase *built a house* is telic, whereas the minimally different *built houses* is atelic.

1.8.5 Aktionsart: Aktionsart is a property of (mostly verbal) predicates. It concerns the internal temporal constituency of a (type of) situation denoted by a given predicate (Bache 10). The (originally German) term **aktionsart** is approximately equivalent to the English terms lexical aspect and kind of action.

The concept of **aktionsart** has a long standing history. Its origins are often traced back to Aristotle's *Metaphysics IX*. Aristotle distinguishes between *enérgeia* (incomplete movement, process) and *kíne:sis* (complete movement, actuality), which designate the two basic types of situation found in our natural environment (Verkuyl 43). Lexical aspect and its difference from grammatical aspect has been prominently investigated in Slavonic linguistics. The linguistic term **aktionsart** was coined later in Germanic linguistics.

1.8.6 Preterite: A traditional term for the simple PAST tense of the verb (such as *climbed* in *They climbed the hill yesterday*) and for a verb in this tense. **preterite marker** Of, relating to, or being the verb tense that describes a past action or state.

1. The verb form expressing or describing a past action or condition.

2. A verb in the preterite form in Linguistics/Grammar is a tense of verb used to relate past action, formed in English by inflection of the verb, as *jumped, swam.* Common preterite markers are: yesterday, yesterday morning, last night, this morning, this afternoon,l ast week, last month(year),ago. The **preterite** (in American English also **preterit**) is a grammatical tense or verb form existing in various languages, serving to denote events that took place or were completed in the past. In general, it combines the perfective aspect (event viewed as a single whole; not to be confused with the similarly named perfect) with the past tense, and may thus also be termed the *perfective past*. In grammars of particular languages the preterite is sometimes called the *past historic*, or (particularly in the Greek grammatical tradition) the *aorist*.

The majority of English preterites (often called *simple past* or just *past tense*) are formed by adding *-ed* or *-d* to the verb's plain form (bare infinitive), sometimes with some spelling modifications. This is the result of the conjugation system of weak verbs, already in the majority in Old English, being raised to paradigmatic status and even taking over earlier conjugations of some old strong verbs. As a result, all newly introduced verbs have the weak conjugation. Examples:

- He **planted** corn and oats.
- They **studied** grammar.
- She **shoved** the Viking aside.
- I **friended** him on Facebook. (A new verb with a weak preterite.)

A number of English verbs form their preterites irregularly, a result of either Ablaut, a regular set of sound changes (to an interior vowel) in the conjugation of a strong verb, or because the verb conjugations are the remains of a more complex system of tenses in irregular verbs:

- She **went** to the cinema. (Preterite of "go"; uses a completely different verb - the Anglo-Saxon 'wendan' from which comes 'to wend'.)

- I **ate** breakfast late this morning. (Preterite of "eat".)

- He **ran** to the store. (Preterite of "run".)

With the exception of "to be" and auxiliary and modal verbs, interrogative and negative clauses do not use their main verbs' preterites; if their declarative or positive counterpart does not use any auxiliary or modal verb, then the auxiliary verb *did* (the preterite of *do*) is inserted and the main verb appears in its plain form, as an infinitive:

- **Was** she busy today?

- He **was** not there.

- **Could** she play the piano when she was ten?

- The editor **had** not read the book yet.

- **Did** he **plant** corn and oats?

- She **did** not **go** to the cinema.

- What's past is past, but in some languages what's past may be either preterite or imperfect.

- Unlike English, Spanish has two simple past tenses, known as the preterite (often called the preterit) and the imperfect indicative. (As in English, they are known as simple tenses to distinguish them from verb forms that use an auxiliary verb, such as "has left" in English and *ha salido* in Spanish.)

- Although the English simple past in a sentence such as "he ate" can be conveyed in Spanish using either the preterite (*comió*) or the imperfect indicative (*comía*), the two tenses are not interchangeable. In general, the preterite is used when speaking of completed action, that is, when the verb refers to an action that has a clear end. On the other hand, the other past tense

is known as an imperfect tense because "imperfect" can also mean "incomplete"; the imperfect indicative is used to refer to an action that doesn't have a specific ending. (At this point, it isn't important to know the meaning of "indicative," except that it contrasts with "subjunctive," a verb type that usually isn't studied by beginning students.) The Following are some more specific uses that should clarify the difference; note that the imperfect is frequently translated in ways other than the English simple past.

- **The Preterite is used:**

- **To tell of something that happened once** _ (I went to the store yesterday.) (I wrote the letter.)

- **To tell of something that happened more than once but with a specific end** — (I went to the store six times yesterday.) (He read the book five times.)

- **To indicate the beginning or end of a process** — (He got cold.) (The hurricane was over at 8.)

- **The imperfect indicative is used:**

- **To tell of past habitual or repeated actions** — (I used to go to the store.) (We would read the books.) (They would wash their hands.) (I wrote many letters.)

- **To describe a condition, mental state or state of being from the past —** (There used to be a house here.) (He was stupid.) (I didn't know you.) (He wanted to be happy.) (He was cold.)

- **To describe an action that occurred over an unspecified time** — (They were washing their hands.)(While José was playing the piano, María was eating.)

- **To indicate time or age in the past** — (It was 1 p.m.) (She was 43 years old.)

1.8.7 Relatum/Theme: a term in a proposition that is related to the referent of the proposition whenever a temporal relation is expressed, be it by a grammaticalised category such as tense or aspect or by lexical means such as temporal adverbials, then there is typically a functional asymmetry between the two time spans involved. One of the time spans called here the 'relatum' is supposed to be given, and the other one, the 'theme', is then temporally related to this relatum.

1.8.8 Relation between tense, aspect and aktionsart

Aktionsart is to be distinguished from <u>aspect</u> (more precisely, <u>grammatical aspect</u>), even though the difference between the two concepts is non-trivial (Tôbîn 3). <u>Grammatical aspect</u> concerns the viewpoint from which a situation is viewed. **Aktionsart**, by contrast, relates to the inherent temporal structure of a situation as determined by the predicate and the context. The category of tense describes the temporal situation of an action relative to the moment of utterance or some other temporal point of orientation. The three basic verbal concepts of tense, aspect and **aktionsart** are closely interrelated. For example, the progressive aspect is distributionally restricted to predicates with specific kinds of aktionsart.

1.8.9 Classification (types of situations)

The most influential classification of aktionsarten to date has been provided by Vendler,

 "the quadripartition at the lexical level". He distinguishes four types of possible situations: <u>states</u>, <u>achievements</u>, <u>activities</u> and <u>accomplishments</u>. <u>Achievements</u>, <u>activities</u> and <u>accomplishments</u> can be subsumed under the term <u>occurrence</u>. (57)

1.8.10Aktionsart and temporal adverbials

The different types of situation can only combine specific temporal adverbials. Activities are often accompanied by a *for*-adverbial, which denotes an atelic duration over a longer stretch of time. Borik (23)

- *He slept for ten hours.*

Accomplishments are typically used with a (telic) *in*-adverbials. In the following example, a time span and a related terminal point is given which specifies the instant when the reading of the book was finished.

- *I read the book in an hour.*

Achievements are mostly modified by definite, punctual time adverbials of the type *at x o'clock.*

- *I found my keys at seven o'clock in the afternoon.*

The construction *It took him five hours to paint the picture* can only co-occur with accomplishments, since it only allows a durative and telic interpretation.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of Relevant Literature

The literature will be reviewed under the following headings:

1.   Conceptual Literature

- Expression of Temporality

- The Difference between Verb Tense and Time Reference

- Perspectives of Temporality (Tense, Aspect and Lexical Means of Showing Temporality)

- Uses of the Tenses and Aspects

- The interaction between discourse and utterance organization of time

- The Igbo Tense and Aspect System

- Similarities and Differences between Tense and Aspect in English and Igbo L1

- Inter-language and Fossilization: A Literature Survey

- Influence of the Mother Tongue

2.   Theoretical Framework

- The Functional Theory of Language

- The Aspect hypothesis

- Empirical Studies

- Summary

2.1 Conceptual Framework

2.1.1 Expression of Temporality

(A) What is Temporality?

One essential aspect of time is that it flows in one single direction. It points from past to present and to the future, like an arrow Coveney and Highfield(85) .We may yearn to turn back the clock, to undo mistakes or to relive a wonderful moment but time cannot run backwards as Victor Hugo expresses it so well. "O souvenirs!trêsor dans l'ombre accru!Sombre horizon des anciennes pensêes!Chêre luer des choses êclipsêes!Rayonnement du passé disparu!" qtd in Coveney and Highfield(64)

This non-reversibility of time makes time a major source of hope (time will heal all wounds) but also of fear. In our culture, time is often regarded as a scarce and therefore valuable resource, to be "saved" or at least not to be "wasted". We often see our problems as resulting from not having enough time, we face deadlines and time limits. Time becomes a source of much of our anxiety. Compare time with space. Space surrounds us, yet time is experienced bit by bit. The distinction between left and right is trivial compared to the distinction between past and future. We can shuffle around freely in space, yet, by our actions we can only affect the future, not the past. We have memory, not precognition . So it seems that although space has no pre-determined directional characteristics, time does. Uni_directionality seems to be the common denominator of all types of temporal expression in all types of languages.

Therefore, the expression of temporality is a central conceptual domain of language and it is language universal, whereas the means of expressing temporality are language specific. When we

talk about situations, we distinguish them in the past, present, and future. Events also differ in their structures as ongoing or completed. Psychologically, time is a crucial concept of humans, since everything we experience is in some way related to time, even though we often do not perceive time intentionally. We measure everything we do in temporal units, such as *years, months, days, hours, minutes, seconds*, etc. and additionally in quantities *3 days, 5 minutes, 10 years*, etc. But the perception of a certain phase of time depends on a reference point in time, i.e. to say something happened in the past, requires a definition in the present moment without which no past would exist. Hence the present moment is needed as a reference point to communicate temporal relationships and to separate the past from the future. Moreover, time is perceived as being directed into the future, therefore humans focus on forthcoming future time in everything they do, taking into consideration that their actions have consequences, and once the moment in which something was done becomes history, time cannot be reversed to make corrections.

Different languages rely on different resources for temporal references, but they all have the means to express these basic concepts about time. Hence the acquisition of a second language always involves the acquisition of different linguistic means to express time. Bardovi-Harlig claims that "the expression of temporality exhibits a sequence from pragmatic to lexical to grammatical devices" and that this "acquisitional sequence is probably universal and independent of the languages involved" (25).

Tense and Temporality

In language, the structures of tense and temporality should not be confused. Temporality is that part of a message concerned with when the action will take or has taken or may take place, whether it is complete, and whether it represents a single action or a series of actions.For Comrie, tense on the other hand, is grammaticalised expression of location in time(12). Tense is the

linguistic mechanism whereby an action can be allocated to a position in time relative to the present. Temporality also encompasses aspect, which is concerned with effects like perfective/imperfective temporality – the difference between *I watched the game* and *I was watching the game*. Comrie distinguishes aspect from tense. However, although both aspect and tense are concerned with time, they are concerned with time in very different ways. As noted above, tense is a deictic category, i.e. locates situations in time, usually with reference to the present moment, though also with reference to other situations. Aspect is not concerned with relating the time of the situation to any other time-point, but rather with the internal temporal constituency of the situation; one could state the difference as one between situation-internal time (aspect) and situation-external time (tense) (13).

Temporality, Modality and Conditionality

Temporality also includes mood and conditionality, the ability to place an event not just in time but in a universe of possibility. Mood is the ability to express uncertainty by the use of inflection: a tense or group of tenses (for example, the subjunctive) expresses the binary difference between the evidentially real and the proposed unreal (often called the *realis/irrealis* contrast). Conditionality is the ability to express uncertainty by using verbal adjuncts. These tend to be more flexible and capable of expressing a larger set of uncertainties than inflections, so they do not form a single binary relationship with *realis*.

While there is a large, but finite, range of terms for expressing conditionality (*would, could, may, might, should*, and so on) we nonetheless tend to see conditionality as a continuum rather than a set of discrete points. This is illustrated by a recent grammaticalization, whereby *may* and *might* have ceased to be inflections of the same verb and have become verbs in their own right: *might* now expresses a less certain event than *may*. As well as the auxiliary verbs, there are a series of

adverbials (*certainly, probably, maybe, possibly, not, never*, and so on), which can be used in conjunction with the auxiliaries; and there are also several idioms (e.g. *in the unlikely event that*). English provides a good example of an extensive conditional linguistic system: verbal auxiliaries are supplemented by a range of adverbials to form a rich probability space.(Comrie 14) By combining these together a quite complex expression of conditionality metamessaging can be generated: *it is possible that I could maybe get there by eight o'clock*. The iterative conditional nature of this construct offers uncertainty in its very iteration, but it also gives the pragmatic metamessages *don't expect me at eight o'clock* and *it's not my fault if I don't get there by eight o'clock*.

The traditional view of time in language is that we can express events on two vectors. The first extends from the past into the future, and the second extends from positive certainty, through a range of probabilities, to negative certainty. The two vectors interact, such that certainty is greatest in the present, and attenuates further into the past or future an event is placed. The distance from the present has a direct relationship with the level of modality, or conditionality.

Conditionality is concerned with what can be expressed in language to place events onto the second vector of probability, within the first vector of time. Pinker sees the human understanding of temporality as a metaphor of our spatial understanding.(18) But this would seem to be somewhat of a simplification: there is something novel about time that is not present in spatial modelling, and that is conditionality. With conditionality we get planning, what Donald calls ―the rehearsal and review of action. (19) It is difficult to see how an analogy of space could permit such a novel possibility: a model of space is useful for finding out what is, the *realis* of the world, and there would seem to be little purpose in finding out what isn't; a model of time is useful for planning what isn't, the *irrealis* of the world, in order to bring it about.

Conditionality occurs between now and the action point, but only if the viewpoint is in the present. For instance, *I may have eaten* and *I might eat* are permissible English forms. However, *I may had eaten* is just wrong, while *perhaps I was going to eat*, *perhaps I will have eaten* and *perhaps I will be going to eat* add uncertainty but not, strictly, conditionality. Events in the future of the viewpoint already have the uncertainty that the future is unknown, and adding an adverbial – *perhaps, maybe, it is likely that* – only increases the uncertainty, it does not change certainty to conditionality. Indeed, the replacement of *will* with *may* illustrates the problem particularly well. *I may have eaten* does not express the same temporality as *I will have eaten*: while *will* expresses a viewpoint in the future, *may* causes the viewpoint to elide into the present. It seems as if conditionality moves the viewpoint through irreality and not through time. If this is the case, then conditionality is indeed a second dimension working with the unidimensional timeline.

Unlike the rest of temporality, connectivity is not an expression of temporality *within* a language construct, it expresses temporality *between* constructs. It is the feature that facilitates the never-ending discourse of language, and lies behind Alexander Pope's ―nothing stands alone (31). Connective temporality comes in three forms:

➢ Some connectives carry low levels of temporality. For instance, *I went to the cinema and saw a film*: we know that one event happened after the other and, contextually, we can work out that going to the cinema comes before seeing the film; but we also know that this is not given, only a reasonable assumption.

➢ Some connectives carry oblique levels of temporality. For instance, *I went to the cinema because I wanted to see a film*: once again, we know the order of events, the cinema must precede the film; but the first event is causative of the second – if the first happens the second nee d not happen, but if the first does not happen the second cannot happen.

➤ Some connectives carry high levels of temporality. For instance, *I went to the cinema before I saw the film*: the ordering of the two events is explicit and subject to only one interpretation.

Connectives allow utterances to place events into a structured temporal relationship, which is at the heart of the human ability to tell stories. This is no small side-effect of language, it is at the heart of it. Every time we plan we are telling ourselves a little story, extrapolating existing circumstances through a network of possibilities to reach a conclusion. And if the first story does not end in happy ever after, we can try others until we get the result we want.

Generally the writer/ speaker of a language can apply lexical means to express temporality. That is, the learner may apply temporal adverbs, adjectives, substantives, prepositions, conjunctions, particles and verbs, and grammatical means, i.e. tenses, aspects, and syntactical means. Usually time is not conveyed by the use of only one of these means, but by employing several means (Dorfmuller-Karpusa, Kathi 39), and this makes the acquisition of a second language all the more difficult.

(B) Diagrammatic Representation of Properties of Time

According to Comrie, "time can diagrammatically be represented as a straight time line, on which events, processes and states" (5) are located in temporal relation to each other. Accordingly, if an event happened in the past relative to a fixed point on the time line, which might be referred to as a reference point, it would be placed left to the reference point, and if an event is to occur subsequently to the reference point, it is placed to the right of it. The concept of the time line can thus be seen as representing the frontal axis in the description of space. (Haspelmath 21)

The conceptualization of passing of time can be compared to movement in space (21-22). Represented in a diagrammatic manner, a time line would look the following way:
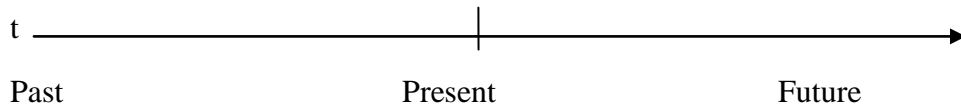
```
t  ─────────────────────────┼──────────────────────────▶
   Past                   Present                   Future
```

Figure 1: Diagrammatic representation of time as a time line

The utterance *John sang,* for example, is therefore to be placed left to the present moment to which it priorily happened.

```
   ───┼──────────────┼──────────────t▶

   John sang      now (i.e)presently
```
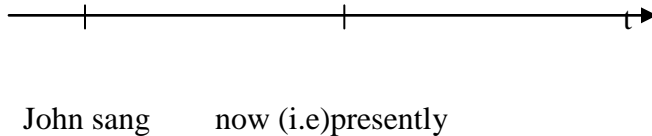
Figure 2: Diagrammatic representation of *John sang*

Nevertheless, it should be borne in mind that time is a purely mental concept of humans to make the environment measurable. Klein opens a more dramatic view on time. He says: "Time and space are the basic categories of our experience and our cognition, and without them, no well-coordinated collective action; hence no human society would be possible" (1).

The arrow of time is a unidirectional part of the space-time continuum, as verified subjectively by the observation that we can remember the past, but not the future. In this regard time is very different from the spatial dimensions, because one can obviously move back and forth spatially but time is irreversible.

Nearly a millennium before mechanical clocks were first constructed, Augustine (354-430) discussed the nature of time. His solution remains part of everyday thinking about time, also in (human) sciences. What is time? Can a hundred years be present at once?

From the span of a century, Augustine moves downwards to year, month, day and hour. "Even that one hour consists of minutes which are continuously passing. The minutes which have gone by are past and any part of the hour which remains is future." For Augustine, presence has no real duration; and the past and the future exist only in human consciousness (in memory and anticipation). Time can be measured when it is passing and we can be aware of time, but time has no real existence otherwise. Augustine equated time with its measurement.

Since its emergence in the late Middle Ages, time has been measured with the mechanical clock. After the Copernican revolution, clocks became increasingly widespread and accurate and were used to organise social practices in novel ways. In modern society where activities are co-ordinated by means of clocks, it has been easy to conceive time in terms of clock-time. However, thinking about time and present in terms of clock-time is reductionist. Only one kind of movement, that of clock's parts, is assumed to be relevant for understanding the nature of time. But why would the repetitious movements of clock's parts constitute time *per se*? Was there no time before the rise of human consciousness and emergence of clocks?

If time consisted merely of separate points that either have no duration at all or a very short duration (such as the Planck time, i.e. the time required for light to travel, in a vacuum, a distance of one Planck length, which is the basic unit of quantum mechanics), causation and processes would disappear. There is, however, a plausible alternative. From a realist perspective, linking the reality of tense, causation and processes, "now" is not a point on an abstract segment of a line, but an indefinite boundary state of a process that is happening. A number of processes may not only

occur simultaneously but coalesce and interact in various ways. The duration of the present depends on the event or context which is happening. While different presents interact, some of them may last only a few minutes, others up to millions of years.

This review will therefore look at the grammatical categories of tense and aspect as well as the use of adverbial in showing temporality.

2.1.2 The Difference between Verb Tense and Time Reference

Time and temporality are mutually related. While time is uninterrupted period, temporality is the various divisions in this uninterrupted period. Time is a mental construction to interpret change. The problem begins with the way our mind interprets the variation of things. Variation can be either transformation of objects (like growth, decay, etc.) or motion of objects from place to place. On either form we see the flow of time. It is therefore important not to confuse the name of a verb tense with the way we use it to talk about time. Tense is dependent on time not the vice versa. What is happening now, what will happen in future and what has happened in the past, all relate to time.

For example, a present tense does not always refer to present time:

- I hope it *rains* tomorrow.

"rains" is present simple, but it refers here to future time (tomorrow)

Or a *past tense* does not always refer to *past time:*

- If I **had** some money now, I could buy it.

"had" is past simple but it refers here to present time (now)

Verb Tense refers to the particular grammatical form that a verb takes , such as *simple past tense*, *future progressive tense*, and *past perfect tense*. It is a grammatical construct. Sometimes several different verb tenses can express the same time reference. For example, in the sentence "*My brother went out to play and didn't come back*", the time reference is the past, and the verb tense is simple past tense. In other words, we are using simple past tense to express the past time reference.

In the sentence "*I was walking along the road*", the time reference is the past and the verb tense is past progressive. We are using the past progressive to express a past time reference. Temporal reference refers to when the action takes place, such as past, present, or future. This is a temporal concept of how human beings look at time and reality. Also, sometimes several different time references are expressed with the same verb tense.

In the sentence "*Right now, I am studying English and Biology*", the time reference is present and the verb tense is looking at the form of the verb, present progressive.

However, in the sentence *"I am going to be more careful next time"*, the time reference is future and the verb tense is looking at the form of the verb, again present progressive!

The following examples show how different tenses can be used to talk about different times.

