

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF ERROR AND SIMPLE PAST TENSE

A. Previous Studies

In order to make a different study with the previous research, the writer had found some previous studies that are concerned with errors as follows:

Anastasius Layantara studied about A study of Past Tense Errors made by the first year students of Petra 5 Senior High School in 2004. In his study, he collected the data by using two tests. The tests were in the form of fill in test and compositions making. The result of his study showed the types of error that occurred in the fill in tests were tense shifting, wrong verb form, missing aux be-, missing aux had- and s in Writing missing verb. The result of the types of error in the compositions were tense shifting, wrong verb form, missing aux be-, and missing main verb.

Siti Rondiyah Studied about Error Analysis in Writing Present Continuous and Past continuous Tense Achieved by the second year students MTsN-2 of Palangka Raya in 2008. The result of this study showed types of error made by the second year students MTsN-2 of Palangka Raya in writing using continuous and past continuous tense classified into four categories. The highest categories of error that students made is in misformation, the percentage is 70.31%. the lower is in misordering, the percentage is 3.16%. the causes of error made by the second year students MTsN-2 of Palangka Raya in writing using Present continuous and Past Continuous tense classified into four categories: the highest causes of error is

on false concept of hypothesized and the lowest is on failure to learn conditions under which rules apply.

Siti Khodijah studied about Error Analysis of the Students' test Result on Personal Pronouns (A case Study in First year of MTsN Nurul Fatah Gunung Sinder, Bogor) in 2006. The result of this study showed that most of the students have not understood about the form and function of personal Pronouns. The highest frequency that they made is about 52.65%. it means that the more concept of personal pronouns are given by the English teacher, the more difficulties are take by the students may be it is caused by the change of person pronoun, from like subject to object pronoun and possessive pronoun to possessive adjective also every personal pronoun has different position and function in sentences. So, the students of MTs Nurul Fatah Gunung Sinder Bogor find difficulties to use personal pronoun from in the sentences.

Based on the previous study above, there were common differences what they researched. Anastasius Layantara focused on Errors in Past Tenses. Siti Rondiyah focused on Errors in Writing Present Continuous and Past Continuous Tense. Siti Khodijah focused on Errors on Personal Pronouns.

B. Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

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

language is called a second language (L2), even though it may actually be the third, fourth, or tenth to be acquired. It is also commonly called a target language (TL), which refers to any language that is the aim or goal of learning. The scope of SLA includes informal L2 learning that takes place in naturalistic contexts, formal L2 learning that takes place in classrooms, and L2 learning that involves a mixture of these settings and circumstances.¹

Second language acquisition (SLA) is by no means the only reason for researchers' interest and for many, not the primary reason or not a reason at all. As a widespread, highly complex, uniquely human, cognitive process, language learning of all kinds merits careful study for what it can reveal about the nature of the human mind and intelligence. Thus, a good deal of what might be termed "basic research" goes on in SLA without regard for its potential applications or social utility. In linguistics and psychology, for example, data on SLA are potentially useful for testing theories as different from one another as grammatical nativism.² It is the study of how second languages are learned. In other words, it is the study of the acquisition of a non-primary language; that is, the acquisition of a language beyond the native language. It is the study of how learners create a new language system with only limited exposure to a second language. It is the study of what is learned of a second language and what is not learned; it is the study of why most

¹ Muriel Saville-Troike. *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*, New York: Cambridge University Press. 2006. p.2

² Doughty Catherine J. and Michael H. Long. *The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*, Blackwell Publishing. 2005. p.6

second language learners do not achieve the same degree of knowledge and proficiency in a second language as they do in their native language; it is also the study of why only some learners appear to achieve native-like proficiency in more than one language. Additionally, second language acquisition is concerned with the nature of the hypotheses (whether conscious or unconscious) that learners come up with regarding the rules of the second language.³

