

TENSE AND MOOD IN PERSIAN AND ENGLISH:
A CONTRASTIVE AND ERROR ANALYSES

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ABSTRACT

The present study investigates the two grammatical categories of tense and mood in Persian and English through the contrastive analysis (CA) and error analysis (EA) approaches. The present study seeks to provide a practical and descriptive structural grammar in terms of tense and mood and to identify the areas of difficulty encountered by Persian EFL learners as well. The verb is one of the main parts of speech in a language and the correct use of tense has an important role in language learning and communication in the tense languages like English and Persian.

In the CA, the verbal forms and their applications in both English and Persian are described and then they are juxtaposed in order to find out the similarities and differences between them in terms of their tenses and moods. Furthermore, in the EA, the errors made in a structural test consisting of one hundred items of all English tenses which was administered to sixty Iranian undergraduate students of Shiraz University in Iran were analyzed. Through this EA approach, the frequency of occurrence of the errors and the sources of the errors were analyzed.

The conclusions and recommendations are made based on the findings of the two approaches of CA and EA and from the two surveys comprising a questionnaire and interviews from 30 English teachers from 10 universities in Iran. According to this research, the number of tenses and moods are the same in both languages. There are twelve tenses in English and Persian while there is no often one to one correspondence in the form and use of them. In addition, there are three moods in both languages including Indicative, Subjunctive and Imperative. Notwithstanding, the subjunctive mood in Persian has been already grammaticalized while in modern English it has declined even though we can say it is still alive.

The pedagogical implications can help students and teachers in the learning and teaching processes of the target language. The EA results showed that negative interlingual transfers caused many errors by the participants in the test and on the other hand, many other errors were caused by intralingual errors of ‘ignorance of rule restrictions’ or of ‘false concepts hypothesized’. This will affirm the view that the native or non-native English teachers should have sufficient knowledge of the two languages - Persian as the source/first language and English as the target/foreign language. It is strongly recommended that teachers give enough information to the EFL learners by illustrating some examples concerning the notions of stative verbs, dynamic verbs, achievement verbs, durative verbs, punctual or instantaneous verbs, perfective and progressive aspects in English language. Furthermore, regarding the English teachers’ attitudes and experience, and despite the shortage of time for English lessons which is claimed by the almost all teachers, the communication strategies needed for foreign language pattern learning should also not be ignored.

ABSTRAK

Kajian ini menganalisis dua kategori tatabahasa iaitu kala dan modus dalam bahasa Parsi dan Inggeris melalui pendekatan analisis kontrastif (CA) dan analisis kesalahan bahasa (EA). Kajian ini bertujuan untuk menyediakan tatabahasa kala dan modus berstrukturkan praktikal dan deskriptif. Dapatan kajian untuk mengenalpasti kesukaran yang dihadapi dalam kalangan pelajar asing yang menggunakan bahasa Inggeris (*English foreign learners-EFL*) dan bahasa Parsi. Kata kerja adalah salah satu daripada aspek utama dalam bahasa percakapan serta penggunaan kala yang betul mempunyai peranan yang penting dalam pembelajaran bahasa dan komunikasi dalam bahasa Inggeris dan Parsi.

Analisis kontrastif (CA) menerangkan secara lisan dan aplikasi bagi kedua-dua bahasa Inggeris dan Parsi. Data kajian CA dibandingkan untuk mengetahui persamaan dan perbezaan antara kedua-dua bahasa tersebut dari segi tatabahasa kala dan modus. Tambahan pula, dalam analisis kesalahan bahasa (EA) kesalahan yang dibuat untuk ujian struktural mengandungi seratus item bagi kesemua kata kerja bahasa Inggeris. Kajian ini dilakukan terhadap 60 pelajar ijazah dasar Universiti Shiraz di Iran yang dipilih secara rawak sebagai data kajian. Frekuensi berlakunya kesalahan dan sumber kesalahan dianalisis melalui kajian EA.

Kesimpulan dan cadangan bagi kajian ini dibuat berdasarkan dua pendekatan analisis iaitu CA dan EA serta dua kaji selidik. Kaji selidik yang dijalankan merangkumi borang soal selidik dan temubual daripada 30 orang pensyarah bahasa Inggeris dari 10 universiti di Iran. Implikasi pedagogi dapat membantu pelajar dan guru dalam proses pembelajaran dan pengajaran bahasa sasaran. Hasil kajian EA menunjukkan bahawa timbulnya banyak kesalahan yang dilakukan oleh para peserta dalam ujian tersebut berpunca daripada

kesalahan pemindahan/interlingual negatif (*negative interlingual transfers*). Di samping itu, pelbagai kesalahan lain yang disebabkan kesalahan intralingual (*intralingual errors*) daripada ‘*ignorance of rule restrictions*’ atau ‘*false concepts hypothesized*’. Justeru, ini mengesahkan idea beberapa cendekiawan yang menekankan bahawa pensyarah bahasa Inggeris sebagai bahasa ibunda atau bahasa kedua sepatutnya mempunyai ilmu yang mendalam bagi kedua-dua bahasa tersebut (bahasa Parsi sebagai bahasa utama/ibunda dan bahasa Inggeris sebagai bahasa sasaran/kedua). Bagi menangani masalah ini, para pensyarah bahasa Inggeris disarankan untuk memberi informasi yang mendalam kepada pelajar EFL dengan menerangkan beberapa contoh mengenai pelbagai aspek kata kerja bahasa Inggeris iaitu kata kerja statif, dinamik, pencapaian, duratif, *punctual* atau *instantaneous*, perfektif dan progresif. Selain itu, strategi komunikasi yang diperlukan bagi mencorakkan pembelajaran bahasa kedua tidak boleh diabaikan walaupun sikap dan pengalaman pensyarah bahasa Inggeris serta kesuntukkan masa untuk belajar bahasa Inggeris.

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List of Symbols

Phonetic Alphabet	Persian Example	Gloss	Phonetic Description
a	abru	eyebrow	front, low
â	bâd	wind	back, high
e	esfenâĵ	spinach	front, low
i	istâd-an	to stand	front, high
o	ordak	duck	back, low
u	ruyiĵd-an	to grow	back, high
p	pedar	father	bilabial, stop, voiceless
b	barâdar	brother	bilabial, stop, voiced
t	târik	dark	dental-alveolar, stop, voiceless
d	do	two	dental-alveolar, stop, voiced
f	fil	elephant	labiodental, fricative, voiceless
v	vard	flower	labiodental, fricative, voiced
s	sard	cold	alveolar, fricative, voiceless
z	zang	ring	alveolar, fricative, voiced
š	šarm	shame	alveolar-palatal, fricative, voiceless
č	čâne	chin	alveolar-palatal, affricate, voiceless
ĵ	ĵangal	jungle	alveolar-palatal, affricate, voiced
k	kerm	worm	velar, stop, voiceless
g	gerye	cry	velar, stop, voiced
x	doxtar	daughter	fricative, voiceless
q	qâz	goose	stop, voiced
m	mâdar	mother	bilabial, nasal, voiced
n	nâm	name	dental, nasal, voiced
l	lab	lip	alveolar, lateral, voiced
r	râst	right	alveolar, trill, voiced
h	hamân	same	glottal, fricative, voiceless
y	yâseman	jasmine	palatal, glide, voiced
ʔ	šaʔm	candle	glottal, stop, voiceless

List of Abbreviations

Attr	attributive suffix (-I, -in)
Cl	number classifier suffix (-ta)
Cm	causative marker
Compr	comparative suffix (-tær)
Def	definite suffix (-e)
Dem	demonstrative suffix (-i)
Do	direct object
Dur	durative prefix (mi-)
Ez	ezafe particle (-e, -ye)
Imp	imperative prefix (be-/bo-)
Ind	indefinite suffix (-i)
Inter	interrogative particle (âyâ)
Io	indirect object
Irgprs	irregular present stem (bâş)
Neg	negative prefix (næ-, ne-)
Om	object marker (-râ)
Op	objective pronoun (-am, -at, -aş, -emân, -etân, -eşân)
Opt	optative Marker (-â)
Pfv	prefixal verb (bar-, dar-, farâ, foru-, ...)
Pl	plural, plural suffix (-hâ, -an)
Pos	possessive pronoun (-am, -at, -aş, -emân, -etân, -eşân)
Prs	present
Pst	past
Pstp	past participle
Sbjn	subjunctive, subjunctive prefix (be-/bo-)
Sg	singular
Supr	superlative suffix (-tarin)
Vocm	vocative marker (-â, yâ, ey)

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1. 0 Background to the Study

The verb is one of the main parts of speech in a language and the correct use of tense has an important role in language learning and communication in the tense languages like English and Persian. It is important for any language learner to learn the correct forms of the verbs and the practical grammar usage of tenses so that they are able to communicate effectively with the people of their community by expressing their personal thoughts in the appropriate syntax. Undoubtedly, it is also significant for an English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learner to know the verb tenses in order to express his or her thoughts while talking or writing to others in their interpersonal and business communications in their lives.

Naturally, any second or foreign language learner encounters some problems in the process of language learning. Nevertheless, some language learning problems are more complicated or tricky and consequently cause difficulty even for advanced students and teachers with regard to the ways and procedures of teaching. One of the difficulties in language learning concerns the verb tenses which need special attention.

This study is concerned with descriptive and applied linguistics based on theoretical frameworks and approaches of Contrastive Analysis (CA) and Error Analysis (EA). According to these two approaches, the study focuses on tense and mood in the two languages of Persian as a first language (L1) and English as a foreign language (EFL) for Iranian students who learn English in Iran. Although English and Persian belong to the same family of Indo-European languages, there are many differences between them.

According to the Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies (1998), Persian is part of the Iranian branch of the Indo-European language family while English is a West Germanic language originating in England and is the first language for most people in Anglophone Caribbean, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the Republic of Ireland, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Identifying similarities and differences of these two languages from the syntactic points of view and also as fundamental cognitive process, can facilitate the learning and teaching of the two languages.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Most of the Persian learners of English as a foreign language (Persian EFL learners) have problems as they try to master the English verb tenses. Some English verb tenses and constructions like future tenses and conditional constructions have earned a reputation for being difficult and troublesome for understanding and using than other tenses and constructions.

In the Persian language, some tenses are integrated with moods. Therefore, when these tenses are described, the kind of mood comes in the name and label of the tense. One source of the errors committed by L2 (second language) language learners is the number of usages and applications a tense may have. On the other hand, there is no one to one correspondence in the use of the English and Persian tenses. Another source of errors can be the common usage of some tenses, that is, the structures of the tense formation are different but their application is the same.

In some cases, Persian lacks some English verb tenses. For example, in the Persian language, there is no 'future perfect', 'future perfect progressive', and 'future progressive'. Furthermore, the errors committed by Persian learners of English may

result in negative transfer of developmental interlanguage. In other words, not all the errors made by Persian students are due to interference from their mother tongue.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are as follows:

- 1) To find out the errors made by Persian undergraduate students in the use of English tenses and moods
- 2) To tabulate the frequency of occurrence of these errors
- 3) To describe the causes of the errors
- 4) To suggest the solutions for errors diagnosis and error remediation

The difficulties students face in learning a new language arise out of conflicts and interferences of several types. One of them is the syntactic system of the target language. The greater the similarities between the comparable features of the source language and the target language, the greater the ease of learning and vice versa, the greater the differences, the greater the difficulty. With a considerable degree of accuracy, it is possible to predict the learning problems of the second language learner from a contrastive and error analysis of the source language and the target language.

1.3 Research Questions

Based on the objectives of this study, the research questions therefore are as follows:

- 1) What are the errors made by Persian undergraduate students in the use of tenses and moods in English?
- 2) What is the frequency of occurrence of these errors?
- 3) What are the causes of these errors?

- 4) How can teachers help Persian students to come over their problems in learning tense and mood in English?

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study is not only typological but also pedagogically oriented. The materials and findings of the research can be utilized for providing pedagogical grammar textbooks, for teaching grammar to not only Persian learners of English but also to English learners of Persian. This study can facilitate English and Persian learning because according to some grammarians and linguists such as Haynes (2007), Lipinski (2001), Blue (1970), Shopen (1985), Greene (1836), one of the most difficult parts of the acquisition of languages in speaking and writing skills is tense and mood. It can also shed light on enhancing the understanding of grammatical categories such as tense and mood in both languages.

This research attempts to take into account all applications and uses of tenses and moods in both languages through CA. To achieve a rather comprehensive work, many grammar books have been studied. Hence, this can be an update study of practical grammar in tense and mood especially in the Persian language. The most part of the description about tense and mood in English and Persian is based on the studies carried out by linguists and grammarians in the fields of general and applied linguistics.

Besides, to my knowledge, no studies have so far investigated “errors” through the EA approach in the use of English tenses committed by Persian learners of English. It would be helpful as well as important in translation. It can also be a step forward in machine translation and obtaining a modeling syntax for parsing and translation when the verbal phrases and their closest, equivalent counterparts in both languages are recognized rightly in a corpus and translated correctly. For such an advantage, it would be correlated to the

computational linguistics (for purposes of analysis of language data) and linguistic typology for both the languages.

1.5 Scope and Limitation

This study focuses on the two linguistic features of tense and mood in the English and Persian languages. These two features are described and then contrasted through the procedures of CA and EA. The variety of investigated language is standard language in both languages. In the first methodology, CA, the similarities and dissimilarities of the two languages are determined based on a classic analysis of the structural grammar approach. This research is a kind of practical English and Persian grammar usage in tense and mood. It would be a rather detailed study dealing with the uses of all tenses and functions of all moods in Persian and English. It should be pointed out that in this study, negation, interrogation and the passive voice will not be dealt with because each one demands additional and separate study. Although the topic of the research does not indicate any relevance to aspects and modals¹, they will inevitably be investigated whenever there are interactions among tense, mood, and aspect. In addition, for administering the tests on EA, the participants who took part in it were a homogeneous group of males since it made easier and faster to handle testing and getting intergroup cooperation.

1.6 The English Situation in the Schools of Iran

Based on the latest division of educational periods until year 2010, the schools consisted of five years for primary school, three years for secondary school and three years for high

¹ The researcher already worked on the uses of different English modal verbs as a section under the category of the subjunctive mood. The section was excluded due to its huge contents and materials on the one hand and the limitation of thesis size on other hand. Hence only some English modals are contrasted in some sentences while the constructions are corresponded to the Persian equivalent verb tenses 'imperfective simple past' or 'present subjunctive'.

school. After graduating from high school and obtaining the certificate of Diploma, they should pass one year as Preparatory or what is so-called 'Pre-university'. The nursery schools and kindergartens are private which accept children from the ages of three to seven. In these preschools, a few English words and simple sentences are instructed to kids by using some pictures and clips. The teaching of English starts in the government schools in the second year of their secondary school and continues for six years. English is taught for three to four hours per week in an academic year. It is necessary to mention that the Arabic language as a foreign language is taught as well. The teaching of Arabic starts from the first year of the secondary school and continues for seven years before they graduate from 'Pre-university'. The English textbooks are written by an academic collective under the supervision of the Ministry of Education in Iran. In these textbooks, the major focus is on learning vocabulary and grammar. In other words, the books emphasize the reading skills and the audio-lingual skills are not paid attention much. On the other hand, the teachers usually ignore or do not give enough importance to oral drills, pronunciation and communication exercises because they have not been asked by the Ministry of Education to test these skills in the final exam. Likewise, the skills of listening, writing and speaking have not been tested in the university entrance examination as yet. This may be one factor among many others that do not help in encouraging strong motivation in high school students try to learn aural and oral skills.

There are private language centers and schools in all the cities and in most of the towns in Iran. The schools train interested students at different ages and levels. They provide the most efficient ways and methods in teaching a language. In recent years, the attraction of the private school languages has been increasing more and more.

1.7 Persian Language

1.7.1 Short History of Persian Language

Persian (its local names: Farsi or Parsi) is the official language of Iran (formerly Persia). Farsi is actually the ‘Arabicized’ equivalent for ‘Parsi’ due to there being no /p/ sound in the Arabic language. Dari and Tajiki, as Persian varieties have also official language status in Afghanistan and Tajikistan, respectively. Dari is known as ‘Afghan Persian’ and Tajiki is called ‘Tajiki Persian’ in some western and linguistic sources have the same basic vocabulary and grammar with Persian. Hence, they are highly mutually intelligible with differences found primarily in the vocabulary and phonology. Persian is spoken by the minorities in Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Azerbaijan, and in the Persian Gulf states like Bahrain, Qatar, Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates. In addition, since the 1979 Islamic revolution in Iran, the continuous emigration from Iran has led to the creation of Persian-speaking diaspora communities in many countries worldwide. The highest number of the urban community of Iranians outside Iran is now in the United States with a population close to two million people.

According to linguists and the language researchers, among them Levy (1951), Natel-Khanlari (1973), Lazard (1975), Windfuhr (1979), Yar-Shater (1983), Abolghasemi (1995), Perry (2005), Haig (2008), Persian is part of the Iranian branch of the Indo-European language family. It is derived from the language of the ancient Persian people, Achaemenians (6-3rd centuries BC). The Persian language has three distinguished periods comprising the Old, Middle and New Persian which are corresponding to three historical eras. The oldest records in Old Persian date back to the Behistun Inscription at Darius the Great (521-486), the third king of Achaemenid Empire. The transition from Old Persian to Middle Persian must have begun before the fourth century BC. However, Middle Persian appeared in inscriptions in Sassanid era (224-651 A.D). From the eighth

century A.D onwards, the Middle Persian period gradually began turning out to be New Persian.

Persian until recent centuries was culturally and historically, one of the prominent languages in the Middle East, Central Asia, Asia Minor or Anatolia and Indian Subcontinent. Persian with its strong classical literature has had a great influence on languages like the Turkic languages and Armenian in Central Asia, Caucasus and Anatolia; South Asian languages particularly Urdu, Hindi, Punjabi, Sindhi, Saraiki, Sylheti, Bengali, and Oriya. In Ottoman, Turkey, and Mughal India times, there were major literary centers. The Ottoman kings (1299-1922) in Turkey could speak Persian and some of them could read some poems in Persian. The Mogul kings of India had made Persian their court language during the fifteenth to the eighteenth centuries. Persian was the official language in India until the British occupied it and then they banned it. On the other hand, the new Persian contains a considerable amount of Arabic words which were persianized and often took a different sense and usage than the original Arabic words. Besides, most of the Arabic words used in Persian are either synonyms of native terms or could be (and often have been) glossed in Persian. The Arabic vocabulary in Persian is thus suppletive rather than basic, and it has enriched the New Persian.

1.7.2 Persian Writing Style

Persian in Iran and Afghanistan is written with the Perso-Arabic script. Persian is written from right to left and uses the Persian alphabet –a modified variant of the Arabic alphabet which is called the Perso-Arabic script. The letters in a word are often connected to each other. The Persian alphabet adds four letters to the Arabic alphabet because Standard Arabic language lacks the sounds /p/, /g/, /č/ and /ž/. Persian with 23 consonants and 6 vowels consist of 32 alphabet letters for writing. The three short vowels /æ/, /e/ and /o/

are not usually inscribed. In addition to the above, it should be mentioned that all Arabic sounds do not exist in Persian because Persian speakers do not pronounce the borrowed Arabic words the same as Arabs. Hence, in Persian, more than one character may represent more than one phone. Persian in Tajikistan has been typically written in a modified version of the Cyrillic alphabet since the Bolshevik revolution in the 1930's under the Tajik Soviet Socialist Republic when the Persian script was banned from the country (Natel-Khanlari, 1973), (Lazard, 1975), (Windfuhr, 1979), (Abolghasemi, 1995), (Cristal, 2003), (Perry, 2005), (Haig, 2008).

1.7.3 Basic Features of Verb Morphology and Syntax

Written Persian is a Subject-Object-Verb (SOV) language in terms of word order in a sentence. Persian is also a verb-final and prepositional language. It has one postposition *-râ* as direct object marker and many prepositions (Comrie, 1990), (Mahootian, 1997), (Karimi, 2005), (Taleghani, 2008), (Howell & Van Borsel, 2011). "The verb is marked for tense and aspect and usually agrees with the subject in person and number. Persian is a null-subject or pro-drop language in which the subject is optional" (Megerdooian, 2000, p. 110).

The overt object marker *-râ* is usually used to indicate specific direct objects in simple sentences. A normal declarative sentence can be structured as '(S)(PP)(O)V' meaning the compromised categories of 'subject', prepositional phrase, and 'direct object' can be optional but the final position of the verb is required in the sentence. However, the direct object is often followed by the overt object direct marker *râ* and precedes the prepositional phrases; that is '(S)(O + *râ*)(PP)V' (Mahootian, 1997).

Persian is a language that exhibits freedom of constituent order. Nevertheless, a relative order of parts of speech, scrambling, in a sentence is accounted in order to analyze the syntactic structures (Karimi, 2005). In compound sentences, the main clause precedes a subordinate clause. Persian has no grammatical gender and no pronouns marked for natural gender. Furthermore, there is usually agreement between third person singular subject and verb for inanimate subjects.

There are different views about the Persian verb formation among grammarians and linguists. Some grammarians such as Qarib et al., (1949) consider the infinitive as the origin of derivation in verb formation. Among other grammarians and linguists, Natel-Khanlari (1987), Shariat (1991), Farshidvard (2005) contemplated the past or present root as the origin of derivation. Nevertheless, Khatib-Rahbar (1988) believed the conjugations of a verb are formed based on two stems of imperative or past (p. 110).

An infinitive is made by adding the infinitive marker /-an/ to the past stem of the verb. The present personal markers which take place at the final position of the verb include: {-am, -i, -ad, -im, -id, -and}. The present and past personal markers are identical except in the past tense for third person singular is zero which is indicated by \emptyset . Moreover, the verbal Persian prefixes include /mi-/ , /na-/ , /ne-/ , /be-/ , /bo-/ , /bi-/. The prefix /mi-/ is a durative marker which precedes the stem in some verbal forms. The prefixes /na-/ and /ne-/ are negative markers. The prefix /ne-/ comes before the durative prefix /mi-/. The prefix /be-/ and its varieties /bo-/ and /bi-/ are used in the imperative and subjunctive moods.

In Persian as Farshidvard (2005) believed, there are two different types of stems: the present stem and the past stem. The past root can be obtained through two ways. The first

way, it is constructed by deleting the infinitive marker /-an/ which is placed at the end of infinitives in Persian. The second one is to delete the subjective verbal marker attached to the past simple structure. The subjective verbal markers include: /-am/, /-i/, Ø, /-im, /-id/, /-and/. On the other hand, the present root can be made in two ways: the first by deleting the prefix /-mi/ and the suffixes at the end of the present verb in the Persian language. The second by omitting the imperative marker /be-/ attached to the imperative verbs. According to Megerdooian (2000), “The Past Stem could be derived from the infinitival form of the verb, but the Present Stem is not easily obtained from the surface structure of the infinitival” (p.15).

The components used in the construction of a verb can be categorized into two types: variable and invariable. The invariable element is the root which is the same in all conjugations and verbal forms. However, the variable elements are the tense markers and the personal markers. The tense markers indicate time in the past, present or future and the personal markers denote the three alternatives of first person, second person and third person in singular or plural. In other words, inflectional markers are variable encoding of two categories of tense and person in a sentence while the derivational component as the verbal root is invariable in verbal forms. The Persian verb, morphologically, can be divided into two main classes: simple verbs and compound verbs. The compound verb comprises a verbal and at least one non-verbal element.

The causative verb is structured by adding the morpheme /-ân-/ to the present stem of the verb. In most cases, the verbs ‘make’ or ‘cause’ are their equivalences in translation to English:

puš-id-an (to put on, to wear) → *puš-ân-d-an* (to cover, to clothe, to conceal)

xor-d-an (to eat) → *xor-ân-d-an* (to feed)

tâx-t-an (to gallop, to rush forward) → *tâz-ân-d-an* (to push a horse to gallop, to act recklessly)

The compound verb has been one of the arguable topics in linguistics. Persian is productive much more in coining compound verbs rather than simple verbs. Since seven centuries ago, many simple verbs have been replaced with compound verb equivalences. The grammarians and linguists have had different views concerning the definition and the distinction of the ‘compound verb’ with respect to some categories in a sentence.

In the Persian language, not all verbs are simple in terms of their morphological structure. The other forms of the Persian verbs are called ‘compound verbs’, ‘light verb construction’ or ‘complex predicate’ by traditional grammarians and linguists with respect to their different views to its formation process. According to Dabir Moghaddam (1997), ‘compound verb’ “consists of a non-verbal constituent, such as a noun, adjective, past participle, prepositional phrase, or adverb, and a verbal constituent” (p.1). Through conjugation of a compound verb, the head word remains unchanged and the light verb is conjugated. Furthermore, the verbal element of this combination “is a lexicalized simple verb which serves as an aktionsart marker” (p.1). “Persian simple verbs are quite rare compared to the number of light verb constructions, also known as complex predicates, in the language. These constructions consist of a noun, adjective or preposition followed by a light verb such as the verbs "do", "give" or "hit", forming non-compositional units of meaning. In other words, the meaning of these light verb constructions cannot be obtained by translating each element separately” (Megreloomian, 2000, p. 28). Karimi (2005) in discussing and analyzing the syntactic properties of word order in a scrambling language stated, “Persian complex verbs, consisting of a non-verbal element (NV) and a light verb (LV), have been gradually replacing simple verbs in this language since the

thirteenth century. The tendency to form complex verbs has resulted in the existence of two sets of verbs, simple and complex, for a number of verbal concepts. In many cases, the application of the simple verb is restricted to the written and elevated language” (p.11).

1.7.4 Persian Grammar

The study of grammar in Iran has a long history, probably even during Sassanid (224-651 A.D) in order to preserve the old sacred of Zoroastrian texts (Windfuhr, 1979). It is believed by most of the historians that the Persian language was not used for a few centuries after Islam came to Iran. It is amazing that the first scientific grammar about the Arabic language was written by an Iranian named Sibouyeh. However, it was Avicenna who for the first time after Islam wrote his important Persian work *Makharij Al-huruf / Asbab Hudus Al-huruf* (Place of Articulation) about the Persian language (phonology) in the 11th century. Shams-e-Qeys-e Razi is the next known scholar who discussed a good number of rules of the Persian morphology in the 13th century. Strictly speaking, little is known about other early grammars (p.10). In Islamic times, “In terms of scholarly activity the grammar and lexicon of Modern Persian were first studied in the 11th century by Iranians, who were later joined by Turkish and then by Indian and other Muslim scholars, and finally since the 17th century, by western scholars. The two main paradigms with which Persian grammar has been studied and described are the ‘Muslim/Near-Eastern’ and the ‘Western’ paradigm. (A third paradigm, that of Indian (Sanskrit) grammar, is said to have been applied in some grammars of Persian written in India during the time of Akbar)” (p.9).

According to Haghshenas & Mohammad-Ebrahimi (2004), the previous studies about the Persian grammar can be divided into three main classes: 1) traditional, 2) structural,

3) generative (p.155). It is famous that Mirza-Habib-e Esfahani was the first grammarian who tried to write his grammar book about the Persian rules and its parts of speech without employing Arabic rules in the 19th century. As we know, Persian and Arabic belong to different language families. The former is a member of the Indo-European languages while the latter is from the Semitic languages. The most obvious characteristic in the traditional grammar, is the mixture of Persian rules with Arabic ones; consequently, the mixture of Arabic and Persian technical terms in the Persian grammar books. Hence, one of the problems which a new researcher can encounter repeatedly in dealing with the names and titles of the Persian tenses is that any Persian tense has at least two names. Some of them have been called by traditional grammarians and some of them have been coined by new linguists and modern grammarians. “A practically interesting, if complex, problem is the Arabic loan component in Persian. It consists not simply of lexical entries but, with these, of a considerable number of morphological, and some syntactic rules of Arabic ... The existence of this sub-component has been recognized in many grammars of Persian since the publication of Gladwin (1801), the first European grammar of Persian to include a section on Arabic inflection” (Windfuhr, 1979, p.81).

Among the structural linguists, Bateni (1967) probably is the first structural grammarian of Persian who presented a structural description of the Persian sentence, clause, phrase and word based on Halliday’s linguistic theory of ‘Scale and Category’. Bashiri (1972) attempted to develop a new model of what may be called the generative-functional grammar. In addition, Meshkatoddini (1991) wrote a book about Persian grammar according to the Generative-Transformational Grammar and Miremadi (1997) also wrote on the Persian language syntax based on the Government and Binding Theory.

1.8 Definition of Terms

In this part, some technical terms which will be used in the study are defined or explained briefly.

1.8.1 Tense

“Tense is grammatical expression of location in time” (Comrie, 1985b, p.9). “Tense relates the time of the situation referred to some other time, usually to the moment of speaking” (Comrie, 1976, p.3). However, it is difficult to define or describe time clearly because the concept of time is self-evident. The various definitions have been suggested from different perspectives. For example, in psychology from the perception viewpoint, time is an emergent concept that is created by the mind. According to this view, time is considered as memory. That is, the current and present time is the consciousness or awareness of recording of memory into the brain. The past is just a record while the future does not exist. Time is passing non-stop and is represented through the changes and closely related to the space. In other words, time in physics is presence of motion and forces in the universe.

In linguistics, to show the time as a continuum with three main divisions of past, present and future, a linear line is assumed. “... time can be represented as a straight line, with the past represented conventionally to the left and the future to the right. The present moment will be represented by a point labeled 0 on the line. This representation enables us to represent diagrammatically a range of ordinary-language statements about time” (Comrie, 1985b, p.2).

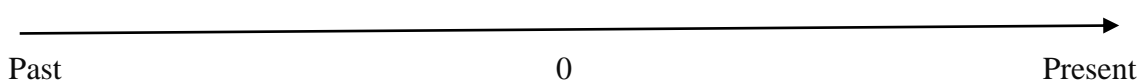


Figure1.1: Representation of time

Of course, the Figure 1.1 does not show the flow of time in the past and the present. It

can be helpful in discussing time expressions across languages. It is important to be borne in mind that the conceptualization of time progress is different in various cultures. In addition, some languages are tensed and some are not. It means a tenseless language like Burmese or Malay which has no grammatical device for expressing location in time. However, any human language has its way of locating situation in time. The Figure 1.1 has still another deficiency. According to Comrie (1985b), in some cultures including the Australian Aboriginal, the concept of time is cyclic. Therefore, there is an objection to the universality of the Figure 1.1. Nevertheless, he believes the replacing of the linear Figure 1.1 with a circular one for the cultures like Australian Aboriginal ones is not correct because “the cycles are invariably of such long duration that it makes no difference to the activities of daily life that they are taking place in a cycle of time rather than on a straight time line. In other words, this difference in conceptualization of time overall is no more relevant to a study of tense than would be the difference between Euclidean and non-Euclidean geometry to a study of the meaning of terms like *here* and *there*” (p.4). In most tensed languages, tense is indicated on the verb, either by the verb morphology as past *loved* versus non-past *loves* in English or by grammatical word adjacent to the verb like auxiliaries in the language of Bamileke-Dschang in the country of Cameroon in Africa (p.12). There is no absolute tense at all. It is just a traditional misleading term. “The absolute time reference is impossible, since the only way of locating a situation in time is relative to some other already established time point” (p.36). In linguistics, the three basic tenses of present, past and future are defined by referring to their time references and giving the present moment as a deictic centre, “present tense means coincidence of the time of the situation and the present moment; past tense means location of the situation prior to the present moment; future tense means location of the situation after the present moment” (p.36).