TENSE	TIME		
	Past	**Present**	**Future**
Present Simple		I **want** a coffee.	I **leave** tomorrow.
	She	**Likes**	coffee.
Present Continuous		I **am having** dinner.	I **am taking** my exam next month.
	They	**are** **Living** in	London.
Present Perfect Simple	I **have seen** it.	I **have finished**.	
Present Perfect Continuous	I **have been playing** tennis.		
	We **have been working** for four hours.		
Past Simple	I **finished** one hour ago.	If she **loved** you now, she would marry you.	If you **came** tomorrow, you would see her.
Past Continuous	I **was working** at 2am this morning.		
Past Perfect Simple	I **had** not **eaten** for 24		

	hours.		
Past Perfect Continuous	We **had been working** for 3 hours.	If I **had been working** now, I would have missed you.	If I **had been working** tomorrow, I could not have agreed.
Future Simple		Hold on. **I'll do** it now.	**I'll see** you tomorrow.
Future Continuous			I **will be working** at 9pm tonight.
Future Perfect Simple			I **will have finished** by 9pm tonight.
	We **will have been** married for ten years next month.		
Future Perfect Continuous			They may be tired when you arrive because they **will have been working**.
	In 30 minutes, we **will have been working** for four hours.		

Source: http://www.englishclub.com/grammar/verb-tenses_sys-tense-time.htm

2.1.3 Perspectives of Temporality

Tense and aspect are linguistic concepts that attempt to denote verbal forms in time.

The importance of a semantic perspective in the dimension of temporality was first realized by the Stoics, who noticed that tenses express not only deictic distinctions but also aspectual distinctions, that is whether the situation referred to is perfect, i.e. complete or imperfect, i.e. incomplete. The term 'aspect' is traditionally derived from a translation of the Russian term *vid* used to describe the perfective/ imperfective opposition grammaticalized in Slavonic languages. The term is extended to other grammaticalized oppositions across languages, such as the progressive/ non-progressive distinction in English.

The interaction between lexical aspect and grammatical aspect can be captured in a diagram.
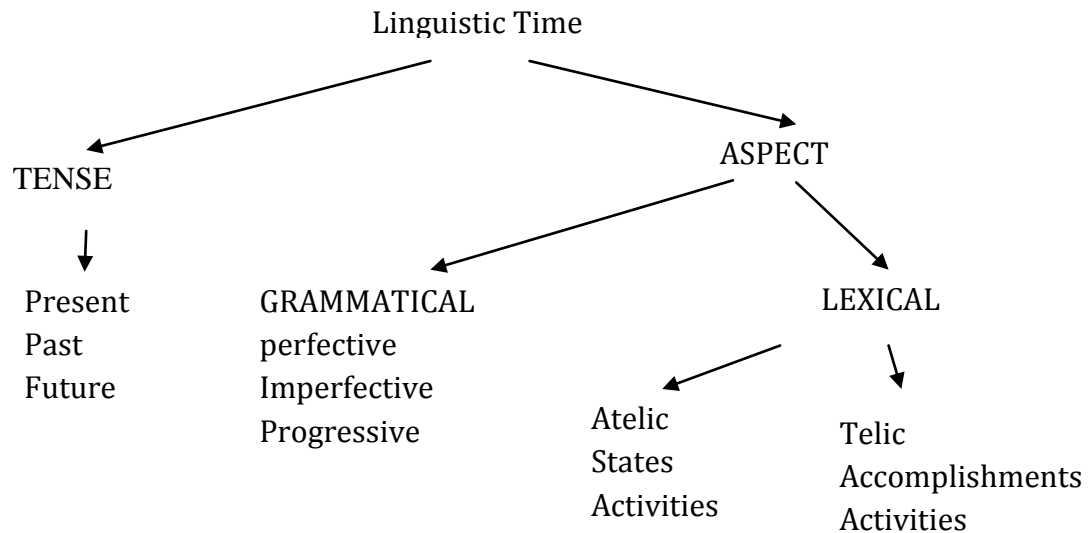
Grammatical and lexical aspects (Ayoun and Salaberry, 78)

Tense and aspect make up linguistic time. The tense of a verb could be in the present, past or future. Aspect is distinguished into two types, grammatical and lexical. Grammatical aspect includes the progressives, the perfectives and the imperfectives while the lexical aspects could be telic or atelic and is subdivided into four aspectual classes namely; states, activities, accomplishment and achievement. The most fundamental semantic properties that classify a situation are static/dynamic, telic/atelic and durative/punctual. The distinction between static and dynamic situations justifies the dichotomy between states and events, the former being static and the latter being dynamic. States represent the most basic situations, being homogeneous and requiring no energy to be sustained, as opposed to dynamic situations, which are "continually subject to a new input of energy" (Comrie 49). The opposition between states and motion is conceptually and perceptually very salient: in fact, Newton's laws of motion are based on this fundamental distinction. A situation is telic if it leads to a natural endpoint after which the situation no longer holds. If somebody is climbing a mountain, the endpoint is achieved when they reach the top. Conversely, a situation is atelic when the endpoint is not mentioned because it is irrelevant to the situation in itself. If somebody is swimming, they could do that for hours or stop at any time and it would still be true that they have swum. It was Garey (106) who introduced the terminology 'telic' and 'atelic' but Aristotle first noticed the distinction, which was labelled by Jespersen (272) as 'conclusive/ nonconclusive' and by Dahl (80), following Allen (196), as 'bounded/ nonbounded'. Similarly, the delimited/non-delimited distinction is central in Tenny's aspectual theory of syntax/semantics interface. A situation is punctual when it happens instantaneously showing no internal duration, like a roof collapsing, for example. In contrast, a durative situation takes place over a time span, like sleeping or building a house for example(78) .

(1) Use of Tense in showing temporality

A central concept in the expression of time is deixis. It relates time, place and person references of

an utterance directly to the situation in which the utterance is made. Consequently, the meaning of

such references depends on the context (Crystal 90). Deictic information of an utterance can be

made lexically, for example the personal and locational information in the sentence *I met him*

there, or it can be made grammatically as in the tense of the verb. Therefore a more complex

definition of deixis is provided by Jaszczolt:

> Deixis is the phenomenon of encoding contextual information
>
> by means of lexical items or grammatical distinctions to
>
> provide this information only when paired with this context.
>
> In other words, it means lexicalizing or grammaticalizing
>
> contextual information that is making it into obligatory
>
> grammatical or lexical distinctions (191).

Tenses are used to locate situations in time; therefore tenses are deictic categories that occur in

most sentences. Tense is not directly related to physical time rather it is a grammatical category

that expresses temporal relations (Metzler 726). Hence, in utterances like *The sun rises in the east*

the finite verb "rises" does not express a temporal relationship between the time of utterance and a

certain point of time, *rises* is therefore not deictic, it is atemporal. Utterances like *The sun rises in*

the east can be related to from any point of time and would always be true; such utterances are

called eternal truths. On the other hand, *She went to the market* shows temporal relation between

the time of utterance and a certain point of time.

Tense describes the relation of an event time to a reference time, often the speech time. It functions as the "temporal deixis" indicating time of situations: either in future, present or past. In other words, tense locates the time of an event being talked about from the time at which the speaker utters the sentence. All natural languages have ways of expressing the concept of time; what differentiates them is whether they assign more weight to grammaticalization or to lexicalization. Lexicalization refers to lexical means of expression, for example adverbials such as *a week later*, *last year*, *tomorrow*, etc. Grammaticalization refers to ways of establishing time that require obligatory expression and morphological boundness (Comrie 7). English past/non-past opposition is a clear case of a grammaticalized way to locate time, because it is obligatory even when the context (especially the adverbials) makes the time reference clear; the bound morpheme is the past tense marker (*-ed* for regular verbs) on the verbs. The set of adverbials is infinite, as people keep creating new phrases, while the set of grammaticalized forms is very limited.

It should be specified that grammaticalization is manifested on the verbs, meaning that in most languages that have tense, the tense is indicated on the verb, either by the verb morphology or by

grammatical words adjacent to the verb, as with auxiliaries. The grammaticalized means of expressing time in languages include tense and aspect. The former refers to the way one locates a situation on a time line (present, past or future) and the latter concerns the internal temporal constituency of a situation. Tense is deictic since it relates a situation to a reference point, and aspect is non-deictic.

Comrie defines tenses as "grammaticalized expressions of time" (9). The past tense is used when event time is prior to speech time; the future time is used when speech time is prior to event time; and the present is used when the two overlap with each other. Wikipedia describes tense as "a category that locates a situation in time, to indicate when the situation takes place". Wikipedia

went on to state that tense is the grammaticalisation of time reference, often using three basic categories of "before now", i.e. the past; "now", i.e. the present; and "after now", i.e. the future. The "unmarked" reference for tense is the temporal distance from the time of utterance, the "here-and-now", this being absolute tense. Tense describes the relation of an event time to a reference time, often the speech time. It functions as the "temporal deixis" indicating time of situations: either in future, present or past. In other words, tense locates the time of an event being talked about from the time at which the speaker utters the sentence. Comrie defines tense as "a deictic category that locates an event on a timeline, usually with reference to the time of speaking, and aspect as referring to the internal temporal constituency of one situation" (5).

Linguists who favor a binary approach to tense argue that the fact that tenses are grammaticalized category requiring morphological marking, implies that time references which are not morphologically marked cannot be called tenses. Accordingly, there are only two tenses, namely 'past' and 'non-past', as this is the only distinction that is reflected morphologically.

(1) He work - s.

(2) He work - ed.

Technically, there are **no** future tenses in English. The future can be referenced using forms with an auxiliary verb, particularly *shall* or *will*, and these are often called the "future tense". Future is a periphrastic (Metzler Lexikon 130) expression of time reference, i.e. future time reference is conveyed through syntactic means, i.e. separate words, to express the same grammatical relationship as inflections (Crystal 255).

The future tenses are sometimes called "modal tenses". The future time is not conveyed simply by a verb tense but that there are other words that can convey time

*I can go with you **tomorrow.***

*John isn't coming to the party **on Friday**.*

*I'll send it to you **now**.*

In the first two sentences above we have a time expression -*tomorrow, on Friday*- to express future but both verbs are present tenses; the verb in the third sentence is a future tense but we're referring to ¨right away¨, or just immediately after I've uttered this statement.

All other categories of the English tense system are constituted by a combination of one of the two above-mentioned tenses with either a modal verb, or the perfect marker 'have'. The advocates of this approach often conveniently stress the "combinatorial character" of these members by naming them:

- present perfect
- past perfect
- future perfect (König 154).

Not all languages grammaticalise tense, and those that do differ in their grammaticalisation thereof. Languages without tense are called <u>tenseless languages</u> and include <u>Burmese</u>, <u>Dyirbal</u> and <u>Chinese</u>.

English, like the other Germanic languages, Japanese, Persian, and so on, has only two morphological tenses, past and non-past (alt. *present–future*). These are distinguished by verb form, by either ablaut or suffix (sings ~ sang, walks ~ walked). The non-past may be used to reference the future ("The bus leaves **tomorrow**").

Traditionally both aspects [perfect and progressive] are treated as part of the <u>tense</u> system in English, and we commonly speak of tenses such as the present progressive (e.g. *We are waiting*) or even the past perfect progressive (e.g. *We had been waiting*), which combines two aspects. There is a distinction to be made, however, between tense and aspect. Tense is more concerned with past time versus present time and is based on <u>morphological</u> form (e.g. *write, writes, wrote*); aspect is concerned with duration, and in English is a matter of <u>syntax</u>, using parts of *be* to form the progressive, and of *have* to form the perfective.

(2)Use of Aspectual in showing Temporality

A further grammatical category expressing time in language is aspect. The range of the term 'aspect' has broadened to include lexical oppositions describing intrinsic temporal properties of the predicate, such as punctual/durative and stative/ dynamic. The German term *Aktionsart,* is also employed to indicate these inherent semantic features. The classification of situations according to their inherent semantic properties dates back to Aristotle's *Metaphysics* (1048b) and his distinction between *energeia* (actuality) and *kinêsis* (movement). This dichotomy roughly corresponds to the distinction between atelic and telic.

 Many formulations can be found in the literature describing the subject of aspect, each emphasizing a different detail. Leech et al., for example describe aspect as "[…] the way we view an action or state, in terms of the passing of time" (54). Comrie classifies "[…] [a]spects […] [as]

different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation" (3), with which Huddleston et al. largely consent (117). What all these definitions have in common is the subjective point of view that is attributed to the articulation of aspect.

Coming back to Comrie's definition of aspect as viewing the internal temporal structure of eventualities, this is a central point setting aspect apart from tense. Tense, as mentioned earlier, is a deictic category, whereas aspect is not deictic, nonetheless, both, tense and aspect, are concerned with time. The difference between the temporal relations of tense and aspect is that tense relates the reference time of a situation to the time of utterance, which is usually the deictic centre, whereas aspect relates the time of reference to the event time. For that reason Comrie refers to tense as 'situation external time', as it relates eventualities to the present moment or another point of reference, and to aspect as 'situation internal time', since it is concerned with the internal temporal constituency of eventualities, and not with its relation to a reference point (5).

Take for instance the utterance *Yesterday at ten, John had left London.* Two quite different time spans are involved. First, there is **the time of the situation,** in brief TSit, here the time at which John left London. And second, there is the time for which it is claimed that at this time, John is in the poststate of leaving London. We shall call this latter time, here *yesterday at ten*, the **topic time,** in brief TT. TT is the time for which *(not* at which) an assertion is made by this particular utterance. It may, but need not coincide with the time of the situation. The distinction between TSit and TT allows us a simple definition of tense and aspect. **Tense** is a temporal relation between TT and TU, **aspect** is a temporal relation between TSit and TT.

Aspect indicates the internal temporal constituency of a situation (Comrie76). "Aspect" here refers only to grammatical aspect, and does not include lexical aspect, which will be explained later. In

other words, it refers to those aspectual distinctions that are grammaticalized in languages. The difference between the following two sentences is one of aspect:

He read a book.

He was reading a book.

The tense of both sentences is past, yet the first situation is viewed as a single whole (perfective) and the second as having a process with no specific beginning or ending (imperfective).

Aspect is marked together with tense inflections in English by three aspectual morphemes: the zero aspect morpheme -Ø , the progressive auxiliary *–ing* and the perfective auxiliary *have/has –ed* for the regular verbs or *have/has* + irregular forms like *been, gone, taken*.

Aspect refers to the **duration** of an event within a particular tense. In other words, the aspect of a tense allows us to describe or understand how an event unfolds over time. English has four aspects: **simple**, **progressive**, **perfect**, and **perfect progressive**.

Nordquist describes an aspect as "The verb form that indicates completion, duration, or repetition of an action." The two primary aspects in English are the perfect (sometimes called *perfective*) and the progressive (also known as the *continuous* form). As discussed below, these two aspects may be combined to form the *perfect progressive.*

Here are all verbal aspects in English grouped by verb tense.

Tense	Aspect	Example
Present	simple present	I wash the car.

<u>present progressive</u>	I am washing the car.
<u>present perfect</u>	I have washed the car.
<u>present perfect progressive</u>	I have been washing the car.
<u>simple past</u>	I washed the car.
<u>past progressive</u>	I was washing the car.

Past

<u>past perfect</u>	I had washed the car.
<u>past perfect progressive</u>	I had been washing the car.

Grammatical Aspect vs. Lexical Aspect

The concept of aspect is often distinguished further into two conceptual types: grammatical aspect and lexical aspect.

(i)   **Grammatical aspect**, also named "viewpoint aspect" (Smith 482), is expressed explicitly through grammatical markers, linguistic devices such as the auxiliaries and verb inflections. Examples of grammatical aspect include the progressive and perfective aspects in English. Take for instance the following sentences:

   She is singing   progressive aspect

   She had sang a song   perfective aspect

(ii) **Lexical Aspect** is also labelled as *inherent aspect, situational aspect, Aktionsart, and semantic aspect.* It refers to the characteristics that are inherent in a particular lexical item which describe the situation as it is expressed by an unmarked predicate, independent of any grammatical marking or time frame. In other words, as it is pointed out by Robinson, "lexical aspect resides in the 'sense' of a predicate, not in its 'reference' or in an isolated verb" (346). For instances, "run" and "run a mile" may both refer to the same situation. "*Run*", in contrast to its counterpart "*run a mile*" has an atelic sense, but no clearly defined ending point; and the second phrase "run a mile" has a well defined ending point, in other words: a telic sense, as indicated by the length of the running, *a mile.*

In English it might be true that the lexical aspect is marked by lexical means such as the addition of particles to verbs that emphasize a certain phase of a process, such as *eat* and *eat up*, which emphasizes the end of the process of eating,

The Classification of Lexical Aspects

The following are the four aspectual classes under the vendlerian classification

- **STATE:** State verbs describe a non-dynamic situation which is sustained over time unless some other outside situation alters it e.g (know, want) [+ stative, + durative, - telic]

- **ACTIVITY:** Activity verbs refer to a dynamic situation which takes place overtime characterized by the fact that it has no inherent end point (play, run) [-stative, +durative, - telic]

- **ACCOMPLISHMENT:** Accomplishment verbs make reference over time but which is dynamic and sustained over time but which includes a necessary endpoint e.g have breakfast, run a mile (- stative + durative, +telic)

- **ACHIEVEMENT:** Achievement verbs designate a dynamic but punctual situation with an inherent endpoint e.g (die, get up) (- stative, - durative + telic)

A list of typical verbs associated with each aspectual class is presented below. Classification of some verbs according to lexical aspectual class (Anderson, 91)

State	Activities	Accomplishment	Achievement
Have	Run	Paint a picture	Recognize (sth)
Possess	Walk	Make a chair	Realize (sth)
Desire	Swim	Build a house	Find (sth)
Like	Breathe	Write a novel	Win the race
Want	Pull	Grow up	Lose (sth)

Different schemes have been proposed to account for the semantic distinctions encompassed by the notions of lexical aspect. Comrie (76) pointed out three binary distinct features of '*lexical aspect'*: *stative vs. dynamic; atelic vs. telic;* and *durative vs. punctual*. A four-way classification for lexical aspectual classes, whose roots can be dated back to Aristotle, has also been proposed by Vendler. The four semantic categories proposed by Vendler, and called time schemata are: *achievement, accomplishment, activity* and *state (142).* He states that "the use of a verb may also suggest the

particular way in which that verb presupposes and involves the notion of time."(217). He provides the following descriptions and examples:

- *running* and *pushing a cart* are **activities** having the property of not having terminal point,

- *running a mile* or *drawing a circle* are **accomplishments** having a terminal point.

The telic vs. atelic contrast is determined by whether there is a well-defined endpoint inherent in the nature of the situation. The term telicity is derived from the Greek *telos*, meaning end. Telic predicates are those which describe events that have a natural end-point or boundary. An atelic predicate only indicates an arbitrary terminus. To differentiate telic and atelic qualities of situations two questions can be posed: *For how long …* (did he push the cart)? asks for atelic properties of situations and *How long did it take to …* (run the mile)? asks for telic properties. It is salient here to note that telicity obviously combines with quantity, since the questions asking for telicity and atelicity simultaneously require a certain amount of time a specific situation needs to take place, for instance, considering that the verb *to run* is atelic, it becomes telic when it combines with a specific quantity like *a mile,* hence it can be said that atelic verbs attain telic quality if they combine with quantity. Similarly, *to drink whisky* is atelic, whereas *to drink whisky for an hour and to drink a glass of whisky* are telic; the last example moreover specifies the exact temporal duration of the situation.

The Stative vs. Dynamic contrast can be understood in terms of energy. Stative predicates describe involuntary situations that need no energy to continue; stative verbs have undefined duration; they denote states rather than actions.

Examples of statives are: want, know, have (when it means possession), think (when it means opinion), like, love, hate, need, prefer, agree, sound, hear disagree, wish, look (when it mean seem), smell, seem, include...

You cannot say:

- ~~I am knowing the truth.~~
- ~~I am liking bread.~~
- ~~It is sounding like a great idea.~~

But you must say:

- I know the truth.
- I like bread.
- It sounds like a great idea.

Dynamic predicates denote situations that require a constant infusion of energy. Stative predicates express existence; dynamic predicates occurrence. As opposed to a stative verb, a dynamic (or action) verb shows continued or progressive action on the part of the subject.

Examples of dynamic verbs (dynamic verbs) are:

act, build, complete, design, develop, draw, fix, gather, handle, head, help, improve, interview, introduce, justify, listen, lead, measure, narrate, negotiate, orchestrate, originate, outline, perform, persuade, predict, regulate, record, save, show, study, target, transform, travel, treat, uncover, dance, unveil, use, validate, value, visualize, widen, write, zap, zoom...

These verbs can be used both in the simple and continuous forms.

Dynamic and Stative

Some verbs can be both stative verbs and dynamic verbs depending on their meaning:

1. Be

- be = it is usually used as a stative verb - stative

  He's an excellent guitarist.

- be = when it means behave or act, it can be used as a an action verb in the continuous

  form. - dynamic

  You are being silly.

2. Think

- think = to express an opinion, to believe - stative

  I think it's a fantastic idea.

- think = consider, to reason about or reflect on, ponder, to have or formulate in the mind -

  dynamic

  I am thinking about my friend

3. Have

- have = to possess, to own - stative

  He has a beautiful car

- have = when it doesn't mean own or possess - dynamic

  He's having lunch.

4. See

- see = to perceive with the eye, to understand - stative

  I see what you mean.

- see = to meet, to be in the company of, to escort, to attend - dynamic

  He's been seeing the same woman for eight years.

Durative Predicates refer to situations lasting for some time; Durativity refers to how long (in a very subjective sense) an event lasts in time. For example, consider the following two telic sentences.

    (a) Peter reached the platform.

    (b) Peter crossed the high-wire.

Both sentences have the same natural end point: when Peter is at the platform. The difference is that in (a) Peter begins the event a split second before the platform while in (b) he begins the event at the opposite side of the high-wire. In the world, of course, both events do have a duration (though presumably the duration of the event described by (a) is much shorter than that described by (b); linguistically however, (a) is considered to have no duration, or at least, to have the absolute minimal duration. This linguistic lack of duration can be seen by the fact that non-durative predicates occur naturally with *time* adverbials which pin-point a particular time:

Punctual predicates denote events as transpiring in an instant or at the exact juncture between two situations.