However peculiar and limited they may be, learners' sentences come from the learners' own language systems; their L2 speech shows rules and patterns of its own. At each stage learners have their own language systems. The nature of these learner systems may be very different from that of the target language. Even if they are idiosyncratic and constantly changing, they are nonetheless systematic. The starting point for SLA research is the learner's own language system. This can be called the 'independent language assumption': learners are not willfully distorting the native system, but are inventing a system of their own. Finding out how students learn means starting from the curious rules and structures which they invent for themselves as they go along – their 'interlanguage', as Larry Slinkier (1972) put it.⁴

C. Communicative Competence

³ Susan M. Gass and Larry Selinker. *Second Language Acquisition : An introductory course (Third edition)*, New York and London: Taylor & Francis. 2008. p.1

⁴ Vivian Cook. *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching:Fourth edition*, London: Hodder Education. an Hachette UK Company. 2008. p.16

Murcia relates to communicative competence, which is supported by five different competences. They are briefly described as follows:⁵

1. Grammatical Competence or linguistic competence: knowledge on language rules which covers such components as: syntax, morphology, lexicon, phonology, and orthography.
2. Sociolinguistic Competence: knowledge on sociocultural used of language which covers such social-contextual factors as: participation, situation, style and culture.
3. Discourse Competence: knowledge on genre which covers such elements as: cohesion (reference, conjunction, and lexicon), diesis (personal, spatial, temporal, and textual), coherence and generic structure.
4. Strategic Competence: knowledge on communication strategies which covers avoidance/reduction, achievement/compensatory (code switching, transfer), stalling/time-gaining (filler, gambit, cajoler, repeat), self-monitoring (repair), interactional (role in exchange) etc.
5. Action Competence: knowledge on language function which covers role in exchange.

The following constitutes area of grammatical competence drawn from Murcia;⁶

⁵ Marianne Celce-Murcia and Zoltan Dornyei. *Communicative Competence: A Pedagogically Motivated Model with Content Specifications*, Issues in Applied Linguistics. Vol. 6 No. 2 1995. p. 7

1. Syntax

- Constituent/phrase structure
- Word order (canonical and marked)
- Sentence types; statements, negatives, questions, imperatives, exclamations
- Special constructions; existential (there +BE...), clefts (It's X that/who...; what + sub. + verb + BE), and question tags, etc.
- Modifiers/intensifiers
- quantifiers, comparing and equating
- Coordination (and, or, etc.) and correlation (both X and Y; either X or Y)
- Subordination (e.g., adverbial clauses, conditionals)
- Embedding; noun clauses, relative clauses (e.g., restrictive and non-restrictive) reported speech.

2. Morphology

- Parts of speech
- Inflections (e.g., agreement and concord)
- Derivational processes (productive ones)
- compounding, affixation, conversion/incorporation

3. Lexicon (receptive and productive)

⁶ Marianne Celce-Murcia and Zoltan Dornyei, *Communicative Competence: A Pedagogically Motivated Model with Content Specifications*, p. 14

- Words; content words (Ns, Vs, ADJs), function words (pronouns, prepositions, verbal auxiliaries, etc.)
- Routines; word-like fixed phrases (e.g., of course, all of a sudden), formulaic and semi-formulaic chunks (e.g., how do you do?)
- Collocations; V-Obj (e.g., spend money), Adv-Adj (e.g., mutually intelligible), Adj-N (e.g., tall building), Idioms (e.g., kick the bucket)

4. Phonology (for pronunciation)

- Segmental; vowels, consonants, syllable types, Sandi variation (changes and reductions between adjacent sounds in the stream of speech)
- Suprasegmentals; prominence, stress, intonation, rhythm

5. Orthography (for spelling)

- Letters (if writing system is alphabetic)
- Phoneme-grapheme correspondences
- Rules of spelling
- Conventions for mechanics and punctuation

This study used considers only grammatical part of communicative competence. A learner's competence may be measured by from the production errors he commits. The more errors he makes, the lesser his communicative competence is. In other words, there is an increase relationship between errors and communicative competence.

D. ERROR

1. Definition of Error

There are many definitions of errors as stated by some Linguists. Dulay Says that errors are the flawed side of learner speech or writing that deviate from some rules of selected norms that mature language performance. Schuman and Stenson stated that errors are due to the rule-deviance of target language in language learning. Homby states that errors are in something or in doing something a mistake, especially one that causes problems or affects the result of something.