One of the theories of tense is that of Reichenbach (1947). He claimed that in any given sentence, there are at most three points in time which are relevant to the choice of tense:

S – point of speech;

E - the point of the event;

R - the point of reference (as cited in Dahl, 1985, p.29). “Let us use ‘situation’ as a completely general technical term covering actions, events, processes, relations, states of affairs or whatever a clause expresses. Situations may be either ‘dynamic’, in which case they may be said to ‘take place’, or ‘static’, in which case they ‘obtain’” (Huddleston, 1984, p.144).

1.8.2 Aspect

There is a close relationship between aspect and tense in dealing with time. Tense indicates the location of time and relates to the time of a situation to some other time, while aspect relates to the time of action and conveys temporal information about the verb of the sentence such as duration, completion or frequency.

Comrie (1976) defined aspects as “different ways of viewing the internal temporary constituency of a situation” (p.3). “Aspect is a parameter which is realized differently in the languages of the world. ...Aspect traditionally refers to grammaticized viewpoints such as the perfective and imperfective” (Smith, 1997, P.1). Grammatical aspect can be distinguished through overt inflectional or derivational affixes, or independent words that play the role of aspectual marker in a sentence. “Perfective viewpoints focus on a situation in its entirety, including both initial and final endpoints. Imperfective viewpoints focus on part of a situation, including neither initial nor final endpoints. ... The viewpoints are similar across languages, but not identical. Knowing a language includes knowing the semantic value of its viewpoints, and their distribution according to situation types” (p.3).

“As the name suggests, the progressive presents the situation as being ‘in progress’. This implies that the situation is conceived of as taking place, not simply obtaining – i.e. it is conceived of as having a more or less dynamic character, as opposed to being wholly static. It also implies that the situation is viewed as having at least the potential for continuation and hence is being viewed not in its (potential) temporal totality but at some ‘subinterval’ of time, a point or period within that total interval of time. The non-progressive, by contrast, does not present the situation as in progress: the situation may be either static or dynamic, and in the latter case the action, process or whatever will be viewed in its temporal totality, and hence presented as an event” (Huddleston, 1984, p.153).

In linguistics, there are two kinds of aspects: lexical aspect (also known as Aktionsart) and grammatical aspect. Sometimes, the Greek item of Aktionsart is used for the former one. It is an inherent semantic property of a verb or verb phrase and except in very few languages like the Athabaskan languages in the North America, it is not marked formally. According to Vendler (1957), the lexical aspects of verbs can be classified into four categories: Activity, Accomplishment, Achievement and State (as cited in Rothstein, 2008, p.194). Comrie (1976) added the category semelfactive to the four above categories. With respect to Comrie’s division, the semelfactives of the punctual verbs are atelic and those of achievements are telic.

1.8.3 Mood

There are two kinds of moods in a language: analytical mood and grammatical mood. As Huddleston (1984) remarked, “The general term ‘mood’ is applied to grammatical systems of the verb or VP [verbal phrase] whose terms are differentiated semantically primarily in the contrast between factual assertion and various kinds of non-factuality

and/ or non-assertion. The traditional inflectional system indicative vs. imperative vs. subjunctive clearly falls under this definition, with indicative, the unmarked term, the one used in factual assertion” (p.164).

It should be paid attention that mood is distinguished from modality. Sometimes, one is confused from another. Mood is a grammatical category, while modality designates a semantic entity (Palmer, 1990).

1.8.4 Standard Language

Finegan (2011) identified the standard language as “the variety used by a group of people in their public discourse—newspapers, radio broadcasts, political speeches, college and university lectures, and so on. In other words, we could identify as standard the variety used for certain activities or in certain situations. Alternatively, we could identify as standard the variety that has undergone a process of standardization, during which it is organized for description in grammars and dictionaries and encoded in such reference works” (p.14). Likewise, regarding Standard English, Trudgill (1999) believed that “Standard English is a social dialect which is distinguished from other dialects of the language by its grammatical forms” (p.125).

1.8.5 Second Language Learning and Target Language

Second language (L2) can refer to any language learned after learning the first language (L1) regardless of whether it is the second, third or fourth language (Gass & Selinker, 1992). The learning of second languages and the learning of foreign languages involve the same fundamental process in different situations. “Second [language] can refer to any language that is learned subsequent to the mother tongue. Thus, it can refer to the learning of a third or fourth language. Also, ‘second’ is not intended to contrast with ‘foreign’” (Ellis, 1997, p.3). “‘L2 acquisition’, then, can be defined as the way in which people

learn a language other than their mother tongue, inside or outside of a classroom, and ‘Second Language Acquisition’ (SLA) as the study of this” (p.3). Second language acquisition is the process by which people learn languages in addition to their native language(s).

The target language is the language to be learned. It is called second language compared to the first language. Today, the terms ‘language acquisition’ and ‘language learning’ are used interchangeably by scholars unless they are addressing Krashen, in which his work (1982), he made a sharp distinction between acquisition and learning. Krashen contrasted acquisition with formal and non-constructive learning. According to him, acquisition and learning refer to the subconscious and conscious aspects of the language learning process.

Through a descriptive study of a language, a researcher by exploring the linguistic system of the language seek to a better understanding of language learning without taking into account of the factors outside the process of language learning.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The literature review of this research includes two parts. The first part deals with the past studies, which covers the articles, books, dissertations and theses focused on the contrastive study of Persian and English in terms of tense or mood. However, the second part concerned mainly with the historical perspective of CA and the emergence of EA in the applied linguistics.

2.1 Past Studies

This section on the past studies concerns the two grammatical categories of tense and mood in Persian and English through a contrastive approach:

Yarmohammadi (2002) revised his thesis (1965) as a textbook for English students in Iran. It seems it has been the first linguistic study of Persian with a foreign language through a contrastive procedure. He contrasted English and Persian in three levels of languages; grammar, vocabulary and phonology. Obviously, the scope of his study was broad and it was a general investigation of the two languages. His CA study in grammar included some structural implications of basic sentence types like ‘zero-place predicators’, ‘one-place predicators’, ‘two-place predicators’ , and ‘three-place predicators’. In the CA of the sound systems, the consonants and vowels, the accents and intonations are described and contrasted. Finally, in the morphology part of the book, the lexical systems, word formation and vocabulary systems in the semantic field are compared. However, the book has no attribution to the EA approach and it has no specific and detailed study to the categories of tense and mood.

Manuchehri (1974) believed that the comparison of the first language with the second language could be helpful by information regarding the frequent errors made by students. She emphasized that English teacher should know about their students' mother tongue. Indeed, as she stated her contrastive study of verb forms between Persian and English was 'only fragmentary'. Her corpus study of verb forms was some drawn sentences from 'Bertrand Russell's book, *On Education*, in English and their translation in Persian. Dealing with the Iranian EFL learners' common mistakes, she gave some example sentences of different verb structures in English and Persian. Among the problems that she mentioned for Iranian EFL learners, only the following points somehow related with the tense and mood in English and Persian:

- (a) Infinitive in an English verb group is equivalent with the [present] subjunctive in Persian.
- (b) Iranian EFL learners do not learn the phrase '*used to*' easily. Moreover, '*used to* + infinitive' is misunderstood '*be used to*+ present participle' by them.
- (c) The Persian equivalent of the English present modal *may* + infinitive can be a clause that is followed by the corresponding *may*.
- (d) There is no exact equivalent in Persian for the emphatic *do*, *does* and *did* in present or past tenses.
- (e) The present perfect in Persian and English are used differently.
- (f) The simple present and present progressive in Persian and English may be designated by using the proper adverb time '*now*' and '*every day*'.
- (g) Almost all conditional sentence types are problematic.
- (h) The sentences involving indirect speech are seriously confusing.

Finally, she asserted that the different kinds of exercises and drills about problematic areas would improve the students in EFL learning if the native or nonnative teachers were aware of different structural patterns of the two languages.

Eftekhary (1975) tried to report some basic needs of English teachers in Iran, especially for the native speaker teachers, based on his own experience in teaching English to Iranian high school students and also Persian in several peace corps trainings by writing a 60-page paper at the 'School for International Training of the Experiment in International Living'. As he mentioned in his report, his study was a simple comparison between the English and Persian sound systems, grammar and sentence structures. In his research, he first gave a short explanation of the verbal forms in Persian with a few examples of each tense followed with their equivalences in English. He believed it would be helpful to solve the problems encountered in the classrooms if a foreign language teacher knew about his/her students' native languages. In dealing with verbs, he stated eight out of twelve tenses in Persian. His report had no specific attribution to moods. Instead, it had some suggestions for English teachers in order to help their students in overcoming some problems.

Mirhassani (1989) affirmed that one of the main factors which act to cause Iranian students to encounter problems in learning English is due to the lack of sufficient knowledge of English teachers – whether native or non-native English speakers about the Persian grammar, particularly the verbs. He tried to identify the differences of verb formations in English and Persian through a comparison approach. However, my study investigates the structure and the application of all tenses and moods in both English and Persian. Moreover an EA is conducted by analyzing the errors committed by Persian undergraduate students in a test then the results are tabulated and the causes of errors are discussed.

Farahani (1990) did his study on tense and aspect system of Modern Persian in syntactic and semantic point of view. He claimed that his study was the first attempt at studying

the syntax and semantics of modern Persian verb forms based on recent discussions of tense and mood. Compared with the current study, it is not a contrastive study between Persian and other languages and it has no attribution to EA as well. However, it has a good review to the previous Persian grammars.

Fallahi's article (1992) concerned with the structural and usage variations of the present perfect and present perfect progressive in English and Persian. He attempted to show the interlingual and intralingual transfers on first language learners of Persian learning English as a foreign language. The article classified nine English sample sentences into two groups as corresponding closely sentences in Persian. Compared with the present study, it does not provide a complete study of all the tenses and moods and additionally it does not provide a full account of the application of the two tenses he investigated through a CA approach. Besides, it does not present any report on the type and frequency of errors of both the tenses.

Motevalli Meidanshah's study (1998) was about the tense and aspect in Persian by using a semantic approach. Even though he did not cover all the tenses in Persian, he could give examples of Persian verbs with aspect marker *mi-* that had different time references. The marker can indicate various properties such as imperceptivity, habit, repetition, progressiveness or continuity of a situation. He maintained that Comrie's formulation about aspect could not totally be applicable to some Persian verbs. In other words, a particular situation in Persian verbs can be expressing imperfective, non-habitual and non-progressive. Such a situation does not seem to be included by any subdivision of Comrie's classification. He investigated the present, past and future based on the semantic and grammatical features such as simultaneity, timelessness, universal time statement, repetitive situation, progressiveness, competence, narration of past events, futurity, and

the imperative. Compared with my study, there is no similar methodological trend in providing a CA and EA study. Moreover, its theoretical framework is based on a semantic point of view while my study is concerned with the structural approach of tenses and moods in English and Persian.

Fallahi in another paper (1999) investigated the future tense systems in English and Persian. He contrasted the grammatical devices that express the future in English with their correspondents in Persian. This paper contrasted different sentences in the future tense based on illustrated sentences in terms of only the forms. It does not deal with the use and functions of the verb tenses. In addition, there is no implication to the moods in the corresponding sentences. Compared with my study, it does not provide any report on the type and frequency of errors which are committed by Persian EFL learners.

Sahraei (2005) provided an informal semantic analysis for future forms in Persian and English languages. At first, the author went through the vexed question of whether these languages possess such a thing as future tense. Providing his argumentation, he suggested that Futurity was not an absolute linguistic concept. Then, he compared and contrasted the use of different futurates (different future forms) in English and Persian. Based on the results of this process, he proposed a continuum for futurity in Persian. In that continuum, it was suggested that *xâst-an* (meaning “will” in Persian) was the default future; that is, it was used only when the general preconditions for other futurates did not exist. Finally, it was concluded that the concept of futurity had been merged in other tenses, especially the Simple Present and that was why it was normally expressed with these tenses. As is mentioned above, it focused on the futurity and covers some parts of the future tenses. Compared with the present study, there is no similar research methodology and main objectives with Sahraei’s study as he investigated only the futurity in English and Persian

languages through a semantic analysis. In other words, it has not given due consideration to the CA and EA approaches which I applied for my study. In addition, it does not discuss about the classification and frequency of errors using the EA approach as I did for my study on the tenses and moods in Persian and English.

Jabbari (2003) in his article about the acquisition of temporal properties by Persian learners of English presented the results of a study investigating the acquisition of English tense and aspect by Persian speakers. A cross-sectional study of forty-five second language learners at three levels of proficiency was conducted using a grammaticality judgement task. Findings showed that the acquisition of tense and aspect followed the universal entailment of inherent aspect. This paper emphasised on the aspects in Persian and English and thus, there is no attribution to the practical grammar usage of tenses or moods like my study. It also does not discuss about the problems that Persian EFL learners may encounter in the learning of English as a foreign language while I did in my study. In addition, it does not present an academic report on the kind and frequency of errors whereas I wrote a lengthy report on this for my study.

Jahani (2008) attempted to make her focus of her paper on future time reference in classical and modern Persian. The theoretical framework of her study was that of Comrie (1976, 1985b), Palmer (2001) and Dahl (2006). She pointed out two main strategies for marking future time references in Persian: lexical or contextual means, and periphrastic verbal constructions. Jahani (2008) first described the founded samples of expressions of future in the classical Persian texts, which she divided in two periods of Early Classical Persian (10th- 12th century A.D) and the Late Classical Persian (13th-15th century A.D). Then she undertook the investigation of approximately 70 pages of factual prose and 70 pages of fiction texts in Modern Persian which were chosen at random. All the

investigated factual prose texts were written after 1979, but the fiction texts with a longer time span were written before and after 1979. The positive point of this article is that she traced the historical background of the future tense in different Persian texts from the classic Persian to the modern Persian. However, unlike my study, it has no attribution to the moods, the practical grammar usage of other tenses and the EA approach.

2.2 The Historical Perspective of CA

“Contrastive studies have a very long history. As early as ca. 1000 A.D. Aelfric wrote his *Grammatica*, a grammar of Latin and English, based on the implicit assumption that the knowledge of grammar of one language may facilitate the learning of another language. ...The early contrastive analysis did not concern themselves with methodological problems, although they did work out a method of comparison known as the ‘sign theory’, the first method in contrastive studies” (Krzeszowski, 1990, p. 3). Contrastive linguistics as an applied branch of linguistics was based on structuralism in 1950s. Sometimes the term synchronic linguistics is used to be discriminated from that of diachronic one or comparative linguistics. In comparative linguistics as a branch of historical linguistics, the family relations and genetic relatedness of a common origin between cognate languages is demonstrated and the historical developments of them are illustrated. Whereas in contrastive linguistics, the difference of two respective languages is shown in order to help in the solution of practical problems in foreign and second language teaching.

CA is a systematic study of two languages which are contrasted with a view to identify the similarities and differences in their structures. Dirven & Afschrift (1979) believed “contrastive linguistic can be considered as an offspring of structuralist linguistics applied to the problems of foreign language teaching (FLT)” (p.79). James (1980) regarded CA

as a linguistic approach was based on an assumption that a pair of languages can be compared. By this assumption, Ellis (1966) noticed, “While every language may have its individuality, all languages have enough in common for them to be compared and classified into types” (as cited in James, 1980, p.2).

“Contrastive analysis (CA), or contrastive linguistics, as Fisiak (1981:1) puts it, ‘may be roughly defined as a sub-discipline of linguistics concerned with the comparison of two or more languages in order to determine both the differences and similarities between them’. The same kind of definition is provided by Fallahi (1991) that says, ‘Contrastive analysis is a branch of linguistics that brings two systems together, sets them against each other, and seeks to define the similarities and the differences between them’”, (as cited in Yarmohammadi, 2002, p.1). By the combination of the two above definition, Yarmohammadi (2002) tried to give a revised definition of CA, “Contrastive analysis is a sub-discipline of linguistics that brings two or more language systems or subsystems together and sets them against one another in order to determine the differences and similarities between them in terms of some specified linguistic features” (p.6).

Although Di Pietro (1971) mentioned an early example of CA in Charles Hall Grandgent’s book on the German and English sound system which published in 1892 but it is a well-known fact that modern CA starts with Lado while he formulated the theoretical foundations for Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) in his book of *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957). The inception of contrastive linguistics by Lado has often been linked to aspects of applied linguistics. Fries as a part of mainstream of American language study was interested in improving the ways English was taught to native speakers and later on English as a second language (ESL). “He [C.C. Fries] encountered practical problems and then carefully and systematically brought to bear all

the theoretical knowledge he could find to address the problem. Indeed he saw a close relation between theoretical and applied linguistics” (Fries, 2008, p.94). In fact, Lado and Fries paved the way for evolution of CA.

There are two kinds of CA: theoretical and applied. According to Fisiak et al. (1984), theoretical CAs “do not investigate how a given category present in language A is presented in language B. Instead they look for the realization of universal category x in both A and B” (p. 10). Moreover, applied CAs “are preoccupied with the problem of how a universal category x, realized in language A as y, is rendered in language B” (p.10).

There are many descriptive models for CA. One of them is structuralist or taxonomic which expounded by Bloomfield (1933) and elaborated by Harris (1954). Bloomfield’s approach to linguistics was on the basis on formal procedure for the analysis of linguistic data and behaviorism. Harris represented a definite formulation of descriptive structural work in 1951 in his famous book of *Methods in Structural Linguistics*. James (1980) remarked, “CA is a hybrid drawing on the sciences of linguistics and psychology. This is inevitably so, since linguistics is concerned with the formal properties of language and not directly with learning, which is psychological matter. Since CA is concerned with L2 learning, it needs a psychological component” (p.11).

The psychological basis of CA is Transfer Theory which Ellis (1965) referred to as “perhaps the single most important concept in the theory and practice of education” and defined it “the hypothesis that the learning of task A will affect the subsequent learning task B” (as cited in James 1980, p. 11). Here, the task A and B can be replaced L1 and L2 respectively. The theory of transfer developed and formulated within Stimulus-Response theory that is epitomized in Skinner’s *Verbal Behavior* (1957) in explaining of how

language learning is consummated. Concerning transfer theory, Lado (1957) stated, “Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture” (p.2).

Though CA is a mixture of two sciences of psychology and linguistics, it has no direct attribute to psycholinguistics. James (1980) warned about blending of duties and tools of them in CA and clarified the following:

The contrastive analyst is not, and need not aspire to become, a psycholinguist. It is the contrastive analyst's duty to chart the linguistics (structural) routes in L2 learning. His findings and those of the psycholinguist will be complementary, but their instruments and methods must be different. It is for this reason that the psychological basis of CA should be as simple as possible. ...Constructivists see it as their goal to explain certain aspects of L2 learning. Their means are descriptive accounts of the learner's L1 and the L2 to be learnt and techniques for the comparison of these descriptions. In other words, the goal belongs to psychology while the means are derived from linguistic science (p.27).

To contrast two languages completely, it is necessary to investigate and describe all levels of the languages. James' (1980) four descriptive statements of a language made on different levels of i) phonology ii) lexis iii) morphology iv) syntax (p.28). Jaszczolt (1995) in conducting CA in various levels of language believed:

We shall begin by defining terminology and presenting contemporary classification of contrastive study. This will be followed by a description of the levels of linguistic analysis, the methods used and a discussion of how the achievements of these studies contribute to applied contrastive analysis which supports language teaching. We shall concentrate on the levels which are of major importance for language teachers, i.e. contrastive lexicon, contrastive syntax, contrastive semantics and contrastive pragmatics, the later including text studies and some aspects of sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic perspective (p.1).

Therefore, the description of any level of two languages is the first step of CA. The two descriptions need to be parallel. By parallel description, it means that the two languages must be described through the same model of description. The second step of CA is comparison as James (1980) affirmed “Any CA involves two steps: first, there is the stage of description when each of the two languages is described on the appropriate level; the

second stage is the stage of juxtaposition for comparison” (p.30). In placing emphasis of parallel description of L2 in executing a CA, Fries (1945) asserted the most effective material of L2 are based on upon a scientific description and with a parallel description of L1, a careful comparison should be drawn between L1 and L2 (p.359). “Simplistically, at the comparison stage we can then state that (a) certain items in the two languages are identical in some respects, (b) the items compared are different in some respects, or (c) an item in one language has no equivalent in the other language (Chesterman, 1998, p.52).

According to Pietri (1984), there are three kinds of CA: “i) those that are intended especially for teaching ii) those that use teaching as a pretext for their theoretical work. iii) those that make use of pedagogical data to arrive at a theory” (as cited in Choi, 1996, p.86). Furthermore, there are three main kinds of methods in methodology of CA: i) the classic analysis ii) the generative analysis iii) the pragmatic analysis. The first method consists of three stages of description, comparison and pedagogical prediction is the approach that set forth by Fries (1963). However, Krzeszowski (1990) set up three stages of description, juxtaposition and comparison (p.35). The second stage is based on Chomsky’s Theory of Universal Grammar that is on the opposite of behaviorists’ view in language learning. The third stage related to the equivalences between the two languages and translation theory. It is obvious in contrasting a pair of languages, some elements of L1 and L2 are similar and some are different. The similar ones will be easy for the second or foreign learner and the different one will be difficult; the greater difference, the greater difficulty. The pedagogical implications of CA include prediction, diagnosis and testing. Lado (1957) by considering the assumption underling teaching method stated, “We can predict and describe the pattern that will cause difficulty in learning and those that will

not cause difficulty” (p.1.). Here Lado used ‘predict’ in the sense of ‘identify’ not ‘prognostic’.

Lenneberg (1953) contended that “From ancient times there has been speculation that the total pattern of a particular language exerts an influence on the minds of those who use it, channelling their thoughts in special and distinct ways and perhaps even causing them to experience their world differently from those who speak other languages” (as cited in Carrol, 1979, p.7). The psychological attitude is the closest to that of Lado, for the positive and negative conditions looks like two kinds of positive and negative transfers in CA. Furthermore, “Going one step forward, since negative transfer is normally manifest in errors, we meet the claim that CAs predict error. And finally, since errors signal inadequate learning, there is the conclusion that CAs predict difficulty” (James, 1980, p.182). Accordingly, Oller (1972) viewed CA as “a device for predicting points of difficulty and some of the errors that learners will make” (p.79). James (1980) added one more of predictable things in CA to Lado and Oller’s states in the sense of ‘pre-identify: i) what aspects will cause problems ii) difficulty iii) errors iv) tenacity of certain errors- that is their strong resistance to extinction through time and teaching (p.145). Davidsen-Nielson (1990) stated,

With regard to the method used in a contrastive analysis the following progression has been recommended by Krzeszowski (1967) and Jørgensen (1982):
Description of one language, 2) Description of another language, 3) Demonstration of comparability, establishment of basis of comparison, 4) Description of one language on the basis of comparison, 5) Description of the other language on the basis of comparison, 6) Comparison and demonstration of similarities, 7) Comparison and demonstration of differences (p.9).

There are two versions in Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH); the strong version and the weak version. The first version includes i) interference ii) scales of difficulty iii) prediction of difficulty iv) application of results in teaching. The second one deals with errors of learners and uses the linguistic knowledge of CA in order to explain them.

In fact, the weak version as a *posteriori* means ‘after the fact’ by detecting of the sources of errors was the beginning of EA. The CA hypothesis, as Schachter (1974) pointed out, exists in two forms: “CA a priori, which is also called the predicative or strong version, and CA a posteriori which is sometimes called the explanatory or weak version” (p.205). Wardhaugh (1970) believed, “the strong one arising from evidence from the availability of some kind of metatheory of contrastive analysis and the weak from evidence from language interference” (p.123). He claimed that the strong version is quite unrealistic and impracticable but the weak version has certain possibilities for usefulness, though the weak version is suspect in some linguistic circles (p.124). These two versions differ in that the strong one predicts learners’ errors *a priori*, that is, before they ever commit them. The weak version as a *posterior* –means after the fact- deals with the errors that have been committed as a result of L1 interference. In other words, the second version claims to be able to diagnoses the errors. Wardhaugh (1970) advocated a weak version of CAH in order to shift the emphasis of CAH from the predictive power of relative difficulty to the explanatory power of the observable error. James (1998) disagreed with this Wardhaugh’s view “for me, CA is not CA unless it is predictive and so-called ‘diagnostic’ CA is not CA but part of Error Analysis, or of Transfer Analysis” (p.180). In other hand, he affirmed, “My own view is that CA is always predictive, and that the job of diagnosis belongs to the field of Error Analysis” (p.185). Weak version later developed into EA. While CA follows a deductive approach, EA adopts an inductive one; that is, and it aims to draw inferences about difficult areas from studying actual errors. It is the real data from the learners’ performance that makes EA more descriptive than CA and therefore, more acceptable. Besides, EA is also more plausible, as it makes fewer demands of contrastive theory than the strong version. However, like any other approach, EA has advantages, as well as weakness.

The pedagogical implications of CA include prediction, diagnosis and testing. Lado (1957) in the preface of his books reported that “The plan of the book stresses on the assumption that we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning and those that will not cause difficulty” (p. 1). According to Oller (1972), the strength of strong version is because of its validity for predicting of errors made by second language learner.

CAH that is actually the predictive version of CA encountered two main problems and got a number of shortcomings. i) in association with behaviorism and ii) mispredictions. As it was mentioned, the psychological part of CA was based on behaviorism. In 1959, Chomsky posed a serious challenge to behaviorist view of language learning and CAH gradually lost credibility. Peck (1978) and Schuman (1978) criticized the supposed ability in prediction of learners’ errors. They showed in their studies that many errors predicted to cause difficulties for L2 learners did not make any problem. It invalidated the assumption that what is similar is easy, or whatever is different is difficult. Odlin (1989) concerning the language transfers and cross-linguistic influence in language learning concluded that the major reason for the failure of CAH lies in this fact that linguistic system of *comprehension* is quite different from the process of linguistic means in *production*. CA is concerned with comprehension, while acquisition is correlated to production. Hence, a second language learner with a similar background of first language may find it easy to learn the structure of second language, but hard to produce that structure. That is a fact that all learners’ errors are not resulted from the L1 interference, i.e. interlingual error. We should seek other sources of errors.

2.3 The Emergence of EA in Applied Linguistics

With the appearance of Universal Grammar theory which was credited by Noam

Chomsky (1957) - suggesting that some rules of grammar are manifested without being taught- behaviorism' school of thought in language learning was challenged and many language teachers were gradually attracted to cognitive approach. In behaviorism's view, language is a set of habits that can be acquired by means of conditioning. Hence, errors committed by L2 learners are due to inadequacy in teaching methods. Obviously, this methodology had inappropriate explanation to a complicated process like language acquisition. Notwithstanding there have been some criticisms against CA, it returned again in the study of language acquisition process since 1980s. Because the cross-linguistic influences and the L1 negative transfer cannot be denied in the process of cognitive learning. Gass & Selinker (1994) affirmed , "there is overwhelming evidence that language transfer is indeed a real and central phenomenon that must be considered in any full account of the second language acquisition process" (p.7).

Attention to pedagogical implications of CA findings and interference of L1 and L2 increased during the last few years of eighties. Many scholars tried to answer the reasons of rejection CA in the seventies. CA approach was rejected because of its close association with the stigmatized structural methods, not from a demonstration of its inappropriateness because of empirical evidence. Sheen's studies (1996) also demonstrated that a deductive approach exploiting CA input is more effective in minimizing error rates than an inductive approach that does not take it into account. Hayati (2005) attributed the temporary disappearance of CAH during the 70s and 80s to three problems: i) the vagueness of its definition, ii) the vagueness of the two versions and iii) the basic assumptions underlying the hypothesis. He affirmed the fact that though not all errors are a result of interlingual interference, but it does not imply that interference has no effect on the process of language learning.

Nickel (1971) mentioned three main aspects of the study of errors as the aims of EA: i) description ii) grading iii) therapy. Rossipal (1972) in more detailed investigation of EA advocated the following issues: i) types of errors (classification with respect to the target system ii) frequency of errors iii) points of difficulty in the target language iv) cause of errors v) degree of disturbance caused by errors (from the point of view of communication and norm, respectively) vi) therapy (how teaching should be arranged so as to eliminate the errors) (as cited in Nehls, 1979, p.108). Hammarberg (1974) hoped that EA might provide data within the following areas: i) contrastive language description, prediction of potential interference; ii) improving the description of the target language; iii) describing general traits of linguistic errors; iv) describing linguistic universals; v) improving language teaching (p.108).

As we said, Wardhaugh's weak version of CAH developed later into EA. CA survived and continued. It should be bearing in mind, the problems and shortcomings returns to CAH no CA. EA is a branch of applied linguistics dealing with errors made in language learning. James (1998) stated, "Error Analysis is the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language" (p.1). Cook (1993) put EA as a methodology dealing with data, rather than a theory for language acquisition (p.22). "According to Johanson (1975), error analysis is the best tool for describing and explaining errors made by second- or foreign- language learners" (as cited in Keshavarz, 2009, p.4). Richards and Sampson (1974) claimed that EA is one means by which language teachers can investigate and evaluate the learning process and teaching approach in order to determine their priorities for future effort (p.14). Corder (1975) maintained that the performance analysis is "the study of the whole performance data from individual learners", whereas the term EA is "the study for erroneous utterance produced by group of learners" (p.207). Respecting the importance of error analysis, Etherton (1977)

believed “Making an *error analysis* is a *form of self-education*: a type of self-imposed in-service training. The errors may show a teacher areas where his teaching has not been effective. A systematic study of errors may lead to improved teaching methods through a greater awareness of the nature and causes of the mistake which pupils make” (p.69).