Tense and aspect are two of a set of categories, which are often collectively referred to as the tense- modality-aspect (TMA) system, involving linguistic markings on verbs. Tense and aspect

has long been the focus of language pedagogy, but the investigation on the acquisition of tense-aspect morphology in second language acquisition began to draw specific attention in the mid-1980s. The discussion of any one of them must take consideration of both their independent functions and the interrelationship between them for the following two reasons. First, the linguistic forms expressing these notions have a tendency to morph into other categories within this set, for instance, *I am going to school*. While *am* depicts tense, *going* is aspectual. Second, a single linguistic form can often have more than one function. This is particularly true in the research on the acquisition of tense and aspect systems, since both of them express temporal concepts.

(3)Lexical Means of Expressing Temporality

Adverbials

Not all languages have formal devices to express tense and aspect, but all languages use a rich variety of temporal adverbials, and therefore, they are in a way more basic to the expression of temporality. This is also reflected in the eminent role which they play in learner varieties. There are three types which appear very early and are steadily elaborated. A fourth type comes in at a later stage but is then regularly used. These types are temporal adverbials of POSITION (TAP), DURATION (TAD), QUANTITY (TAQ), a n d CONTRAST (TAC):

TAP: temporal adverbials which specify the **position** of some interval on the time axis in relation to some other time span (such as TU), such as *now, then, yesterday at five, in spring, after this summer, three minutes ago, before he left, at six, on 1st June 2013,* etc.

TAD: They specify the duration (or, not exactly the same, but a related possibility, the boundaries) of a time span; temporal adverbials which specify the **duration** of some temporal interval, e.g., *(for)* NUM *hours, (for)* NUM *days, (for)* NUM *months,* where NUM is some numeral

(like *four); - for seven hours, all week, about three four weeks, (for) one year, for many days, from 3 to 5,* etc.

TAQ: temporal adverbs which specify the **frequency** of some temporal interval(s), such as *sometimes, often, any time, two times a week, every night, every day, every week, five days a week,* etc. They specify the frequency of time spans.

TAC: This somewhat heterogeneous class is comprised of a number of "small but important" adverbs with somewhat different function, such as *again, still, yet, already.* Many of these serve to mark a particular contrast: they pick out one particular time span, and not a different one which could have played a role.

The importance of TAP, TAD and TAQ lies in the fact that they allow the speaker to specify some particular time span, the RELATUM, at which some event, process or state the speaker wants to mention is temporally localised. One such RELATUM can always assumed to be given in a conversation - the time of utterance (= TU). Other RELATA are typically related to TU by **deictic** or - if there is an entire chain of intervening time spans - by **anaphoric devices**. We shall see that this property of English and probably all languages is at the very heart of the learners' temporal systems.

➤ deictic: *before, after, now, today, tomorrow, last night, last year, next week, next year, last week, last Christmas, seven years ago,* and similar ones.

➤ anaphoric: *before* and *after,* where the RELATUM is either contextually given (= before that, thereafter) or explicitly specified (such as *after month October).*

Note that adverbials can express both "external temporal properties", i.e., temporal relations, and "internal temporal properties", such as duration, boundaries, etc. In fact, they are suited to virtually

all types and shades of temporality. In learner varieties, the first class, which expresses temporal relations, is clearly the most important one. In the initial stages, temporal relations of all sorts are exclusively expressed by TAP in combination with discourse principles.

Temporal adverbials can also be categorized according to their function. For example, Klein has listed 6 types of temporal adverbials:

(a) positional temporal adverbials such as *yesterday*, *at five o'clock*, *in the night*

(b) temporal adverbials of frequency such as *often*, *always*, *once in a while*

(c) temporal adverbials of duration such as *for one hour, during the autopsy*

(d) temporal adverbials describing inherent temporal properties of a situation such as *quickly*, *gradually*, *slowly*

(e) temporal adverbials indicating the position of a situation such as *firstly*, *at last*, *eventually*

(f) temporal adverbials fitting none of the above class such as *already* and *still*

TAP is clearly the most important for learner varieties. This is because in the initial stages, temporal relations of all sorts are exclusively expressed by TAP in combination with discourse principles. A lot of learners "fossilize" at a basic level in which they use tadvs (temporal adverbials) and do not develop morphosyntactic tense and aspect markings. The use of tadvs can be considered as the most basic way of expressing temporality. Most languages use a wide variety of all types of tadvs and because these express temporality in a lexical and not in a language specific morphosyntactic way, second language learners use them very

successfully. Temporal adverbials express both internal and external temporal properties of time spans. They can specify the internal duration, the boundaries, and the frequency of a time span and they can specify the external relationship between a TT, the time talked about, and another time span which is given in context.

2.1.4 Types of Temporal Adverbials

What types of temporal adverbials are there? Temporal adverbials are either quantificational or nonquantificational. Nonquantificational temporal adverbials are traditionally classified as either position adverbials or duration adverbials. Quantificational adverbials like (always) quantify over (temporal) entities. Position adverbials like 'yesterday' locate entities' temporally. And duration adverbials like 'for an hour' specify the duration of entities. Each of these three types of adverbials can be either definite or indefinite.

a. QUANTIFICATIONAL (or frequency) adverbials:

   i.   Definite – 'twice'

   ii.   Indefinite – always, sometimes

b. POSITION ADVERBIALS: Vlach termed it 'inclusive' while Kamp and Reyle called it location adverbial.

   i.   Definite now, at four, yesterday, on (this that) Monday

   ii.   Indefinite – recently, on (a) Monday (s)

c. DURATION : Vlach called it "durative" while Kamp and Reyle named it "temporal measure"

   i.   Definite – 'for two months', from two to five'

   ii.   Indefinite – for some time,

The position and duration adverbs refer to times directly. Adverbials can also primarily mention situations and allow for using the time of situation secondarily for fulfilling their temporal function while the temporal adverbial 'yesterday' mentions the time interval of yesterday directly, the temporal adverbial 'during the game against Eagles' mentions the game against Eagles directly. From this situation, time interval is derived, namely the time during which the game took place.

a.   Yesterday Harry had an accident.

b.   During the game against Eagles Harry had an accident.

The distinction between position and duration adverbials depends on whether the entity they specify must cover only part of the interval the adverbial in question refers to or the whole interval. Generally speaking, position adverbials provide a temporal frame within which the entity they specify is located. The position adverbial 'yesterday' in example (a) provides the time interval of yesterday and Harry's accident is temporally located within this time interval. In contrast to this, duration adverbials characterize a time interval of a particular length; a situation that is specified by a duration adverbial is asserted to cover the whole time referred to by the adverbial. The situation of Harry's bones growing that is mentioned for instance is asserted to have taken place for at least one whole night at least by the duration adverbial 'for a night'.

Eg Harry's bones grew a night long.

In this respect duration adverbials differ from position adverbials, which cut out a subinterval of the time they introduce.

Duration Adverbials and Situation Types

From what was said in the preceding section, it follows that a duration adverbial needs to be applied to a situation that is able to cover the time interval characterized by the adverbial, i.e. to a situation that is long enough.

As a consequence, duration adverbials, like 'for an hour' cannot apply to achievements and accomplishments in the same way as they do apply to states or activities processes. With atelic situations, i.e. states and activities/processes, duration adverbials specify the duration of a situation that is built up by subintervals of the same situation type. But accomplishments consist of a process phase and a culmination point, hence, they do not have the SUBINTERVAL PROPERTY, and duration adverbials cannot apply to them as a whole. As a consequence Ic is somewhat marked. And as far as achievements are concerned, they are simply too short by definition as to cover noninstanteneous time intervals. Therefore, the example in Id is not very good under the intended reading, where the discovery of the formula is to be understood as lasting for an hour clauses referring to achievements and accomplishment that are modified by duration adverbials can be saved, however, when appropriate reinterpretations can be coerced. Thus, (Ic &d) are more or less acceptable when the adverbial is understood as characterizing the duration of the preparatory phase of Maria building a house and of Maria's discovery of the formula.

1a.   **STATE**

Maria was an hour long tired.

ACTIVITY/PROCESS

b.   Maria ran an hour long.

c.   Accomplishment

   Maria built an hour long a house.

   d. Achievement

Maria discovered an hour long the formula. Similarly 2a & b are (more or less) acceptable when the adverbial is understood as characterizing the duration of the result or target-state of Maria building a house and of Maria's discovery of the formula, respectively – at least to the extent to which the resulting readings make sense.

2a suggests that the house broke down after an hour and 2b suggests that after an hour the formula was forgotten or lost again.

2a   ACCOMPLISHMENT

   Maria built for an hour a house

2b   ACHIEVEMENT

   Maria discovered for an hour the formula

In order to represent such reinterpretations semantically, it is necessary to refer to items contained in the lexical meaning of the accomplishment or achievement predicates.

Similarly adverbials like 'within an hour', which set a time-limit are usually not acceptable with atelic situations but with accomplishments and achievements under the reading where they set a limit for reaching the final point of the situation denoted by the VP, e.g. the moment of finishing building a house or the moment of discovering the formula. However, the unacceptable sentences can again be saved by appropriate reinterpretations: sentences 3a & b are good when the adverbial

measures the time from some evaluation time before the situations of Maria's being tired and her running, respectively.

3a   STATE

Maria was in an hour tired.

b.   ACTIVITY/PROCESS

Maria ran in an hour.

c.   ACHIEVEMENT

Maria discovered the formular in an hour.

Thus, if an adverbial does not find an element it can apply to appropriately, one of two alternatives is possible: either the respective clause is unacceptable or a reinterpretation of the clause is coerced so as to provide an appropriate element the adverbial can apply to. These restrictions on the applicability of duration adverbials have to be kept in mind for an investigation of their behaviour.

2.1.5 Distinguishing Position and Duration Adverbials

Kamp and Reyle (650) observed that the distinction between duration adverbials and position adverbials is not clear-cut. They argue that some adverbials can be classified as both because they contain durational as well as positional components. The adverbial 'for the last three years in 4a is an example

4a   Mary has lived in Amsterdam for the last three years.

First, it provides the (minimal) duration of Mary having lived in Amsterdam. Second, it locates this interval with regard to the time of utterance hence, it is also positional.

Position adverbials in the typical case appear to contain an existential quantification over times; for the entire period of time referred to by a duration adverbial, a certain property holds. For example: consider these sentences and paraphrases.

4b   POSITIONAL/EXISTENTIAL:

This afternoon, John took a walk.

There is a time 't' included in this afternoon such that John took a walk at 't'.

4c.   DURATION/UNIVERSAL:

For three hours, John took a walk.

= For all times 't' included in some three-hour interval, John took a walk.

Recall the principle of frame time, when this principle is active, it tries to extend the duration of the situation time at hand so that it is proportionate to its frame time that can be provided by a positional adverbial. In the extreme case, the time of the situation aligns with the duration of the frame time. Consequently, in this case a universal-like or Pseudo- universal, reading as in 4d can arise.

4d.   POSITION/EXISTENTIAL WITH THE PRINCIPLE OF FRAME TIME

This afternoon, John took a walk

=   John walked all afternoon.

=   There is a time 't' included in this afternoon such that John took a walk at 't' and 't' covers all afternoon.

In this way, the principle of frame time may blur the existential quantification that is often associated with the interpretation of position adverbials.

The above considerations point in the following direction: it seems quite plausible to treat position and duration adverbials at least sometimes as extremes of a super type of temporal adverbial which contains a position as well as a duration component. These components can, but need not, be explicit. If they are not explicit, they amount either to vague or to existential interpretations. Thus, the duration component in (4b) is not made explicit, consequently, the length of the situation time interval is vague and can be assigned a long duration by means of the principle of frame time.

Similarly, the position component in 4c is left open; 4c mentions some three-hour interval whose location is unclear. In 4a, however, both components are explicit.

If this approach is correct, then it is to be expected that certain adverbials exhibit ambiguities between position and duration readings, depending on how the implicit components are interpreted. Moreover, these readings are expected to depend on the linguistic and nonlinguistic context of the adverbials.

2.1.6 Prepositions of Time

Time *when: at, on, in*

At, *on* and *in* as propositions of 'time when' are to some extent parallel to the same items as positive prepositions of position. Although in the time sphere there are only two 'dimension – types', viz 'point of time and period of time'. (Quirk and Greenbuan 154).

At is used for points of time, chiefly clocktime (*at ten o'clock, at 6.30pm, at noon etc*); also idiomatically, for holiday periods *(at weekend (BrE), at Christmas, at Easter,)* and for phrases at night, *at the/that time, etc.*

'*On* is used with phrases referring to day *(on Monday, on the following day, on May first, otherwise in and during are used to indicate period of time; in the evening, during Holy week in August, in the months that followed, in the eighteen century etc.*

Duration: *for*

Duration is expressed by *for:* contrast:

Eg.

We camped there
{
for the summer (i.e all through)

in the summer (i.e at some time during the summer)
}

So too in idiomatic phrases like *for ever* and *for good*. *Over, all through* and *throughout* have durational meaning parallel to their pervasive meaning in reference to place. '*Over'* normally accompanies noun phrases denoting special occasions (such as holidays and festivals) and so generally refers to a shorter period of time than *all through* or *through out.*

'*From'... 'to* is another pair of prepositions whose locative meaning is transferred to duration.

Examples: We camped there *from* June *to* September.

Before, after, since and until

These occur almost exclusively as prepositions of time, and are followed by either

(a) a temporal noun phrase e.g (before next week)

(b) a subjectless V – ing clause e.g (since leaving school)

(c) a noun phrase with a deverbal noun or some other noun phrase interpreted as equivalent to a clause: until the fall of Rome (= 'until Rome fell')

Before the war (= before the war started or took place)

Until specifies the terminal point with positive and a commencement point with negative predications: we slept until midnight (= we stopped sleeping then)

We didn't sleep until midnight (= we started sleeping then)

Between , by and up to

Other preposition of time are *between*, *by* and *up to:* e.g I will phone you 'between' lunch and 3 o'clock.

'By' the time we had walked five miles, he was exhausted.

'Up to' last week, I hadn't receive the reply.

'By' specifies a commencement point; contrast; 'By' that time he was exhausted (= He was then exhausted).

'Until' that time he was exhausted (= He was no longer exhausted)

2.1.7 Tense and aspect in English can be represented via the table below:

Tense	Simple	Perfect	Continuous/Progressive
nonpast	-Ø/-s	has/have -en, -ed, ablaut, etc.	am/is/are -ing
past	-ed, -t, ablaut, etc.	had -en, -ed, ablaut, etc.	was/were –ing
nonpast	*go, goes*	*have/has gone*	*am/is/are going*
past	*went*	*had gone*	*was/were going*

When we talk about tense and aspect, the following exists:

Simple Past tense	I *ate* pizza yesterday.
Past perfect	I *had eaten* all the pizza when you arrived.
Past continuous	I *was eating* pizza when you arrived
Past perfect continuous	I *had been eating* pizza for two hours when you arrived.
Simple present tense	I *eat* pizza everyday.
Present perfect	I *have eaten* all of the pizza
Present continuous	I *am eating* pizza right now
Present perfect continuous	I *have been eating* pizza for two hours.
Simple future	I *will eat* pizza tomorrow
Future continuous	I *will be eating* pizza when you arrive
Future perfect	I *will have eaten* all of the pizza by the time you arrive.

Future perfect continuous   I *will have been eating* pizza for 2 hours when you arrive.

This is exemplified in the table below

	Past	Present	Future
Simple	I *ate* pizza yesterday. $S + V_1 + O$	I *eat* pizza everyday. $S + V_1 + O$	I *will eat* pizza tomorrow $S + will + V + O$
Continuous	I *was eating* pizza when you arrived. S + was/were + (V+ing) + O	I *am eating* pizza right now S + am/is/are + (V+ing) + O	I *will be eating* pizza when you arrive S + will be + (V+ing) + O
Perfect	I *had eaten* all the pizza when you arrived. $S + had + V_2 + O$	I *have eaten* all of the pizza $S + have/has + V_2 + O$	I *will have eaten* all of the pizza by the time you arrive. $S + will have + V_2 + O$
Perfect Continuous	I had been eating pizza for two hours. S + had been + (V+ing) + O	I have been eating pizza for two hours. S + have/has been + (V+ing) + O	I will have been eating pizza for 2 hours when you arrive. S + will have been + (V+ing) + O

Key: S = subject; O = Object; V = Verb (V_1 = present, V2 = past/past participle)

2.1.8 Uses of the Tenses and Aspects of the English Language

1.   **Present Tense**

We use the present tense:

(a) For facts.

- A square **has** four equal sides.

- Copenhagen **is** the capital of Denmark.

(b) For repeated or regular actions in the present time period.

- Flights to Britain **leave** every thirty minutes.

- The bells of the town clock **ring** every hour.

(c) For habits

- I **brush** my teeth every morning.

- He **goes** to the gym after work.

(d) For things that are generally true in the present time period.

- Ebere Goodluck Jonathan is the president of Nigeria at the moment.

- My friend lives in Lagos.

2. *PAST TENSE*

The <u>Past Tense</u> is used:

(a) To indicate that an action, event or condition has started and finished. It can be included with a time reference (for more information) or without.

- They went to the beach.
- Peter slept for ten hours.

(b) To talk about something which was true in the past.

- Kyoto was the capital of Japan for 1100 years.
- Margaret Thatcher was the Prime Minister of Great Britain.

(c) When we are talking about a particular time in the past.

- I visited South Africa in 2010.

- Marta spoke to her sister last night.

Uses of the Aspectual

3. **Present Progressive (is/are +present progressive)**

We use the present progressive:

(a)   When somebody is doing something at the moment.

- Carla **is washing** her hair.

- Christian **is playing** table-tennis.

(b) When something is happening at the moment.

- It **is raining** at the moment.

- The bazaar sales **are happening** as we speak.

(c) To talk about something that is happening around the time of speaking but not necessarily at that exact moment.

- My brother **is learning** how to play the violin at school.

- Computers **are becoming** smaller and faster all the time.

(d) To talk about something temporary

- We **are renting** an apartment until our house is ready.

A sentence in the Present Continuous indicates that the action, event or condition is ongoing. It is happening at this point in time and emphasizing the continuing nature of an act, event or condition.

4. Past Progressive   [was/were + present participle]

(a)   It Is Used To Show Interrupted Action

Past   Present   Future

Use the Past Continuous to indicate that a longer action in the past was interrupted. The interruption is usually a shorter action in the Simple Past.

Examples:

- I **was watching** TV when she called.

- When the phone rang, she **was writing** a letter.

- While we **were having** the picnic, it started to rain.

- What **were** you **doing** when the earthquake started?

(b) The past continuous is used when a specific time is used as an interruption. The Past Continuous is interrupted by a shorter action in the Simple Past. However, you can also use a specific time as an interruption.

Examples:

- Last night at 6 pm, I **was eating** dinner.

- At midnight, we **were** still **driving** through the desert.

- Yesterday at this time, I **was sitting** at my desk at work.

Note that in the Simple Past, a specific time is used to show when an action began or finished. In the Past Continuous, a specific time only interrupts the action.

Examples:

- Last   night   at   6   pm,   I   **ate**   dinner.
  I started eating at 6pm.
- Last   night   at   6   PM,   I   **was**   **eating**   dinner.
  I started earlier; and at 6 PM, I was in the process of eating dinner.

(c) It is used for parallel actions

When you use the Past Continuous with two actions in the same sentence, it expresses the idea that both actions were happening at the same time. The actions are parallel.

Examples:

- I **was studying** while he **was making** dinner.

- **Were** you **listening** while he **was talking**?

- I **wasn't paying** attention while I **was writing** the letter, so I made several mistakes.

- What **were** you **doing** while you **were waiting**?

(d)   Used to describe the Atmosphere

In English, we often use a series of parallel actions to describe the atmosphere at a particular time in the past.

Example:

- When I walked into the office, several people **were** busily **typing**, some **were talking** on the phones, the boss **was yelling** directions, and customers **were waiting** to be helped. One customer **was yelling** at a secretary and **waving** his hands. Others **were complaining** to each other about the bad service.

(e)   Repetition and Irritation with "Always"

XXXXX
Past   Present   Future
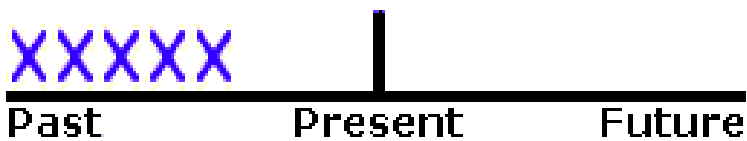
The Past Continuous with words such as "always" or "constantly" expresses the idea that something irritating or shocking often happened in the past. The concept is very similar to the expression "used to" but with negative emotion. The words "always" or "constantly" is put between "be" and "verb + ing."

Examples:

- She **was always coming** to class late.

- He **was constantly talking**. He annoyed everyone.

- I didn't like them because they **were always complaining**.

5. Present Perfect   has/have + past participle

The present perfect indicates the continuing present relevance of a past situation.

Examples:

- History **has remembered** the kings and warriors

- You **have seen** that movie many times.

- **Have** you **seen** that movie many times?

- You **have not seen** that movie many times.

(a) We use the Present Perfect to say that an action happened at an unspecified time before now. The exact time is not important. You CANNOT use the Present Perfect with specific time expressions such as: yesterday, one year ago, last week, when I was a child, when I lived in Japan, at that moment, that day, one day, etc. We CAN use the Present Perfect with unspecific expressions such as: ever, never, once, many times, several times, before, so far, already, yet, etc.

Examples:

- I **have seen** that movie twenty times.

- I think I **have met** him once before.

- People **have traveled** to the Moon.

- **Have** you **read** the book yet?