Based on definition above, it concludes that errors are an evidence of the deviation of the language. The deviations which occur in language learning because the learners make deviation rules of target language. The deviations are in speech and writing.

2. Error Analysis

The study of error analysis develops since the failure of contrastive analysis hypothesis. The failure of contrastive analysis hypothesis to predict the difficulties and errors made by the learners of the target language based on the differences between native language and target language, caused people turn on learner's language itself. So, the learner's language is analyzed. Error analysis is a study or analysis about language errors made by the learner of second or foreign language.

Learner involves a process in which success comes by profiting from mistake, by using mistakes to obtain feedback from the environments, and with that feedback to make new attempts that successively approximate desired goals. Researchers and teachers of second languages come to realize that the mistakes a person made in process. The field of error analysis maybe define as dealing with the differences between the way people learning a language speak, and the way adult native speakers of the language use the language. In the writer's opinion, error analysis is an activity of examining the data, analyzing errors and giving the solution which is able to be observed, analyzed and classified to explain something about particularly students' errors. Saville-Troike stated that error analysis (EA) is the first approach to the study of SLA which includes an internal focus on students' creative ability to construct language. It is based on the description and analysis of actual student errors in L2, rather than on idealized linguistic structures attributed to native speakers of L1 and L2.⁷

Based on Huang and Miles and Huberman, the procedure of the error analysis consists of four steps;⁸

- 1) Data Collection.
- 2) Identification of errors
- 3) Classification of errors into error types

⁷ Muriel Saville-Troike. *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*, p.37

⁸ Li-Ling Chen. *The Effect of the Use of L1 in a Multimedia Tutorial on Grammar Learning: An Error Analysis of Taiwanese Beginning EFL Learners' English Essays*, The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly. p.85

4) A statement of error frequency

Errors analysis and contrastive analysis have different point of view. Contrastive analysis begins with the prediction of the learners' errors, while error analysis begins from which the learners' learning problems can be inferred. The writer used error analysis to answer the first question problem.

3. Contrastive Analysis (CA)

According to Contrastive Analysis (CA) is analysis the similarities and differences between two languages. Contrastive Analysis (CA) is an approach to the study of SLA which involves predicting and explaining learner problems based on a comparison of L1 and L2 to determine similarities and differences. It was heavily influenced by theories which were dominant in linguistics and psychology within the USA through the 1940 and 1950s, Structuralisme and Behaviorism. The goal of CA (as that of still earlier theories of L2 learning) was primarily pedagogical in nature: to increase efficiency in L2 teaching and testing.⁹ The main idea of contrastive analysis, as propounded by Robert Lado in Paul, was that it is possible to identify the areas of difficulty a particular foreign language used present for native speakers of another language by systematically comparing the two languages and cultures. Where the two languages and cultures are similar, learning difficulties used not be expected, where they are different, then learning difficulties are to be

⁹ *Ibid.*,

expected, and the greater the difference, the greater the degree of expected difficulty.¹⁰

On the basis of such analysis, it was believed, teaching materials could be tailored to the needs of learners of a specific first language. To answer the second problem, the writer used contrastive analysis.

According to the popular assumptions of the contrastive analysis, the structural similarities used lead to facilitation and differences used cause interferences in the context of second/foreign language learning situations.¹¹ This is however only a prediction and a partial understanding of the problems and prospects of a second/foreign language situation. The learner's problems are not always constrained to the predictions of a contrastive study.

4. Errors and Mistakes

Error analysis is important problematical on learning English as foreign language. Although English has been taught in our country continuously but it is still found many errors occur with language learner. Therefore errors are very important to get our attention.

Sometimes researches distinguish between errors caused by factors such as fatigue an inattention and error resulting from lack of knowledge of the rules of the language. Chomsky called that errors caused by the fatigue and inattention of the

¹⁰ Paul Lennon, *Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, Interlanguage*, p.