EA has different purposes; i) to research and improve curriculum and instructional materials ii) to provide a practical source of information regarding language learning iii) to identify the principles which should guide effective error correction. Undoubtedly, language learning like any other human learning is not without committing errors. As Corder (1981) asserted, making error is not only inevitable but also necessary in the process of learning (p.25). Here, the question is raised what ‘error’ means in EA. Error Analysts have accounted various definitions of the concept of ‘error’ from different perspectives. Corder’s definition (1967) was under influence of Chomsky’s distinction between ‘competence’ and ‘performance’, He called the random performance errors and systematic competence ones *mistakes* are *errors*, respectively. According to this definition, the mistakes are adventitious and made even by native speakers. However, the errors are systematic deviations in nature and reflect a learner’s transitional competence and a defect in knowledge. The errors refer to idiosyncrasies in the interlanguage of the learner. The Corder’s notion of idiosyncratic dialect (1971a) emphasizes the idea that the learner’s language is unique to a particular individual and systematic, meaningful and unstable. Corder (1971b) “explicitly distinguishes remedial EA from developmental EA- the former type of EA facilitating teacher evaluation and correction, the latter being used to describe the successive transitional dialects of a language learner” (as cited in Schachter & Celce-Murcia, 1977, p.444). Researchers found out that some similar errors which committed by second language learners were not apparently due to L1 interference.

To get a better understanding of EA, we need to tell about the concepts like interlanguage and interference. The term ‘interlanguage’ was coined first by Selinker (1969) and was elaborated on his idea (1972) to refer to the emerging linguistic system of an L2 which is independent of both learner’s L1 and the target language. “Selinker postulates five processes as central to second language learning: i) language transfer ii) overgeneralization iii) transfer of training iv) second language learning strategies v) second language communication strategies” (Keshavarz, 2009, p.17). According to McLaughlin (1987), “the term ‘interlanguage’ means two things: (1) the learner’s system at a single point in time, and (2) the range of interlocking systems that characterizes the development of learner’s language over time” (p.60). Corder (1981), observed interlanguage as follows:

At the same time, the role of the first language in second language acquisition has become a more interesting question. The term *interlanguage* was coined by Selinker in the belief that the language learner’s language was a sort of hybrid between his L1 and the target language. The evidence for this was the large number of errors which could be ascribed to the process of transfer. But when second language acquisition researchers began to collect data from learners not receiving formal instruction, particularly children, the proportion of transfer errors was found generally to be quite small. Furthermore, these errors seemed to be found in most learners at the same stage of development and largely independent of the nature of their mother tongue. Clearly, interlanguage was not a hybrid language and had a developmental history of its own (p.3).

The term interlanguage has come to be used with different but related meanings: (1) to refer to the series of interlocking systems which characterize acquisition, (2) to refer to the system that is observed at a single stage of development (‘an interlanguage’), and (3) to refer to particular L1/L2 combinations (for example, L1 French/L2 English vs. L1 Japanese/L2 English). Other terms that refer to the same basic idea are ‘approximative system’ (Nemser 1971) and ‘transitional competence’ (Corder 1967). Indeed, the Cooper’s ‘hypothesis testing’ theory (1970) and above notions of Selinker, Nemser and Corder helped to emergence of Interlanguage Theory. Interlanguage is the essential parameter in making a clear discrimination between CA and EA.

There are three stages in EA: the first is recognition of idiosyncrasy, the second is accounting for a learner's idiosyncratic dialect and the third one is explanation. The first stage is providing data. In the second stage, the data that is a set of pairs of categories in the first language and target language is described. The methodology of description is that of bilingual comparison in which a common set of categories and relations of the two languages are described based on the same model. The third stage is psycholinguistic in contrast to the two previous ones. This stage attempts to account for how and why the first language is of the nature it is (Corder, 1981, p.24). In learning a foreign or second language process, language transfer means the L2 learner applies the knowledge of his/her native language in writing and speaking to the second one. The linguistic interference can be positive or negative. When the structure or relevant categories of both languages are the same, the correct language production of interference is called positive transfer. Here, 'correct' means the notion of acceptability by native speakers. On the contrary, negative transfer occurs when the structures and transfer items are not the same in both languages.

In EA after diagnosing and classifying errors, error analyst should pay attention to two features in evaluating the errors: i) error frequency ii) error density. Indeed, these two measures are two quantitative aspects of Error Gravity (EG). The frequency as a valid index of the gravity of an error means a repeated occurrence of error and has a type-token relationship between number and seriousness of errors in the least successful learners. Error density "can easily be distinguished from production frequency as follows: 'density' is calculated by counting how many different errors occur per unit of text, which production is a measure of how many times the same error is repeated over, say on hundred words of text" (James, 1990, p.211).

Dealing with second language learning, errors in EA approach are classified according to: modality (i.e., level of proficiency in any four skills of speaking, writing, reading and listening), linguistic levels (i.e., pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and style), form (e.g. omission, insertion, substitution), type (systematic errors/errors in competence vs. occasional errors/errors in performance), cause (e.g., interlingual vs. intralingual), norm vs. system.

In addition to above classification, error analysts have made a distinction between *overt* vs. *covert*, *domain* vs. *extent*, *global* vs. *local*. Overt errors are simply noticed by a listener or reader with a rather high competence in the language. They are obvious even out of the context, whereas covert errors are not identified easily and evident only in context. The classification of *domain* vs. *extent* has a close relationship to that of *overt* vs. *covert*. The domain is the breadth of context that must be analyzed, but *extent* is the range of utterance that must be changed by error analyst to fix the error. With respect to the degree of inference with communication, global errors make an utterance difficult to understand and cause a listener or reader to misunderstand a message, while local do not significantly hinder communication of message and the message is comprehensible to the listener or reader.

From the beginning, EA was beset with methodological problems. In particular, the above typologies are problematic: from linguistic data alone, it is often impossible to reliably determine what kind of error a learner is making. In addition, EA can deal effectively only with learner production (speaking and writing) and not with learner reception (listening and reading). Furthermore, it cannot account for learner use of communicative strategies such as avoidance, in which learners simply do not use a form with which they are uncomfortable.

Corder (1975) distinguished three types of errors with respect to their sources: i) interlingual ii) intralingual iii) faculty teaching techniques. “Intralingual and developmental errors are caused by mutual interference of items in the target language, i.e. the influence of one target language item upon another” (Keshavarz, 2009, p.61). Intralingual and developmental errors are divided into six sub-categories: i) overgeneralization ii) ignorance of rule restrictions iii) false analogy iv) hyperextension v) hypercorrection vi) faculty categorization. “these sub-categories, however, are very similar to one another and there might be only subtle differences between them” (p.62). Brown (1994) proposed four stages of interlanguage development as follows: i) random errors ii) emergence iii) systematic rules iv) stabilization (p.228). He suggested that errors can also be classified “as errors of addition, omission, substitution and ordering, following standard mathematical categories” (p.169).

There are some criticisms of EA. Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977) claimed that the most error analyst focused only on errors did not deal with avoidance. Like relative clauses in Chinese and Japanese vs. Spanish and Persian, or English passive avoidance by Arabic speakers, or phrasal verbs by Hebrew speakers. Brown (1980) reported a weakness of EA in which the importance of production data is overstressed while comprehension data is equally important in developing and understanding of the process of second language acquisition. According to Chau (1975), lack of the objectivity in its procedures of analysis, of defining and categorizing errors is the most serious of shortcomings.

In addition, the classification of different categories of errors based on their production frequency rather than giving the explanation is another limitation of EA approach. In terms of categorization of errors, Strevens (1969) pointed out that “some errors are

obvious, but many are either multiple errors or are difficult to categorize in any linguistic way” (p.6). By multiple errors, it means they do not belong to only one major taxonomical category, but they are partly grammatical and lexical. Furthermore, EA did not deal with the process of second language acquisition concerning the procedures and causes of coming over to the errors. Dulay, Burt & Krashen (1982) summed up the three technical weakness of EA as follows: “(1) the confusion of error description with error explanation (the process and product aspects of error analysis); (2) the lack of precision and specificity in the definition of error categories; (3) simplistic categorization of the causes of learners’ errors” (p.141).

Recognizing the weaknesses of EA, Dušková (1969) tried to find the answer to the question whether CA of the first and second language can be replaced by EA. He introduced ‘avoidance strategy’. In the avoidance phenomenon which was alluded to him, “Lower frequency of an error need not necessarily mean that the point in question is less difficult” (p.15). James (1980) disagreed the avoidance phenomenon “Naturally, the whole CA hypothesis is predicated on the assumption that the learner has had the opportunity to learn what is tested. There is no point in drawing significance from the learner’s ignorance of items he had no exposure to” (p.184). According to Buteau (1970), EA is important in that “error-based analyses are not only fruitful but also necessary to work out and test hypotheses concerning factors that set degrees of difficulty in second language learning at the intermediate level” (p.144). Corder (1984) stated,

There have always been two justifications proposed for the study of learners’ errors: the pedagogical justification, namely that a good understanding of the nature of error is necessary before systematic means of eradicating them could be found, and the theoretical justification, which claims that a study of learners’ errors is part of the systematic study of the learners’ language which is itself necessary to an understanding of the process of second language acquisition. We need to have such a knowledge if we are to make any well-founded proposals for the development and improvement of the materials and techniques of language teaching (p.1).

To analyze the errors, we should first classify them. Error Analyst stated different classification for errors. Richards (1971) proposed a three-way classification of errors: i) Interference errors ii) Intralingual errors iii) Developmental errors. In definition of error, Dulay, Burt & Krashen (1982) claimed that the term ‘error’ can be used to “refer to any deviation from a selected norm of language performance, no matter what the characteristics or causes of the deviation might be” (p. 50). Another definition of ‘error’ is put forward by Lennon (1991), “a linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speakers’ native speaker counterparts” (p.182). Regarding the process of language learning, mistakes versus errors have no significance. According to Corder (1981), the errors are important in three different attitudes:

First to the teacher, in that they tell him, if he undertake a systematic analysis, how far towards the goal learner has progressed and, consequently, what remain for him to learn. Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learnt or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. Thirdly (and in a sense this is their most important aspect) they are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn. It is a way the learner has of testing his hypothesis about the nature of the language he is learning. The making of errors then is a strategy employed both by children acquiring their mother tongue and by those learning a second language (p.11).

The criterion of self-correctability was proposed by James (1998). In his view a mistake can be self-corrected while a mistake can not. Burt and Kiparsky (1974) distinguished between global and local errors. A global error is one which involves ‘the overall structure of a sentence’ and a local error is one which affects ‘a particular constituent’ (p. 73). On the global errors, Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) offered useful descriptive error taxonomy based on a comparison of the forms of the languages which are used by the learner in the same situation as four main categories: i) omission ii) over-inclusion iii) mis-selection iv) mis-ordering. Stemberger (1982) and Corder (1981) added ‘the order of relative frequency’ to the above four categories.

There are two kinds of errors in target language errors: i) interlingual errors ii) intralingual errors. As Richards (1971) affirmed interlingual errors versus intralingual errors. The interlingual errors are those can be retraceable to L1 interference. Notwithstanding, a large number of similar errors committed by L2 learners regardless of their L2 are termed intralingual errors. The intralingual errors are classified into four in terms of their sorts strategies are being used: i) overgeneralization ii) simplification iii) communication based iv) induced errors. According to Richards (1970), “the intralingual errors are those that reflect the general characteristics of rule learning, such as faculty generalization, incomplete application of rules, and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply” (174). “Developmental errors illustrate the learner attempting to build up hypotheses about the English language from his limited experience of it in the classroom or text-book” (174).

“Errors of this nature are frequent regardless of the learner’s language background. They may be called intralingual and developmental errors. Rather than reflecting the learner’s inability to separate two languages, intralingual and developmental errors reflect the learner’s competence at a particular stage, and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition. Their origins are found within the structure of English itself, and through reference to the strategy by which a second language is acquired and taught” (p.173). It is important to draw a distinction between error description and error diagnosis. As Dulay, Burt & Krashen (1982) stated, “the accurate description of errors is a separate activity from the task of inferring the sources of those errors” (p.145). George pointed out the three major causes of foreign language learner’s errors: redundancy of code, unsuitable presentation in class and several sorts of interference (James, 1990, p.13). The ultimate cause of error, according to James and

Johnson (1996) are the ignorance of the target language item aimed at and lack of declarative knowledge, respectively (p.174).

Two out of four Corder's orders of application dealing with applied linguistics concerned with CA study. The first order is describing language utterance as data. This is a necessary step. The second process is a comparison and selection from the described data. The learners' output as evidence is an introspective data for an error analyst. However, the language learners can be inquired through questionnaire as a source of supplementary information.

Markedness in the process of language learning is a linguistic phenomenon that occurred in binary opposition in a pair of marked versus unmarked member. According to transfer theory in CA, Eckman (1977) revised the CAH. His revision or what is well known, Markedness Differential Hypothesis (MDH), was stated below.

- a) Those areas of the target language which differ from the native language and are more marked than the native language will be difficult.
- b) The relative degree of difficulty of the areas of the target language which are more marked than the native language which are more marked than the native language will correspond to the relative degree of markedness.
- c) Those areas of the target language which are different from the native language but are not more marked than the native language will not be difficult (p.315).

By 'difficult', Eckman meant unsuccessful in L1 transfer and consequently error in the output. To sum up, James (1998) remarked on the present status of CA and EA as follows:

"There is still a great deal to be said and a great deal of work to be done in CA and EA. They are vital components of the applied linguistic and language teaching enterprise. In English, one talks of something being 'as dead as the dodo', the extinct bird of Mauritius. If CA/EA is a dodo, then there is no point flogging a dead horse: if alive and well, as is certainly the case, she deserves to be studied for her rich plumage" (p.288).

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The present chapter describes the participants, instruments of the study, approaches and data collection procedures. Concerning the research procedures, the background of the two approaches of CA and EA, their stages, purposes, processes, shortcomings and advantages were elaborated in the chapter literature review. Here, the adapted kind of model, level, modality in approaches are mentioned.

3.1 Participants

The participants of this study were sixty Iranian undergraduate students of Shiraz University in Iran for an English test and thirty English teachers from different universities of Iran for questionnaire and interview surveys as well. The students were majoring in humanities and social sciences other than English language. They were at the same level of English proficiency, that was at the intermediate level and their native language was Persian. Since they never attended any private language schools, they were not fluent in the skill of speaking. The age range of the participants was from 19 to 25 years old.

To select the participants, the grammar part of the Oxford Placement Test (Allen, 2004) as a standard criterion was administrated with 200 students to measure their intermediate English proficiency. The students who scored between 35 and 65 were assigned to the intermediate level in English grammar. Sixty students were selected for the pilot test and the field test. The students were allowed 50 minutes to answer a three-multiple choice test contained 100 questions.

The undergraduate students who were majoring in the different fields rather than English language have to pass a three-credit General English course. They were also required to pass two two-credit English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course. Of course, the students who could not answer above 50% of the English tests in the university entrance examination have to pass a two-credit Basic English course as well.

3.2 Instrument of Study

3.2.1 Students

The type of test given to them was a ‘fill in the blanks’ test. It was a structural test comprising one hundred items. The questions were designed based on focused group testing. A five member of participatory research community participated in three sessions. The five participants were English teachers who had taught English in some universities and language centers in Iran for at least 5 years. At the first session, they were given necessary information such as the purpose of the research, methodological approaches and frameworks, kind of testing, skill language and proficiency level of students in order to consider along with providing the focus group testing. The participants were asked to design individually 30 questions concerning the types of English tenses and moods for the next session. At the second meeting, the designed questions were investigated and the best and more appropriate were selected. Finally, at the third session, all the questions in a ‘fill in the blank’ template test were reviewed in order to remove deficiencies and potential defects of the test. In the process of providing the test, the present researcher played a role of respondent moderator to facilitate the session progress and ensure all tenses and moods were covered whereas I had already designed my own tests.

The participants were required to put the appropriate form of the given verb in the blanks. Each item had only one answer except for a few instances that were intentionally

represented in order to compare their preferences among the correct answer sets. Since the participants were undergraduate students in the final year of the university, and the English tenses had been taught to them from the secondary school, the test was designed in a way to be exhaustive concerning different tenses in various sentence structures. The students were given 70 minutes to answer all the items. They were allowed to ask the meaning of probable difficult words to them. Before administering the test, they got familiar with the kind of the test and what they expected to do.

To ensure reliability and validity of the test, a pilot study was also conducted. The pilot test was carried out on thirty students. In the evaluation of the first test, the mean was 81.8 and the standard deviation was 5.7 while the second test showed 83.9 and 5.01 as mean value and standard deviation measure of the scores respectively. In the pilot test, the cooperation coefficient of the two sets of scores by the test-retest module showed the positive improvement.

3.2.2 Teacher

3.2.2.1 Questionnaire

Thirty English teachers from ten universities in Iran participated in a questionnaire survey including four separate sections. The first section was about the background information of teachers on teaching situations. The second part concerned with the approaches to the teaching of grammar particularly about the two grammatical categories of tense and mood which the teachers considered or applied. The third part dealt with the teacher difficulties and their students with grammar in an overall view. The last section was dedicated to their student's difficulties that encountered in terms of tense and mood. The questionnaire survey was applied via emails and the necessary information regarding the scope and purpose of the study was given to the participants. The main part of the questionnaire was

taken from that of Burgess & Etherington (2002) which has been used many times by other researchers. Nonetheless, some minor modifications to the statements were undertaken and the section 4 was added to the survey to get a specific inquiry into the two grammatical categories of tense and mood. To provide the reliability of the new questionnaire, a pilot study was carried out on those of English teachers who were easier to access.

3.2.2.2 Email Interview

The questionnaire survey was followed by Email interviews with fifteen volunteered respondents. In fact, these respondents were half of the same participants in the questionnaire who volunteered to take part in the email interviews. Email interview survey like the questionnaire was conducted via emails owing to geographical spread of participants. Email interviews had three parts. The first part included the rephrased sentences of some questions that had already asked from the respondents and they seemed unclear, vague or ambiguous to the respondents. The repeated questions could be different depending on various answers of the respondents. The second and third sections of the interview were designed as open-ended questions in which the participants could respond and argued their views and comments dealing with how they help their students to come over their problems with regard to tense and mood in English.

3.3 Procedure

The theories and approaches employed for this study are CA and EA. These two procedures should be employed separately and respectively. However, each approach has its own different stages, functions and findings. At the end, the findings of the two approaches will come together to be explained in detail.

3.3.1 Contrastive Analysis (CA)

In the present research, the level of language which is contrasted in Persian and English languages is syntax. In this syntactic study, the two grammatical categories of tense and mood are investigated based on the classic analysis as one of methods among CA methodologies. Furthermore, the descriptive model used for the grammar analysis of both the languages is structural. Owing to this structural linguistic model and regarding the description of tenses and moods, the tenses are grouped in accordance with various moods.

The present study is a used-based CA and its purpose is especially for language teaching. It attempts to represent a practical grammar usage dealing with tenses and moods in both the languages. Each entry contains the basic information of the structure of a tense and its different uses and one or two² useful exemplified sentences for any application of tenses. Hence, it is an applied CA and does not deal with the investigation of various theories or universal grammar rules. (cf. Fisiol et al., 1978). According to the classic analysis method, it includes three stages of description, juxtaposition and pedagogical prediction.

The present researcher used many references in English and Persian for this study. The amount of studies done on the uses of tenses in Persian is more limited than that of in English language. None of Persian grammar has begun devoting a particular review to the practical grammar usage in tense and mood. Dealing with the uses of tenses in Persian, the following were the main sources which specified parts of their materials in practical usage grammar: (Shafaei 1984), (KhatibRahbar 1988), (Mayce 2002), (Anvari & Givi 2003), (Farshidvard 2005). The next stage is juxtaposition of the two systems of

² For each rule, three examples had already given. In almost all rules, only one example was left and others were deleted because of thesis word limits.

languages in which the similarities and differences are contrasted. The final stage of CA is prediction in which the problems are predicted. The most likely sources of the errors in this stage is due to cross-linguistic interference. A hierarchy of difficulties, from the most problematic to the least is constructed in the prediction section of CA approach.

3.3.2 Error Analysis (EA)

EA or ‘CA a posteriori’, as the weak version of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) has an inductive approach and includes four stages: identification of errors, classification of errors, determination of the frequency of errors (scales of difficulty), determination of the source and cause of the errors, pedagogical suggestion for teaching (therapy). (Rossipal, 1972, Nickel, 1972, Hammarberg, 1972, Corder 1980, James 1990).

Concerning EA approach, the errors were diagnosed through the test that had been already administrated with sixty students then the errors were classified based on different tenses and moods and the frequency of each tense and verb form were calculated in order to obtain the hierarchy of difficulties that is the maximum to minimum average rate of errors. Dealing with the source of errors, there are some models proposed by linguistic scholars. Each model would be appropriate and applicable for the specific linguistic level, skill and method. The adopted model for EA is that of Richards (1971). Richards considered the two main sources for errors: Interlingual errors and Intralingual errors. He classified four types of intralingual errors as follow: “1) Overgeneralization 2) Ignorance of rule restrictions 3) Incomplete application of rule 4) False concepts hypothesized.”

3.4 Data Analysis

In this section of the research, the collected data from the two approaches of CA and EA and the results from the questionnaire and email interview surveys are analyzed. The data

on CA will come from juxtaposing the similarities and differences of tense uses in the two languages of Persian and English. Based on the CA approach, the problems and difficult points in the second language are described, compared and predicted. On the other hand, the data on the EA approach will be obtained from the given answers by the participants through the administration of a fill in the blanks test including 100 items of all English verb tenses. In the procedure of EA, the committed errors by the students are classified based on the kind of tense and mood, the production frequency and density of frequency. The errors which should be unambiguous are analyzed regarding the different sources of errors. At the final step of the research analysis, the results from the two approaches and surveys will be juxtaposed and explained in order to explore how much they agree and to get research findings as well.

CHAPTER 4

TENSE AND MOOD IN PERSIAN

4.0 Introduction

This chapter will provide a description of tense and mood in the Persian language by focusing on the structure and practical grammar usage of tenses and moods. For each application or use of a tense, one or two examples are provided. This research is not going to investigate the analytical kind of aspect category; For it needs inevitably to attribute to the semantic and philosophical concept of duration in time in depth through different English and Persian sentences. However, due to the interaction of tense and aspect in some verb tenses, the category of aspect concerning the perfective and imperfective will be discussed.

4.1 Tense in Persian

There have been various opinions about the classification of tenses and moods in the Persian language among linguists and Persian grammarians. The main reason for the diversity of views regarding tense and mood is due to traditional grammar. Firstly, time and tense were not differentiated by most of the traditional grammarians until a few decades ago. They confused the name of the verb tenses and the way used to talk about time. Time and tense are two different things; Tense is a grammatical structure but time refers to when an event or condition occurs concerning the time of speaking. Bateni (1977) pointed out rightly that Persian traditional grammarians have represented an insufficient definition of verb tenses because they mixed form and meaning and they do not make a clear distinction between time and tense. Definitely, it is not in such a sense that there is no relationship between them at all, but there is no one-to-one relationship between them (p.37). Tense classifies verbs as past, present and future tenses while time

categorizes the described situation by verbs in the past, present and future. Tense is composed of these basic elements: simple, perfect, progressive or perfect progressive. Hence, a grammatical description of tense also includes the elements of time: past, present or future. Secondly, Persian traditional grammarians usually mix the concept and implication of grammatical categories such as tense and mood in Classical Persian and New Persian. They try to make their argument clear by quoting from books of poetry as remarkable instances. They do not call attention to a fundamental distinction between the structures of Classical Persian and Modern Persian or poetry and prose texts. According to Lazard (1992), “The Persian language has up to the present been described principally in its classical form. Persian as it occurs today in an abundant literature is not identical to the classical language” (p. 1). Moreover, with respect to the different ideas about the number of tenses and moods in Persian, Shafaei (1984) believes that sometimes grammarians mistake easily the verb varieties for the concept of tense. For example, they may assume there are only four past tenses in Persian including: absolute past, durative past, present perfect [passé compose in French] and past perfect. It would be better to use technical terms like ‘variety of absolute past, ‘variety of durative past, etc. instead. Fortunately, in recent Persian grammar books which are based on new approaches in linguistic studies, time and tense have been well distinguished.

However, the main disadvantage of Persian traditional grammar in terms of tense is what Farahani (1990) rightly noted about one of the shortcomings in the work of Qarib et al. (1949), of the well-known Persian traditional grammarians; “They did not list all the uses of a tense form” (p.5). Even though, some linguists and Persian grammarians have made an attempt to study scholarly the grammatical categories such as tense, aspect and mood based on new linguistic views or in comparison with other Indo-European languages; however, so far an exhaustive research regarding these three highly integrated

grammatical categories has not been carried out. Consequently, there are some controversies dealing with the number of tenses and moods, the typology of them and their uses.

It is necessary to point out again that the current study excludes the investigation of tenses and moods in Classical Persian. In addition, the focus is on the recent works and those which have taken into consideration the linguistic features in their deliberation. Here are some remarks by linguists and Persian grammarians about the numbers and classification of tenses: According to Vahidian & Emrani (2000), Anvari & Givi (2003), there are twelve tenses in Modern Persian. KhatibRahbar (1988) considered eleven tenses in his grammar book. Mace (2003) mentioned that Persian has eight tenses including four simple (i.e. one-word) tenses and four compound tenses (i.e. tenses formed with more than one word): past, present, imperfect and present subjunctive are simple tenses and perfect, perfect subjunctive, pluperfect and future belong to compound tenses. Mace excluded the two progressive tenses as they were ‘colloquial continuous tenses’ (cf. 2.2.2.1.1.1.2). Doubts have been voiced over considering the existence of these two progressive tenses because no evidence has yet been found in Persian texts before the eighteenth century. Farshidvard (2005) commented on sixteen tenses by giving examples from the works of some early contemporary writers. Among these tenses, *mâzi eltezâmi mostammar* ‘subjunctive past progressive’ as he mentioned belongs to the Classical Persian. On the other hand, the verb tenses like *Mâzi ab’ade eltezâmi* ‘subjunctive narrative past perfect’, *mâzi ba’ide mostamar* ‘progressive past perfect’ and *mâzi naqli mostamare malmus* ‘Narrative present perfect progressive’ seem odd in today’s Persian. The latter three tenses have an extremely low frequency and the use of them must become extinct soon. Fazel (2009) in his trilingual website (Persian, English, and German) outlined seventeen Persian verb structures with their implications. Indeed, he combined

the varieties of tenses and moods together while trying to coin technical terms for them. For instance, he discriminated ‘Indicative Past Perfect’ and ‘Past Perfect Irrealis’ as two different verbs or he set ‘Indicative Present Perfect’ apart from ‘Narrative Past Imperfect’. Similarly, he placed ‘Dissimulative Past Imperfect’ versus ‘Indicative Past Imperfect’ and ‘Indicative Simple Past’ versus ‘Dissimulative Present Continuous’.

4.2 Mood in Persian

The Persian grammarians have had different ideas about the concept of mood as well as the number of moods in the Persian language. They have mentioned the existence of three to seven moods. Traditional grammars claimed that there are more than three moods. Today, most of the modern grammarians and linguists believe that there are three moods. Here the views of some grammarians about the number of moods are pointed out as follows: Mirza Muhammad Ibrahim (1841) observed four moods in Persian which are the indicative, subjunctive, potential, and optative. In accordance with him, the potential mood implies possibility, liberty, power, will or obligation. As a matter of fact, he referred to the category of modals by trying to find out their English correspondences such as ‘can’, ‘may’, ‘might’ ‘could’ must’, ‘shall’, and ‘ought’. Furthermore, he included impersonal verbs in this mood. Qarib et al., (1949) and Mashkoo (1959) argued that there are six moods which are the Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, Conditional, Infinitive and the Particularis. Homayoon Farrokh (1959) in his book of *dasture jâmeʔe zabâne fârsi* ‘Comprehensive grammar of Persian language’ never gave a precise description of various kinds of moods. Khanlari (1973) mentioned Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, Conditional, and Optative as the five moods in Persian. Bateni (1978) suggested four moods without giving any definition for them. Khayampoor (1954), Arjang & Sadeghi (1982), Arjang (1995), Vahidian & Emrani (2000), Meshkatoddini (1987), Shafaei (1984) believe in three moods which are: Indicative,

Subjunctive and Imperative. Khayampoor (1954) divided Persian moods into three moods: Indicative, Subjunctive and Imperative while he excluded the conditional mood, infinitive mood and adjective mood from them. He argued that the conditional mood has no separate grammatical conjugation from the subjunctive mood. Therefore, it can be included in the subjunctive mood. Moreover, what was called the infinitive mood is actually an impersonal sentence that should be attributed to the verb. Likewise, the adjective mood has no close relevance to the adjective category. In fact, in this construction, the verb appears in the form of the past participle while the conjunction *væ* 'and' does not follow immediately it in accordance with the Persian grammatical sentence structure. Farshidvard (1969) in his book, *Dasture Emruz* 'Today's Grammar' stated three moods in Persian but in the book, *Dasture Zabane Mofasssale Emruz* 'Today's Comprehensive Grammar' (2003) he mentioned six moods. Mahootian (2008) divided the Persian moods into eight: Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, Hortatory, Monitory, Narrative, Contingent and Promise (p.235).

There are no more than three moods in Persian as a majority of new modern grammarians and linguists believe. There are three main reasons why some grammarians, especially the traditional grammarians, argue about four to seven moods; firstly, the traditional grammarians usually mix the different classical Persian with the modern and standard Persian. They exemplify some classical sentences and lines from the poetry and prose texts for contemporary Persian grammar. Secondly, some of the classified moods are actually subdivisions of the other ones, that is, some moods can be covered by the other moods. Thirdly, the grammarians did not consider mood as a semantic and structural category as well. In other words, the grammarians made a mistake because they did not take into account the two features of the verb, i.e., meaning and form. Therefore, the Persian moods can be decreased into three types: Indicative, Subjunctive and Imperative.

For example, the moods of conditional and optative in Khanlari's classification can be a subdivision of subjunctive. Besides, the optatives which are very less used in modern standard Persian can be substituted by their equivalent of the subjunctive present form. The six moods which are mentioned by Qarib (1950) and Qarib et al. (1949) can be reduced to three moods since the conditional mood can be covered by the subjunctive mood. In fact, a conditional mood cannot be an independent one. It is under the broader category of the subjunctive mood. As Shafaei (1984) argued, it is not on the basis of scientific data to include the infinitive and the particularis for Persian moods because the infinitive and particularis cannot assert the concept of mood. Furthermore, the grammarians like Mashkoor (1959) had made a mistake in defining the infinite. Mashkoor defined infinite as an action without a tense done by somebody or something. In addition, what is called particularis is not a mood at all. It consists of a particle that is derived from a verb but belongs to the categories of an adjective or a noun (p.89). Mahootian (1997, p.252), (2008, p.231) included eight moods for the Persian language: Indicative, subjunctive, imperative, hortatory, monitory, contingent, and promissory. The present study accounts for three moods in the Persian language which are the indicative, subjunctive and imperative.