- Nobody **has** ever **climbed** that mountain.

(b) You can use the Present Perfect to describe your experience.

Examples:

- I **have been** to France.
- I think I **have seen** that movie before.
- He **has** never **traveled** by train.

(c) We often use the Present Perfect to talk about change that has happened over a period of time.

Examples:

- You **have grown** since the last time I saw you.
- The government **has become** more interested in arts education.

(d) We often use the Present Perfect to list the accomplishments of individuals and humanity. You cannot mention a specific time.

Examples:

- Man **has walked** on the Moon.
- Our son **has learned** how to read.
- Doctors **have cured** many deadly diseases.
- Scientists **have split** the atom.

(e) We often use the Present Perfect to say that an action which we expected has not happened. Using the Present Perfect suggests that we are still waiting for the action to happen.

Examples:

- James **has not finished** his homework yet.

- Susan **hasn't mastered** Japanese, but she can communicate.

- Bill **has** still **not arrived**.

(f) We also use the Present Perfect to talk about several different actions which have occurred in the past at different times. Present Perfect suggests the process is not complete and more actions are possible.

Examples:

- The army **has attacked** that city five times.

- I **have had** four quizzes and five tests so far this semester.

- We **have had** many major problems while working on this project.

- They **have had** their lunch before going home.

2.1.9 Different Types of the Present Perfect

The present perfect can be used to convey different meanings depending on the relative position of the Relatum towards Events and the various ways of viewing and focusing on different aspects of past situations. Hence different types of the present perfect can be distinguished, Klein in his analysis of the different types refers to the categorization by Comrie, accordingly there are four

types: perfect of result, experiential perfect, perfect of persistent situation and perfect of recent past(.61)

Perfect of Result

Comrie describes the perfect of result as "a present state [which] is referred to as being

the result of some past situation."(56) Klein analyzes this as Events being close to Relatum. He puts forward an example given by Comrie: *Is John here yet? - Yes he has arrived.* Here the

has arrived is present perfect, where the Relatum includes Speech and Events is relatively close to Relatum, since the state of John's being present is the result of his arrival. It is required that Relatum of the question, which was asked in present tense is concurrent with Relatum of the answer, thus the present perfect has to be used.(111) According to Kirsten, the resultative perfect is used when the result of a change of state in the past is regarded to retrospectively from the present moment and the consequences of this change of state for the present situation are stressed. To express a change of state, verbs of accomplishment or achievement have to be used. The resultative perfect may be used with temporal adverbials like *just, already, not yet*, etc(,48) such as in the following sentence:

He **has** already **faced** fierce criticism from his local Labour candidate after he told parents that the school would close if the party won the election.

Experiential Perfect

"The experiential perfect […] indicates that a given situation has held at least once during some time in the past leading up to the present." According to Kirsten, the experiential perfect may be used with temporal references, such as *before, in the past*,(58) etc., examples would be:

In the past he **has used my car.**

The emphasis on the retrospective view makes the experiential perfect inclined to be used in reports about radical changes in the past, which is often accompanied by an additional change in tense from the simple past to the present perfect. The following sentence can be considered an example for this type of perfect, since the situation shows distance to the present moment and it is not clear what effect the past situation has on the present moment:

It is precisely for this reason that we **have pooled** our resources in the past with our allies.

While the experiential and the resultative perfect differ from each other in that the resultative perfect emphasizes the consequence of a past situation and the experiential perfect the view on the past situation, both view the situation in its entirety from the present moment.(Kristen52)

Perfect of Persistent Situation

Conversely, the perfect of persistent situation describes a "situation that started in the past but continues (persists) into the present, as in *we've lived here for ten years*."(Kristen52)

Moreover, this type of present perfect is restricted to stative and activity verbs and verbs that can be used as both(Kristen54)

Perfect of Recent Past

The perfect of recent past is "used where the present relevance of the past situation referred to is simply one of temporal closeness, i.e. the past situation is very recent."(Kristen131) Klein puts forward the following example: *I've learned recently that the match is postponed, Bill has just (this minute) arrived,* he explains that the present perfect referring to a situation in the immediate past is used as past tense. He further observes that the tendency to use present perfect for recent

past is the "beginning of a development which is indeed observed quite often: the perfect aspect becomes a past tense(.132)

Kirsten points out that the subjective perspective of a writer/ speaker of a text, which is conveyed by the use of the present perfect, contrasts the factual use of the simple past.(133) This is supported by Binnick who argues that the simple past "is more likely to be a narrative tense than the [present] perfect."(134)

6. **Past Perfect** **("**had" + past participle)

The past perfect expresses a relation between a past state and an even earlier situation

COMPLETE LIST OF THE PAST PERFECT FORMS

Positive	Negative	Question
• I **had finished**. • You **had finished**. • We **had finished**. • They **had**	• I **had not finished**. • You **had not finished**. • We **had not finished**. • They **had not**	• **Had** I **finished**? • **Had** you **finished**? • **Had** we **finished**? • **Had** they **finished**? • **Had** he **finished**?

finished.	**finished**.	• **Had** she **finished**?
• He **had finished**.	• He **had not finished**.	• **Had** it **finished**?
• She **had finished**.	• She **had not finished**.	
• It **had finished**.	• It **had not finished**.	

Examples:

- You **had studied** English before you moved to New York.

(a) The Past Perfect expresses the idea that something occurred before another action in the past. It can also show that something happened before a specific time in the past.

Examples:

- I **had** never **seen** such a beautiful beach before I went to Lagos.
- I did not have any money because I **had lost** my wallet.
- **Had** Susan ever **studied** English before she moved to Britain?
- She only understood the movie because she **had read** the book.

(b)   **Duration before something in the past (Non-Continuous Verbs)**

With <u>Non-Continuous Verbs</u> and some non-continuous uses of <u>Mixed Verbs</u>, we use the Past Perfect to show that something started in the past and continued up until another action in the past.

Examples:

- We **had had** that car for ten years before it broke down.

- By the time Alex finished his studies, he **had been** in Nigeria for over eight years.

- They felt bad about selling the house because they **had owned** it for more than forty years.

Although the above use of Past Perfect is normally limited to Non-Continuous Verbs and non-continuous uses of Mixed Verbs, the words "live," "work," "teach," and "study" are sometimes used in this way even though they are NOT Non-Continuous Verbs.

(b) Unlike with the <u>Present Perfect</u>, it is possible to use specific time words or phrases with the Past Perfect. Although this is possible, it is usually not necessary.

Example:

- She **had visited** her Japanese relatives once in 1993 before she moved in with them in 1996.

Note that if the Past Perfect action did occur at a specific time, the Simple Past can be used instead of the Past Perfect when "before" or "after" is used in the sentence. The words

"before" and "after" actually tell you what happens first, so the Past Perfect is optional. For this reason, both sentences below are correct.

Examples:

- She **had visited** her Japanese relatives once in 1993 before she moved in with them in 1996.
- She **visited** her Japanese relatives once in 1993 before she moved in with them in 1996.

Past Perfect Continuous   **[had been + present participle]**

Examples:

- You **had been waiting** there for more than two hours when she finally arrived.
- **Had** you **been waiting** there for more than two hours when she finally arrived?
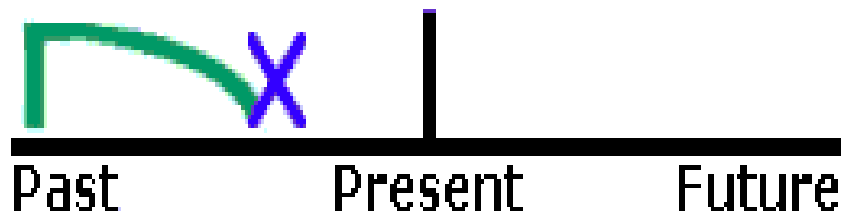
COMPLETE LIST OF PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS FORMS

Positive	Negative	Question
• I **had been listening**. • You **had been listening**. • We **had been listening**. • They **had been listening**. • He **had been listening**. • She **had been listening**. • It **had been listening**.	• I **had not been listening**. • You **had not been listening**. • We **had not been listening**. • They **had not been listening**. • He **had not been listening**. • She **had not been listening**. • It **had not been listening**.	• **Had** I **been listening**? • **Had** you **been listening**? • **Had** we **been listening**? • **Had** they **been listening**? • **Had** he **been listening**? • **Had** she **been listening**? • **Had** it **been listening**?

Uses

(a) We use the Past Perfect Continuous to show that something started in the past and continued up until another time in the past. "For five minutes" and "for two weeks" are both durations which can be used with the Past Perfect Continuous. Notice that this is related to the <u>Present Perfect Continuous</u>; however, the duration does not continue until now, it stops before something else in the past.

Examples:

• They **had been talking** for over an hour before Tony arrived.

- She **had been working** at that company for three years when it went out of business.

- How long **had** you **been waiting** to get on the bus?

(a) Using the Past Perfect Continuous before another action in the past is a good way to show cause and effect.
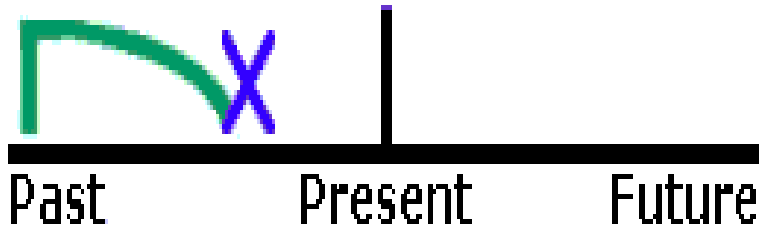
Examples:

- Jason was tired because he **had been jogging**.

- Sam gained weight because he **had been overeating**.

- Betty failed the final test because she **had not been attending** class.

8. **Present Perfect Continuous[has/have + been + present participle]**

Complete List of Present Perfect Continuous Forms

Positive	Negative	Question
• I **have been sleeping**. • You **have been sleeping**. • We **have been sleeping**. • They **have been sleeping**.	• I **have not been sleeping**. • You **have** **not** **been** **sleeping**. • We **have not been sleeping**.	• **Have** I **been sleeping**? • **Have** you **been sleeping**? • **Have** we **been sleeping**? • **Have** they **been sleeping**?

• He **has been sleeping**.	• They **have not been** sleeping.	• **Has** he **been sleeping**?
• She **has been sleeping**.		• **Has** she **been sleeping**?
• It **has been sleeping**.	• He **has not been sleeping**.	• **Has** it **been sleeping**?
	• She **has not been sleeping**.	
	• It **has not been sleeping**.	

Uses

(a) We use the Present Perfect Continuous to show that something started in the past and has continued up until now. "For five minutes," "for two weeks," and "since Tuesday" are all durations which can be used with the Present Perfect Continuous.

Examples:

- They **have been talking** for the last hour.
- She **has been working** at that company for three years.
- What **have** you **been doing** for the last 30 minutes?

(b) You can also use the Present Perfect Continuous WITHOUT a duration such as "for two weeks." Without the duration, the tense has a more general meaning of "lately." We often use the words "lately" or "recently" to emphasize this meaning.

Examples:

- Recently, I **have been feeling** really tired.

- She **has been watching** too much television lately.

- **Have** you **been exercising** lately?

Source: http://www.englishpage.com/verbpage/

2.1.10 Future Perfect

The future perfect expresses a relation between a future state and a situation prior to it. The preceding situation can happen in the past, present, or future. The English future perfect is a complex tense which can also be expressed in one of two ways. It is either composed by the verb *will* in the present tense + the perfect infinitive of a main verb(a); or by a form of *be going to* in the present tense + the perfect infinitive of the main verb (b).

(a) I will have done it by 5 p.m.

(b) I am going to have done it by 5 p.m.

The future perfect expresses two temporal relations at the same time: the time of the situation is anterior to an orientation time which itself is posterior to another time.

The future perfect is thus an absolute-relative tense. It relates its situation time to an orientation time (this is the 'relative' component, since these two elements are not temporally fixed). In a sentence like *John will have left when we arrive*, John's leaving constitutes the situation time, which is anterior to the orientation time (our arriving).

Future Progressive

Combining future tense with the progressive aspect, the future progressive should locate a situation in progress subsequent to the present moment. According to Kirsten, however, the future progressive is seldomly used to express this meaning. Leech, states that the future progressive is rather used as "future- as-a-matter-of-course […] [which] indicates that the predicted event will happen independently of the will or intention of anyone concerned."(139) Such as in the sentence:

 A hundred and fifty people have been invited, but I don't know if all **will be coming**.

The future progressive is again an experiential time reference, focusing on the ongoing process itself, disregarding the temporal boundaries so as to draw a vivid picture of the process for the reader/ listener. The future progressive expresses the speaker's/ writer's personal interest in a future situation, where the speaker may express his/ her anticipation of the situation. This opposes the factual orientation expressed by the simple future. Moreover, the simple and the progressive future show a different speech act behavior in interrogative, as well as in declarative sentences. In interrogative sentences, the simple future may be used to make a request, such as: **Will** you **help** me? While the future progressive cannot be used in this way, rather it inquires about a future action without any anticipation about the situation, as in: **Will** you **be coming** over next weekend?' In declarative sentences the simple future may be used to reassure, warn or threaten somebody, or to make promises with the aim of triggering a reaction in the hearer/ reader, thus it can be used to fulfill directive or commissive speech acts, as for example: commissive: `;I **will help** you to hunt it and you will shoot it,'; said Allen directive: Now then **will** you **go** back to your own proper seats now and I'm going to give you a number.

Whereas the future progressive plainly provides insight into a future situation fulfilling assertive speech acts, such as: Ma and Pop **will be going**.

I **will be going** there at least once a fortnight, the children enjoy all the sporting facilities and social life.

Future Perfect and Future Perfect Progressive

The future perfect locates a situation prior to a reference point in the future. The reference point in the future perfect can either be defined by temporal adverbs such as *soon, next, some day*, or may in another way be encoded in the context. Examples for the Future perfect are:

Whereas, even if nothing goes wrong at the weekend, Mr Smith **will have made** himself miserable for days in advance. By next May when the league and cup medals are being handed out, Celtic **will have gone** five years without a trophy.

The future perfect is hardly ever used if it occurs in dialogues providing background information.

The progressive form of the future perfect expresses the same temporal reference. It is even less used than the future perfect. The future perfect progressive stresses the durativity or the progress of a situation, and parallels the present perfect progressive in this respect. Such as in the sentences:

Sometimes a murder enquiry **will have been going** on for some days before it emerges that there is a sexual element involved.

There is an habitual inability to see the logical wood for the emotional trees, as the less discerning **will have been proving** since the final whistle sounded at Celtic Park.

The combination of simple tenses and the progressive aspect, can be considered to be an addition, but as soon as the perfect aspect is added compound tenses show extra semantic properties. Present

and past progressive emphasize the durative quality of situations and both show in combination imperfective characteristics with dynamic situations, although they are usually not made explicit. The combination of present tense with perfect aspect shows evident differences towards their own semantic properties. Although Klein argues that the perfect aspect usually indicates completion, the present perfect does not make an explicit statement about a possible (in)completion of a situation. Additionally, the indefinite position of Event in the past and its indefinite boundaries allow for various interpretations of Events, whether it is completed and does or does not affect the present moment, whether it is remote or close to the present moment etc. This and the simultaneity of Relatum and Speech give rise to various interpretations of situations and a classification of different types of the present perfect, each emphasizing a different feature. Thus the different types of the present perfect show additional semantic properties to that of present tense or perfect aspect. Why the present perfect shows this kind of broadened semantic properties, may to a certain degree be explained with it being in a development towards the perfective aspect, but this would only explain the tendency to interpret situations as completed and not the different types of the present perfect stressing the retrospective view on Events, the duration or the present relevance of Events. Since if it was only for the perfect aspect to trigger these extensions of meaning, the past perfect and the future perfect would also be affected. The past perfect, similar to the present perfect, views past situations retrospectively, which derives from the perfect aspect and the additional past time reference, or, if there is no temporal gap between Events and Relatum, it expresses a past time reference identical with the simple past. This, however, does not contradict the hypothesis of being a mere addition of past tense and perfect aspect. So, it is not clear where the additional semantic properties of the present perfect emanate from, it can however be concluded that it is not the perfect aspect alone, which generates a semantic extension, since the past perfect is not affected. The assumption can thus be made that the combination of the present tense with the perfect aspect

is responsible for the semantic extension of the original semantic properties of the sources. In this case, however, the effect is neutralized by adding the progressive aspect, since the present perfect progressive is also not affected. Nonetheless, Marschall argues that not every language realizes every possible combination of tense and aspect, so that not every form may be used to denote a meaning, or the same meaning as in another language for that matter, in each language.

So that if a meaning is to be expressed in a form that already has a meaning, a substitute form can be created or the form might hold different meanings.(142)

Accordingly, the assumption could be made that there is a development within the present perfect going on which might eventually result in different aspects which might share one form or even develop different forms, i.e. grammaticalize in different ways, this is, however, pure speculation and is not further elaborated on in this work. No additional semantic properties are palpable in the combinations of tense, perfect and progressive aspect. Both the present and the past perfect progressive include the perfect aspect and the progressive aspect which is stressed by the emphasis on the durativity of Events. That there is no contradiction between the progressive and the perfect aspect, proves that neither one has purely imperfective or perfective meaning, otherwise they would not be compatible. With regard to Bache's typological generalizations about the compatibility of tense aspect and *Aktionsart*, some conclusions can be drawn despite the fact that English has not grammaticalized perfective and imperfective aspect, considering the incompatibility of telic actionality with imperfective meaning, as well as the incompatibility of directed and complex actionality with perfective meaning. The first two rules can be subscribed to: iterative and habitual meaning is in English expressed by present tense, implying that the habit started in the past and will probably continue into the future, thus the sentences *I play chess* and *I am a chess player*, for example, imply that my chess playing occurs regularly and will also take

place in the future and that I have been a chess player in the past and I will also continue to be one. Likewise does the expression of a directed actionality not combine with perfective meaning in English, since a situation in progress, even if the situation is directed towards a definite end, shuts out any indication as to when the situation will end, as in the sentence *I am drinking a glass of whisky*. However the third rule of proposed incompatibility of telicity with imperfective meaning in English can be refused by the sentences already considered above, *The man drowned*, expresses telic actionality and perfective meaning, *The man was drowning*, however, conveys imperfective meaning and is grammatically correct. It is improbable, however, that this inconsistency derives from the fact that the perfective aspect is not grammaticalized in English, since the meaning of the perfective aspect is completion and can be expressed in the English Language. As to the compatibility of tense and aspect: Bache generalizes that the present tense is incompatible with perfective meaning, can be confirmed for the English language. Since the present tense when it is used to describe a present situation has the meaning of E = R = S, thus a further reference frame within which a situation is completed is not established. Bache's rule that punctual and telic actionality are incompatible with the present tense does, however, not apply to the English language, since achievement verbs are telic and punctual and can be used with the present tense. In a simultaneous sports report the following utterance may thus occur, *...and he wins the race*, and the control question *At what time did he win the race?* can be asked subsequently, indicating that the situation as an achievement. Additionally it can be summarized that the English perfect aspect is compatible with all aspectual classes, whereas the progressive aspect is incompatible with achievements, since it converts them into activities.

2.1.11 The Interaction Between Discourse and Utterance Organization of Time

Temporal references cannot be interpreted without considering preceding and following utterances. Context is needed for making the right inferences. The integration of linguistic meaning proper and other information (e.g from previous utterance, from situational perception, or from general world knowledge) makes it possible to construct (for the speaker and to reconstruct for the interlocutor and the researcher) semantical representations. Moreover, temporal reference in one utterance is the outcome of the complex interaction between several explicit (the lexical content of the verbs, nouns and adverbs, verbal inflection) and implicit linguistic devices (such as how the words are put together) world and context knowledge, the temporal relation with preceding and following utterances, etc. In fact, it has often been proven that global discourse organization principles have an essential impact on the acquisition and use of local means in individual utterances. Here this study presents PNO as a type of discourse organization principle.

The principle of natural order of events: (PNO)

Information is organized in a particular way, depending on the communicative goal. Consider information organization in a personal narrative in contrast to information organization in a description. In a personal narrative, one recalls all the events that happened (yesterday, for example) and one normally does this in chronological order. One tells about the events and /or situations that happened and/or occurred yesterday in their natural order. This is called P.N.O the principle of mentioning events in their natural order. (Clark and Labour). (10)

English Language, for example relies predominantly on tense, aspect and temporal adverbials in expressing temporality.

2.1.12 The Igbo Tense and Aspect System

Tense

Tense in Igbo shows the actual time of an event indicated in verbs (Onuora 233, Ngoesi 72). According to Onuora, there are four tenses in Igbo

(1) Tensị Ndịnugbua (Present Continuous tense): This tense shows what is happening at the time of speaking. It is made by prefixing na + a/e to the stem:

For example:

Pita na-eri nri .	Peter is eating.
Anam arụ ọrụ .	I am working.
I na-ekwu okwu.	You are talking.
Ọ na-agụ akwụkwọ.	(s)he is reading a book.

(2) Tensị Ndịniihu (Future Tense) – subdivided into two (i) Ndiniihu (simple future tense) and (ii) Ndịniihu Ngawanye (future continuous). The auxiliary verb 'ga' is used for the simple future tense while 'ga' plus 'na' is used for the future continuous tense.

Aga m arụ-ọrụ .	I shall work	
Ọ ga-echi ọzọ .	He will take the Ọzọ title .	Simple future
Ụnụ ga-agba egwu.	You will dance.	

Aga m na-arụ ọrụ.	I will continue to work.	Future continuous

Ị ga na-ekwu okwu.   You must continue to talk .

Ụnụ ga na-agba egwu.   You should be dancing.

(3) Tensị Ndịnaazụ (Past Tense) made up of (i) ndịnanazụ (simple past) (ii) present perfect

tense and (iii) past perfect tense

The past tense shows a completed action in the past. The simple past is made up of the verb

root, the suffix 'r' and the vowel in the verb root.