¹¹ Iqbal, A *Contrastive Analysis Between English and Indonesian Language*, <http://pusatbahasaalazhar.wordpress.com/trik-belajar-bahasa-inggris/a-contrastive-analysis-between-english-and-indonesian-language/> (accessed on Tuesday, 21 May 2013) At 10.31 a.m

students as performance factors, and called competence factor for errors resulting from lack of knowledge in the rules of the language. Cord said that in some of the second language literature, performance errors have been called “mistakes” while the term “error” was reserved for the systematic deviations due to the learners still developing knowledge of the second language rule system.

According to James via Brown, an error cannot be self-corrected; while mistake can be self corrected. The error is the systematic deviation made by learners who have yet mastered the rule of the target language.

From the discussion above, it is clear that errors are the fault parts of student’s works either in writing or speaking caused by their lack in language rules while mistakes are the fault parts of student result influenced by their physical condition. In order to be clear the distinctions between errors and mistakes. Error and mistake are not the same, it is crucial to make distinction between error and mistake and most of people still misunderstand about the definition of both. In order to analyze learner’s errors in a proper prospective, it is important to distinguish the differences between errors and mistakes. In relation to the classification of errors, Corded in Delay classifies error in two terms. They are mistake and error. Mistake refers to performance and error refers to systematic competence inadequacies. The error of performance used characteristically be unsystematic and error competence systematic.¹²

¹² Heidi Dulay. *Language Two*, p.139.

Generally, mistake is caused by the students' weaknesses in remembering linguistic system of language being learnt. It usually can be corrected by them if they are more aware of the target language system. In the table, we can see the differences between error and mistake.

Errors of competence are the result of application of rules by the first language learner which do not (yet) correspond the second language norm. Errors of performances are the result of mistake in language use and manifest themselves as repeats, false starts, corrections or slips of the tongue.¹³ Error of competence knows what is grammatically correct; Error performance occurs frequently in the speech of both native speaker and second language learner or what actually occurs in practice. The fact that learners do make errors and that these errors can be observed, analyzed and classified to reveal something or the system operating within the learner, led to a surge of study of learners' errors called errors analysis.¹⁴

On the contrary, errors are produced by the students who do not know yet the target language system. And of course, they do not master the rule of the target language. Actually these occur consistently, systematic and take a long time until corrected by the teacher through remedial teaching or additional practice. On the other hand, the difference between error and mistake is an error cannot be self-corrected while mistakes can be self-corrected when attention is drawn to them.

5. Global and Local Errors

¹³ Edward Arnold. *Applied Linguistics and the Learning and Teaching of Foreign Language*, (New York : A Division Of Hodder & Stoughton. 1983). p. 52

¹⁴ H. Douglas Brown, *Principle Of language and Teaching, Fourth Edition*. p. 171

A global error is a communicative error that causes a native speaker of English either to misinterpret a written message or to consider the message incomprehensible within the total context of the error. For examples, in the utterance “not take this bus, we late for school”, it should be, ‘if not take this bus, we late for school’.

A local error, on the other hand, is a linguistic error that makes a sentence appear ungrammatical or unidiomatic but, nevertheless, causes a native speaker of English little or no difficulty in understanding the intended meaning of a sentence, given its contextual framework.¹⁵ For examples, when one student could not say ‘matchmaker’, she used the phrase ‘person to arrange date for boys’ and girls’. Thus, the different between global and local errors is global error is errors that cause a listener to misunderstand a message or to consider an utterance incomprehensible while local error is errors that do not significantly hinder communication or understanding of an utterance or message.

6. Classification of Errors

Error actually cannot be separated from language learning. It happen in speech as well in writing. Therefore, some linguists are encouraged to study about errors made by the language learners as follosws:¹⁶

1. Surface Strategy Taxonomy

¹⁵James M. Hendrickson. *Error Analysis and Selective Correction in the Adult', ESI Classroom: An Experiment*. P.3

¹⁶Heidi Dulay. *Language Two*. New York: Oxford University Press. 198., p.146.

This taxonomy shows the cognitive process that underlies the learners' reconstruction of the new language learned. Sometimes the learners omit necessary item, add unnecessary ones, misformation and disordering this items. So that, analyzing errors based on this taxonomy enables the researchers to identify the cognitive process that underlies the learners' reconstruction of the new language learned. According to Dulay, the types of errors, which belong to surface strategy taxonomy are omission, addition, misformation, and misordering.