4.2.1 Indicative Mood

The indicative mood regards the action as actually occurring in reality, as a matter of fact. Farshidvard (1969) stated, "Indicative mood denotes certainty and confidence" (p.219). According to Shafaei (1984), "Indicative mood is a grammatical expression in which the speaker or writer indicates or reports an action in the past, present or future and he/she stays neutral regarding the mentioned idea" (p.90). Lazard (1992) commented, "Indicative admits of a large number of tenses which express relations of time proper or nuances of aspect" (p.130).

4.2.1.1 Indicative Mood and the Tenses

Ten tenses are in the indicative mood; two present tenses, seven past tenses and one future tense.

4.2.1.1.1 Present Tenses

There are four Present tenses in the Persian language. So far, traditional and modern grammarians have used different names for Persian tenses. There are four reasons why there is such a variety in calling Persian tenses. The first reason is the use of Arabic words and items, which have been used more in old grammar books and in some new traditional grammars. The second reason is because of the tendency of using pure Persian words by some modern grammarians. The third reason is that some grammarians have tried to find a near equivalent term in the European languages such as in English and French. Finally, the fourth reason is that some new grammarians have coined new items with a little difference from the older ones.

The Persian linguists and grammarians have been using the terms *mozâre* and *hâl* for the 'present' tense. The term *hâl* has been specifically used in recent decades by some of them like Shafaei (1984) and Vahidian (2000). Most of the grammarians who had conducted research on Persian grammar concerning the definition of *mozâre* attribute it to the present and the future tenses as well. Homayoon Farrokh (1960) said, "In Persian, *mozâre* is used for both present and future tenses" (p.445). Shari'at (1985) believed that "The verbs of the indicative and subjunctive present tenses are named the verbs of *mozâre* because it can be used for the present tense and also the future tense" (p.121). Zon-nur (1969) stated, "The verb of *Mozâre* is an action which is carried out in the present and the near future tense by the subject" (p. 174). Mashkoo (1959) in his book 'Dastoor nâme' once declared that "When a verb happens in the present time, it will be called *mozâre* or

hâl' (p.82), but, he also mentioned somewhere else in the book that *mozâre* is a verb which is common in the present and future tenses" (p.90). Shafaei (1984) rejected the above definition of *mozâre*. According to him, these grammarians did not most probably consider *mozâre* to be a particular kind of Persian verb, which can be applied to the present, and future tenses as well. Nevertheless, they all consider *mozâre* as a tense used for both present and future time (p.84). He affirmed that it is not possible to mix the two separate tenses. Thus, it is not reasonable and logical to have the term 'present-future' for a tense. Unfortunately, some non-Iranian linguists have employed this linguistic term in some Persian grammar books and linguistic texts. He clarified the reason why even non-Iranian linguists and grammarians have used this Arabic term. The reason is due to the definition of *mozâre* in Arabic language. In the Arabic language, the term *mozâre* verbs is used for both present and future time (Shafei, 1984).

4.2.1.1.1 Simple Present

Simple present in Persian has been called: *Hâle Sâdeye Exbâri*, *Mozâre?e Exbâri*, and *Hâle Gozâreši*.

Structure: Durative prefix *mi-* + present stem + present personal endings (inflections)

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>mi-tars-am</i>	I fear	<i>mi-tars-im</i>	We fear
2 nd Person	<i>mi-tars-i</i>	You fear	<i>mi-tars-id</i>	You fear
3 rd Person	<i>mi-tars-ad</i>	S(he)/ It fears	<i>mi-tars-and</i>	They fear

Negation: The negative of this present tense is formed by adding the negative prefix *ne-* to the prefix *mi-* of the affirmative verb. The literary and older pronunciation of the negative prefix must be *na-*, but today the colloquial pronunciation *ne-* is used in formal speech for the present tense.

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>ne-mi-tars-am</i>	I do not fear	<i>ne-mi-tars-im</i>	We do not fear
2 nd Person	<i>ne-mi-tars-i</i>	You do not fear	<i>ne-mi-tars-id</i>	You do not fear
3 rd Person	<i>ne-mi-tars-ad</i>	S(he)/ It does not fear	<i>ne-mi-tars-and</i>	They do not fear

Exceptions:

The indicative simple present forms of the verbs *dâšt-an* ‘to have, to possess’ and *bud-an* ‘to be’ do not follow the upper pattern:

a) *dâšt-an* ‘to have’ does not have the present prefix of *mi-* and for the negative form, the prefix *na-* comes at the beginning of the verb.

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>dâr-am</i>	I have	<i>dâr-im</i>	We have
2 nd Person	<i>dâr-i</i>	You have	<i>dâr-id</i>	You have
3 rd Person	<i>dâr-ad</i>	S(he)/ It has	<i>dâr-and</i>	They have

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>na-dâr-am</i>	I do not have	<i>na-dâr-im</i>	We do not have
2 nd Person	<i>na-dâr-i</i>	You do not have	<i>na-dâr-id</i>	You do not have
3 rd Person	<i>na-dâr-ad</i>	S(he)/ It does not have	<i>na-dâr-and</i>	They do not have

b) *bud-an* ‘to be’ can be regarded as a suppletive verb in Persian. It is an irregular verb.

The present tense of the verb has three forms, the commonest two of which are irregular:

b-1. First form and usage: It consists of the clitics as the linking verbs for the present tense:

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>-am</i>	I am	<i>-im</i>	We are
2 nd Person	<i>-i</i>	You are	<i>-id</i>	You are
3 rd Person	<i>ast, -st</i>	S(he)/ It is	<i>-and</i>	They are

There are several notable features regarding this form:

When the word before clitics ends in a consonant, all the forms of the clitics except the third person singular are most often joined to the previous word. In third person singular, if the word before the clitic ends in a long vowel *â*, *i* or *u*, the first vowel of *ast* usually drops and becomes *-st*. These clitics are used as linking verbs and do not denote the meaning of ‘there is’ or ‘there are’.

bidâr-am ‘I am awake.’

xošgel-i ‘You are beautiful.’

pir ast ‘He/ She is old.’

zibâ-st ‘He/ She/ It is beautiful.’

mâ birun-im ‘We are outside.’ *kojâ-y-id* ‘Where are you?’

ân-hâ irâni-y-and ‘They are Iranians.’

In modern Persian language, the negative forms of the clitics are not used.

b-2. Second form and usage: This form is the complete word of *hast* and can be inflected for the six inflections

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>hast-am</i>	I am	<i>hast-im</i>	We are
2 nd Person	<i>hast-i</i>	You are	<i>hast-id</i>	You are
3 rd Person	<i>hast</i>	S(he)/ It is	<i>hast-and</i>	They are

As it was already argued, Persian is a null-subject or pro-drop language, so the personal pronouns can be omitted and the sentences given above can appear with their subjective personal pronouns as well. Here, there is a distinctive feature regarding pronunciation and meaning of the sentences. If the stress is put on the verbs for example on *hast-ám* in the sentence *man hast-ám*, it will mean ‘I am, I exist’ or ‘I’m ready’. However, if the subjective personal pronoun takes the stress, the sentence *mán hast-am* will mean ‘It’s me’. This process can be true for all other structures.

Exception in negation:

The negative form of this kind does not follow the usual pattern of negation in indicative present tense. The negative forms are as follows:

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>nist-am</i>	I am not	<i>nist-im</i>	We are not
2 nd Person	<i>nist-i</i>	You are not	<i>nist-id</i>	You are not
3 rd Person	<i>nist</i>	S(he)/It is not There is not	<i>nist-and</i>	They are not There are not

This form can be used instead of any of the first forms shown. This form is commonly used in preference to the first form other than *ast* after a long vowel or vowel-combination: For example:

dânešju hast-am ‘I am a student.’ *zibâ hast-i* ‘You are beautiful.’

dânâ hast ‘He/she is wise.’ *xaste hast-im* ‘We are tired.’

šomâ rezâ hast-id ‘Are you Reza?’ *divâne hast-and* ‘They are crazy.’

This form is also employed to place emphasis on the verb. For Example:

man tehrâni hast-am ‘I am from Tehran.’ *moaʔllem hast-i* ‘Are you a teacher?’

kârmand hast-im ‘we are officers.’ *ahmaq hast-id* ‘You are stupid.’

bačče hast-and ‘They are kids.’

fardâ ham ruz-e xodâ hast ‘Tomorrow is a good day.’

The third person singular form *hast* also has the meaning ‘there is’ and ‘there are’:

âyâ xodâ hast ‘Does God exists?’ *qazâ hast* ‘There is some food.’

If *ke* or *ki* ‘who’ is followed by the present of the six inflections of ‘to be’ in the second form given above, the following contractions may take place:

It should be noted in Tajik Persian and Afghan Persian, the verb *ast* is used for the second usage given above for the verb ‘to be’. It seems that the first vowel of ‘*a*’ drops from *ast* and then *ki* joins it. This is one of the common instances among Persian, Tajik Persian (Tajiki) and Afghan Persian (Dari).

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>kist-am</i>	Who am I?	<i>kist-im</i>	Who are we?
2 nd Person	<i>kist-i</i>	Who are you?	<i>kist-id</i>	Who are you?
3 rd Person	<i>kist</i>	Who is she/he?	<i>kist-and</i>	Who are they?

b-3. The third form and usage: This kind of form is regular and the verb inflects based on the present stem of *bud-an* ‘to be’ which is ‘*bâš-*’:

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>mi-bâš-am</i>	I am	<i>mi-bâš-im</i>	We are
2 nd Person	<i>mi-bâš-i</i>	You are	<i>mi-bâš-id</i>	You are
3 rd Person	<i>mi-bâš-ad</i>	S(he)/ It is	<i>mi-bâš-and</i>	They are

For example:

peste yeki az kâlâhâ-y-e mohemm-e sâderâti-y-e irân mi-bâš-ad

‘Pistachio is one of the important export merchandises in Iran.’

Except the third person singular verb *mi-bâš-ad* which is used in ordinary writing, this type of the form is used just in official language. *mowjud mi-bâš-ad* is the famous sentence of ordinary writing which is seen in the notices which are put up on the doors of shops or on the board announcing and advertising goods and services. So the sentence *mowjud mi-bâš-ad* means, 'It is available.' or 'we have.'

Applications:

1. For a state or action taking place in the present

The indicative simple present normally denotes the current time:

(1) *bačče-hâ dar hayât bâzi mi-kon-and*

child.Pl in yard play Dur.do.3Pl

'The kids are playing in the yard.'

2. For showing a process or a current state with verbs of *being* and *having*

(2) *pedar-aš do-tâ xâne dêr-ad*

father.Pos.3Sg two.Cl house have.3Sg

'His father has two houses.'

(3) *nâm-aš pârsi ast (pârsi-st)*

name.Pos.3Sg Persian be.3Sg

'His name is Persian.'

(4) *mardom-e kuhestân šojâ? hasta-and*

people.Ez highland brave be.3Pl

'The people of the highland are brave.'

(5) *peydâ-st az dast-e man nârâhat šode-?i*

obvious be.3Sg from hand.Ez I angry becom.Pstp.2Sg

'It is obvious you are angry with me.'

3. For expressing the concept of habit or repetition

(6) *parhizgâr hargez doruq ne-mi-gu-y-ad*

pious never lie Neg.Dur.tell.3Sg

‘A pious man never tells a lie.’

(7) *maryam har šab pas az šâm dandân-hâ-y-aš-râ mesvâk mi-zan-ad*

Maryam every night after dinner tooth-Pl.Pos.3Sg-Om brush Dur.hit.3Sg

‘Mary brushes her teeth after dinner every night.’

4. For stating general, natural, scientific rules and facts about things. It refers to the permanent situations about things that happen regularly or all the time. It expresses without mentioning any adverbials of time.

(8) *zamin be dowr-e xoršid mi-gard-ad*

earth to around.Ez sun Dur.turn.3Sg

‘The earth goes around the sun.’

(9) *xers-hâ dar zemestân be xâb-e zemestân-i mi-rav-and*

bear.Pl in winter to sleep.Ez winter.Attr Dur.go.3Pl

‘Bears hibernate in the winter.’

5. With verbs of communication for something said by a well-known person in the past

The indicative simple present can be used instead of the simple past or present perfect by reporting an expression of somebody in the past.

(10) *ostâd hesâbi mi-gu-y-ad dorost nist*

professor Hesabi Dur.tell.3Sg true Neg.be.3Sg

‘Professor Hesabi says it is not true.’

6. Historic present / Dramatic present

It is used for narrating a story or an event that happened in the past.

(11) *yek ruz sobh-e zud šâh mi-rav-ad be bâq-e bozorg-aš*

one day morning.Ez early king Dur.go.3Sg to garden.Ez big.Pos.3Sg

nâgahân jâdugar-i-râ dar radif-e avval-e deraxt-an mi-bin-ad
suddenly magician.Ind.Om in row.Ez first.Ez tree.Pl Dur.see.3Sg
jâdugar taʔzim mi-kon-ad šâh taʔajjib mi-kon-ad va sepas be u
magician bow Dur.do.3Sg king surprise Dur.do.3Sg and then to he
dastur mi-deh-ad ke nazdik-tar bi-y-â-y-ad
order Dur.give.3Sg that close.Compr Sbjn.come.3Sg

‘One day early in the morning, the king went to his great garden. He suddenly saw a magician in the first row of trees. The magician bowed. The king was surprised and then ordered him to come nearer.’

Sometimes, the narrator mixed the indicative simple present tense with other past tenses in a paragraph. This style of narration is called dramatic present tense. The narrator employs such a technique to present a vivid image and excite the hearer.

(12) *dar zamin-e futbâl bâzi mi-kard-im ke nâgahân yek-i az*
in earth-Ez football play Dur.do.Pst.1Pl that suddenly one.Dem from
tamâšâ-gar-ân be samt-e man ċiz.i partâb kard o
spectator.Pl to direction.Ez I thing.Ind throw do.Pst.3Sg and
sar-am-râ šekast
head.Pos.1Sg.Om break.Pst.3Sg

‘We were playing football in the field. Suddenly, one of the spectators threw something to me and broke my head.’

7. Summeries

It is used for interpretation, simplification, analysis, making comment on texts and movies.

(13) *film sabk-i sâxt-âr-garâyâne be kârgardâni-y-e farânk dârbont*
movie style.Ind formalistic to direction.Ez Farank Darbont
donbâl mi-kon-ad sahne-hâ-râ bâ namâ-hâ-y-e ravân dar ham

rear Dur.do.3Sg scene.Pl.Om with shot.Pl.Ez fluid together

mi-âmiz-ad namâ-hâ nâ-jur va zomoxst nist-and

Dur.mix.3Sg scene.Pl jarring and rough Neg.be.3Pl

‘The movie follows a formalistic style of direction under Frank Darabont. He interweaves scenes with nice, fluid shots. The shots are not jarring or rough cut.’

7.1 Historical summaries, table of dates

It is used for telling the biography of well-known people.

(14) *xayyâm dar ĵavâni be samarqand mi-rav-ad*

Khayyam at a young age to Samarkand Dur-move.3Sg

‘Khayyam at a young age moved to Samarkand.’

8. To talk about how long something has been happening

This rule is not applicable for stative verbs such as ‘sit’, ‘stand’, ‘lie down’, ‘sleep’, ‘loungue’, ‘squat’, and ‘wear’.

(15) *az panĵ sâl piš dar mâlezi dars mi-xân-am*

from five year before in Malaysia lesson Dur.study.1Sg

‘I have been studying in Malaysia since five years ago.’

8. 1 In a cleft sentence

The adverbials of time appear in the main clause of a cleft sentence which followed by a *that*-clause with a simple present.

(16) *do sâl ast ke inĵâ kâr mi-kon-ad*

two year is that here work Dur.do.3Sg

‘He has been working here for two years.’

9. In the main clause of conditional sentences in the present or future

(17) *agar mâ-râ daġvat kard-and be mehmâni mi-rav-im*

if we.Om invitation do.Pst.3Pl to party Dur.go.1Pl

‘If they invite us, we will go to the party.’

(18) *agar be-xâh-and be ân-hâ komak mi-kon-im*

If Sbjn.ask.3Pl to them help Dur.do.1Pl

‘If they ask, we will help them.’

10. In certain cases in the *if*-clause of conditional sentences in the present or future

(19) *agar mi-dân-i lotfan be mâ be-gu*

if Dur.know.2Sg please to we Imp.tell.2Sg

‘If you know, tell us please.’

(20) *agar be ĵaşn mi-rav-ad man ham mi-y-â-y-am*

if to party Dur.go.3Sg I also Dur.come.1Sg

‘If she/he attends the party, I will also come.’

11. For emphatic imperative or recommendation

(21) *dâru-y-at-râ mi-xor-i va esterâhat mi-kon-i*

medicine.Pos.2Sg.Om Dur.eat.2Sg and rest Dur.do.2Sg

‘Take the medicine and have a rest.’

(22) *to mi-rav-i be barâdar-at mi-gu-y-i ke*

you.Sg Dur.go.2Sg to brother.Pos.2Sg Dur.tell.Prs.2Sg that

man dâr-am mi-y-â-y-am

I have.1Sg Dur.come.1Sg

‘You do go and tell your brother that I am coming.’

12. A substitution for the subjunctive simple present by using *ehtemâlan* ‘probably’

Sometimes, the indicative simple present tense is used instead of the subjunctive simple present tense to mention a probable action in future. If the adverb of *ehtemâlan* ‘probably’ brought in the sentence, the indicative simple construction will be often used.

(23) *ehtemâlan fardâ mi-rav-am = şâyad fardâ be-rav-am*

probably tomorrow Dur.go.1Sg= perhaps tomorrow Sbjn.go.1Sg

‘I may go tomorrow.’ = ‘Perhaps I will go tomorrow.’

13. For the future

(24) *alân kâr-emân tamâm mi-šav-ad*

now work.Pos.1Pl finish Dur.become.3Sg

‘Our work will be finished soon.’

(25) *key az injâ mi-rav-id*

when from here Dur.go.2Pl

‘When will you leave here?’; ‘When are you going to leave?’; ‘When are you leaving here?’

14. For future in past

In a compound sentence, if the verb of the main clause is a speech act in the past tense and the verb of the subordinate clause refers to the future time, the verb of the subordinate clause can appear in an indicative simple present.

(26) *be dust-am goft-am ke fardâ be u zang mi-zan-am*

to friend.Pos.1Sg tell.Pst.1Sg that tomorrow to him/her call Dur.hit.1Sg

‘I told my friend that I would call him/her tomorrow.’

15. Instantaneous

15.1 Commentaries

Play-by-play commentaries are often used for describing sport events or narrating in a documentary film on TV, radio or at movie studios.

(27) *karim-e bâqeri be mahdavikiyâ pâs mi-deh-ad*

Karim.Ez Bagheri to Mahdavi Kia pass Dur.give.3Sg

‘Karim Bagheri passes the ball to Mahvavi Kiya.’

15.2 Demonstrations and other self-commentaries

(28) *jeloye čašm-ân-e šomâ in kabutar- râ dar in ja?be mi-gozâr-am*

in front of eye.Pl.Ez you this pigeon.Om into this box Dur.put.1Sg

‘I put these two pigeons into this box in front of your eyes.’

15.3 Speech acts (performative verbs)

(29) *man az šoma maʔzarat mi-xâh-am*

I from you apology Dur.want.1Sg

‘I apologize from you!’

4.2.1.1.1.2 Present Progressive

Present progressive in Persian has been called: *Hâle Mostamar*, *Mozâreya Mostamar*, *Hâle Estemrâri*, *Hâle Malmus* and *Mozâreya Malmus*.

Structure: present stem *dâr* + present personal inflections (endings) + durative prefix *mi-* + present stem main verb + present personal endings.

The present progressive has been combined to form two constitutes of the present tense verbs; the first constitute as an auxiliary is the simple present tense of *dâšt-an* ‘to have, to possess’ and the second one is the simple present tense of the main verb. As it was mentioned the prefix *mi-* is not employed for the simple present tense of the verb *dâšt-an* ‘to have, to possess’. There is no negation and passive voice in the present progressive.

dâr-am mi-rav-am ‘I am going.’ ; *dâr-ad mi-šuy-ad* ‘He/she is washing.’

In the present progressive structure, the parts of speech like objects, adverbs can be placed between the modal *dâšt-an* ‘to have, to possess’ and the main verb. In other words, as Mace stated (2003), “the first verb of the pair usually follows its subject (or stands in place of its implied subject), the second verb stands at the end of the sentence or clause” (p.103).

dâr-am be madrese mi-rav-am ‘I am going to the school.’

mâdar-am dâr-ad zarf-hâ-râ mi-šuy-ad ‘My mother is washing the dishes.’

xâhar-am dâr-ad nâme-y-i be dust-aš mi-nevis-ad

‘My sister is writing a letter to her friend.’

Sometimes, for the emphasis on a word in the sentence, it could be placed before the modal verb *dâsht-an* ‘to have, to possess’.

al?ân dâr-and mi-y-ây-and ‘They are coming now.’

otâq-aš-râ dâr-ad naqqâši mi-kon-ad ‘He/she is painting his/her room.’

The Present progressive tense is new in the standard Persian language. Some Persian grammarians believe this form entered into Persian through translation. Frshidvard (1995) argued, “ *mozâreye mostamar* ‘present progressive’ which is also named *mozâreye malmus* and *mozâreye nâqes* ‘imperfective (incomplete) present’ entered into Persian colloquial language through translated western texts like stories and novels in the recent century. However, for the written language, particularly literary and poetry, it has not been influenced by this imported form” (p.110). There is not any evidence of using the present progressive before the eighteenth century in Persian written language. It seems this type of structure had been used in Persian spoken language without being affected by European languages, because there is a specific structure for present progressive in many Persian dialects and Iranian languages. It can lead us to infer that the pioneers of Iranian translators use this type of spoken language structure encountering its equivalent in the texts. However, it needs more investigation and detailed research, if it is considered to be a real event that the translations from foreign languages could be strong enough to influence the Persian language syntactically and morphologically. Coining a tense structure by translators and being used broadly by people in spoken language and also in texts like stories, dramas, and letters (even if we exclude official ones), will be so strange and absurd. Regarding the present progressive in Persian, Windfuhr (1979) said, “This construction presents an interesting case for diachronic and sociolinguistic research. It seems to have first been reordered in colloquial language by Žukovskij (1888). Today, it has been accepted in standard colloquial Persian as well as in works of fiction probably due to the literary revolution of the past 100 years” (p.102).

Applications:

1. For activity in progress over a limited period of time

(30) *dâr-am kâr mi-kon-am*

have.1Sg work Dur.do.1Sg

‘I am working.’

2. For near future

It is usually used in an event about to actualize.

(31) *dâr-im be širâz mi-ras-im*

have.1Pl to Shiraz Dur.reach.1Pl

‘We are about to reach to Shiraz city.’

(32) *bâdkonak dâr-ad mi-terak-ad biš-tar az in*

balloon have.3Sg Dur.burst.3Sg more than this

bâd-aš na-kon

wind.3Sg.Op Neg.Imp.do.2Sg

‘The balloon is going to burst. Do not inflate it anymore.’

It seems that all stative verbs and some dynamic verbs can be used for near future time in the present progressive structure. It should be mentioned that the verbs of *dâšt-an* ‘to have’ can function as current time and also future time. To recognize the kind of tense in the sentence depends on the context. For example, the following sentences can be interpreted in having two different meanings and that is why the speaker can use some adverbs or any other helpful clues in the sentence to remove the ambiguity.

(33) *dâr-im bar-mi-gard-im*

have.1Pl Pfv.re.Dur.turn.1Pl

‘We are coming back.’; ‘We are going to come back.’

(34) *fardâ dâr-im bar-mi-gard-im*

tomorrow have.1Pl Pfv.re.Dur.turn.1Pl

‘We are coming back tomorrow.’; ‘We will be coming back tomorrow.’

Farshidvard (1995) mentioned the application of ‘gradual continuity’ in addition to the above two applications. It seems that this application can be covered by the application of ‘near future’, because the actions and states mentioned for ‘near future’ can have the feature of gradual continuity. He gave the following examples for the application of ‘gradual continuity’.

(35) *aĵāneb dār-and bar tamām-e šoʔun-e molk mosallat mi-šav-and*

foreigners have.3Pl on all.Ez affairs.Ez country dominant Dur.get.3Pl

‘Foreigners are dominating on all affairs of the country.’

(36) *farhang-e mamlekat dār-ad badal mi-šav-ad be*

cultur.Ez country have.3Sg substitute Dur.become.3Sg to

šoʔbe-ʔ-i az šoʔbe-ʔ-hâ-ye bongâh-e farânklin

branch.Dem from branch.Pl.Ez institution-Ez Fraanklin

‘The culture of the country is about to become a branch of Franklin institution.’

3. To talk about how long something has been happening

It is usually used with the dynamic verbs while the adverbials of time appear in a cleft sentence followed by a *that*-clause with a present progressive.

(37) *pañ mâh hast ke homâyun dār-ad farânse mi-xân-ad*

five month is that Homayoun has French Dur.study.3Sg

‘Homayoun has been studying French language for five months.’

4. For dynamic actions that will be in progress in a definite time in the future

(38) *fardâ in mowqe dâr-im az dâneškade bar-mi-gard-im*

tomorrow this time have.1Pl from college Pfv.re.Dur.turn.1Pl

‘This time tomorrow we’ll be coming back from the college.’

4.2.1.1.2 Past Tenses

There are eight past tenses in the indicative mood including Simple Past, Imperfective Simple Past, Present Perfect, Narrative Past Imperfective, Past Perfect, Narrative Past Perfect, Past Progress, Narrative Past Progressive.

4.2.1.1.2.1 Simple Past

Simple past in Persian has been named: Mâziye motlagh, Mâziye sâde, Gozaštaye Sâde

Structure: past stem + past personal endings

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>âmad-am</i>	I came	<i>âmad-im</i>	We came
2 nd Person	<i>âmad-i</i>	You came	<i>âmad-id</i>	You came
3 rd Person	<i>âmad-Ø</i>	S(he)/ It came	<i>âmad-and</i>	They came

Third person singular in simple past has no personal ending. Therefore, the verb and the past stem are identical. All past tenses are regular.

Negative: The negative of the past tense is formed by adding the negative prefix *na-* to the affirmative verb. As mentioned before, two vowels do not appear together; hence, the euphonic *-y-* is placed between them.

na-y-âmad-am ‘I did not come.’ *na -xord-i* ‘You did not eat.’

Applications:

1. For a definite single completed event or action in the past

There is no difference between near and far reference time in the past

(39) *qazâ-râ xord-am*

food.Om eat.Pst.1Sg

‘I ate the food.’

2. For a durative action or state in the past

Sometimes it is possible to use a simple past construction with an adverbial time

denoting the repetition or continuity of an action or state to refer to a durative simple past.

The verbs which are used in these sentences have durative aspect as usual.

(40) *tâ sobh film tamâšâ kard-im*

until morning film watch do.Pst. 1Pl

‘We watched movies until the morning.’

(41) *hame-y-e ruz bârân bâr-id*

all-Ez day rain rain.Pst.3Sg

‘It rained all day long.’

3. For indicating a state in the past

(42) *diruz garm bud*

yesterday hot be.Pst.3Sg

‘It was hot yesterday.’

(43) *pârsâl yek âpârtemân dâšt-am*

last year an apartment have.Pst.1Sg

‘I had an apartment last year.’

4. For subjunctive present in a subordinate clause of a conditional sentence

(44) *agar to-râ did-and če mi-gu-y-i*

if you.Sg.Om see.Pst.3Sg what Dur.tell.2Sg

‘If they see you, what will you do?’

(45) *čonânče moškel-i piš âmad be pâsgâh-e police zang*

in case problem.Ind front come.Pst.3Sg to station.Ez police ring

be-zan-id

Imp.hit.2Pl

‘If you get any problem, call police station.’

5. For an action to be completed

In such a case, the present progressive can be used instead of the simple past.

(46) A: *kojâ-y-i zud bâš B:âmad-am*

A: where be.2Sg quick be.IrgPrs.2Sg B: come.Pst.1Sg

A: 'Where are you? Harry up!' B: 'I am coming.'

6. For future time

6.1 Instead of subjunctive present when it is co-occurred with the adverbs of possibility

(47) *šâyad fardâ be ketâbxâne raft-am*

perhaps tomorrow to library go.Pst.1Sg

'Perhaps I will go to the library tomorrow.'

6.2 For subjunctive present in an adverbial clause (with some adverbials of time)

(48) *hargâh be forudgâh âmad-and man o to be*

whenever to airport come.Pst.3Pl I and you.Sg to

pišvâz-ešân mi-rav-im

welcome.Pos.3Pl Dur.go.1Pl

'Whenever they come to the airport, you and me will welcome them.'

(49) *Pas az dah sâl ke be xâne bar-gašt hame xošhâl*

after ten year that to house Pfv.re.turn.Pst.3Sg all glad

mi-šav-and

Dur.become.3Pl

'Everybody will be glad when he/she comes back home after 10 years.'

6.3 For a durative action that the process has started in the past and will end in the near future

(50) *mive-hâ-râ az jelo-y-e bačče bar-dâr hame-râ xord*

fruit.Pl.Om from front.Ez kid Pfv.up.have. all.Om eat.Pst.3Sg

'Take the fruits from the kid. He/she is eating all.'

(51) *be gorg šellik kon galle-râ dar-id*

to wolf firing (Imp).do.2Sg sheep.Om tear.Pst.3Sg

‘Shoot the wolf. It is attacking and tearing the sheep.’

7. For present perfect

7.1 For repeated and iterative action up to now

(52) *čand* *bâr* *in* *film-râ* *did-i*

how many times this movie.Om see.Pst.2Sg

‘How many times have you watched?’

(53) *se* *bâr* *be* *edâre-aš* *raft-am*

three times to office.Pos.3Sg go.Pst.1Sg

‘I have been his office three times.’

8. For simple present tense

8.1 With certain verbs such as *šod-an* ‘to become, to get’, indicating either a state which began in the past and continues into the present,

or a state which has just come to pass:

(54) *âmâde* *šod-am*

ready get.Pst.1Sg

‘I am ready.’

(55) *bičâre* *šod-and*

miserable become.Pst.3Pl

‘They are miserable.’