Verb root	suffix	vowel	Sentence
Ma	ra	mara	Ngozi mara Ada ụra. (Ngozi slapped Ada).
Je	re	jere	Anyị jere ọrụ ugbo. (We went the farm.)
Ta	ra	tara	Ọ tara anụ ahụ. ((s)he ate the meat.
Chu	ru	churu	Chike churu mmiri (Chike fetched water)

The second part of the past tense is the present perfect tense. The present perfect is made

by prefixing a/e to the present and suffixing la.

Eriela m nri.   I have eaten.

O deela ihe n'akwụkwọ ya.   She has written on her book.

I taala anụ ahụ?   Have you eaten the meat?

The past perfect tense takes the suffix 'larị'

Erielari m nri ahụ.   I had eaten the food.

Anyị abụọlarị abụ.   We had sang the song.

Ha agbaalarị egwu.   They had danced.

(4) Tensị Ngaaradị (Conditional Past tense). This shows a conditional statement in the past; what would have happened. Examples:

Ọ gaara agba egwu.   He would have danced.

Anyị gaara eje ahịa.   We should have gone to the market.

Ha gaara ekwu okwu.   They should have talked.

Judging from the above, it could be noticed that Igbo is just like English. It has only two main tenses. The only difference between Igbo and English is that, while English is divided into Past and Not-the-Past; Igbo is divided into Future and Not-the-Future.

This means that anything you say in Igbo that is not expressly in the Future could be happening now, or it may have happened yesterday or at some other time in the past. This tense group being referred to as "Not-the-Future" is what is called The Aorist Tense. The Aorist Tense simply means that the verb describes an action without analysing it further. It doesn't tell us when the action started or when it finished (or whether it ever stopped). It reports the bare fact.

Again, Tense in Igbo is formed by a harmonising a- or e- prefix with the verb stem. For the present tense of verbs, the verb stem is used. If the personal pronoun follows the verb (which is the case for the first person inseparable pronoun), an **a-** or **e-** prefix is attached to the verb stem in line with the vowel harmony, i.e. an **a-** prefix for verb stems with an **a, ị,ọ,ụ** vowel; an **e-** prefix for verb stems with an **i, e, o, u** vowel. The meaning of the verb is generally changed by the suffix that specifies the action in the present or past. Some of these suffixes harmonise with the verb stem, others do not, and sometimes multiple suffixes can follow each other in a combination.

The most commonly suffixes used are:

-tara/-tere **-ra/-re**	action in the past (he did)
-la/-le	completed action (he has done)
-bụ	a past continuous action (he used to do)
-ri	past completed action (he did)
-ba	continue doing, starting an action (start doing)
-go	already completed the action (have done)
-bago	already completing the action (already doing, already done)
-lu	to indicate an intensification of the action of the verb
-ta	brings an action to completion
-kwazi	also, as well
-re	present continuous action (is doing)

Examples:

Ọ zụ tara anụ.   He bought meat.

O butere ya.   He brought it

Ị bịara?   Did you come?

Ọ gwụla.   It is finished.

O ruole.　　　　It is time.

Ana m azụbu anụ　I used to buy meat.

O biri ebea.　　　He lived here.

O biri anụ.　　　He ate meat.

O bigo ebe ahụ.　He has lived there.

O rigo anụ.　　　He has eaten meat.

O ribego nri.　　He has already started eating

Anabago m.　　　I am already going.

Ọ nabago　　　　he has already gone

Chelu　　　　　wait!

Weta ego　　　　bring money

Abụkwazi m Mike I am also Mike.

Olee ka i mere?　How are you doing?

The rule of vowel harmony does not exist in English rather English talks of subject-verb agreement; agreement between a noun and a verb in number, and in person.

The Igbo Aspect System

Unlike tense which shows actual time in Igbo, aspect shows duration and time that is not too clear. Take for instance in the sentences "Nweke siri ike" - *Nweke is strong;* "Onye nkuzi ahu gbara

dimkpa" -*The teacher is huge*. No time has been indicated in these sentences. In Igbo, aspect states what happens and not when it happens.

There are three kinds of aspect in Igbo:

(1) "Aspekịtị Mmaahụ/Mmaraahụ" One may call this habitual aspect. It shows the habit of the referent which he may not be able to stop. The auxiliary verb 'na' is used to form such words.

      Nnụnụ na-efe efe.   Birds fly.

      Egbe na-ebu ọkụkọ.   Eagles hawk chicks.

(2) "Aspekịtị Ngawaye" - This shows a continuous action that is still happening. It may not be happening at the time of speech but is bound to go on for a long time. It could be showing handiwork.

      Obi na-arụ ọrụ Bekee .   Obi is a civil servant.

      Nna m na-akuzi nkuzi.   My father is a teacher.

(3) "Aspekịtị Mmecha" – Perfective aspect: An action that was completed in the past but no one is certain about the time of the event. It is formed by adding the suffix 'la'

      Isi achala m awọ.   My hair has grown grey.

      Nna ya akaala nka.   His father has grown old.

It should be noted that while tense and aspect show actual time in English, it is not so in Igbo. The issue of aspectual form a predominant area of L2 learners' errors because of its non existence in the language. Distinguishing between the present perfect and the past perfect is always a problem.

2.1.13   Inter-language and Fossilization: A Literature Survey

(a) Inter-language Hypothesis

The Inter-language Hypothesis refers to the notion that the language produced by the second language learner is systematic in the same sort of way that first language performance is systematic. Both the first language and the second language reflect a set of rules that can be deduced and described. A learner's inter-language should therefore be studied not as an erroneous version of the target language, but as a system in its own right. The language of the second language speaker is the product of a linguistic system that is distinct from both the first and the target languages.

Teachers involved in L2 teaching often have to decide whether learners have produced language that is right or wrong. This calls upon them to describe the learner's version of the target language, their inter-language, "a term suggesting the half-way position it holds between knowing and not knowing the target language". (James 3)

According to the Inter-language Hypothesis, the inter-language system is based on the data the second language learner is exposed to and shares properties with both the mother tongue and the target language. (Cohen and Robbins 45)
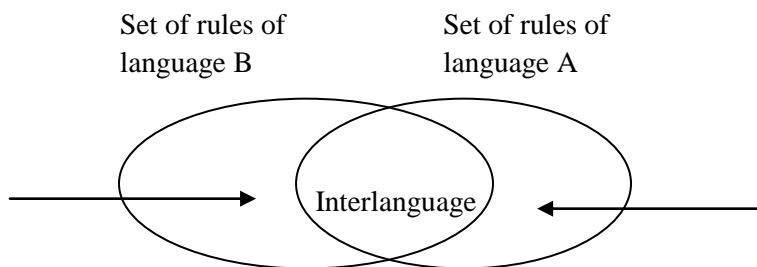
Definitions and Descriptions Of Inter-language

The term 'inter-language' was coined by Selinker in 1972. Although Selinker coined the term, it was Corder who is considered responsible for raising issues which became central to studies of **IL**. Inter-language scholars reject the view of learner language as merely an imperfect version of the target language.

Inter-language is a continuum between the first language and the target language along which all learners traverse (Larsen, et. al. 60). The term 'inter-language' was firstly used by John Reinecke in 1935. He used 'inter-language' to refer to a non standard variety of a first or second language, used as a means of intergroup communication. Many of the utterances produced by language learners are perceived as ungrammatical. They contain a lot of mistakes in lexis, pronunciation, and grammar. According to Ellis, inter-language is dynamic (constantly adapting to new information) and influenced by the learners (135). Ellis further quoted Selinker's idea about the characteristics of inter-language as follows:

1. Language transfer (some, but certainly not all, items, rules, and subsystems of a learner's inter-language may be transferred from the first language).

2. Transfer of training (some inter-language elements may derive from the way in which the learners were taught).

3. Strategies of second language learning (Selinker talks about an 'identifiable approach by the learner to the material to be learned).

4. Strategies of second language communication (an identifiable approach by the learner to communication with native speakers of the target language).

5. Overgeneralization of the target language material (some inter-language elements are the result of a 'clear overgeneralization' of target language rules and semantic features) (351).

Rustipa opined that

> An inter-language is developed by a learner of a second language who has not become fully proficient yet but is approximating the target language: preserving some features of their first language, or overgeneralizing target language rules in speaking or writing the target language and creating innovations. The inter-language rules are shaped by: L1 transfer, transfer of training, strategies of L2 learning (e.g. simplification), strategies of L2 communication (or communication strategies like circumlocution), and overgeneralization of the target language patterns (20).

Making errors constitutes a strategy or attempt to master the target language. And mastering the TL (or near TL) can only be achieved by good learners. Good language learners will always make attempts to practice the target language they learn, and, then, their target language mastery will approach the standard one.

Richards et al. refer to inter-language as the type of language produced by second-language and foreign-language learners who are in the process of learning a language (186). Second- language researchers and teachers realized that the language which L2 learners produce differs from both the mother tongue and the target language. They regarded this language as bad and ungrammatical due to proliferation of errors.

Inter language is a personal construct and process, and that while it may be true to say that certain tendencies are typical of certain learners from the same linguistic background, it cannot be true to say that all learners from that background will have such tendencies. As Kohn notes:

> For the analysis of (inter)language processes, group knowledge is of absolutely no importance. It is the learner's own autonomous and functional knowledge and his own certainty or uncertainty which determines his inter-language behaviour (23).

Inter-language is the kind of language that has aspects that are borrowed, transferred and generalized from the mother tongue. The language which the learner produces differs from both the mother tongue and the target language. Kilfoil and Van der Walt (424) regard inter-language as the learner's version of the L2. It is characterized by systematic errors, poor vocabulary and hesitant speech.

Deducing from the above definitions of inter-language, it is clear that the error-prone language produced by the learners who are the focus of this study can be categorized as inter-language. Some aspects of the learners' L2 are borrowed and transferred directly from Igbo - their native language. Their language bears the characteristics of both their mother tongue and the target language. These errors in the English of the students may have fossilised. The students may not be able to develop their inter-language any further.

(b) Fossilization

Another important characteristic of inter-language is fossilization which in the context of this study refers to "premature cessation of learning despite repeated exposure and attempts to learn..."

(Bialystok & Smith 102). The process in which incorrect linguistic features (errors) become a permanent part of the way in which a person uses language is called fossilisation.

According to Nakuma, (247) fossilisation is a "term used to denote what appears to be a state of permanent failure on the part of an L2 leaner to acquire a given feature of the target language." Nakuma further explains that fossilisation indicates the recurrence during L2 performance of a form that is not only "deviant" from the correct target language form, but also believed to be "unchangeable" to the correct form, no matter the degree of exposure to the target language.

Hamilton's (73) notion of the phenomenon of fossilisation is encapsulated in this view:

> Even with the strongest motivation and the most effective teaching, many learners reach a plateau. Errors which should have been eradicated, re-emerge with dispiriting regularity. What is puzzling about this phenomenon is not so much that learners make errors, this is inescapable. It is that errors occur in areas where students should be proficient.

It is a misconception to regard fossilization as a phenomenon applicable to only incorrect forms of the target language. According to Ellis (48) both correct and incorrect forms of the L2 can fossilise. Ellis also emphasizes that fossilisation is not necessarily permanent: it can be overcome by L2 learners.

Adjemian refers to what he calls stability over time in the production of correct forms and incorrect forms. Inter-languages stabilize through the process of fossilisation. Fossilisation leads to a freezing of the target language at a plateau beyond which the learner is unable to progress (314). Adjemian argues that some learners do not freeze their inter-languages at a plateau but continue

their linguistic evolution towards the target language norm. These learners seem susceptible to backsliding which refers to "... regular re-appearance... of fossilized errors that were thought to be eradicated" (315).

Selinker (216) notes that the "back" in backsliding means back "toward an inter-language norm" and not towards the speaker's native language.

Larry Selinker (218), the father of the notion of fossilisation, regarded fossilisation as a feature of the inter-language system. Selinker in Roodt,, regards fossilisation as a "… mechanism which exists in the latent psychological structure of a person's mind" (21). Selinker in Richards, also writes:

> Fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular NL [native language] will tend to keep in their IL [inter-language] relative to a particular TL [target language] , no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL (36) .

Selinker further argues that a crucial factor which any adequate theory of L2 will have to explain is the reappearance and re-emergence of inter-language structures that were thought to be eradicated. Selinker and Lamendella point out that fossilisation is a concept that is central to the inter-language Hypothesis. They argue that persistent failure of the vast majority of adult learners to achieve complete mastery of a second language is a phenomenon whose existence appears to be generally accepted by the researchers in second language acquisition, as well as by many second language teachers (363). Kohn refers to fossilisation as "a plateau at which students come to "rest after studying or acquiring English over a period of time…" (46).

Barnard defines fossilisation as a process which is an inter-language phenomenon and when "inter-language structures remained so stabilized for at least five years; they are regarded as being fossilized" (4). Barnard refers to this as inter-language fossilisation because natural second language development has been arrested before target language levels have been attained.

MacDonald contends that fossilisation reflects the different degrees of mastery, varying from little or no control of specific aspects of the target language to a post-systematic level, with only occasional appearances of the fossilised form (115). Vigil and Oller point out that it is not "only the fossilization of so-called 'errors ' that must be explained, but also fossilization of correct forms that conform to the target language norms" (283).

Nakuma argues that once an inter-language is permanent it "qualifies automatically as fossilised, given that it is by definition deviant from the native target system" (248). Nakuma further argues that fossilisation implies that the L2 learner has, at an early stage of the target L2 learning process, made the decision not to "acquire" the specific L2 form which will be perceived subsequently by others as fossilized (252).

Krashen claims that most second language acquirers fossilise, that is, they stop short of the native speaker level of performance in their second language. In response to the question whether L2 theory can account for fossilisation, Krashen suggests several possible causes of fossilisation. They are:

- Insufficient quantity of input

- Inappropriate quality of input

- The affective filter

- The output filter and

- The acquisition of deviant forms (43).

Regarding insufficient input, which he calls the most obvious cause of fossilisation, Krashen submits that second language performers may cease progress simply because they have stopped getting comprehensible input (43). It applies to the foreign language student who does not reside in the country where the language is spoken and who has little access to native speakers, books in the target language and other material resources. Even residents who live in a country where little interaction with native speakers occurs are also affected by insufficient input.

The second cause of fossilisation, inappropriate quality of input, refers to the case of a person whose input is sufficient but is of the wrong kind. Krashen gives an example of a case of a gas station attendant who communicates in English every day but hears phrases like 'fill 'up', ' could you check the oil?', etcetera (43). This input is filled with routines and patterns and has a limited range of vocabulary and little new syntax. Krashen contends that even long-term residents who interact greatly with native speakers may be constrained by the inappropriate input they get over and over again.

The third cause, the affective filter hypothesis (Krashen 44), was hypothesised to account for cases in which "comprehensible input of sufficient quality is available, but in which full acquisition does not take place". The acquirer needs to be 'open' to the input. A lower affective filter accounts for the child's superiority in ultimate attainment. Krashen defines the affective filter as a "mental block that prevents acquirers from utilizing the comprehensible input they receive for language acquisition"(3). When it is 'up' the acquirer may understand what he hears or reads but input will not reach the L A D [language acquisition device]. This occurs when the acquirer is not motivated,

lacks self-confidence or is anxious, and when he considers the language class to be a place where his weaknesses will be revealed. The filter is the 'lowest' when the acquirer is so involved that he forgets that he is hearing or reading another language.

Krashen contends that fossilisation can be explained in terms of 'lack of need', that is, "acquisition stops because the acquirer simply does not 'need' any more competence - he can communicate adequately with his current grammatical system"(44). Krashen recommends that fossilisation can be cured if communicative demands are raised and the performer focuses on grammatical accuracy.

The fourth cause of fossilisation, the output filter hypothesis, attempts to explain why L2 users do not always perform according to their competence (Krashen 45). These acquirers appear to be fossilized but in reality they have acquired more rules than they normally perform. The output filter prevents acquired rules from being used in performance. Krashen also hypothesises that the factors responsible for the establishment and maintenance of the output filter are just those factors responsible for the input or affective filter (46).

Krashen suggests that a necessary but probably not sufficient requirement for learners to perform their competence is that anxiety should be lowered and the focus should be on meaning and not on form.The last cause of fossilisation is the acquisition of deviant forms by beginning acquirers who are "exposed nearly exclusively to imperfect versions of the second language" (Krashen 46). Some students are exposed to a second language in extreme foreign language situations. Krashen clearly and eloquently portrays this situation:

> The only comprehensible input such students typically hear comes from the teacher, usually a non-native speaker of the second language who does not speak the

language well and classmates… Such input is filled with 'errors', intermediate or transitional forms and first language influenced errors. If this inter-language is the only input available, and if the student hears enough of it…, his language acquisition device will consider it to be 'real language' and will acquire it, in the technical sense. Such acquired forms may be difficult to 'forget' … acquired items enter a permanent storage (46-47).

This view epitomises and mirrors the situation in schools in Igboland, South-East, Nigeria, where students have no prospects whatsoever of getting the opportunity to meet with English native speakers. As a result of this situation students are exclusively exposed to imperfect versions of the target language. It is clear from the different definitions of fossilisation that it is a problematic area in L2 learning and teaching. A common thread in the definitions is the notion that speakers whose language has fossilised fail to reach proficiency in the second language.

2.1.14 The Influence of the Mother Tongue

As already indicated, an inter-language is based on the data and information that the learner is exposed to and has features from both the mother tongue and the target language. This implies that the mother tongue of the learner influences the learning of the second language. The phenomenon which results when second language learners use elements of one language (their mother tongue) when using another language (the target language) is called language transfer. According to Selinker language transfer is one of the central processes which produce what he calls fossilised competences and which are central to the L_2 learning process. These processes cause fossilisation and combinations of these processes produce "entirely fossilized IL (inter-language) competence"

(Selinker in Richards 37). Language transfer, therefore, causes the fossilisation of inter-language structures.

According to the notion of language transfer, individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture when attempting to speak a second language. Richards et al. refer to two types of transfer, namely, negative transfer and positive transfer (205). Positive transfer makes learning easier and may occur when both the native language and the target language have the same form. This similarity in forms facilitates second language acquisition. Negative transfer or interference refers to the use of a "native-language pattern or rule which leads to an error or inappropriate form in the target language" (Richards et al 205).

Features of negative transfer are common in the English of the students who are the focus of this study. This is so because elements of the students' mother tongue, Igbo, are transferred into their English. Consequently, they are likely to produce fossilised inter-language structures. Proponents of the notion of language transfer believe that it occurs in all levels, namely, morphology, phonology, vocabulary, semantics and syntax.

2.2   Theoretical Framework

The theoretical frameworks on which this thesis is anchored are:

- The Functional Theory of Language

- The Aspect Hypothesis

2.2.1 The Functional Theory of Language

The Universal Grammar has been the dominant linguistic approach to SLA for many years. Many researchers have rather chosen to take an external focus on language learning. The most influential of these approaches are based on the framework of functionalism. Four of the functional approaches which have been influential in SLA are systemic linguistics, functional typology, function-to-form mapping and information organization.

The systemic functional approach to language introduces the principles and techniques that are used to analyse and explain how meaning are made in everyday linguistic interactions.

In our ordinary everyday lives, we are constantly using language. We chat to family members, organize children for school, read the paper, speak at meeting, serve customers, follow instructions in a booklet, make appointments, surf the internet, call in a plumb, unburden ourselves to therapists, record our day's thoughts and activities in a journal, chat to our pets, send and read a few emails etc. all of these are activities which involve language. In contemporary life we are constantly required to react to and produce bits of language that make sense.

The systemic functional analysis was developed by the social semiotic linguist Michael Halliday. Systemic functional linguistic (SFL) is recognized as a very useful descriptive and interpretive framework for viewing language as a strategic, meaning-making resource.

Halliday prefaces his functional grammar with an open-ended list of 21 possible applications of SFL. Halliday (xxix-xxx) These include:

- The theoretical concern (to understand the nature and functions of language)

- The historical ones (to understand how languages envolve through time)

- Developmental ones (understand how a child develops language, and how language may have evolved in the human species)

- And educational ones (to help people learn their mother tongue…foreign languages)

Underlying all these varied applications is a common focus on the analysis of authentic products of social interaction (texts), considered in relation to the cultural and social context in which they are negotiated. The most generalizable application of SFL "is to understand the quality of texts:

why a text means what it does, and why it is valued as it is". Halliday (xxix). While individual scholars naturally have different research emphases or application contexts, common to all systemic linguists is an interest in language as social semiotic. According to Halliday how people use language with each other in accomplishing everyday social life. Halliday (xxv) This interest leads systemic linguists to advance four main theoretical claims about language:

1. That language use is functional

2. That its function is to make meanings

3. That these meaning are influenced by the social and cultural context in which they are exchanged

4. That the process of using language is a semiotic process, a process of making meanings by choosing

These four points, that language use is functional, semantic, contextual and semiotic can be summarized by describing the systemic approach as a functional-semantic approach to language.

The systemic approach to language is functional in two respects:

1. because its asks functional questions about language: how do people use language?

2.   Because it interpretes the linguists system functionally: how is language structured for use?

For SFL "a language is system of meanings". Bloor & Bloor (2). That is to say that, when people use language, their language acts, produce or more technically construct meaning. Form this point of view, grammar becomes a study of how meanings are built up through the choice of words and other grammatical resources such as singular or plural, negative or positive and other linguistic forms such as tone and emphasis. Grammar is semantic (concerned with meaning) and functional (concerned with how language is used). It is also lexicogrammar, a term that embraces the idea that vocabulary is inextricably linked to grammatical choices.

The theory of language followed in SFL involves the idea that a language consists of a set systems which offer speakers (or writer) an unlimited choice of ways of creating meanings. Thus if I want to know the time I might use one of the following expression (or any one of many more ways that the language offers us).

1.   What's the time?
2.   Tell me the time, please.
3.   I' d like to know the time.

Although each of these examples includes the word 'time' there is considerable variation in the choice of the words.