These types of errors are considered as the inevitable consequences of language learning. They are in fact part of a learning process and may provide valuable insight into the language learning process. Politzer and Ramirez introduced their classification as follow:

The classification of error in this study is based on surface strategy taxonomy. Dulay state that the learner may omit necessary item and add unnecessary ones from their writing or speaking. They also may misform items or disorder them. In this case, surface strategy taxonomy describes the ways syrface structures are alerted. Furthermore, Dulay classifies the errors based on surface strategy taxonomy as omission, addition, misformation, and misordering.¹⁷

1) Omission

¹⁷ Heidi Dulay, Language Two,p.147

This error is categorized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well formed utterance.¹⁸In this case, some types of morphemes are omitted more than others. For example:

I doing the homework in my house.

In *this* sentence *above*, the auxiliary *am* is omitted. The correct form is

'I am doing the homework in my house'.

2) Addition

The error is characterized by the presence of an item that must not appear in a well-formed utterance. There are three kinds of addition:¹⁹

a) **Double marking** is an error in which the addition appears twice in the same feature. For example: *she did go to the market* (the auxiliary *did* is unnecessarily used).

b) **Regularization** is an error made by applying a regular rule to utterance, which requires special rules. For example: *the flowers are putted outside the house* (the past form of the verb *put* is *put*, not *putted*).

c) **Simple addition** is the errors that do not belong to double marking and regularization. For example: *I will be waiting for you in here* (the preposition *in* is never used when we say *here*).

3) Misformation

¹⁸*Ibid.*, p. 154.

¹⁹*Ibid.*, p. 156.

Misformation error is characterized by the use of wrong form of the morpheme or structure. There are three kinds of misformation error, they are:²⁰

- a) **Regularization Errors** is an item in which a regular marker is used in an irregular one. For example: *child* for *children*.
- b) **Archie forms**. The selection of one member of a class of forms to represent others in the class is common characteristic of all stages of tenth language acquisition. For example: *that cat* for *those cats*.
- c) **Alternating forms**. The students know more about various members of a class of words and the different usages among them. However, this fact sometimes makes them confused in its usages correctly.

For example: *I have saw them* for *I have seen them*.

4) Misordering

This error is categorized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or a group of morphemes in an utterance.²¹For example: *where you are going?* (The word order is confusing. It should be *where are you going?*).

2. Comparative Taxonomy

This comparative taxonomy classis the errors in which it is based on comparison between the errors on the target language and other structure.

There below are four kinds of errors in this taxonomy.

²⁰*Ibid.*, p. 158.

²¹*Ibid.*, p. 162.

3. Linguistic Category Taxonomy

This linguistic category taxonomy classifies errors according to the language component on the particular linguistic constituent that the error effect. The language components include phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantic and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary) and discourse (style). Meanwhile, Constituent include the elements that comprises each language component. For example, within syntax one may ask whether the error is the main subordinate clause; and within a clause, which constituent is affected, such as the noun phrase, the preposition, the verb phrase, the auxiliary, the adverb, the adjective and so forth.

4. Communicative Effect Taxonomy

Different from the other taxanomy. Communicative Effect Taxonomy classifies errors from the perspective of their effect on the listener and the reader. It focuses on distinguishing between errors that seem to cause miscommunication and those that do not. For example, global and local errors.²²

Beside on the classify error, this study use type of error surface strategy taxonomy; omission, addition, misformation, and misordering,

²²Heidi Dulay. Language Two. New York: Oxford University Press. 1982 ,p.16.3

communicative effect taxonomy; global and local errors and comparative taxonomy; Interlingua and intralingua transfer.