8.2 In certain sentences in which the adverbs such as *zood* ‘early’, *dir* ‘late’, *xub* ‘well, right’, *bad* ‘bad’ precede the verbs such as *kard-an* ‘to do’ or *âmad-an* ‘to come’ are

(56) *zood* *âmad-id*

early come.Pst.2Pl

‘You are early.’

(57) *dir kard-i*

late do.Pst.2Sg

‘You are late.’

4.2.1.1.2.2 Imperfective Simple Past

Imperfective simple past in Persian has been called: Gozaštaye Estemrâri, Mâziye Estemrâri, Mozâreyye Exbâriye Nâtamâm

Structure: Durative prefix *mi-* + past stem + past personal endings

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>mi-y-âmad-am</i>	I came/ was coming	<i>mi-y-âmad-im</i>	We came/ were coming
2 nd Person	<i>mi-y-âmad-i</i>	You came/ were coming	<i>mi-y-âmad-id</i>	You came/ were coming
3 rd Person	<i>mi-y-âmad-Ø</i>	S(he)/ It came was coming	<i>mi-y-âmad-and</i>	They came/ were coming

Negation: The negative of this tense is formed exactly like the negative of the present tense, that is, the negative prefix *ne-/na-* comes before the durative prefix *mi-*.

ne-mi-y-âmad-am ‘I did not come.’ *ne-mi-xord-i* ‘You did not eat.’

There is no form of the verb *dâšt-an* ‘to have, to possess’ for the durative simple past. However, it should be noted that in a few compound verbs formed with *dâšt-an* ‘to have, to possess’ as its conjugations, the durative simple past structure can be used. For example, the compound verbs *dust dâšt-an* ‘to love, to like’, *negah dâšt-an* ‘to keep’, ‘to hold’, in the following sentences:

(58) *susan man-râ dust mi-dâšt*

Susan I.Om friend Dur.have.Pst.3Sg

‘Susan loved me.’; ‘Susan used to love me.’

(59) *qanâri-râ dar in qafas negah mi-dâšt-im*

canary.Om in this cage look Dur.have.Pst.1Pl

‘We kept the canary in this cage.’; ‘We used to keep the canary in this cage.’

(60) *ân-hâ şahidân-râ dar hamâyeš-hâ pâs mi-dâšt-and*

that-Pl martyrs.Om in gathering.Pl respect Dur.have.Pst.3Pl

‘They honored the martyrs in the gatherings.’

Applications:

1. For a continuous action in the past

(61) *yek sâ?at-e piš bârân mi-bâr-id*

one hour-Ez ago rain Dur.rain.Pst.3Sg

‘It was raining one hour ago.’

(62) *dišab tâ dir vaqt dars mi-xân-d*

last night until late time lesson Dur.study.3Sg

‘He/she was studying late last night.’

1.1 For a continuous action or durative event in the past before a point of time in the

past and that it had just stopped

(63) *piš az in ke bi-y-â-yi dars mi-xând-im*

before Sbjn.come.3Sg lesson Dur.study.Pst.1Pl

‘We were studying before you arrived in.’

(64) *tâ sâ?at-e hašt-e dišab kêr mi-kard-and*

until hour-Ez eight-Ez last night work Dur.do.Pst.3Pl

‘They were working by 8 p.m. last night.’

1.2 To refer to a long background action or situation

An imperfective simple past as a durative action or event can be used in a compound sentence when a simple past verb as an instantaneous action is appeared.

(65) *vaqt-i zang zad-i televeziyun negâh mi-kard-am*

time.Ind ring hit.Pst.2Sg television look Dur.do.Pst.1Sg

‘I was watching TV when you called me.’

2. For duration in the stative verbs

(66) *mi-dânest-am ke be inĵa mi-â-y-i*

Dur.know.Pst.1Sg that to here Dur.com.2Sg

‘I knew that you would come here.’

(67) *hads mi-zad-im ke dar mosâbeqeh barandeh mi-šav-and*

guess Dur.hit.Pst.1Pl that in competition winner Dur.become.3Pl

‘We guessed that they would win in the competition.’

3. For repetition or habitual action in the past

(68) *har sâl nowruz hame bâ ham be taxte ĵamšid mi-raft-im*

every year Nowrooz all together to Takhte Jamshid Dur.go.Pst.1Pl

‘All together went to Persepolis every new year in Nowrooz.’

4. With superlative forms of adjective

Except the verbs ‘to have’ and ‘to be’, the imperfective simple past can be used in the main clause of a cleft sentence including a superlative form of an adjective with a simple past copula verb. (The copula verbs may be used in the simple present tense only when the sentence is narrated by a storyteller or reporter.)

(69) *avval-in bâr bud ke u-râ mi-did-am*

first.Compr time was that him/her.Om Dur.see.Pst.1Sg

‘It was the first time I ever saw him/her.’

5. For an impossible action or state referring to the past or present in conditional sentences

It should be noted that the imperfective simple past is not used for the stative verbs such as *have*, *possess* or *be*.

(70) *agar peidâ-y-aš mi-kard-am be to mi-goft-am*

if found.Op 3Sg Dur.do.Pst.1Sg. to you.Sg Dur.tell.Pst.1Sg

‘If I found it, I would tell you.’

6. For hypothetical wish about the present

- (71) *dâr-ad dir mi-šav-ad kâš zud-tar boland mi-šod-am*
have.Prs.3Sg late Dur.get.Prs.3Sg wish early.Comp up Dur.get.Pst.1Sg
'It's getting late. I wish I got up earlier.'

7. For hypothetical wish about the future

- (72) *ey kâš yek bâr-e digar mi-did-am-aš*
I wish one time-Ez again Dur.see.Pst.1Sg.Op.3Sg
'I wish I could see him/her once again.'

Sometimes, it is not clear whether it is for wish in the past or future. The hearer should distinguish based on the context and some clues in the situation. For example:

- (73) *kâš mi-raft-am o bastani mi-xarid-am*
I wish Dur.go.Pst.1Sg and ice cream Dur.buy.Pst.1Sg
'I wish I went to buy ice cream.'; 'I had better go and buy ice cream.'

8. For politeness in place of the present

To make a polite request or question, it is usual to use the imperfective simple past.

- (74) *mi-baxš-id yek pirâhan-e âbi rang mi-xâst-am*
Dur.forgive.2Pl one shirt-Ez blue colour Dur.want.Pst.1Sg
'Excuse me! I want a blue shirt.'
- (75) *ostâd mi-xâst-im be-dân-im key vaqt-e âzâd dâr-id*
professor Dur.want.Pst.1Pl Sbjn.know.1Pl when time-Ez free have.2Pl
'Professor! We wondered if you could tell us when you will be free.'

9. After modals *bâyad*, *bâyest* or *mibâyest* 'must, should, ought to, have to, need'

referring to the past

The modalities refer to obligation, necessity and deduction.

- (76) *mâ bâyard/bâyest mi-raft-im*
we should Dur.go.Pst.1Pl

‘We should have gone.’

10. For *xâst-an* as a kind of auxiliary meaning ‘to be about to’ in the past

(77) *besyâr zaʔif šod-e bud mi-xâst be-mir-ad*

very weak get.Pstp.1Sg be.Pst.1Sg Dur.want.Pst.3Sg Sbjn.die.Pst.3Sg

‘He/she was so weak to be about dying.’

(78) *mi-xâst bârân be-gir-ad ke harkat kard-im*

Dur.want.Pst.3Sg rain Sbjn.take.3Sg that move do.Pst.1Pl

‘We moved away because it was about to rain.’

4.2.1.1.2.3 Present Perfect

Present perfect in Persian has been called: *Gozašteye Naqli* or *Mâziye Naqli*. This verb tense in Persian is grouped as a past tense and in terms of technical term looks like ‘passé composé’ in French.

Structure: past participle of the main verb + indicative suppletive verb ‘to be’

The past participle in Persian is formed by adding *-e* (with silent h at the end of the word) to the past stem of the main verb; this construction could be used as an adjective. The indicative suppletive verb ‘to be’ has already been mentioned in 2.2.2.1.1.1.1. Indicative present as the first form of ‘to be’ include {*-am, -i, ast, -im, -id, -and*}, except for the indicative suppletive *ast* in third person singular, the rest are the contractions of {*ast-am, ast-i, ast-im, ast-id, ast-and*}. These forms were used in classic language and now they are used in some dialects of Persian Tajik or Persian Dari.

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>âmad-e-ʔ-am</i>	I have come	<i>âmad-e-ʔ-im</i>	We have come
2 nd Person	<i>âmad-e-ʔ-i</i>	You have come	<i>âmad-e-ʔ-id</i>	You have come
3 rd Person	<i>âmad-e ast</i>	S(he)/ It has come	<i>âmad-e-ʔ-and</i>	They have come

In everyday speech and also when a sequence of present perfect verbs appear in a sentence, *ast* and other indicative suppletive verb ‘to be’ can be omitted:

(79) *rezâ be âmrîkâ raft-e ast*

Reza to The United States go.Pstp be.3Sg

‘Reza has gone (been) to the United States.’

(80) *ali âmad-e qâzâ-y-aš-râ xord-e va be madrese raft-e ast*

Ali come.Pstp food. Pos. 3sg.Om eat.Pstp and to school go.Pstp be.3Sg

‘Ali came and ate his food and went back to his school.’

Negation: The negative of this tense is formed exactly like the negative of the past tense, that is, the negative prefix *na-* comes before the past stem.

na-y-âmad-e-?am ‘I have not come.’

Applications:

1. Continuative perfect

It is used for actions and situations leading up to the present time.

1.1 Actions

(81) *in mardom qarn-hâ asb-hâ-y-e xub parvareš dâde-?-and*

this people century-Pl horse-Pl.Az good growing give.Pstp.be.3Pl

‘This people have raised good horses for centuries.’

1.2 States

(82) *sâl-hâ entezâr kašid-e-?-im*

year.Pl waiting pull.Pstp.be.2Pl

‘We have been waiting for years.’

In some verbs such as *know* with the meaning of ‘be familiar to’, the simple present is used as it referred to the continuative perfect concept.

2. Resultative Perfect

It is used for a dynamic action in the past in which the result continued to be effective or apparent after the action itself.

(83) *xod-am in xâne-râ naqqâši karde-?am*

myself this house.Om paint do.Pstp.1Sg

‘I myself have painted this house.’

2.1 Instead of simple past

Sometimes a simple past tense and a resultative present perfect tense can be used interchangeably.

(84) *man ĉub-râ boride-am*

I wood.Om cut.Pstp.1Sg

‘I cut the wood.’

(85) *mâdarbozorg-am panĵ sâl piš mord-e ast*

grandmother.Pos.1Sg five years before die.Pstp be.3Sg

‘My grandmother passed away five years ago.’

3. For referring to the sayings or writings of famous men

The present perfect is used to narrate a well-known person on the assumption that he or she is still effective and has lived on.

(86) *in dâstân-râ qazâli ravâyat kard-e ast*

this story.Om Ghazali narration do.Pstp be.3Sg

‘This story was narrated by Ghazali.’

4. To express the idea of completion or achievement

The finished events and completed actions can cooccur with the adverbs such as *ever*, *never*, *yet*, *recently*, *lately*, *already*, *just*

(87) *bâbak dastgâh-e ĵadid-i-râ axiran exterâ? kard-e ast*

Babak devise.Ez new.Dem.Om lately invention made.Pstp be.3Sg

‘Babak has invented a new device.’

4.1 For a static action indicating a certain state begun even since a short while ago

The adverbs such as *recently*, *lately*, *already* and *just* can be appeared with this type of

verbs in a sentence.

- (88) *tâze fahmide-?am ĉe bâyard be-kon-am*
recently find out.Pstp.be.1Sg what should Sbjn.do.1Sg
'I found out recently what I need to do.'

- (89) *kuroš ânjâ xâbid-e ast*
Kourosh there sleep.Pstp be.3Sg
'Kourosh is sleeping over there.'

5. For actions will be completed before a point in the future

In such a case, the action begins before a particular time in the future and ends by the mentioned future time. Moreover, It can be used in a compound or complex sentence to refer to the future in the main clause after a temporal clause introduced by *tâ* 'by the time that'.

- (90) *tâ fardâ gozâreš-e kâr-râ be modir dâd-e ast*
by tomorrow report.Ez work.Om to manager give.Pstp be.1Sg
'He will have submitted the work report to the manager by tomorrow.'

6. For states and accomplishments will be completed before a point in the future

- (91) *tâ sâl-e tahsili-y-e ba?d fâreqottahsil šod-e-?am*
by year.Ez school.Ez nerxt graduated become.Pstp.be.1Sg
'I shall have graduated by next new academic year.'

7. To narrate at the beginning of a story and fiction with the third person plural

- construction of verb *âvard-an* 'It is said'
(92) *âvarde-?-and ke ruz-i mollâ nasroddin az deh-i mi-gozašt*
bring.Pstp.be.3Pl that day.Ind Mulla Nasroddin from village.Ind Dur.pass.Pst.3Sg
'It is said that one day Mulla Nasroddin passed through a village.'

8. To tell about some unseen event or unreliable news by using the present perfect verbs like *šenid-an* 'to listen' *fahmid-an* 'understand', *goft-an* 'to tell', *farmud-an* 'to say'

gozâreš dâd-an ‘report’ *ettelâ? dâd-an* ‘inform’, *nevešt-an* ‘write’, and so forth at the beginning of the indirect speech or report

In such sentences, the speaker or the writer inquires indirectly and expects the hearer or addressee to give a correct answer.

- (93) *šind-e-?am* *az* *inĵa* *mi-xâh-i* *be-rav-i*
 hear.Pstp.be.1Sg from here Dur.want.2Sg Sbjn.go.2Sg
 ‘I hear/have heard you are going to move from here.’

9. For habitual and repetitive action up to now

This kind of action usually appears in compound and complex sentences. The verb of the subordinate clause is the present perfect while the verb of the main clause can be the present perfect or the simple present.

- (94) *hargâh* *ke* *âmade-?am* *to-râ* *inĵâ* *did-e-?am*
 whenever that come.Pstp.be.1Sg you.Sg.Om here see.Pstp.be.1Sg
 ‘Whenever I came, I saw you here.’

10. Perfect of experience

- (95) *tâ hâlâ* *zarrâfe* *az* *nazdik* *did-e-?-i*
 ever giraffe from near see.Pstp.be.2Sg
 ‘Have you ever seen a real giraffe close to you.’

4.2.1.1.2.4 Narrative Past Imperfective

Gozaštaye Naqli Estemrâri, Gozaštaye Naqli Mostamar, Mâziye Naqli Estemrâri, Mâziye Naqli Mostamar and Gozaštaye Sâdeye Bâzguyi are the technical terms which have been used by linguists and Persian grammarians.

Structure: durative prefix *mi-* + past participle of the main verb + indicative suppletive verb ‘to be’

The structure of *gozašte-y-e naqli estemrâri* is the same of *gozašte-y-e naqli* with this difference that the durative prefix *mi-* places before the past participle in the latter. However, it is used to narrate or mention something while the subject of the sentence is usually third person.

Applications:

1. For continuous action or states in the past

(96) *mowlavi dar sade-y-e haftom hejri mi-zist-e ast*

Mevlevi in century.Ez seventh Hijri Dur.live.Pstp be.3Sg

‘Mevlevi lived in the seventh Hijri century (13th century A.D.).’

(97) *dar gozašte mardom qazâ-y-e čarbi besyâr kam mi-xorde-and*

in past people food-Ez fatty very little Dur.eat.Pstp

‘In the past, the people seldom ate fatty meal.’

1.1. For a continuous action before another action in the past

(98) *piš az inke to bi-y-â-y-i âvâz mi-xânde-?and*

before that you.Sg Sbjn.come.2Sg song Dur.sing.Pstp.be.3Pl

‘They were singing before you arrived.’

2. For repetitive action in the past

(99) *u-râ har hafte be bimârestan mi-bord-e-?and*

s/he.Om every week to hospital Dur.take.Pstp.be.3Pl

‘He/she was taken to the hospital every week.’

3. In the main clause of some conditional sentences

(100) *har gâh deltang mi-šod be xâne-y-e amme-?-aš*

whenever upset Dur.get.Pst.3Sg to house.Ez aunt. Pos.3Sg.

mi-raft-e ast

Dur.go.Pstp be.3Sg

‘Whenever s/he got upset s/he went to his/her aunt’s house.’

4. After the auxiliary *bâyad* ‘should, ought to, must, has to/have to

In this case, the emphasis is on the continuity or repetition of the main verb, so, the stative verbs and some dynamic verb indicating can be used after *bâyad*.

(101) *âšpaz bâyad qazâ-râ mi-češid-e ast*

cook should food.Om Dur.taste.Pstp be.3Sg

‘The cook should have tasted the food.’

4.2.1.1.2.5 Past Perfect/ Pluperfect

Past perfect or pluperfect have been called in Persian as: *Gozaštaye Dur*, *Gozaštaye Ba?id*, *Mâziye Ba?id*, *Mâzi Moqaddam* and *Ba?ide Tardidi*

Structure: past participle of the main verb + simple past tense of *bud-an* ‘to be’

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>âmad-e-bud-am</i>	I had come	<i>âmad-e-bud-im</i>	We had come
2 nd Person	<i>âmad-e-bud-i</i>	You had come	<i>âmad-e-bud-id</i>	You had come
3 rd Person	<i>âmad-e bud</i>	S(he)/It had come	<i>âmad-e-bud-and</i>	They had come

Negation: The negative is formed by making the participle negative, that is, the negative prefix *na-* comes before the main verb.

na-y-âmad-e bud-am ‘I did not come.’ *na-xord-e bud-i* ‘You did not eat.’

Applications:

1. For a completed action or event in the earlier past prior to another action or event

(102) *vaqti ke pedar-am az râh rasid mehmân-ân*

when that father.Pos.1Sg from way reach.Pst.3Sg guest.Pl

raft-e bud-and

go.Pstp be.Pst.3Pl

‘When my father arrived, the guests had gone.’

2. For the far past

(103) *in ketâb sâl-hâ dar qafas mând-e bud*

this book year.Pl in shelf leave.Pstp be.Pst.3Sg

‘This book had been left on the shelf for years.’

(104) *yek bâr piyâde be varzešgâh raft-e bud-im*

one time on foot to stadium go.Pstp be.Pst.1Pl

‘Once we had walked to the stadium.’

3. To state an action before a definite time

(105) *zohr injâ nešast-e bud*

noon here sit.Pstp be.Pst.3Sg

‘He/she was sitting here at noon.’

(106) *in film-râ qablan negâh kard-e budam*

this movie.Om before look do.Pstp be.Pst.1Sg

‘I had already watched this movie.’

4. For politeness instead of present perfect

(107) *âmade bud-im ke az šomâ ozrxâhi kon-im*

come.Pstp be.Pst.1Pl that from you.Pl apology do.1Pl

‘We came to apologize to you.’

(108) *jenab-e raʔis yek hadiye nâqâble barây-etân âvard-e bud-and*

his excellency boss one gift.Ez little for.Pos.2Pl bring.Pstp be.Pst.3Pl

‘His Excellency, they brought a little gift for you.’

5. For unfulfilled wishes about the past

(109) *kâš zood-tar be mehmâni raft-e budim*

I wish soon.Comp to party go.Pstp be.Pst.1Pl

‘I wish we had gone sooner to the party.’

4.2.1.1.2.6 Narrative Past Perfect

The following technical terms have been used for narrative past perfect in Persian:

gozašteye baʔide estemrâri, gozašteye baʔide mostamar, mâziye baʔide estemrâri, mâziye baʔide mostamar, mâziye abʔad, mâziye baʔide kâmel, mâziye baʔide naqli, gozašteye gozašteye nâdide

Structure: past participle of the main verb + present perfect of *bud-an* ‘to be’

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>âmad-e-bud-e-ʔ-am</i>	I had come	<i>âmad-e-bud-e-ʔ-im</i>	We had come
2 nd Person	<i>âmad-e-bud-e-ʔ-i</i>	You had come	<i>âmad-e-bud-e-ʔ-id</i>	You had come
3 rd Person	<i>âmad-e bud-e ast</i>	(S)he/It had come	<i>âmad-e-bud-e-ʔ-and</i>	They had come

Negation: The negative form is like that of the past perfect

Narrative Past Perfect denotes an action or state in the far past. In fact, it looks like past perfect with this difference that the speaker reports or narrates an event by quoting it. It can be inferred from the speaker that he or she was absent when the event was happening and the speaker had not been aware of the situation.

Application:

1. To narrate the anterior of two actions or states in the past which do not follow one another immediately

(110) *dânešju-y-ân in dars-râ piš-tar gozarând-e bud-eʔ-and*

student.Pl this lesson.Om already pass.Cm.Pstp be.Pstp.3Pl

‘The students had already passed this course.’

4.2.1.1.2.7 Past Progressive

Gozašteye Mostamar, Mâziye Mostamar, Mâziye Malmus, Mâziye Natamâm are the technical terms which have been used for past progressive.

Structure: The simple past *dâšt-an* ‘to have, to posses’+ imperfective simple past of the main verb

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>dâšt-am mi-raft-am</i>	I was going	<i>dâšt-im mi-raft-im</i>	We were going
2 nd Person	<i>dâšt-i mi-y-raf-i</i>	You have going	<i>dâšt-id mi-raft-id</i>	You were going
3 rd Person	<i>dâšt-am mi-raft</i>	(S)he/it is going	<i>dâšt-and mi-raft-and</i>	They were going

Past progressive has no any negative and passive construction in Persian. This verb tense like present progressive has been used in written language in the recent century.

Applications:

1. For a state or action taking place at a specific point of time in the past

(111) *pariruz* *dâšt-am* *dar otâq dâstân mi-xând-am*
the day before yesterday have.Pst.1Sg in room story Dur.read.Pst.1Sg
‘I was reading a story in the room the day before yesterday.’

(112) *dâšt-im* *šise-hâ-râ* *tamiz mi.kard-im* *ke dar zad-and*
have.Pst.1Pl window.Pl.Om clean Dur.do.Pst.1Pl that door hit.Pst.3Pl
‘We were cleaning the windows when somebody knocked the door.’

2. For near future and sometimes with the force of ‘to be about’

(113) *dâšt-am* *az goresne-g-i mi-mord-am*
have.Pst.1Sg from starvation Dur.die.Pst.1Sg
‘I was starving.’

The sentence with the verb *gozašt-e-y-e mostamar* ‘past progressive’ could be interpreted for the applications 1 and 2 above, if no adverbials of time or clues mentioned. For example, two meanings could be understood from the following sentences:

(114) *sarbâz-ân dâšt-and* *az ĵang bar-mi-gašt-and*
solier.Pl have.Pst.3Pl from war Pfv.re.Dur.turn.Pst.3Pl
‘The soldiers were returning from the war.’; ‘The soldiers were about to return

from the back.’

4.2.1.1.2.8 Narrative Past Progressive

Narrative past progressive in Persian has been called by Persian grammarians as *gozaštaye naqli mostamar*, *mâziye naqli mostamar*, *mâziye naqli malmus*.

Structure: preset perfect *dâšt-an* ‘to have, to posses’ + *gozaštaye naqli estemrâri*. That is, present perfect *dâšt-an* ‘to have, to possess’ + durative prefix *mi-* + present perfect

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>dâšt-e-?am mi-raft-e-?-am</i>	I was going	<i>dâšt-e-?-im mi-raft-e-?-im</i>	We were going
2 nd Person	<i>dâšt-e-?-i mi-raft-e-?-i</i>	You have going	<i>dâšt-e-?-id mi-raft-e-?-id</i>	You were going
3 rd Person	<i>dâšt-e (ast) mi-raft-e-?-ast</i>	(S)he/it is going	<i>dâšt-e-?-and mi-rafte-?-and</i>	They were going

This tense entered into the written language during the 20th century. It has no negative form and the third person singular form is more frequently used. The Third person singular form can be contracted by omitting *ast* from the present perfect construction of *dâšt-an* ‘to have, to possess’. :

Applications:

1. To narrate a continuous action or state taking place in the past

(115) *nilufar dâšt-e az sar-e kâr bar-mi-gâšt-e ke*

Nilofar have.Pstp from head.Ez work Pfv.re.Dur.turn.Pstp that

dust-e qadimi-y-aš-râ mi-bin-ad

friend.Ez old. Pos.3Sg.Om Dur.see.3Sg

‘Niloufar had been going back from her work when she met her old friend.’

2. For near future and sometimes with the force of ‘to be about’

(116) *dâšt-e-?-and mi-xabid-e-?-and ke az xâne-y-e*

have.Pstp.be.3Pl Dur.sleep.Pstp.be.3Pl that from house.Ez

hamsâye sar o sedâ mi-šnav-and

neighbour head and voice Dur.hear.3Pl

‘They were about to fall asleep when they heard the noise from the next door.’

4.2.2.1.1.3 Future Tense

There is only one future tense in Persian. ‘*Âyande*’ and ‘*Mostaqbal*’ are the technical terms have been used for the simple future tense in Persian.

Structure: indicative simple present *xâst-an* ‘will’ without prefix *mi-* + past stem of the main verb

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>xâh-am raft</i>	I will go	<i>xâh-im raft</i>	We will go
2 nd Person	<i>xâh-i raft</i>	You will go	<i>xâh-id raft</i>	You will go
3 rd Person	<i>xâh-ad raft</i>	S(he)/ It will go	<i>xâh-and raft</i>	They will go

Negation: The negative prefix *na-* places before the modal verb *xâst-an* ‘will’

na-xâh-am âmad ‘I will not come.’ *na-xâh-and tavânest* ‘They will not be able to.’

The future tense denotes an action or state clearly situated ahead of the present. It is used mostly in writing, and then to denote an intention, or to emphasise the future timing of the verb, or when no other expression in the sentence makes the future timing clear. This construction is usually used in spoken language to emphasize an action in the future.

Applications:

1. For an action or event to take place at some definite future time

(117) *panj šanbeh ezdevâj xâh-and kard*

Thursday marriage want.3Pl do.Pst.3Sg

‘They will get married soon.’

2. In predictions of future events

(118) *sâl-e digar injâ na-xâh-i bud*

year.Ez next here Neg.want.1Pl be.Pst.3Sg

‘We will not be here next year.’

3. To indicate certainty or emphasis in the future

(119) *barande-y-e mosâbeqe mâ xâh-im bud*

winner.Ez match we want.1Pl be.Pst.3Sg

‘We will be the winners of the match.’

4. For intimidation

(120) *xâh-id did ke bâ ki taraf-id*

want..2Pl see.Pst.3Sg that with who antagonist.be.2Pl

‘You will see what a hard antagonist I am.’

5. To prevent asking a question or expressing an objection by the audience

(121) *inak az man xâh-id xâst ke towzih*

that from I want.2Sg want.Pst.3Sg that explanation

be-deh.am čerâ in kâr-râ kard-am

Sbjn.give.1Sg why this work.Om do.Pst.1Sg

‘Now you may ask me to explain why I did that.’

4.2.2 Subjunctive Mood

The subjunctive mood has been one of the arguable topics in the Persian grammar by now. Here are some remarkable views represented by grammarians and linguists in dealing with the definition and recognition of the Persian subjunctive mood. Undoubtedly, each definition can shed light to the true and final illustration of the subjunctive mood. As mentioned before, tense, aspect, mood and modality are interacted. It could be one of the reasons in respect to the varieties of explanations for the Persian subjunctive mood. Mirza Muhammad Ibrahim (1841) wrote, “By subjunctive mood is meant a thing represented under a condition, motive, wish, supposition & c.; and it is

preceded usually by a conjunction; as, *agar* ‘if’: by an interjection; as *kâš* ‘Would that!’ or ‘May it be granted! & c.: or by an adverb; as *agarče* ‘although’; *šâyad* ‘perhaps’ & c.: and it is general accompanied with another verb; as *agar bexâhi u xâhad âmad* ‘If thou shouldest ask, he (or she) will do it’” (p.61). Habib Esfahani (1872) called subjunctive mood “as composite mood and wrote a verb is a composite one if it has the concept of wish, request, advice, hope, hesitation and so forth” (as cited in Mazaheri et al, 2004, p.96). Qarib et al. (1949) clarified that subjunctive mood states an action through doubt, hesitation, wish, request and so forth. This mood can be called ‘subordinate mood’ because it is subordinate of another sentence (p.140). Zon-nur (1965) wrote, “The verb of a sentence has subjunctive mood if the sentence denotes on doubt, hesitation, obligation and request” (as cited in Shafaei, 489, p.1972). In accordance with Farshidvard (1969), subjunctive mood is a feature of a verb which denotes on probable and uncertain concepts such as wish, desire, request, praying, hope, condition, doubt, etc. (p.221). Khanlari (1973) defined the subjunctive mood in which “the speaker remarks his/her desire, wish, intention, arbitrary or hesitation, prediction or supposition, prohibition, condition or agreement through a verb” (p.306). Arjang & Sadeghi (1982) pointed out in the view of speaker occurrence of an action is possible, probable or conditional and the concepts such as praying, hope, wish, desire, recommendation and request are represented. Shafaei (1984) maintained, “There are the notions such as doubt, hesitation, wish, request, pleading, suggestion, order (softly and like a proposition) in the Persian subjunctive mood” (p.91). Shafaei discussed that there are two fundamental notions of desire and hesitation in this mood, which cover all other concepts mentioned by other grammarians and linguists. In his view, the notion of desire can be more remarkable in the present subjunctive and on the contrary, the concept of hesitation is more obvious in the past subjunctive (p.91). According to Vahidian (1997), “In subjunctive mood the

speaker does not state the occurrence of an action certainly, that is, it is stated with obligation, hesitation, wish, recommendation, condition, praying or desire” (p.2).

Farahani (1997) claimed that the grammarians and linguists had had an insufficient and inadequate view in respect to defining and classifying the subjunctive mood. He affirmed there is no difference between the present and the past subjunctive and other verb forms in terms of referring to state or action (p.49). According to Farahani, what express semantic notions such as doubt, hesitation, obligation and condition are modals. None of the subjunctive verb forms refers to an action or state with an element of doubt. Therefore, the two pairs of the present subjunctive and the simple present and the past subjunctive as a perfect subjunctive and the present perfect tenses are in a complementary distribution. The only difference is the subjunctive tenses are restricted to the subordinate clause. On the contrary, the simple present and present perfect are restricted to the main clause (p.49). “An interesting implication of this analysis is that *Mâzi.e Eltezâmi* [‘Past Subjunctive’] does not refer to a past action, the occurrence of which is uncertain or doubtful, but rather like the present perfect tense it refers to an action which happens in the past and its results continue into the present time” (Farahani, 1997, p.50).