In addition, the first expression uses the interrogative form, the second uses of the imperative form and the third uses the declarative form.

Linguistic choice is available to speakers not with regard to interrogatives, imperatives and declaratives; it operates at every point in the production of speech. We may, for example, refer to a

shop as the "the supermarket" or the store, we may address our father as 'Dad' 'Daddy' Pa or by the use of his personal name or sons invented nickname. Linguistic choices also permit us to use full sentences or indicate meaning by the use of one or two words. Either (a) or (b) might be an equally satisfactory answers to the question.

What is the time?

a.   Four-thirty

b.   It's half-past four

Most of the linguistic choices we make are unconscious. We do not usually stop and think about whether to use a past tense or a present tense verb, and the choice between active and passive sentences depends on the circumstances of use.

In everyday speech we are constantly making unconscious content-relevant choice, such as referring to a person as either 'he' or 'she' or to a place as either 'here' or there'. In part, we select from what linguists term the paradigm of the language, a paradigm being a system of choices made potentially available to us by the language we are using. Thus, there is a paradigmatic relationship between masculine, famine and neuter, another between singular and plural, another between active and passive, a past tense or present tense and so on. These choices are systems 'which inter-relate with each other.

2.2.2 Aspect Hypothesis

Aspect Hypothesis maintains that while preterite morphology emerges first with the telic verbs then gradually spreads to activities and finally to verbs of state, imperfect morphology follows the opposite path - emerging first with verbs of state and spreading later to verbs of activity and finally to telic verbs.

The Aspect Hypothesis, proposed by Andersen (1991-1994) is an influential hypothesis on the acquisition of tense-aspect morphology in first and second language acquisition. It points out the relationship among these three concepts in the acquisition process and states that " first and second language learners will initially be influenced by the inherent semantic aspect of verbs or predicates in the acquisition of tense and aspect markers associated with or affixed to these verbs" (Andersen & Shirai 133). More precisely, it predicts that the acquisition of imperfective aspect will start with states and gradually spread to activities and accomplishments before finally reaching achievements. The spread of perfective aspect is predicted to move in the opposite direction: from achievements to accomplishments then to activities and finally to states.

The Aspect Hypothesis has received ample support from many Indo-European languages, including English, French, Italian, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish, as well as from non-European languages such as Japanese and Chinese. While there are many studies done on Indo-European languages in the acquisition of tense-aspect, the research on non-Indo-European languages is sparse. Especially in second language acquisition, the number of studies is very limited.

The Aspect Hypothesis is based on observations from empirical studies on the learning processes of tense-aspect morphology. To explain these observations, Shirai and Andersen turn to the Prototype Hypothesis, which states that there are prototypical and non-prototypical members of a grammatical category and that the learners first acquire the prototypical members of a grammatical category before gradually extending their knowledge to the non-prototypical members. In the acquisition of tense-aspect morphology, for instance, the acquisition of imperfective aspect states share the most prototypical features among the four aspectual classes with imperfective aspect.

This explains why the Aspect Hypothesis predicts that the imperfective marking starts with states before moving to other verb classes.

The primacy of aspect (Andersen and Shirai) is also called aspect hypothesis. This later version of hypothesis by Andersen and Shirai (533) makes four propositions.

1. Learners first use past marking or perfective marking on achievements and accomplishments, eventually extending its use to activities and states.

2. In languages that encode the perfective / imperfective distinction, imperfective past appears later than perfective past, and imperfective past marking begins with states and activities then extending to accomplishments and finally achievements.

3. In languages that have progressive aspect, progressive marking begins with activities, then extends to accomplishments or achievements.

4. Progressive marking are incorrectly over extended to states.

2.3 Empirical Studies

Second language acquisition pertaining to aspect has dominated the contemporary research in the field. They emerged from research concerning morpheme order and phonetic constraints on past tense morphology. According to Andersen early research did not provide much insight into the process of the development of aspectual morphology as the studies focused on the products, ie on instances of well found verbal predicates (77).

Currently, two main approaches to aspect acquisition predominate: the meaning - oriented approach and the form - oriented approach. The former aims at selecting the linguistic devices

utilized by the leaner to express a particular concept. For example, on the set of language acquisition, the past can be expressed through noun phrases (the nominal stage), various pragmatic means (such as chronological order narration) or lexical means (e.g time adverbials). Verb forms are employed only finally. However, base forms of verbs are replaced with inflected ones when the interlanguage development reaches an ultimate phase.

Contrastively, research set in the form - oriented approach, tracks the use of a specific formal marker of tense - aspect morphology. For instance, the primacy of Aspect Hypothesis by Andersen which concentrates on the strong relationship between inherent aspect and past morphology in early acquisition, falls within the form - oriented approach (78). Andersen claims that mostly telic verbal predicates are associated with past tense inflections, whereas atelic VPs obtain much lower rates of past tense marking. Learners' behaviors become less asymmetrical in the course of acquisition and telic begin to be inflected for the past. Another universal property of early acquisition of tense and aspect is a tight link between the perfective viewpoint and the past tense marking (smith 70). The imperfective grammatical aspect is fully acquired much later ,than the perfective.

Inherent Aspect

According to Comrie, aspect is "a way of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation" (3). Inherent aspect, frequently referred to as lexical aspect or Aktionsart (kind of action) can be calculated on the basis of intrinsic temporal characteristics of a verb phrase.

Internal semantic complexity of a verb phrase is reflected in its structure and it is not only linked to the verb and its (internal and external) arguments but also to adjuncts (Verkuyl 93). Verb phrases (VPs) can be grouped into four categories, differing from one another in feature. The primary

division is between statives (state) and non statives (activities and accomplishments). States are by nature, the only non-dynamic member of the classification. The feature distinguishing activities from other non statives is telicity. Activities are the category of VPs in which the described action does not lead to a determined goal or another terminal points (Garey 106). Achievements and accomplishments are (+ telic) , differing in punctuality. Thus, accomplishments, which involves a process, display duration, and thus are non-punctual while achievements are punctual occurrences.

Lexical classes **according to Mourelates**

Features	state	activities	accomplishment	Achievement
Punctual	-	-	-	+
Telic	-	-	+	+
Dynamic	-	+	+	+

It must be pointed out that linguists differ in the assignment of VPs to lexical aspect classes, which is by no means absolute. Hence, sentence (1-3) can be interpreted as telic or atelic, depending on what the situation looked like in real life.

(1)   The   car   moved.

(a) Twice

(b) For an hour

(2)   The   fence   touched   the   wall.

(a) Once

(b) For twenty years

(3)   John   pushed   the   button.

(a) (He pressed it once)

(b) (He was playing with the button, pushing it to and fro on the table)

A language user uttering sentence (1) may speak of a repeated movement of a car on a limited distance (1a), but she/he may as well have in mind a constant movement lasting an hour (1b). The second reading allows for the use of the progressive, which cannot be felicitously used with the telic interpretation. As the adjunct in (2a) induces a telic, punctual reading, the proposition expressed in the sentence is an achievement, while the VP in (2b) certainly represents a long - lasting state; clearly, the 'for' - phrase blocks the eventive reading.

At first sight, it may appear that the VP in (3)can only get the telic interpretation of a punctual event (3a, achievement). Nevertheless, if one thinks of John pushing an uninstalled button on a table, then an atelic reading emerges. Hence, this event will be understood as an activity of playing with the button (Borer 70).

The above discussion of inherent aspect shows that there is no unique taxonomy of events. Still, the groupings proposed by Vendler and Dowty are the most widespread as a starting point of empirical studies in the acquisition of aspect in a variety of target languages.

2.4 Summary of Literature

The expression of the temporality is a central conceptual domain of language. It is language universal, whereas the means of expressing temporality are language specific. English language employs the use of tense, aspect, temporal adverbials and prepositions in expressing temporality. Time is a universal, non-linguistic concept with three divisions: Past, present and future.   Tense is dependent on time and not vice versa. By tense we understand the correspondence between the form of the verb and our concept of time. Aspect concerns the manner in which the verbal action is experienced or regarded (for example as completed or in progress). Mood relates the verbal action to such conditions as certainty, obligation, necessity and possibility. These categories impinge on each other. The expression of time, present and past cannot be considered separately from aspect and the expression of the future is closely bound up with mood.

Metzler Lexikon(130) holds that there are no future tense in English because they are referenced using forms with an auxiliary verb. The researcher upholds the view that there are future tense in English. Aspect is often distinguished into two conceptual types: Grammatical aspect and Lexical aspect.

Grammatical aspect is expressed through grammatical markers, linguistic devices such as the auxiliaries and verb inflection

eg

She is singing   - progressive   aspect

She had sang a song   -perfective action

Lexical aspect refers to the characteristics that are inherent in particular lexical item.

The lexical aspectual classes are state, activity, accomplishment and achievement.

Comrie pointed out three binary distinct features of lexical aspect eg state vs dynamic, atelic vs telic, durative vs punctual.

The researcher discovered that Klein's temporal adverbials have close parallels with Quirk and Greenbuam's prepositions of time. The researcher discussed the interaction between discourse and utterance organization of time through the Principle of Natural Order of events (PNO) as a type of discourse organization principle.

A specific value of aspect is a result of the speaker's choice (Comrie 76). Unlike the temporal category of tense, grammatical aspect is relative, in the sense that the same real life situation can be referred to by means of either aspect (perfective/ imperfective). So a situation in which a person is engaged in playing a piano can be verbalized e.g la John played the piano - imperfective or lb John played the piano - perfective

This can be done without any harm to the intended proposition. In order to describe this particular situation, the speaker is offered two aspectual options. If the speaker perceives the event as bounded, they will draw on the perfective aspect. At the same time, the imperfective will be valid with the situations assessed by the speaker as unbounded.

Quite conversely, the relationship between the time of speech and time of the event (tense) cannot be freely altered as any alteration brings about falsehood of an intended meaning of sentence. e.g

2a John washed the car.

2a John washes the car.

2a and 2b cannot be used to refer to the same event, while the sentences in la and Ib may be

treated as equivalent and hence la and Ib can both describe the same situation.

Andersen claims that the imperfective grammatical aspect is fully acquired much later than the perfective. The researcher doesn't agree with such a claim. This is because some learners might acquire the perfective before the imperfective. While some other group of learners might acquire the imperfective alongside the perfective.

This chapter has identified and discussed the English and Igbo tense and aspectual systems with a view to finding areas of differences that constitute the L1 target language errors and inter-language. It has presented a comprehensive view of the uses of tense and aspect in English, inter-language and fossilisation with particular emphasis on various definitions and features of the phenomena. It is clear from this presentation that the concepts are viewed from different perspectives by different theorists. The discussion of research findings pertaining to errors in general has given this study a theoretical basis.

It can be said that the discussion on inter-language and fossilisation clearly reveals the shortcomings that can be expected from the students who are used as samples in this study. The fact that these students learn English in a non-native environment and are taught by English as a second language teachers militate against natural acquisition of the English language. All these factors make these students good candidates for fossilisation.

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

3.0 Research Design

The study was conducted using the survey research design. Fifty participants from each school were subjected to the Grammaticality Judgment Task to test the simple present tense and agreement errors and the Elicited Written Production Task to test the simple past and aspect errors. The results of the tests were tabulated accordingly.

3.1 Area of the Study

The study area is Awka educational zone. This is made up of five local government areas. They are Anaocha L. G .A Awka North L.G.A., Dunukofia L.G.A., Njikoka L.G.A., and Awka South L.G.A. Anaocha people are predominantly commercial though a good number of them are educated. The capital is at Neni. Awka North is predominantly agrarian. The capital is at Achalla.

Dunukofia people are predominantly agrarian, but have made major impact in commerce and education .Their headquarters is at Ukpo. Njikoka is also predominantly agrarian though some sections of the population are educated. The headquarters is at Abagana. Awka South is one of the 21 local Government Areas of Anambra State, Nigeria. The city Awka serves the dual function of the headquarters of the local government and the capital city of the state. The majority of students in Awka South schools are Igbo students who speak different dialects of Igbo which interfere with their learning of English. Consequently, the English produced by Igbo learners deviates from the native norm in pronunciation, grammar and syntax., etc.

3.2 Population of the Study

The target population for study is SS 3 students from ten schools in Awka educational zone.

Other classes were excluded in this study. Only the SS3 students were used because students in SS3 are in the highest academic rung in the secondary school. They are almost on the verge of entering the University, and as such should have acquired temporality of English. Also English is a subject they must pass to gain admission into any tertiary institution.

3.3 Sample and Sampling Technique

500 SS3 students constituted the sample. The sample was drawn through a random sampling technique.

3.4 Method of Data Collection

Their proficiency in English language was assessed independently using the Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT) and the Elicited Written Production Task (EWPT).

This is an adapted form of the grammaticality judgment task (GJT) formally used by Muftah and Rafi-Galea in 2012 and published by Canadian Center of Science and Education in English language Teaching Vol. 6 (2) to conduct an error analysis of simple present tense in the Inter language of Adult Arab English language learners. This researcher borrowed his terms but constructed test items that are different in number and type. This researcher used GJT to test simple present tense and agreement errors while EWPT tested the simple past and aspect errors. The Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT) consisted of 15 items displaying grammatical and ungrammatical use of present simple tense and agreement morpheme. The morpheme being

examined is the third person singular -s (3sg -s). The test items were divided into three sets of items with the types as follows:

7 Wrongly inflected items (e.g., The friends *works in the bank.)

4 (Omission of the 3sg -s) (e.g., *The student sit in front of the computer.)

4 Correctly Inflected items (wrong use of the 3sg -s) (e.g., My mother gives money to the poor.) and (Wrong use of the 3sg -s) eg *You listens to the radio everyday.

The participants were given twenty (20) minutes to answer all the items. They were requested to tick (√) when the test item is grammatical and cross (X) when the test item is ungrammatical. The correct judgment of either a grammatical or ungrammatical item was given a score of 1 while the incorrect judgment of these items was given a score of O.

Statistical tests were run on the learners' scores.

The EWPT which consisted of three exercises and a total of 30 test items covered the use of the past tense and the aspectuals.

3.5 Method of Data Analysis

Data were presented in tables and analyzed using simple percentages and Chi-square statistical analysis. Chi-Square is a good statistical method to test association/relationship or difference.

CHAPTER FOUR

Data Presentation and Analysis

Anaocha L.G.A

Table 1: Table showing the test results of students of Bubendorff Memorial Grammar School, Adazi-Nnukwu

Scores (%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	-	-	4	8
10-19	-	-	6	-
20-29	-	6	11	-
30-39	1	3	14	4
40-49	29	9	14	4
50-59	12	20	-	7
60-69	4	5	-	16
70-79	-	7	-	3
80-89	4	-	-	3
90+	-	-	-	4
Total	50	50	50	50

This table illustrates the GJT and EWPT test scores of students of BMGS Adazi-Nnukwu.

The EWPT test evaluated SPT, (simple past tense) PP/PPC_1, (past perfect/ past perfect continuous) PP/PPC_2, (present perfect/present perfect continous) while the GJT test evaluated the simple present and agreement errors. The table highlighted an overall poor performance of the students in both the GJT and EWPT tests.

Table 2: Table showing the test results of students of Girls' High School, Agulu

Scores (%)	No of participant (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	-	-	1	1
10-19	-	-	2	2
20-29	5	-	7	-
30-39	10	2	5	-
40-49	14	15	11	-
50-59	11	13	6	-
60-69	4	11	8	9
70-79	3	7	4	6
80-89	3	2	5	11
90+	-	-	-	21
Total	50	50	50	50

This table shows the GJT and EWPT tests scores of the students of GHS Agulu.

The GJT evaluated the simple present and agreement errors while the EWPT evaluated the simple past tense and aspect errors. The table highlighted their poor performances both in GJT and EWPT tests. Under EWPT, their performance in the simple past tense was on the average, past perfect and past perfect continuous was very poor while they recorded an impressive performance in the present perfect/present perfect continuous tenses.

Awka North L.G.A

Table 3: Table showing the test results of students of Community Secondary School, Amansea

Scores (%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	-	10	20	21
10-19	-	2	4	1
20-29	15	5	7	-
30-39	10	7	7	1
40-49	12	9	1	6
50-59	6	7	5	-
60-69	3	5	4	-
70-79	1	4	-	3
80-89	3	1	2	8
90+	-	1	-	10
Total	50	50	50	50

This table illustrates the GJT and EWPT tests scores of the students of Community Secondary School Amansea. The table highlighted an overall poor performance of the students in both tests.

Table 4: Table showing the test results of students of Community Secondary School, Isuaniocha.

Scores (%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	1	4	1	6
10-19	3	-	10	9
20-29	6	12	12	9
30-39	8	14	6	2
40-49	15	6	9	2
50-59	2	8	4	5
60-69	12	3	6	6
70-79	1	2	2	7
80-89	2	1	-	9
90+	-	-	1	3
Total	50	50	50	50

This table shows the GJT and EWPT tests scores of students of Community Secondary School Isuaniochia. The EWPT test evaluated SPT, PP/PPC$_1$, PP/PPC$_2$ while the GJT test evaluated the simple present and agreement errors. The table highlighted the overall poor performance of students in both tests.

Dunukofia L.G.A

Table 5: Table showing the test results of students of Community Secondary School, Ukpo

Scores (%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	2	-	6	3
10-19	2	-	2	2
20-29	10	6	12	6
30-39	14	6	7	2
40-49	16	11	15	2
50-59	3	10	4	10
60-69	3	7	3	6
70-79	-	7	1	5
80-89	-	-	-	13
90+	-	2	-	1
Total	50	50	50	50

This table illustrates the GJT and EWPT test scores of students of Community Secondary School Ukpo. The table highlighted a poor performance under the GJT. Under EWPT, the simple past tense and PP/PPC$_1$ scores were poor while PP/PPC$_2$ tests scores were close to average.

Table 6: Table showing the test results of students of Community High School, Nawgu

Scores(%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	-	2	-	6
10-19	-	10	4	3
20-29	16	11	9	3
30-39	11	10	16	1
40-49	18	8	17	13
50-59	4	2	3	11
60-69	-	7	2	6
70-79	1	2	-	1
80-89	-	-	-	4
90+	-	1	-	4

This table shows the GJT and EWPT test scores of the students of Community High School Nawgu. The GJT test evaluated the simple present tense   and agreement errors while the EWPT tested the simple past tense and aspect errors.   The table shows extremely poor performance of the students in both tests.

Njikoka L.G.A

Table 7: Table showing the test results of students of Community Secondary School, Abba

Scores(%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	2	10	1	14
10-19	0	3	2	2
20-29	13	14	6	2
30-39	12	-	11	1
40-49	11	13	20	14
50-59	6	3	4	7
60-69	1	5	5	4
70-79	-	2	1	5
80-89	-	-	-	1
90+	-	-	-	1
Total	50	50	50	50

This table illustrates the GJT and EWPT test scores of students of Community Secondary School Abba. The EWPT tested the simple past and aspect errors while GJT tested the simple present and agreement errors. The table highlighted the overall poor performance of the students in the GJT and EWPT test scores.

Table 8: Table showing the test results of students of Comprehensive Secondary School, Nawfia

Scores (%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	-	-	5	4
10-19	-	-	3	2
20-29	9	2	6	1
30-39	6	5	8	1
40-49	10	14	13	4
50-59	7	17	7	7
60-69	11	8	9	10
70-79	3	4	1	10
80-89	4	-	-	6
90+	-	-	-	5
Total	50	50	50	50

This table shows the GJT and EWPT tests scores of the students of Comprehensive Secondary School Nawfia. Their performance in the GJT test which evaluated the simple present tense and agreement errors was fair. While under EWPT, the simple past tense scores and PP/PPC$_1$ scores were poor whereas the PP/PPC2 test result was impressive.

Awka South L.G.A

Table 9: Table showing the test results of students of St John Of God Secondary School, Awka

Scores(%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	-	-	-	3
10-19	-	-	4	5
20-29	4	10	4	5
30-39	13	1	20	1
40-49	11	5	6	-
50-59	6	10	2	2
60-69	8	10	6	6
70-79	1	9	4	3
80-89	7	4	3	5
90+	-	1	1	20
Total	50	50	50	50

This table illustrates the GJT and EWPT test scores of the students of SJGSS Awka. The GJT which evaluated the simple present and agreement errors highlighted a poor performance of the students. Under the EWPT which evaluated the simple past and expect errors, the students performance was very impressive in PP/PPC$_2$. The simple past tense scores were above average while PP/PPC1 scores were very poor.

Table 10: Table showing the test results of students of Igwebuike Grammar School, Awka

Scores(%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	-	-	4	6
10-19	-	4	3	1
20-29	-	4	12	-
30-39	4	2	5	-
40-49	22	10	15	5
50-59	9	11	4	5
60-69	4	13	5	-
70-79	5	4	2	7
80-89	6	2	-	8
90+	-	-	-	18
Total	50	50	50	50

This table shows the GJT and EWPT tests scores of the students of Igwebuike Grammar School, Awka. Their performance in the GJT which evaluated the simple present tense was fair. Under the EWPT which evaluated the simple past tense and aspect errors, the students' performance was very impressive in PP/PPC2. They were challenged by the simple past tense while the PP/PPC1 posed the greatest challenge.

Research Question 1: What are the different ways of expressing temporality in the English language?

The English language has several means of expressing temporality. They are tense, aspect, temporal adverbials, prepositions of time, mood and conditionality. Under tense, we have the

present, past and future. Aspect is categorized into two conceptual types – grammatical aspect and lexical aspect. Under grammatical aspect we have

Simple   present

Present   Continuous

Present   Perfect

Present   Perfect Continuous

Simple   Past

Past   Continuous

Past   Perfect

Past   Perfect Continuous

Simple   Future

Future   Continuous

Future   Perfect

Future   Perfect Continuous

The lexical aspect: This has four aspectual classes called time schemata. They are states, activity accomplishment and achievement. These aspectual classes have three binary features namely stative vs dynamic, atelic vs telic and durative vs punctual. Vendler states that the use of a verb may suggest the particular way in which that verb presupposes and involves the notion of time. (217)

The temporal adverbials are also used in expressing of temporality. They are.