7. The Causes of Errors

According to Richards, the causes of errors which are viewed from intralingual causes can be divided into four kinds. They are:²³

a. Over-Generalization

Richards says that learners usually refer to their previous knowledge in a new situation.²⁴ It means that in applying the rules of the target language, they generalize the rules based on their previous understanding to produce other sentences. Therefore, over-generalization deals with deviant structures produced by the learners by using their previously acquired rule when they construct a new form of sentences. For example, the result of defiant structure in the sentence “*she takes a bar of chocolate*” is influenced by “*I take a bar of chocolate*”. The omission of the third person *-s* in the verb *take* showed that over-generation occurs in the sense that learners regard as all personal pronouns have the same zero verbal ending in the present tense. They do not notice that the third singular person ends with *-s/-as* for the present tense verb.

b. Ignorance of Rules Restriction

²³Jack Richards, *Error Analysis, Perspective on Second Language Acquisition*, England: Longman Group, 1974, p. 174.

The second cause of errors is still related with over-generalization. In this case, learners disobey the restrictions of existing structures, so that, the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. According to Richards, ignorance of rules restriction is the learners' failure to observe the restriction of existing structures.²⁵

For example: *Both Tika is beautiful and Adinda is beautiful girl.*

The correct form is *both Tika and Adinda are beautiful girls.*

c. Incomplete Application of Rules

According to Richards, the occurrence of deviancy structure represents the degree of development of the rules required to produce acceptable utterances.²⁶ For example: the creation of a question "*how long it takes?*" Here the learners omit the auxiliary *does* to form a question. The correct form is "*how long does it take?*" Therefore, the learners do not complete the rules in applying them to produce acceptable sentences.

d. False Concept Hypothesized

Another source of errors, which are potentially developed, is derived from faulty comprehension of the rule distinction in the target language.²⁷ In this case, learners usually misinterpret the use of certain structures of the target language. They may not know the distinctive function of certain structures of the target language. For example: the form *was* may be

²⁵*Ibid.*, p. 175.

²⁶*Ibid.*, p. 177.

²⁷*Ibid.*, p. 178.

interpreted as a matter of the past tense and *is* a matter of the present tense. The function of the past continuous tense (*was/were + V- ing*) is used only when a single event is extracted from sequence. Meanwhile, the present tense (*is*) is used for sequence of events taking place at the moment. When the learners are given the contrast of simple present tense and continuous tense forms:

Is = present state, and *is + V-ing* = present action.

The contrast is in fact quite false to English. When the past is introduced, it is often introduced as a past state. *He was sick*, this lays the learners' concept to complete the picture of present and past in English by analogy:

Is = present state, and *is + V-ing* = present action,

Was = past state, *was + V-ing* = past action.

Therefore, *was* or *was + V-ing* may be used as past markers. Used together with the *verb + ed*, this produces such sentences as *he was climbed the tree* as well as the interpretation of the form for 'past actions' results *I was going down town yesterday* instead of *I went down town yesterday*.

8. Significance of the Learner's Errors

Studying students' error is regarded as an important thing to know the learning process and the strategies employed by the teacher. According to

Corder, the study of the learner's errors would assume that it plays an important role to know the students' language acquisition.²⁸

Moreover, in this regard, Corder states that the students' errors are significant in three different ways.²⁹ First, for the teacher, the students' errors provide the teacher information if his teaching objectives could achieve the students' goal of learning English and what remains for him to plan. Second, for the researcher, the students' errors provide evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the students employ in discovering their language learning. Third, for the most important aspect, they imply the students' need since making errors is regarded as a device to learn a language.³⁰

Thus, it is very important to study students' errors since it is as a feedback for both of the teacher and the researcher. Its contribution is considered very significant for the teaching and learning process.

E. The Nature of Simple Past Tense

In English there are four ways to express types of simple present tense. They are simple present tense, present continuous tense, and present perfect continuous tense. Here the writer would explain clearly about them, for further information, look at the types of simple past tense below:

²⁸*Ibid.*, p. 24.

²⁹*Ibid.*, p. 25.

1. Definition of simple past tense

There are some definitions of simple past tense. First, Azar states the simple past indicates that an activity or situation began and ended at a particular time in the past. Second, Wishon and Burks state the simple past tense is used to report a or state activity which can be ascribed to a definite past time.³¹ Other reference states the simple past tense is a tense used to express an activity or situation that states in the past and ended in the past at a particular time.³²

Based in the definitions above the writer concludes that simple past tense is a tense used to indicate an activity or situation began and ended at a particular time in the past.