4.2.2.1 Subjunctive Mood and Tenses

Subjunctive mood in Persian has two tenses: Present Subjunctive and Past Subjunctive.

Vahidian (1997) believes there is a future subjunctive, in addition to the present and past subjunctive (p.3). Rahimian (1999) rightly commented fairly on Vahidian’s view that he had not borne in mind two significant points regarding tenses in the subjunctive mood:

“i) distinction between structural and semantic category of mood ii) explanation in considering mood as a property of a verb, a verbal phrase or a sentence” (p.44).

4.2.2.1.1 Present Tense

4.2.2.1.1.1 Present Subjunctive

Hâle Eltezâmi and *Mozâreya Eltezâmi* are two terms have been used in Persian for present subjunctive.

Structure: subjunctive present prefix *be-* + present stem + personal endings

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>be-rav-am</i>	I go	<i>be-rav-im</i>	We go
2 nd Person	<i>be-rav-i</i>	You go	<i>be-rav-id</i>	You go
3 rd Person	<i>be-rav-ad</i>	S(he)/ It go	<i>be-rav-and</i>	They go

For the English equivalence of the verbs above, the modal verbs like must, should, ought to, has to, have to, may, and might can be inserted between the subject and the main verb. The kind of the modal depends on the context and the meaning. The prefix *be-* will be changed into *bi-* when the present stems begin with a vowel other than *i*. Then an intermediary can be inserted between the two vowels. There is just one exception for this regulation. The present stem *istâd-an* ‘to stand’ begins with *i* but the prefix *be-* is kept and no intermediary is placed between the vowel of *e* from *be-* and the vowel *i* at the beginning of the present stem of *-ist-*.

bi-y-âzmây-am ‘I may test.’ *bi-y-ây-and* ‘They may come.’

bi-y-anduz-im ‘We may save.’ *bi-y-andiš-i* ‘You may think.’

bi-y-oft-ad ‘He/she/It may fall.’ *be-ist-id* ‘You may stand.’

Exceptions:

The subjunctive simple present forms of the verbs *dâšt-an* ‘to have, possess’ and *bud-an* ‘to be’ do not follow the upper pattern:

a) The subjunctive *bud-an* ‘to be’ is formed with present stem + personal ending:

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	<i>bâš-am</i>	I may be	<i>bâš -im</i>	We may be
2 nd Person	<i>bâš -i</i>	You may be	<i>bâš -id</i>	You may be
3 rd Person	<i>bâš -ad</i>	S(he)/ It may be	<i>bâš -and</i>	They may be

b) The present subjunctive tense of *dâšt-an* ‘to have, to possess’ is little used; instead the past subjunctive tense is used. Therefore, it mostly has the present, and not the perfect, meaning. The present subjunctive tense of *dâšt-an* can be usually used with the adversative conjunctions of *ma-bâd-â* , *na-kon-ad* ‘lest’; conditional conjunctions of *agar*, *hargâh*, *čonânče* ‘if’, *magar (in-ke)* ‘unless’; temporal conjunction of *tâ* ‘as long as, until, by the time that, since, as soon as’, *tâ in-ke*, *tâ ân-ke* ‘as long as, by the time that, until’, *hargâh* ‘whenever’, *hamin-ke* ‘as soon as’, *ke*, *vaqti-ke* ‘when’, *mowqeʔi-ke* ‘when as’; comparative subjunctive of *be qadri-ke* ‘as much as.’

(122) *ma-bâdâ pul dâr-i*

Neg.be.Opt money have.2Sg

‘Lest you have money.’

(123) *agar pul dâr-id mi-tavân-id mâšin be-xar-id*

if money have.2P Dur.can.2Pl car Sbjn.buy.2Pl

‘If you have money, you can buy a car.’

(124) *tâ pul dâr-i dour-at jamʔ mi-šav-and*

until money have.2Sg around.Pos.2Sg gathering Dur.become.3Pl

‘They will gather around you until you have money.’

The subjunctive present of compound verbs with the verbal element of *dâštan* ‘to have’ lack the subjunctive prefix *be-*. It can also use the subjunctive perfect form instead of the subjunctive present tense.

(125) *ehemâlan be in bâvar dâr-and*

probably to this belief have.3Pl

‘They probably believe in this.’

To place the subjunctive prefix *be-* in compound verbs is arbitrary. It does not differentiate semantically between the compound verb “with” or without the subjunctive prefix.

(126) *šâyad fardâ kâr kon-ad= šâyad fardâ kâr be-kon-ad*
 perhaps tomorrow work do.3Sg= perhaps tomorrow work Sbjn.do.3Sg
 ‘He might work tomorrow.’

However, it sometimes appears before the present stem in the prefixal verbs such as *bar-âmad-an* ‘rise, swell, emerge’, *var-âmad-an* ‘detach itself, flake off’, *foru-raft-an* ‘go down, sink, plunge’, *vâ-raft-an* ‘break up, crumble; be dismayed, be disappointed’, *vâ-dâd-an* ‘give up, let go, relax’, *bâz-šenâxt-an* ‘recognize’, *bâz-mând-an* ‘be detained, be delayed’, *farâ-gereft-an* ‘surround something, encompass something; learn’, *farâ-xând-an* ‘invite somebody, summon somebody, call somebody’, *farâ-rasid-an* ‘arrive, appear, come upon the scene’, *dar-oftâd-an* ‘’, *dar-âmixt-an* ‘mix together, mingle, blend’, *dar-âmad-an* ‘come out, emerge’, *dar-âvard-an* ‘extract sth, pull out; bring out, produce’

(127) *agar be gel foru-be-rav-and komak-i*
 if into mud Pfv.downward.Sbjn.go. 3Pl help.Ind
ne-mi-tavan-am be-kon-am
 Neg.Dur.can.1Sg Sbjn.do.1Sg

Negation: To make a subjunctive present negative, the subjunctive present prefix *be-* is omitted and the negative prefix *na-* precedes the present stem.

na-rav-am ‘I will not come.’ *na-xor-ad* ‘S/he will not eat.’

Applications:

1. For a state or condition about which there is an element of doubt, or which might or might not happen.

(128) *ehtemâlan fardâ bi-y-â-y-ad*
 probably tomorrow Sbjn.come.3Sg
 ‘He/she will probably come tomorrow.’

1.1 After the adverb *šâyad* ‘perhaps, maybe’ referring to the present or future

(129) *šâyad nâme-?i be dust-at be-nevis-am*

perhaps letter.Dem to friend.Pos.2Sg Sbjn.write.1Sg

‘Perhaps I will write a letter to your friend.’

2. Volitional /desideration

After the volitional verbs, the present subjunctive is used. The volitional verbs may be followed by the conjunction *ke* ‘in order that, so that, in order that’ and their time reference can be present, past and future.

2.1 With the verb *xâst-an* ‘to want’

The verb *xâst-an* ‘to want’ has more frequency rather than other volitional verbs.

(130) *mi-xâst-im be sinemâ be-rav-im*

Dur.want.Pst.1Pl to cinema Sbjn.go.1Pl

‘We wanted to go to the cinema.’

2.2 With the verbs such as *qasd dâšt-an* ‘intend’, *bar (sare) ân bud-an* ‘intend, to have the intention of doing something’, *mosammam bud-an* ‘to be determined’, *xiyâl dâštan* ‘intend, plan’

(131) *qasd dâr-and az in xiyâbân bo-gzar-and*

intention have.3Pl from this street Sbjn.pass.3Pl

‘They intend to pass this street.’

3. After the verb *tavânest-an* ‘to be able to’

The verb *tavânest-an* ‘to be able to’ in Persian can be accounted as durative or non-durative verb. Moreover, it can be conjugated in the simple present, present subjunctive, present perfect, simple past, imperfective simple past, narrative imperfective past and past perfect.

(132) *tavânest-am az kuh bâlâ be-rav-am*

can.Pst.1Sg from mountain up Sbjn.go.1Sg

‘I could climb up the mountain.’

(133) *âraš mi-tavân-ad in sang-râ boland kon-ad*

Arash Dur.can.3Sg this stone.Om up (Sbjn).do.3Sg

‘Arash can lift this stone up.’

(134) *dowlat hanuz na-tavânest-e ast tavarrom-râ kontrol kon-ad*

government yet Neg.can.Pstp be.3Sg inflation.Om control (Sbjn).do.3Sg

‘The government has not been able to control the inflation rate yet.’

(135) *mi-tavanest-im šekast-ešân be-dah-im*

Dur.can.Pst.1Pl defeat.Op.3Pl Sbj.give.1Pl

‘We were able to defeat them.’, ‘We could have defeated them.’

(136) *mi-tavanest-and zud-tar bi-y-â-y-and*

Dur.can.Pst.3Pl soon.Comp Sbjn.come.3Pl

‘They could come sooner.’, ‘They could have come sooner.’

(137) *amu-y-am mi-tavânest tamâm-e šab-râ negahbaâni be-deh-ad*

uncle.pos.1sg Dur.can.Pst.3sg all.Ez night.Om guarding Sbjn.give.3sg

‘My grandfather used to be able to stay up all night guarding the gate.’

(138) *tuti-ešân tavânest-e bud az qafas farâr be-kon-ad*

parrot.Pos.3Pl can.Pstp be.Pst.3Sg from cage escape Sbjn.do.3Sg

‘Their parrot had been able to escape from the cage.’

4. Obligation and necessity

4.1 With the modal *bâyad* ‘should, ought to, has (got) to, have (got) to, must, need (to), supposed to, am/is/are bound to’ referring to the present or future.

(139) *bâyad amu-râ dar bimârestân iyâdat kon-im*

must uncle.Om in hospital visit (Sbjn).do.1Pl

‘We must visit the uncle at the hospital.’

4.2 In a cleft sentence that the clef constituent has the adjective or noun elements with necessity meaning

(140) *lâzem ast be-dâni ke ki be to komak kard-e ast*

necessary is Sbjn.know.2Sg that who to you.Sg help do. Pstp be.3Sg

‘It is necessary to know who helped you.’; ‘You need to know who helped you.’,

‘You must know who helped you.’

(141) *niyâzi nist ke bimâr fe?lan ellat-e bimâri-y-aš-râ be-dân-ad*

necessary isn’t that patient now cause-Ez illness-Pos.3Sg.Om Sbjn.know.3Sg

‘It is not necessary now to let the patient know about the cause of his/her illness.’

5. In subordinate clauses

5.1 In adverbial time clause

5.1.1 After the adverbs of time such as *piš, qabl* ‘before’, *pas, ba?d* ‘after’, *hengâmi*,

vaqti, mowqe?i, zamâni ‘when’, ‘while’ or the adverbial phrases like *piš az in (ân)*

‘before’ or *pas az in (ân)* ‘after’ which are usually followed by the conjunctions *ke*,

inke, ânke ‘that’

(142) *piš az ânke bidâr šav-ad mâ raft-e bud-im*

before awake become.3Sg we go.Pstp be.Pst.1Pl

‘We had left before he woke up.’

5.1.2 After the temporal conjunction *tâ* ‘as long as, until, by the time that’, *haminke, be*

mahze inke ‘as soon as’.

The temporal conjunction *tâ* is usually followed by the conjunctions *ke, inke, ânke* ‘that’

and the verb refers to the present or future

(143) *tâ na-bin-i bâvar ne-mi-kon-i*

until Neg.see.2Sg belief Neg.Dur.do.2Sg

‘You will not believe until you see that.’

5.2 In conditional clauses

The subjunctive present tense can appear in subordinate clauses after conditional

conjunctions like: *agar* ‘if’, *hargâh* ‘if (whenever)’, *ke* ‘if’, *çonânçe* ‘if’, *dar suratike* ‘if’, *be şart-e inke (ânke)* ‘if (with this condition), *maşrut bar inke* ‘if (with this condition), *be farz-e inke (ânke)* ‘if (with this/that supposition), *magar(inke)*, ‘unless’, *bedun-e inke* ‘unless (without this that), *tâ* ‘unless’, *çe* ‘whether’.

(144) *agar tâksi be-gir-im be mowqe mi-ras-im*

if taxi Sbjn.take.1Pl on time Dur.get.1Pl

‘If we take a taxi, we will get on time.’

5.2.1 With the two correlative conjunctions *çe* that precede two different verbs

The verbs refer to the present and future time and the construction with the two repeated conjunctions *çe* indicates that it does not matter which of two possibilities are represented by the two verbs is true, because the situation will be the same. Sometimes one of the two different verbs could be negative and the another one the positive of the same verb.

(145) *çe be-xâh-i çe na-xâh-i bâyard be-rav-i*

whether Sbjn.like.2Sg whether neg.Sbjn. 2Sg must Sbjn.go.2Sg

‘Whether you like or not, you must go.’

(146) *edâme mi-deh-im çe be-mân-i çe be-rav-i*

continuing Dur.give.1Pl whether Sbjn.stay.2Sg whether Sbj.go.2Sg

‘We’ll continue whether you stay or go.’

5.3 In the purpose clause with the conjunctions *ke* and *tâ* ‘in order to, in order that, so, so that, lest’

(147) *ruznâme-râ âvard-am ke/tâ be u be-deh-am*

newspaper.Om bring.Pst in order to to s/he Sbjn.give.1Sg

‘I brought the newspaper to give it to him/her.’

5.4 After the compound adverbs such as *be jây-e inke*, *dar avaz-e inke* ‘instead of doing something’, *(be)jôz inke*, *(be)qeyr az inke* ‘except, other than’.

(148) *be jây-e ânke talvezîyun tamâşâ kon-i takâlif-e*

instead television watching (Sbjn).do.2Sg homeworks.Ez

madrese-at-râ anjâm be-deh

school.Pos.2Sg.Om accomplishment Imp.give.2Sg

‘Do your homework instead of watching television.’

6. To refer to the ‘future with doubt’ with the interrogative *âyâ*

The interrogative *âyâ* ‘whether’ can be usually omitted. Two positive and negative subjunctive present verbs which are identical in the stem, person and number appear respectively in a question compound sentence. The conjunction *yâ* ‘or’ can be omitted in the sentence. The two subjunctive present verbs, the first positive and the latter negative, with the same structure in persons and numbers appear one after another. Moreover, it is possible to use two different verbs but with the same persons and number. For such verbs, the conjunction *yâ* ‘or’ is obligatory to be inserted between them.

(149) *ne-mi-dân-am âyâ be-mân-and yâ na-mân-and*

Neg.Dur.know.1Sg whether Sbjn.stay.3Pl or Neg.stay.3Pl

‘I do not know whether they will stay or not?’

7. As a jussive in the 1st and 3rd singular and plural persons

(150) *kešvar-râ bâ kušeš o hamdeli âbâd kon-im*

country.Om by effort and unity develop (Sbjn).do.1Pl

‘Let us develop the country by hard work and unity.’

8. For wish in the near future

(151) *hanuz nešast-e ast kâš boland šav-ad*

still sit.Pstp be.3Sg wish up (Sbjn).get.3Sg

‘He is still sitting. I wish he would get up.’

8.1. To wish someone luck, happiness or success

(152) *xoš bo-gzar-ad*

good Imp.pass.3Sg

‘Enjoy the time.’

9. In optative verbs

One of the optative archaic forms of *bud-an* ‘to be’ is *bâd* or *bâd-â* which is still used in written and spoken modern Persian. The negative forms of *bâd* and *bâd-â* are *ma-bâd* and *ma-bâd-â* respectively. *ma-bâd-â* is used in both spoken and written languages but *ma-bâd* is just used in a written language particularly a literary one. For instance, *ma-bâd-â* can be used in a spoken sentence like *ma-bâd-â tanhâ be ânjâ be-rav-i* ‘I hope you are not going there all by yourself.’ and *ma-bâd* in a line of poem by Hafez (1325/1326-1389/1390 A.D):

(153) *tan-at be nâz-e tabib-ân niyâz ma-bâd*

body-pos.2Sg to care.Ez physician.Pl need Neg.Opt.be.3Sg

‘In need of the physician’s care, the body be not.’

voġud-e nâzok-at âzord-e-y-e gazand ma-bâd

existence.Ez tender.Pos.2Sg vexed.Ez injury Neg.Opt.be.3Sg

Vexed by injury, the tender existence be not.

For the affirmative forms, can be exemplified in the following:

(154) *harĉe bâd-â bâd*

whatever Opt.be Opt.be

‘Come what may’

(155) *zende bâd*

live Opt.be

‘Long live.’

10. For curse words which are used for causing bad luck

(156) *dar zendegi-y-at xoši na-bin-i*

in life. Pos.2Sg delight Neg.see.2Sg

‘I hope no good thing ever comes to you.’

11. For admitting a request or an offer as a concession

bâš-ad ‘Ok!’, ‘All right!’ is the only verb in subjunctive present tense which is used in responding to a request, suggestion, an offer, order or objection. In fact, the verb *bâšad* is the third person singular present subjunctive ‘to be’.

(157) *bâš-ad tond-tar râh mi-rav-am*

be.IrgPrs.3Sg fast.Comp way Dur.go.1Sg

‘Ok!/ All right! I will walk faster.’

12. To deny something in the future or present or to show the anger of the speaker

This kind of sentence is used with the tonic accent on the subject. The speaker puts the stress on the agent to make it more distinguishable. The speaker reacts to somebody’s speech to deny the action may be done or the state which may be occurred and also to show his/her anger by responding to the heard or reported statement.

(158) *man bâzi-râ be-bâz-am*

I play.Om Sbjn.lose.Prs.1Sg

‘Would it be me to lose the game?’

13. For warning

(159) *vaqt-e andak-i dâr-im eškebâh na-kon-i*

time.Ez little.Ind have.1Pl mistake Neg.do.2Sg

‘We have little time. Pay attention not to make a mistake. (Do not make a mistake).’

14. To ask for instructions, decision (request); to offer services and to make suggestions

In addition to yes or no questions, wh-questions can be used.

(160) *emšab be konsert be-rav-im*

tonight to concert Sbjn.go.2Pl

‘Shall we go to the concert tonight?’

(161) *šâm âmâde ast bi-y-âr-am*

dinner ready be.3Sg Sbjn.bring.1Sg

‘The dinner is ready. Shall I bring it?’

15. After impersonal sentences

A subjunctive present tense can be used after an impersonal sentence. Of course, some impersonal sentences can include an element of doubt which overlap the application 1.

(162) *xub ast kêr-i barây-e amu-y-e bimâr-at anjâm be-deh-i*

nice be.3Sg work.Ind for.Ez uncle.Ez sick.Pos.2Sg fulfillment Sbjn.do.2Sg

‘It is nice to do something for your sick uncle.’

(163) *vâjeb ast mosalmân ruz-i panj bâr namâz be-xân-ad*

religious duty be.3Sg Moslem day.Dem five times praying Sbjn.retrieve.3Sg

‘It is a religious duty for any Moslem to pray five times a day.’

(164) *barây-e salâmati-y-etân kêfî ast ruz-i nim sâ?at*

for-Ez health.Pos.2Pl adequate be.3Sg day.Dem half hour

varzeš kon-id

exercise (Sbjn).do.2Pl

‘To exercise half an hour per day is adequate for your health.’

16. After the verbs *â?dat kard-an* ‘to become accustomed to sth’, *â?dat dâšt-an* ‘to be accustomed to’, *farâmuš kard-an* ‘forget’, *tarsid-an* ‘fear, be afraid of something’

The subjunctive present tense can be used in subordinate clause after the verbs above.

(165) *â?dat kard-e-? ast sob-hâ be kuhpeymâyi be-rav-ad*

acustom do.Pstp be.3Sg morning.Pl to climbing Sbjn.go.3Sg

‘He/she has become accustomed to climbing a mountain every morning.’

(166) *farâmuš kard-im nâm-aš-râ be-pors-im*

forgotten do.Pst.1Pl name.Pos.3Sg.Om Sbjn.ask.1Pl

‘We forgot to ask his/her name.’

(167) *mi-tars-am bâz dir be kelâs be-ras-am*

Dur.fear.1Sg again late to class Sbjn.get.1Sg

‘I am afraid to be late for class again.’

17. The impersonal sentences of *nâgoft-e na-mând-an ke*, *na-goft-e na-mân-ad* ‘It should be said ...’, *pušid-e namân-ad ke*, *penhân na-mân-ad ke* ‘It should be uncovered (mentioned)...’

The verbal element of the compound verb is negative and in the third person singular. The compound verb always comes at the beginning of the sentence indicating a necessity or obligatory in saying or reporting something to the hearer.

(168) *pušid-e na-mân-ad ke man bâ u dar ertebât-e*

Pstp.cover Neg.leave.3Sg that I with s/he in contact.Ez

nazdik bud-im

close be.Pst.1Pl

‘It should be said that we were in close contact with him/her.’

18. In the relative clauses with the relative pronouns or conjunctions such as *harče*, *har ânče*, *har andâze*, *har ânčizi* ‘whatever’, *har gâh*, *har vaqt*, *har zamân*, *har lahze*, *har ân* ‘whenever’, *har jâ* ‘wherever’, *har ke*, *har kas* ‘whoever’

These relative pronouns or conjunctions are usually followed by the conjunction *ke* ‘that’. With such adverbs the present subjunctive verb can be used in the subordinate clause of a compound sentence with a present or future time references.

(169) *har jâ ke be-rav-ad bar-mi-gard-ad*

wherever Sbjn-go.3Sg Pfv.re.Dur.gar.Prs.3Sg

‘Wherever s/he goes, s/he will come back.’

4.2.2.1.2 Past Tense

4.2.2.1.2.1 Past Subjunctive

Gozašteye Eltezâmi, *Mâziye Eltezâmi* and *Mâziye Eltezâmi kâmel* are the technical terms have been used for the past subjunctive.

Structure: past participle + present subjunctive *bud-an* ‘to be’

âzmud-e bâš-am ‘(that)I might test.’ *âmad-e bâš-and* ‘They (that) might come.’

anduxt-e bâš-im ‘We(that) might save.’ *ândišid-e bâš-i* ‘You (that) might think.’

oftâd-e bâš-ad ‘He/she/It (that) might fall.’ *istâd-e bâš-id* ‘You (that) might stand.’

Negation: the negative prefix *na-* places before the past participle

na-xord-e bâš-and ‘They (that) might not eaten.’

Applications:

1. To refer to an action or state in the past about which there is an element of doubt

(170) *momken ast hanuz na-y-âmad-e bâš-and*

possible be.3Sg yet Neg.come.Pstp be.IrgPrs.3Sg

‘Maybe they have not come yet.’

(171) *motmaʔen nist-im kas-i be u komak kard-e bâš-ad*

sure Neg.be.1Pl person.Ind to s/he help do.Pstp be.IrgPrs.3Sg

‘We are not sure if somebody has helped him/her.’

1.1 To refer to an action presumed to have been already performed

(172) *sâʔat dah ast ehtemâlan rasid-e bâš-and*

O’clock ten is probably arrive.Pstp be.IrgPrs.3Sg

‘It is ten o’clock. They might have arrived now.’

2. Deduction

It is used after the modals *bâyad* or *bâyest* ‘should, ought to, must’, referring to past time.

(173) *bâyad bačče-hâ az madrese bar-gašt-e bâš-and*

must kid.Pl from school Pfv.re.turn.Pstp be.IrgPrs.3Pl

‘The kids must have come back home from school.’

3. Necessity

It is used after the modals *bâyad* or *bâyest* ‘should, ought to, must’, referring to past time.

(174) *emkân na-dâr-ad na-dân-and bâyâd âmuzeš did-e bâš-and*

possibility Neg.have.3Sg Neg.know.3Pl must training see.Pstp be.IrgPrs.3Pl

‘It is impossible they don’t know; They must have been trained.’

4. After *šâyad* ‘perhaps’, referring to past unless the action or state referred to is continuous or forms the apodosis of an impossible condition in the past

(175) *šâyad in film-râ did-e bâš-i*

perhaps this film.Om see.Pstp be.IrgPrs.2Sg

‘Perhaps you have seen this film.’

5. Obligation, necessity and deduction about the past after the past modal *mi-bâyes* ‘ought to have’

(176) *mi-bâyest muze-y-e melli-y-e irân-e bâstân-râ*

Dur.ought to have museum.EZ national.EZ Iran-Ez ancient.Om

did-e bâš-id

see.Pstp be.IrgPrs.2Pl

‘You ought to have visited the national museum of Old Iran.’

6. In the subordinate clauses of conditional sentences

(177) *čonânče zendân-i farâr kard-e bâš-ad ra?is-e*

in case prison.Attr escape do.Pst be.IrgPrs.3Sg head.Ez

zendân mas?ul ast

prison responsible be.3Sg

‘If the prisoner has escaped, the head of the prison will be responsible.’

7. After the verbs expressing hope, and wish about the past events and actions

(178) *omidvâr-am pâsox-e soʔâl-hâ-ye-tân-râ dâde bâš-am*

I hope answer-Ez question.Pl.Pos.2Pl.Om give.Pstp be.IrgPrs.1Sg

‘I hope that I (have) answered all your questions.’

8. After the adverbs *guyiyâ, guyâ, guyi, pendâri, mesle inke, mânand inke* ‘It seems that’, ‘as if’,

(179) *pendâri qâtel qorbâni-râ bâ dast-hâ-y-aš xafe kard-e bâš-ad*

as if murder victim.om with hand.Pl.Op.3Sg shut do.Pst. IrP.3Sg

‘It was as if murder choked to death his victim with his bare hands.’

9. After the adverb *magar, magar inke, ʒoz, ʒozânke, be ʒoz inke, ellâ, ellâ ânke, be estesnâye, qeyr az inke*, ‘unless, except that’

(180) *emkân na-dâr-ad zud-tar az mâ be ordugâh rasid-e*

possibility Neg.have.3Sg soon.Compr than us to camp reach.Pstp

bâš-and be ʒoz inke az darre raft-e bâš-and

be.IrgPrs.3Pl unless from valley pass.Pstp be.IrgPrs.3Pl

‘They couldn’t get to the camp sooner than us except that they passed through the valley.’

10. Instead of the present subjunctive after *ke* ‘that’ and *tâ* ‘until’ function as final conjunctions meaning ‘in order to’

(181) *goft-am ke dânest-e bâš-i*

tell.Pst.1Sg that know.Pstp be.IrgPrs.be.2Sg

‘I told it to let you know.’

11. As an imperative form in a few compound verbs with the verbal element *dâšt-an* ‘to have’

(182) *dar barâbar-e saxti-hâ tahammol dâšt-e bâš-id*

against.Ez problem.Pl tolerance have.Pstp be.IrgPrs.be.2Pl

‘Be tolerant of the problem.’

12. With the verb *dâšt-an* ‘to have, to posses’ in the preset and future reference

As it already mentioned (cf. 4.2.2.1.1.1 Present Subjunctive), the verb ‘*dâšt-an*’ ‘to have, to posses’ has no present subjunctive form. Instead, the past subjunctive construction is used while it refers to the present and future time. Therefore, the subjunctive mood for the verb *dâšt-an* ‘to have, to posses’ can be used with the concepts such as doubt, hope, wish, desire, praying, request, condition (in the subordinate clause of a conditional sentence), recommendation, obligation, deduction, necessity (with the modals *bâyad*, *bâyest* ‘should, have to, ought to, must, need’.

(183) *barây-e anjâm-e in kâr bâ-yad vaqt-e kâfi dâšt-e*
for.Ez accomplishment-Ez that job you time.Ez enough have.Pstp
bâš-i
be.IrgPrs.2Sg
‘You must have enough time to accomplish such a thing.’

4.2.3 Imperative Mood

The imperative mood refers to the preset or future time depending on the context.

The grammarians and linguists have different views about the number of Imperative conjugations. For example, Qarib et al. (1949), Mashkoor (1959), Shafâei (1984), Meshkatoddini (1987) Mahootian (1997), Vahidian & Emrani (2000) argued about only two conjugations in the imperative. Mace (2003) considered two colloquial constructions, in addition to the two main forms for the imperative tense. He just gave a few examples in the second singular and plural persons as the main forms and the two colloquial forms in the first and third plural persons. Khatib Rahbar (1988), Anvari & Givi (2003), Farshidvard (2003) remarked about six conjugations. This research will propose four

conjugations by giving examples of sentences in the imperative mood of modern standard Persian.

Structure: The imperative prefix *be-/bo-/bi-* + the present stem + personal endings

The imperative prefix *bo-* is used for the verbs which /o/ is the vowel of the present stem. For example, the imperative prefix of the verbs like *raft-an* ‘to go’, *xord-an* ‘to eat’, *kard-an* ‘to do’ is *bo-* because the present stem of them are *ro*, *xor*, and *kon* respectively. There is a slight phonemic change for the verbs which begin with the vowel /â /; in these verbs, the prefix /bi-/ appears at the beginning of the present stem like *bi-y-â* ‘come.’, *bi-y-âvar* ‘Bring.’ It should also be noted that there is no personal ending for the imperative second person singular. Except for the second singular conjugation, the other conjugations are similar to those of the subjunctive present tense.

The six conjugations in the imperative structure for the verb *raft-an* ‘to go’ are as follows:

<i>be-rav-am</i> ‘I should go.’	<i>be-rav-im</i> ‘We should go.’
<i>bo-ro</i> ‘Go (singular)’	<i>be-rav-id</i> ‘Go (plural)’
<i>be-rav-ad</i> ‘He/she should go.’	<i>be-rav-and</i> ‘They should go.’

In Persian, the imperative conjugations for the third singular and plural persons are named *amr-e-qâyeḅ* ‘absent imperative’. Although the item is called ‘absent imperative’, but it does not mean that the hearer or addressee is not present at all. The second kind of imperative can be used when the speaker does not address directly or does not know the addressee distinctly. This kind of imperative is also used less than the first one. For example, it is normal that the following sentences are said by a teacher in the classroom or by an army captain in a garrison.

(184) *mohammadi bi-y-â-y-ad pây-e taxte siyâ*

Mohammadi Imp.come.Prs.3Sg foot-Ez board black

‘Mr mohammadi must come to the blackboard.’

(185) *bâbak o parviz mahvate-râ tamiz kon-and*

Babak and Parviz field.Om clean do.Prs.3Pl

‘Babak and Parviz must clean the field.’

Negation: The negative prefix *na-* precedes the present stem

na-ro ‘Do not go (singular).’ *na-rav-id* ‘Do not go (plural).’

na-y-â ‘Do not come (singular).’ *na-y-â-y-id* ‘Do not come (plural).’