Temporal adverbial of position – at five, in the night

Temporal adverbial of duration - for one hour, 2 months

Temporal adverbial of Frequency -   often, always

Temporal adverbial of Contrast -   again, still, yet

Temporal adverbial describing inherent temporal properties of a situation e.g quickly, gradually

Prepositions of time express temporality e.g Time-when: at, on, in,. Duration is expressed by for; before, after, since and until, between, by and up to. The researcher did not test all the means available for the expression of temporality. The researcher carried out a pilot study. From the result of the pilot study, the researcher then discovered that most of the students defaulted in these areas and that prompted the emphasis of this research in those areas. The areas tested by this study are the simple present tense and agreement errors, the simple past tense, past perfect/past perfect continuous tenses and the present perfect/present perfect continuous tenses.

Research Question 2: What are the students errors in the expression of temporality in English?

Throughout the ten schools sampled (n=10), the study observed that the errors in temporality are mostly domiciled within the domain of the criteria under the GJT, SPT and PP/PPC1

In other words, the errors of temporality under the GJT are: Wrongly inflected items and Omission of 3sg-s. The errors of temporality under the simple past tense are - wrong use of progressive to mark the past, the use of past perfect for simple past and vice versa, the use of simple present for the simple past. The errors of temporality under the past perfect/ past perfect continuous are:

Using the two interchangeably

Using the simple past for past perfect and vice versa and using the present perfect for past perfect and vice versa.

These errors affect the students in narrative writing especially in external examination. The Chief Examiner's report from WAEC on candidates' weaknesses buttresseses these findings in the use of wrong tenses by candidates in their essay writing. Therefore, this calls for a revisit of the English language curriculum in these specific areas.

Research Question 3: What are the grammatical errors in the use of tense and aspect by ESL leaners' in a given test?

Table 1: Table showing the test results of students of Bubendorff Memorial Grammar School, Adazi-Nnukwu

Scores (%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	-	-	4	8
10-19	-	-	6	-
20-29	-	6	11	-
30-39	1	3	14	4
40-49	29	9	13	4
50-59	12	20	-	7
60-69	4	5	2	16
70-79	-	7	-	3
80-89	4	-	-	3
90+	-	-	-	4

Total	50	50	50	50

Table 1: The students of BMGS showed a high frequency of simple present tense and agreement errors. Only 40% of the respondents scored $\geq$ 50%, while only 16% scored $\geq$ 60%. The GJT test showed a preponderance of simple present tense errors. The majority of the students used simple present tense and simple past tense interchangeably. A recurrence of agreement errors was also observed where most students used plural nouns with singular verbs. e.g "The friends works in the bank" (work) Also in the simple past tense, only 12 participants scored $\geq$ 60%. The researcher observed a recurrence of errors where most participants used the past perfect instead of the simple past e.g

"I was very tired, so I gone to bed early". (went)

The result of their PP/PPC$_1$ recorded a very high frequency of errors as only two participants scored 60% and above while, 35 participants scored 30% and below. The participants used the simple past tense instead of the past perfect continuous tense e.g.

"I tried to get tickets for that play for months and I didn't want to miss it." (had been trying)

In the PP/PPC$_2$ the students did very well since 26 of them scored 60% and above. Very few of the students interchanged the present perfect for the present perfect continuous Eg "I have cleaned all day and still have work to do" (I have been cleaning)

Table 2: Table showing the test results of students of Girls' High School, Agulu

Scores (%)	No of participant (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	-	-	1	1
10-19	-	-	2	2
20-29	5	-	7	-
30-39	10	2	5	-
40-49	14	15	11	-
50-59	11	13	6	-
60-69	4	11	8	9
70-79	3	7	4	6
80-89	3	2	5	11
90+	-	-	-	21
Total	50	50	50	50

Table 2: The students of GHS Agulu showed a high frequency of errors in the simple present and agreement test 29 participants scored below 40% while 21 scored 50% and above. There were observed wrongly inflected   items like 'You listens to the radio everyday' (listen)

"The priest visit us every Sunday" (visits). Most of the participants chose these as the right options. In the simple past tense, the participants did fairly well as only 15 participants scored 40% and 2 scored 30%. The result of the PP/PPC_1 recorded high frequency of errors since only 17 participants scored 60% and above, their PP/PPC_2 test scores recorded very minimal errors as only 3 participants scored below 20% .

Table 3: Table showing the test results of students of Community Secondary School, Amansea

Scores (%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	-	10	20	21
10-19	-	2	4	1
20-29	15	5	7	-
30-39	10	7	7	1
40-49	12	9	1	6
50-59	6	7	5	-
60-69	3	5	4	-
70-79	1	4	-	3
80-89	3	1	2	8
90+	-	1	-	10
Total	50	50	50	50

Table 3: The participants in this school (CSS Amansea) recorded high frequency of errors under the simple present and agreement errors. The researcher observed omission of the '-s' "The priest visit us every Sunday". (visits) Also they used singular verb for a plural subject e.g. "Children greets their parents every morning". (greet) The result of the simple past tense showed a recurrence of errors since 33 participants scored 50%. Some used the present tense instead of the past tense e.g "It was hard work carrying the bags". "They are very heavy". (were) In the PP/PPC1, the participants recorded very poor performance. 38 participants scored below 40%.

This shows that the articles tested here pose major problem to participants in this school. Most of the participants in this school used the present perfect for the past perfect e.g.

a.   "Kathy have already picked up the tickets" (had already picked)

b.   They also used past tense for past perfect eg." She mentioned that she missed so many movies because of your late arrival" (had missed)

Surprisingly the participants performed poorly also in PP/PPC2 which recorded minimal errors in other schools used in this sample. Eg. some of their errors are:

a.   "How many pages have you been writing since morning" (have you written)

b.   How long have you been knowing Peter? (have you known)

Table 4: Table showing the test results of students of Community Secondary School, Isuaniocha.

Scores (%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	1	4	1	6
10-19	3	-	10	9
20-29	6	12	12	9
30-39	8	14	6	2
40-49	15	6	9	2
50-59	2	8	4	5
60-69	12	3	6	6
70-79	1	2	2	7
80-89	2	1	-	9

90+	-	-	1	3
Total	50	50	50	50

Table 4: The students in this school performed poorly under this GJT that tested the present tense and agreement errors, 33participants scored below 50%. Eg she sleeps any time, any place. Some participants regarded this as incorrect while it is correct. The simple past showed a poor result since 14 students scored 50% and above. The PP/PPC$_1$ recorded high frequency of error since 38 students scored 40% and below while the rest scored 50% and above. Eg I was waiting for over an hour. (had been waiting) The PP/PP$_2$ recorded an improvement.

Table 5: Table showing the test results of students of Community Secondary School, Ukpo

Scores (%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	2	-	6	3
10-19	2	-	2	2
20-29	10	6	12	6
30-39	14	6	7	2
40-49	16	11	15	2
50-59	3	10	4	10
60-69	3	7	3	6
70-79	-	7	1	5
80-89	-	-	-	13
90+	-	2	-	1
Total	50	50	50	50

Table 5: The students of CSS Ukpo showed an average performance in the simple present and agreement error sine 22 students scored 40% and above. Also the simple past tense recorded an

average performance while in PP/PPC$_1$ witnessed a complete departure from the previous performance. 42 participants scored 40% and below. Many used the simple past instead of the past perfect.

Eg "She was really angry because she waited for more than half an hour". (had been waiting)

Their PP/PPC$_2$ showed appreciable performance since 35 participants scored 50% and above.

Table 6: Table showing the test results of students of Community High School, Nawgu

Scores (%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	-	2	-	6
10-19	-	10	4	3
20-29	16	11	9	3
30-39	11	10	16	1
40-49	18	8	17	13
50-59	4	2	3	11
60-69	-	7	2	6
70-79	1	2	-	1
80-89	-	-	-	4
90+	-	1	-	4

Table 6: The students of C.H.S Nawgu performed poorly under the simple present and agreement error, 45 participants scored 40% and below. A recurrence of agreement errors was observed. The students were seriously challenged under this test. The simple past also recorded a very poor performance 33 students scored below 40%. Here a participant surprisingly used continuous tense

e.g. "The film wasn't good. I enjoying it very much". The PP/PPC1 recorded poor performance while the PP/PPC$_2$ was on the average. The correct form is "The film wasn't good. I did not enjoy it very much.

Table 7: Table showing the test results of students of Community Secondary School, Abba

Scores(%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	2	10	1	14
10-19	0	3	2	2
20-29	13	14	6	2
30-39	12	-	11	1
40-49	11	13	20	14
50-59	6	3	4	7
60-69	1	5	5	4
70-79	-	2	1	5
80-89	-	-	-	1
90+	-	-	-	1
Total	50	50	50	50

Table 7: The students of CSS Abba didn't perform well in the test of the simple present and agreement errors since 18 participants scored 40% and above. They also did fairly well in the simple past tense. The PP/PPC1 was on the average as 30 students scored 40% and above. Also the PP/PPC$_2$ was on the average good.

Table 8: Table showing the test results of students of Comprehensive Secondary School, Nawfia

Scores (%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	-	-	5	4
10-19	-	-	3	2
20-29	9	2	6	1
30-39	6	5	8	1
40-49	10	14	13	4
50-59	7	17	7	7
60-69	11	8	9	10
70-79	3	4	1	10
80-89	4	-	-	6
90+	-	-	-	5
Total	50	50	50	50

Table 8: The students of CSS Nwafia recorded an impressive performance as 35 participants scored 40% and above in the GJT. The simple past tense score was on the average as 29 students scored 50% and above. The PP/PPC$_1$ was fair while PP/PP$_2$ recorded very minimal errors.

Table 9: Table showing the test results of students of St John Of God Secondary School, Awka

Scores(%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	-	-	-	3
10-19	-	-	4	5
20-29	4	10	4	5
30-39	13	1	20	1
40-49	11	5	6	-
50-59	6	10	2	2
60-69	8	10	6	6
70-79	1	9	4	3
80-89	7	4	3	5
90+	-	1	1	20
Total	50	50	50	50

Table 9: The students of SJGSS Awka had average performance in the simple present and agreement errors as 22 participants scored above 50%. The simple past posed a little problem to them while PP/PPC$_1$ posed the greatest challenge to them. The PP/PPC$_2$ posed no challenge to them.

Table 10: Table showing the test results of students of Igwebuike Grammar School, Awka

Scores(%)	No of participants (GJT)	No of participants (EWPT)		
		SPT	PP/PPC1	PP/PPC2
0-9	-	-	4	6
10-19	-	4	3	1
20-29	-	4	12	-
30-39	4	2	5	-
40-49	22	10	15	5
50-59	9	11	4	5
60-69	4	13	5	-
70-79	5	4	2	7
80-89	6	2	-	8
90+	-	-	-	18
Total	50	50	50	50

Table 10: The grammatical errors of the students in this school (IGS Awka) are mostly under the past perfect/past perfect continuous as 24 participants scored below 40%. They used both interchangeably Eg I <u>tried</u> to get the tickets for that play for months. (had been trying) Eg By the time I finally left the coffee shop, where we were suppose to meet, I <u>was having</u> five cups of coffee. (had had) The PP/PPC$_1$ posed no challenge to them, 33 participants scored 70% and above.

The GJT Scores of Urban and Rural Schools were Compared in order to Evaluate the Objectives

Urban   **Rural**

St John of God Secondary School Awka   BMGS Adazi-Nnukwu

Igwubuike Grammar School Awka   CSS Isuaniocha

Research Question 4:

To evaluate the relationship/difference between the GJT scores of the students in the Urban and Rural schools.

Table 11: Chi-square frequency distribution Table for GJT scores of Urban and Rural Schools.

Frequency	Schools	
	Urban	Rural
O	46	37
E	41.5	41.5

46 represents the total number of participants who scored 50% and above under the GJT test for the urban schools (St. John and Igwebuike Grammar School Awka) while 37 represents the total number of participants who scored 50% and above in the GJT test in the rural schools. (B.M.G.S. Adazi and C.S.S Isuaniocha).

Since the calculated x^2 is less than the table x^2 (see appendix), therefore, there is no statistically significant difference between the number of students that scored $\geq$ 50% in the GJT scores of the urban and rural schools. This answers the research question (4) four, what are the differences between the GJT scores of students in the urban and rural schools?

Research Question 5:

To evaluate the difference between EWPT scores of the students in the Urban and Rural schools.

Table 12: Chi-square frequency distribution table for EWPT scores of Urban and Rural Schools.

Frequency	Schools	
	Urban	Rural
0	165	126
E	145.5	145.5

165 represents the total of participants who scored 50% and above under the EWPT test for the urban schools (St. John and Igwebuike), while 126 represents the total number of participants who scored 50% and above under the EWPT test for the rural schools (B.M.G.S Adazi and C.S.S Isuaniocha).

Since the calculated x^2 is greater than the table x^2 (see appendix), therefore, there is a statistically significant difference between the number of students that scored $\geq$ 50% in the EWPT scores of urban and rural schools. This sought to answer the research question (5) five, what are the differences between the EWPT scores of students in the urban and rural schools?

The urban schools performed better than the rural schools in this test.

CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion of Findings, Suggestions for Further Research and Conclusion

5.1 Discussion of Findings

The study evaluated the expression of Temporality in English Language: A Functional Approach Ten secondary schools were sampled using the Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT) and Elicited Written Production Task (EWPT) to investigate proficiency in the English Language. The GJT was used to test the simple present tense and agreement errors while EWPT was used to test the simple past and aspect errors. The simple past tense is termed (SPT). For this study aspect errors are the past perfect/past perfect continuous (PP/PPC1) and the present perfect/present perfect continuous PP/PPC2. The study showed that Bubendorff Memorial Grammar School, Adazi-Nnukwu students' performances in GJT were poor with only 20 (40%) scoring 50% and above while only 8 (16%) scored 60 and above. This implies that the students proficiency in the use of the simple present and agreement errors is on the average poor. For the EWPT, the study revealed that only 12 (24%), 4 (8%) and 26 (52%) participants scored 60% and above for the simple past tense (SPT), past perfect/past perfect continuous (PP/PPC1) and present perfect/ present perfect continuous tense (PP/PPC2) respectively. This implies a very poor performance in the proficient use of simple past tense and past perfect/past perfect continuous among these students. This result supports the aspect hypothesis which states that 'progressive marking are incorrectly over extended to states'. Andersen and Shirai (533) This is because under the test for the simple past tense where a participant is required to use the correct form of the verb in bracket, he failed to do that. Instead of using the correct form of the verb he used V-ing. A participant wrote: "The film wasn't very good I enjoying it very much".

Then in CHS Nawgu,a participant was called up to narrate how he spent his last holiday.

In the course of his narration he said, "In my uncle's house we eat beans everyday and I hate it but I am liking it now".

The participants over extended the progressive marking to states verbs. On the other hand, their performances in the use of present perfect continuous tense was slightly above average. This result corroborates the aspect hypothesis in that it states that 'in languages that have progressive aspect, progressive marking begins with activity verbs'. Andersen and Shirai (533) Comrie supports this by saying that distinction between the static and dynamic situations justifies the dichotomy between states and events, the former being static and the later dynamic. States represent the most basic situations, being homogenous and requiring no energy to be sustained, as opposed to dynamic situations, which are continually subject to new input of energy. Comrie (49) The participants began their progressive marking with activities.

For Girls' High School Agulu, the study showed that 21 (42%) scored 50% and above while only 10 (20%) scored 60% and above in the GJT. For the EWPT, 20 (40%), 17(34%) and 47 (94%) participants scored 60% and above in the simple past tense (SPT) past perfect continuous tense (PP/PPC1) and present perfect continuous (PP/PPC2) respectively. The result implies that while the performance could be generally regarded as poor, a lot more students (94%) scored 60% and above in the PP/PPC2 test revealing a very high proficiency in the use of present perfect continuous tenses among the students. This result corroborates the aspect hypothesis which states that the progressive marking should begin with activities in language that has progressive aspect Andersen and Shirai (533). So the participants performed well here because their progressive marking was done on activity verbs.

The result of Community Secondary School, Amansea showed an overall poor performance in all selected tests. For the GJT only 13 (26%) scored 50% and above while only 7 (14%) scored (60%) and above. The result of the EWPT tests showed that 11 (22%), 6(12%) and 11 (22) % scored 60 and above for SPT, PP/PPC1 and PP/PPC2 tests respectively. The result of the PP/PPC2 which tested proficiency in the use the present perfect and present perfect continuous tense disagrees with the aspect hypothesis because many of the participants did not mark the progressives with activity verbs Andersen and Shirai (533) Eg. Most of their answers in 3c read: 'I have cleaned all day and I still have work to do.' instead of 'I have been cleaning all day and I still have work to do'. The result of the past perfect/past perfect continuous tense shows that the students do not know the structure that realizes it.

The result of the PP/PPC1 test scores agrees with the systemic functional theory because according to this theory, languages are functional. The systemic approach to language is functional in two main respects: (1) because it asks functional questions about language: how do people use language? (2) because it interpretes the linguistic system functionally: how is language structured for use? Eggins (3) Comrie affirms this by saying that language is structured therefore grammaticalization refers to ways of establishing time that requires obligatory expressions and morphological boundedness. Comrie (7) There was observed inherent structural error in their use of the past perfect/past perfect continuous tense. This poor performance of the students in the PP1/PPC2 test could likely be as a result of poor foundation in the use of the English language.

The result of Community Secondary School Isuaniocha showed that 17 (34%) of the participants scored 50% and above while only 15 (30%) of the respondents scored 60% and above in the GJT. The result of their EWPT shows that 6 (12%), 8(16%) and 32(64%) scored 60% and above in the SPT, PP/PPC1 and PP/PPC2 respectively. It was also observed that the students' proficiency in the

use of present perfect/ present perfect continuous (PP/PPC2) tense was high with 64% of the respondents scoring 60% and above. The respondents began their progressive marking with activities as aspect hypothesis predicted. Therefore, their performance was impressive. The participants in this school performed poorly under the past perfect/past perfect continuous tense. Only 8 students out of 50 scored 60% and above. Therefore, this result contradicts the aspect hypothesis which states that 'in languages that encode the perfective/imperfective distinction, perfective past appears first, later the imperfective past Andersen and Shirai (533). In the slots where they should have used the perfective past (had+past participle) as aspect hypothesis predicted like in 2.2, 2.4, 2.7, 2.8 and 2.10 they used imperfective past i.e'had been +Ving to form the progressive. Therefore the aspect hypothesis was contradicted. This result disagrees with the systemic functional theory because there was observed inherent structural error in their use of the past perfect/ past perfect continuous tense. The majority of the respondents used the tenses interchangeably not realizing that it each has a structure and function. The systemists ask how language is structured for use Eggins (3) Also the majority of the students clustered around 30 to 39% in their simple past tense scores. The simple past tense is a narrative tense and the participants performed poorly in it. Kristen points out that the subjective perspective of a writer/speaker of text, which is conveyed by the use of the present perfect, contrasts the factual use of the simple past (113). This is supported by Binnick who argues that the simple past is more likely to be a narrative tense than the present perfect. (134) So poor performance here signals poor narrative writing by the students.

The students of Community Secondary School Ukpo performed very poorly in GJT with 6 (12%) participants scoring 50% and above while only 3 (6%) participants scored 60% and above. This implies that their proficiency in the use of simple present tense and appreciation of agreement

errors is very poor. The result of the EWPT test scores showed that 14 (28%), 5 (10%) and 24 (48%) of the students scored 60% and above in the SPT, PP/PPC1 and PP/PPC2 respectively. The lowest performance was recorded in the PP/PPC1 where only 5 (10%) participants scored 60% and above. This result contradicts the aspect hypothesis in that participants preferred the use of imperfective past before the perfective past. But aspect hypothesis proposes that perfective past should appear first, and imperfective later Andersen and Shirai (533). The result of the PP/PPC1 disagrees with the systemic functional theory because there was observed inherent structural error in the use of the past perfect/past perfect continuous tense. Systemists see language as structured for use. Eggins (3)

The GJT result of Community High School, Nawgu was shown to be very unsatisfactory. Only 5(10%) of the students showed some proficiency in the use of simple present tense and appreciation of agreement errors scoring 50% and above while only 1 (2%) scored 60% and above. For the EWPT results 9(18%), 2 (4 %) and 11(22 %) of the respondents scored 60% and above in the SPT, PP/PPC1 and PP/PPC2 tests respectively. The result contradicts the aspect hypothesis in that under the PP/PPC1, the respondents did not conform to the prediction of aspect hypothesis which says that in languages that encode the perfective/imperfective, imperfective past appears later than perfective past. Andersen and Shirai (533) Many used the imperfective past before the perfective also the result under the PP/PPC2 contradicts the aspect hypothesis because respondents did not mark activity verbs with progressive.

The result of Community Secondary School, Abba showed that only 7(14%) students scored 50% and above while only 1 (2%) student scored 60 and above in the GJT. This implies that out of the overall sample only1student scored 60% and above in the use the simple present tense and appreciation of agreement errors. In analyzing the EWPT, 7 (14%), 6(12%) and 10 (20%)

respondents scored 60% and above in the SPT, PP/PPC1 and PP/PPC2 tests respectively. This contradicts the aspect hypothesis in that the perfective past did not appear first as it predicts in the PP/PPC1. Also progressive were not used to mark activity verbs as Andersen and Shirai predicted. (533)The result of this school in all the test contradicts the systemic functional theory which emphasizes that language is made up of structural and functional perspectives. Eggins (3) In this case, the result showed that the language use by the students is a variant from the systemic element of this theory and therefore elicits the faulty functional accomplishment.