2. Form of Verb in Simple Past Tense

Verb can be divided into two categories; they are regular and irregular verb.³³

a. Regular Verb

Regular verbs are verbs whose forms can be predicted by rules. To make the past tense or past participle from most Verbs (regular verbs) we simply add -ed at the end. The end of the word has some rules. The exceptions

³¹George E. Wishon and Julia M. Burks. *Let's Write English Revised Edition*, New York: Litton Educational Publishing, Inc., 1980, p. 195.

³²Simple Past Function. [http:// www. Teaching-esl-to-adults.com/ forming-simple-past. Html](http://www.Teaching-esl-to-adults.com/forming-simple-past.html) (online June 9th, 2010).

³³Kam Chuan Aik and Kam Kai Hui. *Dictionary of Grammar and Usage*, Singapore: Wesley. 1992. p. 320.

in spelling when adding -ed, they are: Example using the verb “walks “. Past tense: I **worked** through the maze. But, to add -ed at.

b. Irregular Verb

Irregular verbs are verbs whose past tense and past participle forms are not predictable by rules. Irregular verbs are not that simple. We sometimes need a dictionary to help us write the different forms of irregular verbs. Examples using the verb “see”. Past tense: **We saw** the secret maps. Look up the word “see” in the dictionary. Notice that the different forms of the word are given.

3. Verbal and Nominal Sentences in Simple Past Tense

Sentences in simple past tense divided into two parts, they are; verbal and nominal sentences. Verbal sentences are a sentence that contains a verb or verb form in the predicate position.³⁴ Nominal sentences that have nominal (noun) predicates or some noun form in the predicate position.³⁵ Both of these sentences have three forms of sentences, they are; positive, negative and

³⁴ Verbal Sentences.

[http://www.seasite.niu.edu/Tagalog/Grammar% 20 Activities/ Grammar% 201 Sentences 1/Verbal-Sentences. Htm](http://www.seasite.niu.edu/Tagalog/Grammar%20Activities/Grammar%201Sentences1/Verbal-Sentences.Htm) (online on June 17th, 2010).

³⁵ Nominal Sentences.

[http://www.seasite.niu.edu/Tagalog/Grammar% 20 Activities/ Grammar% 201 Sentences 1/ Nominal Sentences.htm](http://www.seasite.niu.edu/Tagalog/Grammar%20Activities/Grammar%201Sentences1/Nominal-Sentences.htm) (online on June 17th, 2010).

interrogative sentences. To make it clear, it can be seen the formulation of each sentences blow:

a. Verbal Sentence

1. Positive Sentence

The formulation:

| |
|-------------|
| S + Verb II |
|-------------|

The Examples:

We went to the beach last week.

The baby cried this morning.

2. Negative Sentence

The formulation:

| |
|------------------------|
| S + did + not + verb I |
|------------------------|

The Examples:

He did not (didn't) bring the book yesterday

My sister did not (didn't) stay in Africa last month.

3. Interrogative Sentence

The formulations:

| |
|--------------------------|
| Did + S + Verb I +.....? |
|--------------------------|

The Examples:

Did they walk to the cornet yesterday?

Did the baby cry this morning?

b. Nominal Sentence

1. Positive Sentence

The formulation:

| |
|--------------------------|
| S + To Be (was / were) |
|--------------------------|

| To Be | |
|-------|------|
| Was | Were |
| I | You |
| She | We |
| He | They |
| It | |

The examples:

She was a student last year.

The children were in Bandung last January.

2. Negative Sentence

The formulation:

| |
|--------------------------------|
| S + To Be (was / were) + not |
|--------------------------------|

The examples:

Sule and Azis were not (weren't) here last night.

Narissa (wasn't) in New York last week.

3. Interrogative Sentence:

The formulation:

| |
|--------------------------------|
| To Be (was / were) + S +.....? |
|--------------------------------|

The examples:

Were the girls at the school yesterday?

Was my mother a nurse last year?