Exceptions in the structure:

a) The Imperative in compound verbs can be used with or without the imperative prefix

be-/bo-. For example:

(186) *zud-tar kâr-etân-râ tamâm (be)-kon-id*

fast.Comp work.Pos.2Pl finish Imp.do.2Pl

‘Finish your work faster.’

(187) *az inĵâ boland šo*

from here up get.Imp.2Sg

‘Get up from here.’

However, the imperative prefix is usually omitted in verbs, which includes verbal prefixes:

(188) *bar-gard*

Pfv.re.turn.Imp.2Sg

‘Come back!’

(189) *dar-ro*

Pfv.away.go.Imp.2Sg

‘Run away!’

b) The imperative conjugations of the verb *dâšt-an* ‘to have, to possess’ are similar to the subjunctive present ones but in the second singular person in which the personal

ending *-i* is dropped. The pattern is as follows:

Past participle + subjunctive present *dâšt-an* ‘to have’

(190) *dâšt-e bâš*

have.Pstp be.IrgPrs.2Sg

‘Have, keep (singular).’

(191) *dâšt-e bâš-ad*

have.Pstp be.IrgPrs.3Sg

‘He/she/it should have, keep.’

Applications:

1. To express order or command in the present and future time

(192) *lotfan in name-râ barâ-y-am be-xân*

please this letter.Om for.Pos.1Sg Imp.read.2Sg

‘Please read this letter for me.’

2. For advice and recommendation

(193) *hargâh birun mi-rav-id dar-râ qofl kon-id*

whenever out Dur.go.2Pl door.Om lock Imp.do.2Pl

‘Lock the door whenever you go out.’

(194) *be peymân-etân vafâ-dâr be-mân-id*

to covenant.Pos.2Pl faithful Imp.remain.2Pl

‘Remain faithful to your covenants.’

3. For request and plea

(195) *be xâter-e xodâ be mâ komak kon-id*

for sake-Ez God to we help do.1Pl

‘For God’s sake, help us.’

(196) *lotf kon-id inĵa na-ist-id*

favour do.2Pl here Neg.stand.2Pl

‘Please do not stand here.’

4. For encouragement and persuasion

(197) *sar-e vaqt inĵâ bâš-id mi-xâh-am honar-mand-e*

on-Ez time here be.IrgPrs.2Pl Dur.want.1Sg artist.Ez

maʔruf-i-râ be šomâ moʔarrefi kon-am

famous.Dem.Om to you.PL introduction do.1Sg

‘Be here on time! I want to introduce a famous artist to you.’

5. For offer and invitation

(198) *be-farmâ-y-id tu*

Imp.bid.2Pl inside

‘Come in, please.’

(199) *širini meyl kon-id*

confectionary inclination (Imp).do.2Pl

‘Have a confectionary, please.’

6. For prayer

(200) *parvardgâr-â be man niru be-de*

God.Vocm to I strength Imp.give.2Sg

‘God! Give me strength.’

CHAPTER 5

TENSE AND MOOD IN ENGLISH

5.0 Introduction

The current chapter and the previous one are concerned with the description part of the contrastive study. Therefore, this chapter will provide a description of tense and mood in the English language by focusing on the structure and practical grammar usage of tenses and moods. For each application or use of a tense, three examples are provided.

5.1 Tense in English

Hirtle (2007) emphasized the category of tense as the common denominator for any description of the verb. Nevertheless, he mentioned there is little agreement among grammarians with regard to English verb tenses. As Klammer et al. (1995) asserted the first job in studying grammatical analysis is that the researcher should learn how forms are categorized. Thus, investigator will be able to classify new constructions and form which might be encountered. Concerning the tenses, some grammarians and linguists believe there are two kinds of tenses in English: present and past.

Jespersen, (1933) said, “The English verb has only two tenses proper, the present and the preterit” (p.231). H. Palmer, (1969) believed in two tenses regarding the time reference of English tenses. “Strictly speaking, English has only two tenses to cover the past-present- future time continuum” (p. 176). Greenbaum (1996) affirmed that there are two tense categories of present and past in English that are indicated by the forms of the verb. In his view, for distinctions in time the verb phrases and auxiliary forms (for referring to future time) are used.

Some linguists like Zandvoort (1969), K. Allen (2006), made distinction between tenses and aspects in English. The problem is that tense and grammatical aspect has internal relation and they cannot be inseparable completely. Dahl (1985) noted, “The distinction between tenses and aspects is by no means clear, although everyone knows what the typical cases are like” (p.25).

Hornstein (1993) in his “neo-Reichenbachian” analysis of tense identified six basic tenses in English. The structures of which are given as following:

“S, R, E present, E, R–S past, S–R, E future, E–S, R present perfect,
E–R–S past perfect, S–E–R future perfect.

[E= event time] , [S= moment of speech] , [R= relationship between E & E] ” (p. 15).

Enç (1987) rightly pointed out “Tense is usually said to be indexical, in that the truth of a tensed sentences is relative to the speech time (that is, to the context of utterances)” (p.642). In Kilby’s opinion (1984), “Tense is a category which primarily involves the time of the event or state specified by the verb relative to the moment of utterance” (p. 15). He did not include future tense for English. “It is sometimes assumed that English has three tenses– past, present and future – but in fact there are only two relevant formal distinctions in English” (p. 16)

Cowper (2003) in the feature-geometric approach, in contrast with theories based on Reichenbach’s formula, argued the narrow tense system of English is not complicated. In this approach, the tense system consists [\pm past] plus Precedence as implanted with monovalent feature. By Precedence, she meant the finite past marker (often called *–ed*), and the past participle suffix (usually called *–en*). Sometimes present and past tenses are called non-past and non-present tenses. “It is fashionable now to recognize by two tenses

in modern English: a present and a past, or a non-present in quaint new-grammar terminology” (Long, 1966, p.103). As Kilby (1984) mentioned about tense forms “They behave in rather different ways when they are describing events which happened or are expected to happen at some specific time” (p. 16). He believed that aspect forms, perfective and imperfective, could be included as tense systems. Because in the perfective aspect, the normal use will presumably refer to the past event which have occurred, and similarly, in the imperfective aspect, the normal use will be to refer to events, which is in progress. Regarding the correlation and differentiation of tense and aspect, he maintained that,

“The grammatical category of aspect is to be distinguished from tense, in that tense is most obviously an expression of time relative to the time of utterance, whereas aspect expresses the various phases associated with an action or state (or whatever else is expressed by the verb). It is clear that the distinction between progressive forms and simple forms in English (which we shall consider in the next section) is a distinction of aspect, while the distinction of present perfect and simple past is rather more difficult to pin down in terms of such a distinction” (Kilby, 1984, p. 26).

Celce-Murcia et al. (1999) discussed an instructional language learning strategy by English teachers that it is not enough to tell students which there is no future tense in English. Besides, he asserted, “Over the years, the important distinction between tense and aspect has become blurred. Instead, English has been said to have 12 tenses” (p. 111). The twelve tenses in English are actually combinations of tense, perfective, and imperfective aspects. Therefore, some tenses have the combined names of perfect and progressive. According to Palmer (1974), tense in English has three distinct functions, “First to mark purely temporal relations of past and present time, secondly in the sequence of tenses that is mainly relevant for reported speech and thirdly to mark “unreality”, particularly in conditional clauses and wishes” (p.43). AbdulFattah (2011) also clarified “The English tense marks three major functions, viz., temporal relationships, back-

shifting, and tentativeness. The third function is closely related to modal verbs and modality” (p. 39).

Yule (1998) argued there are two tenses of past and present and two aspects of perfect and progressive which are marked in different verb forms of English. According to him, with respect to “situation of utterance, past tense means “remote” and present tense means “non-remote”. In Yule’s point of view, in the image of stream of time from the past to the future is not the basis of grammatical category of tense. Instead, he proposed the “time of utterance’. “Perhaps a better image would have the time of utterance (speaker’s now) at the center and other referenced situations being viewed as extending in different dimensions of time or possibility away from the center” (Yule, 1998, p. 61).

Sweet (1900) said, “By tense-aspect we understand distinctions of time independent of any reference to past, present or future” (as cited in Korrel, 1991, p. 19). Roberts (1954) asserted that it was oversimplification that Modern English has six tenses in accordance with what is universally recorded in grammar books. “Looked at one way, the language has more; looked at another, it has fewer. But the simplification is convenient and useful, provided that we mind how we use it” (p. 135). In accordance with Willis (1950), aspect is so closely connected with tense that two can be considered together. “Tense is the denotation in a verb form of time of occurrence; and since, simply put, time seems to divide naturally into past, present, and future, three simple tenses might seem sufficient for a language” (p. 161). Likewise, Greenbaum (1996) asserted that aspect is always combined with tense. In addition, Leech & Svartvik, (2003) affirmed, “The present and past tenses can form combinations with the progressive and perfective aspects” (p. 306).

“It is almost universally recorded in grammar books that Modern English has six tenses – past, present, future, past perfect, present perfect, and future perfect. This is an oversimplification. Regarding perfect and imperfect tenses, “There may be other alternative solutions. Leech, 2004, for instance, refers to the ‘present tense’ in English as being ‘psychologically present’ (Kilby, 1984, p.25). Some linguists such as Zandvoort (1969) accounted on progressive forms as verb tenses.

5.2 Mood in English

In linguistics, mood is speaker or writer’s attitude toward what s/he is saying or writing whether his or her aim is, for example, to declare something as a fact or real event; or to state of a desire or an unreal event; or to direct of a command or an order. In English, there is controversy about the number of tenses and moods and their classification in the verb system, too. For example, some grammarians denied the existence mood in English while some grammarians in accordance with Hirtle (2007) proposed “twenty-two distinct systems of moods” (p.12).

Two main reasons can be counted for the diversity of ideas about English tenses and moods: First, English grammar has been influenced by Latin grammatical rules in terms of tense and mood. It is inevitable that English grammarians, particularly the traditional ones, have a look to Latin and its form and meaning in regard to the various grammatical categories of tense and mood. Secondly, English grammarians and linguists have had their own views in definition of the technical terms and approaches in describing the language, as well. In many cases, they have tried to introduce new grammatical terms corresponding to that of Latin equivalences in their books and papers.

Jespersen (1933) maintained that English verb has three moods: Indicative, Subjunctive and Imperative. According to him, “The infinitive and the participles, which are often reckoned among the moods, stand apart and form categories of their own. But the three moods above mentioned are not kept distinct in English in the same clear way as in many other languages” (p. 293). What Jespersen (1933) meant by saying these three English moods are not distinguishable as clear as in many other languages is in terms of form. Because for instance the present indicative mood of a verb –except the third person singular– and the present subjunctive and the imperative mood of the verb have the same form. This will be discussed in detail in next section. (cf. 5.2.2 Subjunctive Mood).

Willis (1950) defined mood as a grammatical term to convey the speaker’s attitude toward a subject or understating of the factuality, possibility, desirability of the action or condition expressed. He mentioned indicative, subjunctive and imperative moods as three standard moods in English. However, Willis (1950) remarked, “Finite verbs in dependent clause as well as those in independent clause have mood. And some nonfinite are in the infinitive mood” (p.160). Roberts (1954) believed that distinguishing the notion and formal features of mood is the most difficult and important among grammatical categories in the study of a grammar language. “Notionally, mood is the attitude we have toward the content of our sentences. For example, we may consider a proposition as something true, something untrue, something to be done, something doubtful, etc. Formally, mood is the set of linguistic forms used to express these attitudes” (Roberts, 1954, p. 160). Roberts argued if mood is to denote meaning, as some grammarians and linguists have said it, there are three main moods: a) matters of fact as indicative mood; b) commands as imperative mood; c) matters of unreality as subjunctive mood (p.60). He then again maintained if we focus just on meaning, and do not pay attention to form, we will find little relation between mood and the grammar and the investigation of mood will be

appropriate pure philosophic speculation. Roberts (1954) noted that many other moods can be included if the meaning should be considered as the only criteria of the classification of the mood in English. “Furthermore, if we adopt meaning as the basis of mood, there is no reason to stop with three moods. We might recognize an optative (‘I wish you were here’), a permissive (‘You may have another lamb chop’), and many others” (p. 161). He said that “as the mood denotes meaning, not form, there are three main categories of meaning: (1) matters of fact (indicative mood); (2) commands (imperative mood); (3) matters of unreality (subjunctive mood)” (p.160).

Hirtle (1967) mentioned the three English moods as the quasi-nominal, the subjunctive and the indicative. In his view, tense and person as the two aspects of a verb can be found in every mood. Hence, he included the infinitive, the present participle and the past participle as three tenses of quasi-nominal. “The quasi-nominal mood has three tenses: the infinitive, which presents an event whose whole development is seen in the offing, as event time which has not yet reached the point in universe time when it is to be actualized; the present participle, which presents a partly developed event, one split between the ‘not yet’ (time not yet actualized and the ‘already’ (time already actualized); and the past participle whose event is over, seen in retrospect event time has already existed” (Hirtle, 1967, p. 17).

Huddleston (1984) stated that the grammatical category of mood is used for an inflectional system of the verb and the various moods are contrasted semantically involving factuality vs. non-factuality, assertions vs. non-assertions, and main clauses vs. subordinate clause (p. 80). He adapted the traditional terms of moods with the above definition. “The traditional inflectional system indicative vs. imperative vs. subjunctive clearly falls under this definition, with indicative, the unmarked term, the one used in

factual assertions” (p.164). Kirkwood (1985) encompassed the ‘modality’ in illustrating the concept of mood. According to him, mood consists of two parts of the ‘subject’ and the ‘finite element’. By the ‘finite element’ as a part of verbal group in a sentence, he meant “one of a small number of verbal operators expressing tense (e.g. *is*, *has*) or modality (e.g. *can*, *must*)”. (p. 72). Then he in respect to the alteration of two grammatical categories of mood and modal affirmed, “Subject and finite are closely linked together, and combine to form one constituent which we call the mood. The mood is the element that realize the selection of mood in the clause. It has sometimes been called the ‘modal’ element; but the difficulty with this is that the term *modal* is ambiguous, since it corresponds both to mood and modality” (p. 74).

Dahl (1985) classified mood into *indicative* and *non-indicative*. The indicative mood “is always the more ‘real’ or ‘asserted’ member of the opposition” (p.26). He believed that it is difficult to find a good illustrative instance of mood in English because it is not represented clearly. Hence, he tried the opposition between real or asserted *indicative*, non-asserted, and non-factual *subjunctive conditional* constructions (p.25). In accordance with the definition which was given by Dahl, “Traditionally, moods are said to express the speaker’s attitude to a proposition or to its truth-value. A better account for most cases of moods, however, is to say that they are grammatical way of indicating that the proposition is embedded into a modal or non-assertive context” (p. 26).

Sweet (1900) defined the mood of a verb as “grammatical forms expressing different relations between subject and predicate” and he classified moods as: a) inflectional moods: indicate, subjunctive, b) auxiliary moods: conditional, permissive, compulsive, c) tense moods: preterit, d) imperative mood (p.108). Greenbaum (1996) said three moods are distinguished for English: indicative, subjunctive and imperative (p. 80). According

to him, modality is sometimes used to include mood and can also be expressed by non-auxiliaries like nouns, main verbs, adjectives and adverbs (p.81). Palmer (2001) typically categorized all or most clauses into *Realis* and *Irrealis* in a binary system. In his opinion, the two contrasted clauses of the indicative versus the subjunctive clauses in European languages can be marked as realis versus. irrealis clauses. In such a contrast between realis and irrealis in a basic or prototypic binary, he knew *Imperative* and *Jussive* as exceptions are outside the indicative/subjunctive system of mood. Besides, concerning the syntactic markness of realis and irrealis, some clauses may be unmarked. In accordance with Bolinger (1968), Terrell and Hooper (1974), Hooper (1975) and Klein (1975) “It has been argued that the use of the distinction between Realis and Irrealis, can be accounted for in terms of ‘assertion’ and ‘non-assertion’ (as cited in Palmer 2001, p. 3). In Palmer’s distinction (2001) in terms of being realis and irrealis, the imperative is unmarked and is not notionally assertive but directive and it is best discussed together with deontic modality. In addition, “the Declarative with no modal verb is Realis and the modal forms are Irrealis” (p.65). On the other hand, according to him, the overall modality can be distinguished in terms of (i) modal systems and (ii) mood.

Depraetere & Reed (2006) commented there are three inflectional moods: the indicative, the subjunctive, the imperative, and the meanings which can be communicated from them are respectively appropriate by the labels that Jespersen (1958) used: ‘fact mood’, ‘thought mood’ and ‘will mood’. Moreover, in accordance with Allan (2006), “The western classical tradition in linguistics identifies three moods: indicative, subjunctive, imperative which partially correspond to clause types” (p.497).

5.2.1 Indicative Mood

The indicative mood is the most common among moods and it used to indicate and express facts, declarations, opinions, remarks or to make inquiries. Jespersen, (1933) stated, “The indicative is used in all ordinary statements and questions. From simple matter-of-fact sentences it has been extended to many sentences in which formerly the subjunctive was used, so that now it is the normal mood of English verbs” (p. 293). Willis (1950) believed that the six divisions of the indicative mood, which sometimes are called the ‘regular’ tenses, make the basic conjugation of English verbs. These tenses include present tense, past tense, future tense, present perfect tense, past perfect tense, and future perfect tense.

“The indicative mood expresses the null relation to modality, being modal, but the other moods realize modal meaning proper in special forms” (Khlebnikova, 1976, p.4). According to Huddleston (1984), “Indicative (the unmarked term in the system) is used for a distinct inflectional verb form that is the one characteristically used in factual assertions (e.g. *He takes the bus to work*) (p.78). He discussed that only indicative forms can appear as the first or only verb in kernel clauses. “Similarly interrogatives (normally), exclamatives, and subordinate clauses introduced by conjunctions like *because, since, before, after*, require indicatives as the first verb: *Who takes sugar?*, *What a long time he took!* , *[I’ll help myself] before she takes them away*” (p.80). Kirkwood (1985) discussed that an independent major can be indicative and an indicative is either declarative or interrogative. In interrogative indicative, it could be a polar interrogative, what is called *yes/no question* or a content interrogative, which is well- known as *wh-question*. In an indicative mood, the order of parts of speech subject and finite verb in the sentence is important: Concerning the word order in indicative mood, Kirkwood (1985) noted the following points:

- (a) The order subject before finite realizes ‘declarative’;
- (b) The order finite before subject realizes ‘yes/no interrogative’;
- (c) In a ‘WH-interrogative’ the order is:
 - (i) Subject before finite if the WH-element is the subject;
 - (ii) Finite before subject otherwise” (p. 74).

5.2.1.1 Indicative Mood and the Tenses

Twelve English tenses can be of the indicative mood: four present tenses, four past tenses and four future tenses.

5.2.1.1.1 Present Tenses

5.2.1.1.1.1 Simple Present Tense

Zandvoort (1969) believed that the use of simple present in English is more restricted than in other languages. Because “actual duration, which may be implicit in the simple tense-form in other languages, is expressed by the progressive in English” (p. 58).

Structure: verb + *-s/-es* in the third person

Applications:

1. For habitual and iterative actions

Here, by ‘habit’ it means a sequence of events. Therefore, “like the instantaneous use, confined to ‘event verb’” (Leech, 2004, p. 5). Besides, “the iterative present refers to an action repeated at intervals” (Zandvoort, 1969, p. 59) and “like the neutral present, it is often used in general statements” (p.59).

[1] “Tim works in an insurance company.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 356)

On other occasions, an adverbial expression of frequency reinforces the notion of repetition:

[2] “I generally/ often/ sometimes buy shirts at Harrods.” (Leech, 2004, p. 6)

Sometimes a grammatical indicator such as the plural marker for object in a sentence can help to make a distinction between habitual meaning and instantaneous interpretation.

[3] “He scores a goal.” (Instantaneous use)

[4] “He scores goals.” (Habitual use) (Leech, 2004, p. 5)

In many cases, the sentences with habitual and iterative concept are similar to the sentences which indicate general truths or eternal truths. Leech (2004) stated, “The habitual resembles the unrestrictive present in its suitability for ‘eternal truths’ of a scientific or proverbial nature” (p. 5). For examples:

[5] “Whenever ammonia is added, the color changes to orange.” (Leech, 2004, p. 5)

[6] “He who hesitates is lost.” (Leech, 2004, p. 5)

Palmer (1974) believed that “there is no very distinction between ‘timeless’ truths and statements of habitual activity– the distinction is not a linguistic one’ (p. 64). However, he maintained that it might be feasible to find distinctive features between habitual, iterative activities, inductively known facts and general truths.

2. For inductively known facts

For this function, the grammarians used more or less different names. Among them, Jespersen (1933), Leech (2004), used the term ‘eternal truths’, Zandvoort (1969) mentioned ‘neutral present’, Leech & Svartvik (2003) and Celce-Murcia et al. (1999) said ‘general truths’, Palmer (1974) referred them as ‘inductively known facts’ and ‘general truths’, Quirk et al. (1985) noted ‘state present’ including ‘eternal truths’, ‘timeless present’, or ‘restricted time span of the state’ while their knowledge of the ‘time span of the state’ is to a greater or lesser degree restricted.

Zandvoort (1969) believed that “the neutral present is used when no particular time is thought of; hence (but not exclusively) in general statements” (p. 59). Leech (2004) commented that ‘eternal truths’ is found in scientific fields like mathematics and geography and also statements which made it ‘for all time’. Thus, the proverbs have this property. The first part of the *state present* represented by Quirk et al. (1985), included

general timeless statement or ‘eternal truths’. According to them, scientific statements such as mathematical statement represent the extreme of temporal universality, likewise geographical statements are ‘timeless present’ or in terms of Leech (2004) ‘without time limit’. Celce-Murcia et al. (1999) used the term ‘general truths’ for the physical laws and customs. Palmer (1974) used the term ‘inductively known facts’. He believed that the habitual and iterative can be distinguished from the ‘general truths’ or ‘inductively known facts’. In accordance with him, in habitual and iterative sentences a regular collocation with adverbial such as *every day* can add as a distinguishing feature. Nonetheless, in the sentences ‘inductively known facts’, the verb can be replaced with *will* + base form.

2.1 Scientific statements

2.1.1 Mathematics, physics, biology, ...

[7] “Plants grow in rich soil.” (DeCapua, 2008, p. 46)

2.2 Geographical statement

[8] “The Thames rises in Gloucestershire.” (Zandvoort, 1969 p. 59)

3. Non-progressive verbs

These verbs are used instead of present progressive verb. Nonetheless, there are some exceptions because of different meanings. (cf. 5.2.1.1.1.2 Present Progressive).

[9] “They live next door to me.” (Yule, 1998, p. 263)

Leech (2004) argued that adding an adverbial expression in order to limit the duration of stative verbs can help in underlining the ‘presentness’ of the period in question.

[10] “At present, we live in London.” (Leech, 2004, p. 2)

3.1 Verbs of perception

The verbs such as *feel, hear, see, smell, taste, look, sound, seem, appear* are accounted as perception verbs. These verbs are most often used with the first person subjects. However, the other subjects may occur.

3.1.1 Feel

Feel as verb of perception denotes to external sensation.

[11] “I feel something hard.” (Palmer, 1974, p. 71)

3.1.2 Look, sound, appear, seem

[12] “The man looks happy but the woman doesn’t look happy.” (Cowan, 2008, p. 610)

There will combine with appear, chance happen prove and seem + to be and to have been; Sometimes the simple present verbs *appear*, *seem* are combined with *there* as dummy subject and part of the verb *be* which is followed by a noun phrase in the sentence.

[13] “There seems to have been some sort of interruption.” (Aarts, 2011, p. 327)

3.1.3 Smell

According to Thomson & Martinet (1986), *smell* in the meaning of ‘perceive a scent/an odor’ or as a link verb can be used in the simple present.

[14] “I smell something burning.” (Palmer, 1974, p. 71)

The perception verbs such as smell in the simple present tense can be followed by the auxiliary modal *can*.

[15] “I can smell onions.” (Leech et al., 2001, p. 382)

3.1.4 Taste

[16] “The hamburgers *taste* good.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 74)

3.1.5 See

[17] “I see an airplane.” (Zandvoort, 1969. p. 60)

Leech (2004) commented that the verb *see* in such sentences have instantaneous meaning. Nevertheless, the use of instantaneous form is quite uncommon and melodramatic. Besides, for unrestrictive use of the present, the construction verb with *can* is more common. In his sample sentence, ‘*I see a bird!*’ With the simple present, instead of instantaneous use, he interpreted it as ‘*I catch sight of a bird*’.

3.1.6 Hear

[18] “You just leave him alone, do you hear?” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 524)

3.2 Verbs of cognition

The verbs believe, forget, hope, imagine, know, suppose, understand, attitudinal verbs such as *like*, *love*, *hate*, and *prefer* etc, like the verbs of perception above, are passive in meaning. The simple present in this case refers to a mental state, and so belongs to the category ‘unrestrictive present’, even though a limitation on the duration of the state may be implied. This kind of verbs are frequently followed a noun clause.

[19] “You know nothing.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 255)

According to Thomson & Martinet (1986) and Leech (2004), ‘feel’ can be a verb of cognition whenever it means ‘think’ and used for expression of ‘a feeling or opinion’.

[20] “I feel you are wrong. (think)” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 155)

3.3 Affection verbs

Affection verbs usually occur in the simple form.

[21] “I hate friends leaving early.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1206)

3.4 Volition or desideration verbs (want, hope, *desire*, *intend*, *wish*,

[22] “I hope to be hearing from him soon.” (Joos, 1964, p. 117)

3.5 “State verbs of having and being (*be*, *belong to*, *contain*, *consist of*, *cost*, *depend on*, *deserve*, *have*, *matter*, *own*, *resemble*, etc)” (Leech, 2004, p. 21).

[23] “None but the brave deserves the fair.” (Jespersen, 1933, p. 238)

3.6 Verbs of bodily sensation (*ache*, *feel*, *hurt*, *itch*, *tingle*, etc.)

The verbs like *ache*, *hurt*, *itch*, and *tingle* or in terms of Swan (2005) “verbs that refer to physical feelings” can be used in both present progressive and simple present without change of meaning. The difference should be noted between *feel* as perception verb denoting external sensation and *feel* as verb of bodily sensation or internal sensation.

[24] “My knee hurts = My knee is hurting. (Swan, 2005, p.455)

4. For fixed events

All applications for fixed events refer to the future.

4.1 Timetable

The simple present form is used here is a marked future. There are two differences between two constructions simple present and present progressive for timetable and itinerary.

Firstly, by using a progressive verb form, the present plan may conceivably be altered later, while with a simple present verb in the sentence “changing the plan is out of question” (Leech, 2004, p. 61)

Secondly, the present progressive form usually assumes (not necessarily) that arrangement have been made by the subject of the sentence. “But with the simple present, arrangement is felt to be an impersonal or collective one-made, for example, by a committee a court of law, or some un-named authority” (Leech, 2004, p. 61)

[25] “School finishes on 21 March.” (Quirk et al.1985, p. 216)

4.1.1 Itineraries

[26] “I go to Wyoming next summer.” (Roberts, 1954, p. 138)

4.2 Directions

[27] “From here you cross the road, go through on iron gate and follow the path west.” (Foley & Hall, 2003, p. 46)

4.2.1 Cross reference

It is used to refer to later parts of a book. Leech (2004) remarked that there is a free variation between present and future. That is, a simple future form can be used for cross-reference to a later part of a book.

[28] “We return/shall return to this topic in the next chapter.” (Leech, 2004, p.8)

4.3 Instructions

[29] “What do we say if they ask why?” (Yule, 1998, p. 187)

5. In subordinate clause

5.1 In adverbial time clause

Some of the conjunctions which go with adverbial time clause are: *after, as, before, once, until, when, as soon as, as long as*

[30] “We’ll have chicken and dumplings when she comes.” (Roberts, 1954, p. 138)

5.2 In conditional clause

According to Quirk et al. (1985), “In dependent clauses, the future use of the simple present is much more common, particularly in conditional and temporal clauses. (p. 182).

[31] “If you smile, you will feel happy.” (Aarts, 2011, p. 56)

Leech (2004) maintained that some present tense verbs in subordinate clauses may make ambiguity in time reference. For example, “in the sentence *If you love me, we shall be happy*, the *if*-clause can mean either ‘love me now’ or ‘love me in the future’. (p. 60)

5.3 In *that* clause following the verbs such as *hope, assume, suppose*

This construction refers to the future.

[32] “I hope the train isn’t late.” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 72)

6. To express hope when the verb followed *if only*

[33] “If only he comes in time= we hope he will come in time.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 204)

7. Historic present / Dramatic present

Historic present and dramatic present is used for narration of story or drama.

[34] “So he stands up in the boat and waves his arms to catch our attention.” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 113)

7.1 Summaries

The simple present is usually used in synopses such as reviews of books, movies.

[35] “Kate Fox’s novel is an historical romance set in London in the 1880’s. The action takes place over a period of 30 years.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 177)

7.1.1 Historical summaries, table of dates

[36] “1876– Brahms finishes his first symphony.” (Leech, 2004, p.8)]

7.1.2 Photo caption

[37] “Father O’Brien gives his first blessing.” (Leech, 2004, p.8)

7.1.3 Stage directions

[38] “John enters through the window.” (Palmer, 1974, p. 61)

7.1.4 Installments of serial stories

Installments of serial stories (whether on the radio, or on television, or in popular magazines) until recently used to begin with recapitulations of previous installments in the present tense.

[39] “He enters the room, seizes the burning object, and flings it out of the window. The next moment ...’No,’ he says, ‘I don’t think I can help you.” (Zandvoort, 1969 p.60)

7.1.4.1 Chapter heading

Leech (2004) remarked that this convention may be adopted by novelists such as Smollett and Dickens who gave chapter summaries in the simple present tense instead of simple chapter titles.

[40] “Chapter XXI. Madame Mantalini Finds Herself in a Situation of some Difficulty, and Miss Nickleby Finds Herself in no Situation at all.” (Leech, 2004, p. 13)

7. 2 With verbs of communication

The verbs of communication like *tell*, *say*, *speak*, *advise*, *warn*, *write*, *hear*, *see*, *gather*, *understand*, and *learn* in the following sentences refer to the initiation of a message in the past and “refer to the receptive end of the communication process” (Quirk et al.1985, p. 181) while “the message is still valid” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 258). The verbs *see* and *hear* here have developed meaning. They mean, “know, as a result of seeing or hearing” (Roberts, 1954, P. 138).