The analysis of the result of Comprehensive Secondary School, Nwafia showed that 25 (50%) participants scored 50% and above while 18 (36%) scored 60% and above in the GJT test. The result of EWPT shows that 29 (58%), 17 (34%) and 38 (76%) respondents scored 50% and above in the SPT, PP/PPC1 and PP/PPC2 tests respectively. While 12 (24%), 10(20%) and 26(52%) participants scored 60% and above. This implies that the students exhibited more proficiency in the use of the present perfect continuous with 52% of the respondents scoring 60% and above. Their failure in PP/PPC1 17 (34%) could be due to poor knowledge of the structure of the language. Comrie pointed this out by saying that language is structured therefore grammaticalization refers to ways of establishing time that require obligatory expression and morphological boundness Comrie (7). The GJT result of St John of God Secondary School Awka showed that 22 (44%) respondents scored 50% and above while 16(32%) respondents scored 60 and above. The result of the EWPT showed that for the SPT test 24(48%) respondents scored 60 and above, 14(28%) respondents scored 60% and above for the PP/PPC1 while 34 (68%) respondents scored 60 and above in the PP/PPC2 test. The result implies that despite the urban location of the school, the students' performance in the use of simple present tense was unexpectedly poor. This result disagrees with the systemic functional theory which emphasizes that language is made up of the structural and

functional perspectives. Eggins (3) In this case, the result showed that the language use by the students is a variant from the systemic element of this theory and therefore elicits the faulty functional accomplishment.

The GJT result of Igwebuike Grammar School, Awka shows that 24 (48%) respondents scored 50% and above while 15(30%) respondents scored 60% and above. For the EWPT, the result shows that 19 (38), 7 (14%) and 33 (66%) respondents scored 60 and above for the SPT, PP/PPC1 and PP/PPC2 respectively. The result agrees with the aspect hypothesis in that in (PP/PPC2) present perfect/ present perfect continuous tense, the progressives were marked with activity verbs. Students here could be said to have learnt the structure that realizes the PP/PPC2.

This study discovered that the students in the urban schools did not perform significantly better than those in the rural schools in the simple present tense and agreement evaluation. While in the PP/PPC 2 (present perfect/present perfect continuous) test, students in the urban area excelled. This implies that residency station has no significant effect on the expression of temporality for simple present tense and agreement evaluated under the GJT test. This result contradicts popular opinion that those in the urban area are expectedly more proficient in the use of the English language. This discrepancy could likely show that students in the urban schools (in Awka educational zone) do not interact with their environment basically in the English language. On the contrary, residency station significantly affected tense/aspect evaluation by the PP/PPC 2 test. The reason for this significant influence could not be proffered.

Learners finds it difficult expressing temporality through grammatical devices that is tense and aspect, than lexical means like temporal adverbials and prepositions. This is because the grammatical device is the last in the acquisition sequence. Bardovi-Harlig claims that "the expression of temporality exhibits a sequence from pragmatic to lexical to grammatical devices

and that this acquisitional sequence is probably universal and independent of the languages involved" (25).

A specific value of aspect is a result of the speaker's choice (Comrie 76). Unlike the temporal category of tense, grammatical aspect is relative, in the sense that the same real life situations can be referred to by means of either aspects (perfective/imperfective).

Eggins supports this by saying that systemic linguists claim that the process of using language is a semiotic process, a process of making meanings by choosing.

Therefore a situation in which a person is engaged in playing a piano can be verbalized eg.

a.   John played the piano.   imperfective

b.   John played the piano.   perfective

In order to describe this particular situation, the speaker is offered two aspectual options. If the speaker perceives the events as bounded, one will draw on the perfective aspect. At the same time, the imperfective will be valid with the situations assessed by the speaker as unbounded (Comrie 76)

5.2   Suggestion for Further Research

Obviously, more empirical research and application studies on temporality in ESL/EFL field are necessary. It is an undeniable fact that issues in temporality still pose major problems to Igbo learners of English as a second language. Topics which future researchers may wish to investigate include the following:

- The Semantics and Acquisition of Time in English Language.

- The Acquisition of Tense – Aspect Morphology: A Cross – Sectional Study of the Igbo Native ESL leaners' Inter Language.

- The Organization of Temporality in Source and Target Languages.

- Cross – Linguistic Differences in Expressing Time and Universal Principles of Utterances Interpretation

5.3 Conclusion

There are different ways of expressing temporality in the English language.   Students' errors are mostly domiciled within the domain of the criteria under the GJT, SPT and PP/PPC$_1$. Therefore, there are lots of grammatical errors in the use of tense and aspect by ESL learners in a given test. While there is no statistically significant difference between the GJT scores of students in the urban and rural schools, there is statistically significant difference between the EWPT scores of students in the urban and rural schools.

In the English Language, priority is given to the communicative language teaching and learning approach, which entails developing the ability of learners to communicate by using the language. Communicative competence, which entails discourse, grammatical, strategic and social – linguistic competence is also emphasized. English teachers are also required to integrate teaching by combining the four skills, listening, speaking, reading and writing. Communicative language teaching also requires language teachers to use skills which students possess. The focus is on starting from where the learners are, rather than, from an idealistic notion of where they ought to be. The role of writing is of utmost importance in the learning and teaching of L2. Writing is simply reproducing spoken language in another way. As in the case with the development of all other language skills writing cannot and should not be developed in isolation from other skills in a

decontextualized way. Writing should contribute towards the development of listening, speaking, and reading skills. Writing enables students to clarify and structure their thinking and enables them to communicate with a wider audience than the one in which they are in daily contact. Writing is a process which includes developing, planning, reviewing, editing, and presenting.   Writing activities include the keeping of dairies, informal letters, descriptive or narrative compositions, recording and note taking. Students are also trained to apply conventions appropriate to practical writing relevant to their daily needs and demands of the work place.

The ungrammatical utterances and writing of L2 students are errors rather than mistakes. The teacher has to deal with such errors. This means devising strategies to deal with errors in students' language so that the students can produce error – free writing and advance their careers. The most widely used strategy teachers rely on is to correct the oral   and written errors of students in order to improve their language.   These errors are as a result of poor knowledge of the means of expressing temporality by the students. In narratives, one recalls all the events that happened (yesterday for example) and normally does this in a chronological order of time using appropriate tenses to capture events. One cannot do this without an in depth knowledge of tense and aspect. Therefore the acquisition of temporality is a sine qua non for writing good essays by the students.

Contribution to Knowledge: Throughout the ten schools sampled, the study observed that:

1. Errors in temporality are domiciled within the domain of the criteria under GJT (grammaticality judgment task), SPT (simple past tense), PP/PPC 1 (past perfect/ past perfect continuous). Errors in temporality under GJT in this study are wrongly inflected items and omission of 3 sg-s. Errors in temporality   revealed by this study under SPT are wrong use of progressive to mark the past, the use of past perfect for simple past and vice versa and the use of simple present for the simple past tense. The errors in temporality revealed by this study

while under PP/PPC1 are using the two interchangeably, using the simple past for the past perfect and vice versa and using the present perfect for the past perfect and vice versa. The study unraveled a poor performance in the expression of temporality among secondary school students.

2. This study will acquaint the ESL learners with what temporality is and how it is used to achieve meaningful communication in everyday social life.

3. Contrary to expectation, it showed that the students of the urban schools did not perform significantly better than those in rural schools in simple present tense and agreement evaluation. This study therefore establishes that temporality constitutes problem to learners of English   as a second language in both urban and rural schools in Awka educational zone.

Works Cited

Adjemian, C. "On the Nature of Interlanguage Systems". *Language Learning*. 26.2 (1976): 297-320

Andersen, R, W. and Yasuhiro, Shirai. The Primacy of Aspect in First and Second Language Acquisition: the pidgin-creole connection. In W. C. Ritichie & T-K. Bhatia (ed.). *Handbook of second language acquisition.* (pp. 527-570). San Diego, CA: Academic Press, Inc, 1996.

---Developmental sequences: The Emergence of Aspect Marking in Second Language Acquisition. In T. Huebner and C. A. Ferguson (eds.), *Second Language Acquisition and Linguistic Theories* (pp. 305-324). Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins, 1991.

---."Discourse Motivations for some Cognitive Acquisition Principles". *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*. 16 (1994): 133-156

---.The Primacy of Aspect in First and Second Language Acquisition: The Pidgin-Creole Connection. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of Second Language acquisition* (pp. 527-570). San Diego, CA: Academic Press. 1996.

Andersen, R. W. "La Adquisicion de la Morfologıa Verbal" (The Acquisition of Verbal Morphology). *Linguistica. 1* (1989): 90-142

Antinucci, F. and Miller, R. "How Children Talk About What Happened". *Journal of Child Language*. *3.1* (1976) 167-189

Aysun, D and Salaberry, R. "Acquisition of English leaders: Learning Language Tense-Aspect morphology by advanced French instructed leader". *Learning language*. (2008): 40-80

Bardovi-Harlig, K. "From Morpheme Studies to Temporal Semantics": *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*. 21.3 (1999): 341–382

---. "Another piece of the puzzle: The Emergence of the Present Perfect" *Language Learning. 47.3* (1997): 375-422

---. "One Functional Approach to Second Language Acquisition: The Concept-Oriented Approach". 2007.

---. *Tense and Aspect in Second Language Acquisition: Form, Meaning, and Use*. Oxford: Blackwell. 2000.

---. "The Relationship of Form and Meaning: A Cross-Sectional Study of Tense and Aspect in the Interlanguage of Learners of English as a Second Language". *Applied Psycholinguistics. 13.3 (*1992): 253-277.

Barnard, Y. Semantico-grammatical consciousness raising in an E S L programme for primary school teacher trainees. – (PhD thesis), 1995.

Bhardwaj, M. R. Dietrich and C. Noyau (eds.). "Temporality": *Second Language Acquisition by Adult Immigrants.* Vol. V. Final Report to the European Science Foundation. Strasbourg, 1988.

Bialystok, E. and Sharwood Smith. "Interlanguage is not a state of mind: an evaluation of the construct for second –language acquisition". *Applied Linguistics*. 6.2 (1985):101-117

Binnick "Tense and Aspect". In: Östman, Jan-Ola; Jef Verschueren (eds.). *Handbook of Pragmatics.* Amsterdam: John Bejamins, pars: 17-18, 2002.

Bolim, D. and Hiley, B. The Undivided Universe. *An Ontological Interpretation of Quantum Theory*. London. 1995.

Bronckart, J-P. and Sinclair, H. Time, Tense and Aspect. *Cognition. 2.1 (*1973): 107-130

Brown, C. *The Interrelation between Speech Perception and Phonological Acquisition from Infant to Adult.* Great Britain: Blackwell Publishers Limited, 2000.

Brown, H. *Teaching by Principles*. New York: Longman, 2001.

Bloor, Thomas. and Meriel, Bloor. *The Functional Analysis of English.* 2nd ed. London: Hodder Education, 2004.

Calver, Edward. "The Uses of the Present Tense Forms in English". In: Schopf (1974), p.170. 1946.

Clickonenglish.blogspot.com. "English Verb Tense System". Web.20 February 2013.

Cohen, A.D. and Robbins, M. "Toward Assessing Interlanguage Performance: the relationship between selected errors, leaner's characteristics and learner's explanations". *Language Learning*. 26.1 (1976): 45-66

Comrie, Bernard. *Tense.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1985.

---.*Aspect: An Introduction to the Study of Verbal Aspect and Related Problems*. Cambridge: UP, 1976.

---.*Aspect*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1976.

Corder, S. P. *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*. Oxford. Oxford University Press, 1981.

---.The Significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics.*5.2 (1967): 161-169

Coveney, P. and R. Highfield. *The Arrow of Time*. London: Flamigo, 1990.

Dowty, D. *Word Meaning and Montague Grammar.* Dorderecht: Reidel, 1979.

Ellis, Rod. *Understanding Second Language Acquisition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1989.

---.*The Study of Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1994.

Englishclub. Tense and Time. Web. 20 February 2014.

Erbaugh, M. "The Acquisition of Mandarin: In D. Slobin (ed.), *The Crosslinguistic Study of Language Acquisition*. 3 (1992): 373-455

Finn, S.M. "The Abuse of English by Vista Students". *English Usage in Southern Africa*, 17 (1996): 1-8

Fisiak, Jacek. *Contrastive Linguistics and The Language Teacher.* Oxford: Pergammon Press, 1981.

Fries, C. C. *Teaching and Learning English - As a Foreign Language.* Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1945.

Guasti, M. T. *Language Acquisition: The Growth of Grammar*. Bradford Books. Cambridge, MA: MIT, 2002.

Halliday, Michael and Christian Matthiessen. *Introduction to Functional Grammar*. 2[nd]ed. London: Edward Arnold, 2004.

Hamilton, R.P. "The Insignificance of Learners Errors: A Philosophical Investigation of the Interlanguage Hypothesis". *Language and Communication*. 21 (2001): 73-88

Higginbotham, James. "The English Progressive". In: Guéron, Jacqueline; Jacqueline, Web. 20 May 2004.

James, C. *Errors in Language Learning and use: Exploring Error Analysis,* England: Longman, 1998.

Kilfoil, W.R. and Van der Walt, C. *Learn to Teach, a Guide to Communicative Teaching of English as a second language.* Pretoria: Academica, 1989.

Kirsten, Hans. *Englische Verbformen: Bedeutung und kommunikative Leistung*. Essen: Blaue Eule, 1994.

Klein, Wolfgang. *Time in Language*. London, N.Y: Routledge, 1994.

Kohn, J.J. "What ESL Teachers Need to Know About Sociolinguistics". In Croft, K. *Reading on English as a Second Language*. Cambridge: Winthrop Publishers, 1980.

---."The Analysis of Transfer'. In Kellerman, E and Sharwood Smith, M. (eds.) *Crosslinguistic Influence in Second Language Acquisition.* New York. Pergamon, 1986.

König, E. On Analyzing the Tense-Aspect System of English: A State-of-the-Art Report. In: Riehle, Wolfgang/Keiper, Hugo (eds.). *Proceedings of the Anglistentag.* Tübingen: Niemeyer, 153–169, *1994.*

Lado, R. *Linguistics Across Cultures. Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers.* Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1957.

Larsen, Diane, et al. *An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research.* London: Longman, 1992.

Lee, David. *Competing Discourses: Perspective and Ideology in Language*. Harlow, Essex, UK: Longman Ltd. 1992.

Li, P. and Shirai, Y. *The Acquisition of Lexical and Grammatical Aspect.* Berlin; New, 2000.

Lightbown, P. M., and Spada, N. *How Languages are Learned*. Oxford: Oxford University

    Press, 2006.

Macdonald, M.G. "Fossilization and an emerging social dialect". *Lenguas Mordenas*   15

    (1988): 115-124

MacMillan, J.H. and Schumacher, S. *Research in Education: a Conceptual Introduction*. New

    York: Harper Collins, 1993.

Manser, Martin, H. (ed). *Bloomsbury Good Word Guide*. London, UK: Bloomsbury Publishing

    Ltd. 1988.

Mclaughlin, K. and Pellauer, D. *Time and Narrative*. Vol.1. Chicago. 1984.

Morris, C. *Signs and the Act. in Semiotics: An Introductory Anthology* (ed: Robert E Innis).

    Bloomington, USA: Indiana University Press.1989.

Mourelatos, A. P. Events, Processes, and States. In P. J. Tedeschi and A Zaenen (Eds.) *Syntax and*

    Semantics: Vol. 14. Tense and Aspect (pp. 191-212). New York: Academic Press, 1981.

Muftah, Muneera and Rafik-Galea, S. "Error Analysis of Present Simple Tense in the

    Interlanguage of Adult Arab English Language Learners". *English Language*

    Teaching. Vol.6, No. 2; 2013

Mulder, J.C. *Statistical Techniques in Education*. Pretoria: Haum, 1989.,

Muriel, S. *Introducing Second Language Acquisition.* Cambridge. 2003.

Nakuma, C.K. "A New Theoretical Account of Fossilization: implications for L2 Attrition".

    International Review of Applied Linguistics in language teaching. 36.3 (1998): 247-256

Nalzaro, L.M. (n.d) chapter 8-sample&sample techniques. Web. 4 December 2014.

Nemser, W. "Approximate systems of foreign language learners": *International Review of Applied Linguistics*. 9 (1971): 115-124

Ngoesi, M. C. *Nchikota Ihe Omumu Nke Asusu Igbo Maka Ule Sinio Sekondiri*. Nkpor, Anambra State, Nigeria: Optimal Press Ltd, 2000.

Nordguist, R. *Aspect*. Web. 22 May 2014.

Nunan, D. *Research Methods in Language Learning*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, 1992.

O'Grady, W. "The Problem of Verbal Inflection in Second Language Acquisition". Web. Invited talk to the Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics. Web. 19 February 2006.

Onuora, *J. C. Usoro Omumu Igbo (Utoasusu, Agumamgu na Omenala) Maka Sekondiri Ukwu*. Onitsha: Patmonic Printers & Publishers Ltd., 2012.

Palmer, Frank, R. 2001. *Mood and Conditionality*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press 2001.

Pinker, S. and A. Prince. "On Language and Connectionism: Analysis of a Parallel Distributed Processing Model of Language Acquisition". *Cognition* 28 (1988): 73-193

Pinker, S. *Language Learnability and Language Development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1984.

---. *Words and Rules*. New York: Basic Book, 1999.

---. *Rules of language*. Science 253.530-535, 1991.

Pollock, Powell, Geraint. "What is the Role of Transfer in Interlanguage". 1998. Department of Linguistics and Modern English Language, Lancaster University. Web. 26 May 2014.

Quirk, Randolph. & Greenbuam, Sidney. *A Universal Grammar of English* 2nd ed. India: Longman, 2000.

Researchomatics.com. "Past Tense Acquisition by L1 Arab Learners of L2 English: a Description of the Tense and Aspect Systems in English and Arabic". *Researchomatic.* Web. 2 July 2012.

"Regular and Irregular Morphology and Psychological Status of Rules of Grammar". BLS 17, 230-251. Web. 17 March 1991.

Richards, J.C. (ed). *Error Analysis.* London: Longman Group, 1973.

---.Error analysis: *Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition.* London: Longman, 1974.

Richards, J.C. Platt, J. and Platt, H. *Dictionary of Language and Applied Linguistics:* United Kingdom: Longman, 1992.

Robinson, R. "The Aspect Hypothesis Revisited: A Cross-Sectional Study of Tense and Aspect Marking in Interlanguage". *Applied Linguistics.*16.3 (1995): 344-370

---. "The Primacy of Aspect: Aspectual Marking in English Interlanguage". *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 12.3 (*1990): 315-330

Rohayu, Ahmed. The Students Performance of Error in the use of Past Tense: An analysis   in   a Selected School (Bachelor of Education Thesis). Universiti Pendidikan   Sultan   Idris, Tanjung Malim, 2001.

Roodt, M.P. Fossilization in South African Black English. Potschefstroom: Potschefstroom University (M.A. dissertation), 1993.

Rustipa, Katharina. "Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, Interlanguage and the Implication to Language Teaching". *Ragam Journal Pengembangan Humaniora*. 17-22. Semarang: Stikubank University (Unisbank).,Vol. 11 No. 1, April 2011.

Selinker, L. and Lamendella, J. T. "The Role of Extrinsic Feedback in Interlanguage Fossilization: A Discussion of 'Rule fossilization: A tentative Model". *Language Learning.* 29. 2 (1979): 363 – 375

Selinker, L. "Interlanguage". IRAL 10, 3: 209-231, 1972.

---. *Rediscovering Interlanguage.* New York: Longman, 1992.

Shirai, Y. and Andersen, W. "The Acquisition of Tense-Aspect Morphology: A Prototype Account". *Language.* 71.4 (1995): 743-762,

Smith, C. S. "A theory of aspectual choice". *Language, 59.3* (1983): 479-501

---. *The parameter of aspect*. Dordrecht: Kluwer, 1991.

Sunardi, H. "Error Analysis in the Teaching of English".1 (4), 42-50. Web. 9 June 2002.

Suzanne, Eggins. *An Introduction To Systemic Functional Linguistics.* 2nd ed. London: Continuum International Publishing Group, 2004.

Sylvia, Chalker. and Edmund, Weiner. *Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar*. Oxford University Press, 1994.

Tomlinson, B. (ed.). *Materials Development In Language Teaching.* 2nd ed. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 2011.

Van Els, T. et al. *Applied Linguistics and the Learning and Teaching of Foreign Languages*. London: Edward Arnold, 1984.

VanPatten, B. and Williams, J. (eds.), *Theories in Second Language Acquisition: An Introduction* (pp. 57-75). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 2000.

Vendler, Z. Verbs and times. In Z. Vendler, *Linguistics and Philosophy* (pp. 97-121). Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press. (Reprinted from *Philosophy Review,* 66:2 [1957], 142 -160), 1967.

Vigil, N.A. and Oller, J.W. "Role Fossilization: A Tentative Model". *Language Learning.* 26. 2 (1976): 281 -295,

Villanueva, M. L. "The Meaning of English Simple Past Tense in Foreign language Acquisition: Influence of the Mother Tongue". Web. 20 May 1990.

Weist, R. M. et al. "The Defective Tense Hypothesis: On the emergence of tense and aspect in child Polish". *Journal of Child Language. 11.2* (1984): 347-374

White, L. *Universal Grammar and Second Language Acquisition: From Initial to Steady State*. Cambridge: UP, 2003.

Wikipedia, the Free Encyclopaedia. *Grammatical Tense.* Web. 20 February 2010.

Wikipedia, the Free Encyclopaedia. *Second Language Acquisition.* Web. 25 January 2011.

Wilkins, D. A. *The Linguistic and Situational Contents of the Common Core in a Unit/Credit System*. Ms. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. 1972.

Yang, S, and Huang, Y. "The impact of the absence of grammatical tense in L1 on the acquisition of the tense-aspect system in L2". *International Review of Applied Linguistics. 42:1* (2004) 49-70.

Zengin, B. "Numerical/Visual Elaboration of the Temporal Distance in Teaching Tense-Aspect Distinctions in English". *World Journal of English Language* Vol 3, No 3 (2013) : 1-19