It is expected to use appropriate simple past or present perfect tenses in the sentences instead of the simple present. “However it appears that the verbal meaning has been transferred from the initiating end to the receiving end of the message” (Leech, 2004, p. 7). Furthermore, in agreement with Thomson & Martinet (1986), it is used chiefly with the verb *say* whereas it is asked or quoted “from books, notices or every recently received letter” (p. 160). Leech & Svartvik (2003) pointed out that the informal use of the verb *tell* can be replaced to the passive formal constriction *am/are informed*. For examples, two following sentences:

[41] “They tell me you have changed your job.” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 69)

[42] “I gather you’re worried about Ken.” (Hewings, 2008, p. 4)

[43] “Tresa: I hear your wife is sick.” (Cowan, 2008, p. 70)

[44] “They say she’s going to recover.” (Givón, 1993, p. 134)

Leech (2004) argued that the sentence ‘*what do you do?*’ has no instantaneous present time reference in comparing with ‘*what are you doing?*.’ “This is presumably because by the time an instantaneous action has been noted and queried it is already in the past, whereas the progressive allows for a time lag” (p. 3).

8. Instantaneous

As Leech (2004) rightly remarked in most of the cases, the event does not happen exactly instantaneously while it is mentioned. In other words, “it is subjective rather than objective simultaneity that is conveyed” (p. 3).

8.1 Commentaries

Commentaries are often used at sport events and public functions by radio or TV commentators.

[45] “Gilbert passes the ball to Jones.” (Leech et al., 2001, p. 427)

8.2 Demonstrations and other self-commentaries

Demonstrations and self-commentaries occurred in the patter or commentary of

conjurers, instruction of a cookery demonstrator and in some fixed phrases in formal letter writing as well.

[46] “(Conjurer) I place the rabbit in the box and close the lid.” (Palmer, 1974, p. 61)

[47] “I enclose (herewith) a form of application.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 180)

8.3 Speech acts (performative verbs)

[48] “I beg your pardon, apologize.” (Leech et al., 2001, p. 427)

In accordance with Leech (2004), a distinction should be made between the declarative acts and the expression of wish and condolences. There are two criteria for the speech acts: “(1) that they are almost invariably in the first person, and (2) that they permit the insertion of hereby in front of the verb (p. 4).

8.4 Special exclamatory sentences with initial adverbials

It seems to be abnormal to use the simple present verb form as a ‘marked’ alternative to the simple present progressive. “Because there are few circumstances in which it is reasonable to regard an action as begun and completed at the very moment of speech” (Leech, 2004, p. 3).

[49] “And here comes the Northern line.” (Aarts, 2011, p. 246)

9. In newspaper headlines

The simple present in newspaper headlines is preferred to the past or perfect because of two reasons: the brevity and more dramatic quality

[50] “Mass murderer escapes.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 160)

10. Changelessness

According to Palmer (1974), it is used with “the notion of total commitment by the speaker—refusal to accept any other possibility, a firm threat to act” (p. 66).

[51] “Either she leaves or I leave.

[52] If he does that again, he goes to prison.” (Palmer, 1974, p. 66)

5.2.1.1.1.2 Present Progressive

Structure: *am/is/are* + present participle

Applications:

1. For activity in progress over a limited period of time

In the comparison with the simple present tense, the aspect of progressive means temporary and ‘limited duration’.

[53] “A dog is barking in the yard next door.” (Klammer et al., 1995, p. 172)

It should be noted that some verbs are with transitional event and act. In other words, the verb in the sentence has a punctual situation.

[54] “The Boeing 747 is taking off. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 209) (transitional events and acts), (punctual situation)”

[55] “I’m stopping the car at garage. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 209) (transitional events and acts), (punctual situation)

2. For repetition or iteration in a series of similar ongoing actions

[56] “Why is he hitting the dog?” (Swan, 2005, p. 452)

[57] “He is kicking the tires.” (Cowan, 2008, p. 353)

3. For stative temporary present in limited duration

[58] “Sandy’s staying with her for a few days.” (Biber et al., 1999, p.165)

3.1 For temporary habit

In this use, the action is not necessary happening at the moment of speaking and according to Celce-Murcia et al. (1999) it is an extended present. “This use combines the ‘temporary’ meaning of the progressive with the repetitive meaning of the habitual present” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 65)

[59] “They’re studying English.” (Allen, 1974, p.75)

The habitual and iterative element of meaning can be made more indicative and obvious by adding an adverbial expression of frequency.

[60] “The trains are arriving late practically every day this winter.” (Leech, 2004, p.28)]

When two progressive tense with the same subject are joined with the coordinating conjunction *and*, the auxiliary verb may be dropped before the second progressive verb.

[61] “He is teaching French and learning Greek.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 165)

4. To refer to near future

Allen (1974) mentioned it as ‘a definite immediate future’. This use of the present progressive refers to a future scheduled event, an arranged and planned program and as Palmer (1974) stated it employs commonly the verbs that indicate or imply motion and “there is no restriction to such verbs” (p. 65). In addition, these constructions in accordance with Leech & Svartvik (2003) looks like ‘be going to + infinitive’ particularly when there is no any time adverbial. “But there is a subtle difference: it is not a present intention or cause, but rather a present arrangement that is signaled by the progressive” (Leech, 2004, p. 57).

[62] “Are you coming tonight to the meeting?” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 277)

5. In some non-progressive (stative) verbs with deliberate actions or special and different meaning

“The English language lacks special agentive perception verbs for the other three senses of touch, smell, and taste, so that the stative verbs *feel*, *smell* and *taste* must do duty here, as well as for the two stative meanings” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 204).

5.1 Perception verbs

With the verbs *feel*, *hear*, *see*, *smell*, *taste*, and *look* when followed by an adjective indicating the subject’s emotions or physical or mental condition. As Thomson & Martinet (1986) remarked these verbs are normally used in the simple present tense but they can be used in the progressive form. They can be used in the progressive form to indicate active perception. Their progressive tense or ‘the simple actual present’ in terms

of Zandvoort (1969), “denotes an action occurring at the moment of speaking or writing” (p. 59).

5.1.2 Feel

If the meaning of ‘feel’ is in the question of ‘internal sensation’, it can be used in progressive form as well as in present form.

The verb ‘feel’ can be used in the continuous form when according to Thomson & Martinet (1986) it means ‘touch’ usually in order to learn something or similarly means, “try to find something by touching” (p. 157) or as well when ‘feel’ in terms of Leech (2004) and Palmer (1974) is in ‘external sensation’. Indeed, the ‘feel’ in the meaning of ‘touch’ is a verb of perception.

[63] “The doctor is feeling her touch.” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 71)

5.1.2.1 Verb bodily sensation or ‘internal sensation’

[64] “I’m feeling faint.” (Cowan, 2008, p. 245)

5.1.3 Look

In accordance with Thomson & Martinet (1986), “Look (at), look for/in/into/out and look on (= watch) are deliberate actions and can be used in the continuous tenses” (p. 157)

[65] “Are you looking for me?” (Givón, 1993, p. 235)

Thomson & Martinet (1986) and Quirk et al. (1985) pointed out *look* as a link verb and *look* in sense ‘percept at S’ respectively as exceptional in taking place with the present progressive.

[66] “You $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{look} \\ \text{are looking} \end{array} \right.$ tired this evening.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 204)

Nonetheless, Quirk et al. (1985) believed there is a little difference between two variants of progressive and non-progressive forms.

[67] “You’re looking well today.” (Murphy, 2004, p. 236)

5.1.4 Smell

Smell in the progressive tense means ‘sniff at’.

[68] “I’m smelling the perfume.” (Leech, 2004, p. 22)

5.1.5 Taste

“*Taste* as a link verb is not used in the continuous, but *taste* meaning ‘to test the flavor of’ can be used”.

[69] “The chef is tasting the noodle.” (DeCapua, 2008, p. 174)

5.1.6 See

See can be used in the continuous when it means ‘meet by appointment’ (usually for business), ‘interview’, and ‘visit’ (usually as a tourist).

[70] “I am seeing my solicitor tomorrow.” (meeting) (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 204)

According to Thomson & Martinet (1986), *see* can be used in the continuous in the following combinations: *see about*, *see to*, *see out*, *see off*

We’re leaving tomorrow. Bill is seeing us off at the airport.” (p. 158)

5.1.6.1 Emphasize conscious involvement

[71] “What we are seeing is a red dwarf star?” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 121)

5.1.7 Hear

“*Hear* can be used in the continuous when it means ‘listen formally to’ (complaints/evidence etc.)”

[72] “The court is hearing evidence this afternoon.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 158)

[73] “A: There it goes again! { I am hearing it now...
I can hear it now. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 205)

When a radio or telephone operator says *I am hearing you clearly*, it means here ‘I am receiving your message clearly’. Here the progress form is used to make more emphasis on the process of communication. According to Leech (2004), “in this context *hear* is interpreted as a ‘process verb” (p. 24).

5.1.7.1 To show vividness

[74] “One night in the middle of the night, I’m hearing dripping.” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 121)

5.2 Cognition verbs

Occasionally the verbs such as *think*, *suppose*, *imagine*, *understand*, *consider* can be used in the progressive form. These verbs with the progressive form unusually are functioning ‘activity verbs’ as a kind of work or mental exertion.

5.2.1 Think

According to Vendler (1957), ‘*thinking*’ is a process while ‘*hink*’ is a state.

[75] “Pete is thinking of changing his job.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 360)

“*Think* can be used in the continuous when no opinion is given or asked for”

[76] “I’m thinking about what you said.” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 71)

5.2.2 Assume

Assume can be used in the continuous form when it means ‘take an idea as true’ or ‘take over control of something’

Take an idea as true- start new job- take over control of something- begin to have something- pretend feeling/attitude

[77] “In this book, I’m assuming two levels within phrases.” (Aarts, 2011, p. 351)

5.2.3 Understand

5.2.3.1 To show limited duration

[78] “Are you understanding this?” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 121)

5.2.3.2 To introduce change in states by focusing on differences in degree across time

[79] “I’m understanding her more.” (Yule, 1998, p. 80)

5.2.4 Suppose

[80] “I’m supposing, for the purposes of this argument, that your intentions are unknown.” (Leech, 2004, p. 24)

5.2.5 Consider

[81] “He’s considering taking early retirement.” (Hewings, 2008, p. 2)

5.3 Volition or desideration verbs

5.3.1 Expect

“*Expect* can be used in the continuous when it means ‘await’”

[82] “The police are expecting trouble.” (Leech et al., 2001, p. 433)

5.3.2 Hope

This use with *hope* is to express greater tentativeness and act and for polite use.

[83] “I am hoping to see my friend.” (Nasiruddin Khan, 2004, p.97)

5.3.3 Want

Like the construction with *hope*, it is also used to express greater tentativeness and act and for polite use.

[84] “I am wanting to believe in Santa Claus.” (DeCapua, 2008, p.201)

5.3.4 Intend

“We’re not intending this to be replacement for clinical experts.” (www.bbc.co.uk)

5.4 Affection verbs

5.4.1 Hate

The progressive form is used to intensify the motion.

[85] “I’m hating this!” (Yule, 1998, p. 80)

5.4.2 Like

[86] “How are you liking your visit to Disneyland?” (Downing & Locke, 2002, p. 373)

5.4.3 Love

[87] “I’m loving it!” (Aarts, 2011, p.5)

5.5 State verbs of being and having

The progressive form of *being* and *having* is permissible where an ‘activity’ or ‘process’ meaning may be supplied. *Being* usually followed by an adjective phrase and sometimes by a noun phrase while *having* mostly followed by a noun phrase. The construction of *being* with an adjective phrase indicates current behavior as opposed to general

description and with a noun phrase makes a sense of acting a part in the sentence. However, construction *having* sometimes conveys the meaning of pretending.

[88] “He is being sorry/afraid/happy. (could conceivably mean ‘He is pretending to be sorry/afraid/happy).” (Leech, 2004, p. 26)

[89] “Joe’s being a bad boy.” (DeCapua, 2008, p. 147)

5.5.1 have

[90] “*My wife is having a headache* meaning My wife is pretending to have a headache. (On the other hand, no element of showmanship is necessarily present in My wife is having hysterics/ a fit/ a baby– these are normal instances of the ‘activity’ or ‘process’ use of *have*.)” (Leech, 2004, p. 26)

[91] “I’m having a terrible day.” (Givón, 1993, p. 66)

5.5 For developments and changes in progress

The verbs which are used in such sentences are no longer ‘stative verbs’ “but have been transferred to the class of ‘process verbs’.

[92] “He is looking more and more like his father.” (Palmer, 1974, p.99)

According to Leech (2004), state verbs of having and being can take the progressive form when accompanied by an expression like *more and more*.

[93] “He’s resembling his father more and more.” (Givón, 1993, p. 143)

5.6 Distancing in requests, questions and statements

According to Quirk et al. (1985) and Greenbaum (1996), this simple present progressive is as more polite construction to the simple present or the simple past tense which refers tentatively to a present wish or attitude and in Celce-Murcia et al.’s (1999) view it helps to mitigate criticism and avoid imposition.

[94] “I like the first piano notes, but I’m not liking it where the strings come in.” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 121)

6. For annoying or unreasonable habitual intended activity

In this application, the present progressive form is chiefly affirmative and it is usually co-occurs with the adverbs of frequency like *always* and *forever*, *everlastingly*, *continually*, *constantly*. Of course, it should be paid attention that *always* here means *continually* and would be different from *always* which is used in the simple present tense.

This construction is used for a frequently repeated action, an unplanned occurrence, unexpected event or present habitual behavior that seems unreasonable and annoying for the speaker and it “carries with it too a hint of the speakers’ disapproval” (Palmer, 1974, p.70). Nevertheless, some grammarians such as Thomson & Martinet (1986) and Celce-Murcia et al. (1999) stated that this kind of construction is not necessary to denote to annoyance of the speaker. Nevertheless, it may have the approval tone as well.

[95] “He is always reading.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 155) (approval)

[96] “He’s always messing up the kitchen.” (Azar, 1989, p. 16)

7. In the subordinate clause of a conditional sentence type 1

It can be used present progressive in the *if* clause instead of simple present to indicate a present action or a future arrangement.

[97] “If you are travelling north, you must change at Leeds.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 42)

8. After, *know* as a verb of perception

It is used when the state of knowledge and the activity of the verb is concurrent.

[98] “John knows he is talking nonsense.” (Leech, 2004, p.21)

5.2.1.1.2.3 Present perfect

Structure: *have/has* + past participle

Has is used for the third person singular and *have* is used for other persons. Grammarians

such as Zandvoort (1969), Leech & Svartvik (2003), Quirk et al. (1985), Fallahi (1992), Greenbaum (1996), and Swan (2005) believed that the present perfect form is used less often in American English than in British English.

Applications:

1. Continuative perfect

It is used for actions and situations leading up to the present time.

1.1 Actions

In terms of Zandvoort (1969), this use is ‘continuative perfect’ in contrast with ‘resultative perfect’. Notwithstanding, they are common in the time reference that is not yet over. Sometimes the action finishes at the moment of speaking.

[99] “We have walked for hours.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 356)

1.2 States

According to Leech (2004) though the period mentioned in the present perfect leads up to the present moment, but in ‘state verbs’ the state itself may extend to the future because “state verbs are of undefined time-span” (p. 31)

[100] “I have been a teacher since 1967.” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 116)

[101] “My watch has stopped.” (Yule, 1998, p. 99)

Thomson & Martinet (1986) argued that the cognitive verbs such as *know*, *believe* and *understand* cannot be used in present perfect form except when the action begins in the past and leads up to the time of speaking in the present.

[102] “I have known him for a long time.” (Thomas & Martinet, 1986, p. 80)

[103] “I have never believed their theories.” (Thomas & Martinet, 1986, p. 80)

Sometimes the continuative perfect with the stative verbs can show the habitation. In such cases, the adverbs *always* or *usually* are usually associated with the verbs.

“Nathasha has always been generous.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 172)

2. Resultative Perfect

It is used for past event with results in the present time. The technical term ‘resultative perfect’ was used by Zandvoort (1969) for this kind of usage for present perfect in order to make it distinguishable from the ‘continuative perfect’. Swan (2005) remarked that the English present perfect is used rather differently from the most of other languages. However, Zandvoort (1969) earlier argued that the English is similar to some languages in regard with the use of the resultive perfect, “which denotes a past action, connected, through its result, with the present moment” (p. 61).

[104] “I have already seen that movie.” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 116)

Leech (2004) maintained that since the resultative perfect needs no support from adverbial time expression, “It is sometimes indistinguishable (or at least difficult to distinguish) from the recent indefinite past use” (p. 34). For example “the question *Have you seen my slippers?* is really a question about the present consequences of seeing the slippers; i.e. “Do you know where they are?” (p. 34). In addition, Palmer (1974) believed that this common explanation about the resultative perfect is rather misleading “unless we interpret results to include ‘nil results’ as is shown by:

I’ve hit it twice, but it’s still standing up.

I’ve written, but they haven’t replied” (p. 50)

Dealing with two present perfect constructions *have + been* and *have + gone*. The latter is resultative for it indicates transition into a present state of absence while the first is indefinite habitual.

[105] “He has gone to America.” (Leech, 2004, p. 35)

Furthermore, in regard with comprehensibly connected notion of completeness and resultive of this kind of simple present perfect, it sounds appropriate to encounter a rather oracular utterances in elevated style such as *What I have written, I have written*. “Here

the effect of the perfect is What I have written must stay there– it cannot be altered or added to” (Leech, 2004, p.35).

It should be noted that if the construction *have/has got* means ‘obtained’, it will be the resultative perfect. For instance, He’s got what he wants. (Zandvoort, 1969, p. 62)

According to Zandvoort (1969), Leech (2004) and Swan (2005), in American English the simple past tense is sometimes used where British English would use the present perfect.

[106] “We’ve just eaten/had lunch. (BrE) We just ate. (AmE)” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 356)

3. To express the idea of completion or achievement

Klammer et al. (1995) discussed that this use of the present perfect “refers to an action that was completed in the immediate past or one that began in the past and continues in the present” (p. 172)

[107] “I’ve finished the work that I had to do.” (Aarts, 2011, p. 255)

3.1 To talk about finished events with words that mean ‘at some/any time up to now’ The most commonly used adverbs are *ever, never, yet, recently, lately, already, just*.

Quirk et al. (1985) explained it as indefinite event(s) in a period leading up to the present. Leech (2004) mentioned the indefinite meaning of happenings is often intensified in terms of adverbial time “especially by *ever, never, or before (now)*” (p. 32). In accordance with Thomson & Martinet (1986), “actions expressed by the present perfect + yet usually have results in the present” (p. 166) and as Zandvoort (1969) and Walker (1967) stated the adverb *just* may be used in a sentence with a present perfect to indicate completeness in the immediate past activity or in Celce-Murcia et al.’s (1999) words a very recently completed action. The adverbs *lately* and *recently* are usually used with the present perfect verb form to indicate an incomplete period. Sometimes *recently* is used in the simple past meaning ‘a short time ago’. For example, *He left recently = He left a short time ago*.

[108] “He’s had a lot of bad luck lately/recently.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 79)

[109] “George has just gone out.” (Zandvoort, 1969. p. 62)

[110] “It’s the only thing I’ve ever won.” (Cowan, 2008, p. 207)

4. In newspapers and broadcasts to introduce an action or announce news of recent events

According to Downing & Lock (2006), “The present perfect lends itself to a ‘hot news’ interpretation, which can be reinforced by just. In American English, at least with some verbs, the Past + *just* is used” (p. 365). In this usage, the news will be described in the second sentence with the time of action in the simple past.

[111] “Thirty thousand pounds’ worth of jewelry has been stolen from Jonathan Wild and Company, the jewelers. The thieves broke into the flat above some time during Sunday night and entered the shop by cutting a hole in the ceiling.”
(Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 172)

5. For repeated and iterative action up to now

Leech (2004) argued that a present perfect verb with the element of the habit or state may continue through the present into the future. In such sentences, an adverbial time of duration is usually necessary but without it, the phrase construction becomes an example of the indefinite past meaning. The habit element is often enforced by an adverbial of frequency in the sentence.

[112] “Pete has eaten at that restaurant many times.” (Azar, 2003, p. 84)

[113] “I have seen wolves in that forest.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 167)

6. With superlative forms of adjective

[114] “This is the first day we have had any sun.” (Barnes, 1977, p. 54)

7. In subordinate clauses

7.1 Of time

As Zandvoort (1969) and Greenbaum (1996) noticed, the subordinate clause of time in

this use refers to a time in the future.

[115] “We shall make up our mind when the IMF has reported.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.272)

[116] “Wait till I’ve finished my coffee.” (Zandvoort, 1969. p. 62)

7.2 Of a conditional sentence type 1

[117] “If he has written the letter, I’ll post it.” (Thomas & Martinet, 1986, p. 95)

8. In letter writing

[118] “I am sorry I haven’t written before but I’ve been very busy lately as Tom has been away.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 172)

9. To describe a temporary situation in *have/has* + *been* + adjective

[119] “A: Why haven’t you been writing to me?

B: I’ve been too angry to write.

B: I’ve been ill.” (Leech, 2004, p. 32)

10. Perfect of experience

[120] “You’ve lived in Brighton, and you’ve lived in Kingston and now you live in Lewes.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 360)

5.2.1.1.2.4 Present Perfect Progressive

Structure: *has/have been* + present participle

Naturally, the present perfect progressive does not used with non-progressive verbs such as ‘verbs of perception’, ‘verbs of cognition’, ‘state verbs of *being* and *having*’, and ‘verbs of bodily sensation’.

Applications:

1. For actions and situations began in the past and are still going on

[121] “Vera has been trying to learn Chinese for years.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 171)

Leech (2004) commented that because of the semantic element of duration it is difficult to use the present perfect progressive with in a punctual situation with a momentary event verb do. For example, in the following sentences, the verb *start* in the first sentence is a transitional verb while in the second sentence is a durative verb.

[122] “He has been starting his car.*He has been starting his book.” (Leech, 2004, p. 44)

One of difference between present perfect progressive and present perfect relates to event verb. “Unlike the present perfect, the present perfect progressive with event verbs usually suggests an action continuing into the present” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 67).

[123] “Burt has been going out with Alice.” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 118)

In addition to the event verbs with the action leading up to present, the present perfect progressive frequently appear with verbs of a static nature such as *stay, wait, sit, stand, lie, study, learn, live, rest*, etc. As Allen (1974) remarked “Such verbs are rarely found in the simple present perfect, because by their very nature they continue into the present” (p. 81).

1.1 Habitual

It can be used with adverbial words that refer to a period of time continuing up to now, like *recently, lately, this week, since, for*.

[124] “Whenever I’ve seen him, he’s been reading.” (Palmer, 1974, p. 63)

1.2 Potential incompleteness

Present perfect progressive depending on the context and situation could have some semantic differential rather than present perfect. Leech (2004) clarified two of them well: one is the prediction of continuity of the activity into the future in which the probability of continuation is implied.

“He has been losing money for years. (‘... and will probably continue to lose money’)

Two is the emphasis which is given to the incompleteness of the action or event in some contexts:

[125] “Who’s been eating my dinner? (‘some of it is felt’)” (Leech, 2004, p. 46)

[126] “Who’s eaten my dinner? (‘It’s all gone’)”

In addition, when the conclusion or finality in two tenses present perfect and present perfect progressive, they “can be equally acceptable in the same situation. There is little to choose between *I’ve fed chickens* and *I’ve been feeding the chickens*, except that the former places emphasis on the present accomplishment, the latter on the past activity” (Leech, 2004, p. 46)

2. For actions and situations which has just stopped, but which have present results

In this use, the effects of the activity are still apparent and the activity has lead up to the recent past, not up to the present moment. As Leech (2004) affirmed, the two notions of ‘effects still apparent’ and ‘recently finished’ are strictly correlated and it would be so difficult to consider one of them independent to another semantically. “Recentness is sometimes stressed by the adverb *just*: *I’ve just been listening to a programme on Vietnam*” (p. 46). In addition, Allen (1974) stated that this use of the verb is “merely to emphasize the fact that an action has been uninterrupted, even though it is not continuing now” (p. 82).

[127] “You look hot. ~ Yes, I’ve been running.” (Swan, 2005, p. 446)

It is important to note to the ambiguity meaning which may be made in some sentences with respect to the element meaning of ‘recently stopped’ and ‘non-completion’. For example, “*I’ve just been painting the house* implies ‘I have recently stopped painting the house’, but it may also mean that the job as a whole is incomplete and will be resumed later” (Leech, 2004, p. 46)

3. For repeated action as well as continuous action

[128] “You have been coughing since you got up.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 377)

4. To talk about how long something has been happening

[129] “I’ve been walking for three hours.” (Murphy, 2004. p. 143)

5. A state that changes over time

[130] “They have been growing rapidly week in week out for more than a decade.”

(Aarts, 2011, p. 268)

6. In non-progressive verbs

6.1 with perception verb *hear*

[131] “I’ve been hearing all about your accident.” (Thomas & Martinet, 1986, p. 158)

6.2 With affection verbs *want* and *intend*

[132] “I have been wanting to meet him for ages.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 376)

6.3 With the state verb of *having*

[133] “Thanks, we’ve been having a few glasses already.” (Jespersen, 1933, p. 268)

7. For actions in temporary

[134] “I’ve been writing a letter to my nephew.” (Leech, 2004, p. 44)

“There seems to be a tendency, particularly in colloquial English, to avoid the ordinary present perfect with verbs such as *sit*, *lie*, *wait*, and *stay*, which generally refer to temporary states. Thus *I’ve been sitting here all afternoon* is more idiomatic than *I’ve sat here all afternoon*. The same preference is exercised even with very long periods of time: *The inscription has been lying here for thousands of years* is more likely to be heard than *The inscription has lain here for thousands of years*” (Leech, 2004, p. 45).

8. An evaluative comment on something observed over time triggered by current evidence

[135] “You’ve been drinking again!” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 118)

9. For annoying or unreasonable habitual intended activity

Sometimes adverbs *always*, *continually* and so forth can be used for things that happened repeatedly but unexpectedly or in an unplanned manner. According to Leech (2004), this application can function the second habitual meaning of the present perfect progressive “that which involves stretching the time-span of each event rather than compressing the time-span of the habit as a whole” (p. 47).

[136] “She’s been dropping things recently.” (Palmer, 1974, p. 70)

10. Resultative

[137] “Your eyes are red You’ve been crying.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 188)

5.2.1.1.2 Past Tenses

Leech (2004) stated there are two basic component of meaning in the usual use of the past tense. First, the happenings occur prior to the present moment time. In other words, it is non-present time. Secondly, the definite time in the mind of the speaker is expressed by the adverbial time accompanying the past tense verb.

5.2.1.1.2.1 Simple Past

Structure: base form of the verb *+ -d/ -ed*

The simple past tense of the most English verb are regular and is formed by adding *-ed* to their base form. (If the verb ends in ‘e’, we add *-d* to form the simple past. However, in English, there are also some irregular verbs that have special simple past forms.)

Applications:

1. For a definite single completed event or action in the past

[138] “We saw a good movie last night.” (Klammer et al., 1995, p. 172)

[139] “Byron died in Greece.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 184)

It should be noted that definiteness can effect on the selection of the verb tenses between simple past and present perfect. Whereas the subject or object is definite such as proper names in a sentence, it is more natural to use the simple past tense. For example, “*Philadelphia was founded by William Penn*, the past tense is only natural, since we know that Philadelphia is a definite place, and was founded at a definite point in history” (Leech,

2004, p.37). In addition, dealing with definite and indefinite object, there is an obvious contrast in British English between simple past verb and present perfect.

[140] “John has painted a picture.” [141] “John painted this picture.”

2. With states in the past

[142] “He owed me a lot of money.” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 114)

[143] “He needed both his hands.” (Allen, 1974, p. 88)

2.1 verbs of perceptions

The verbs such as *feel, hear, see, smell, taste, look, sound, appear, seem* as perception verbs can be used in the simple past as well.

Besides the simple past form of these verbs, it is possible to use the construction *could* + infinitive form of the verb. However, there is a difference between two variant constructions. The verb form with *could* denotes a state while the normal simple past form denotes an event. Hence, the verb form with *could* can imply the continuity and repetition of the verb.

[144] “I could taste/tasted sugar in the tea.” (Leech, 2004, p. 20)

[145] “I suddenly saw him in a new light.” (Givón, 1993, p. 167)

3. For a habitual or repeated event or action in the past

[146] “He always went by bus.” (Palmer, 1974, 1974. 62)

3.1 For an event with duration in the past

[147] “Professor Nelson taught at Yale for 30 years.” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 114)

4. An idiomatic use with *always, ever, and never* to refer to a state or habit leading up to the present

[148] “I always said (= have said) that he would end up in jail.” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 67)

5. To refer to the present

5.1 Back-shifted present

In the back-shifted present, the present form of direct speech shifted into the past form in an indirect speech or thought.

[149] “You see he told somebody I was weak.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 256)

[150] “I thought that she loved him.” (Givón, 1993, p. 176)

5.2 In for the attitudinal past of distancing

The attitudinal past or social distancing in questions, requests or offers, is used as a more polite, more tactful substitute and more tentative alternative for the simple present tense by using indirect expression with verbs of thinking or wishing.

[151] “I wanted to know. Is it true about Mrs. Hamilton?” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 257)

5.3 The hypothetical past

5.3.1 Modal preterite

The term ‘Modal preterite’ is used for that kind of construction in the subordinate clause that express desirable or conceivable situation. Dealing with ‘modal preterite’, Zandvoort (1969) said, “In this case its function is not to express a contrast between past and present time (so that the term ‘past tense’ is better avoided), but between reality and desirability or mere supposition” (p. 61)

The modal preterite is commonly used with the constructions: *It’s (high) time, if only, as if, as though, even though, suppose, imagine, would rather, wish.*

5.3.1.1 It’s (high) time

[152] “It’s (high) time he was (or were) taught a lesson.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 237)

5.3.1.2 If only

[153] “If only Tom were here!” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 204)

5.3.1.3 As if

[154] “He talks as if he owned the place.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 359)

5.3.1.4 As though

[155] “It’s not as though he $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{were poor} \\ \text{was poor (informal)} \end{array} \right\}$ ” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p.125)

5.3.1.5 Even though

[156] “Ing kept his professional attitude even though the Tigers treated him as being less than valuable last season.” (Aarts, 2011, p. 226)

5.3.1.6 Suppose, imagine

[157] “Suppose we went to a show.” (Zandvoort, 1969. p. 61)

5.3.1.7 Would rather

In such a construction, all personal subjects in the embedded sentence can be used than *me*.

[158] “I’d rather you listened to me.” (Leech, 2004, p.112)

5.3.1.8 Wish

According to Azar (1989), that’s a *wish* about the present.

[159] “I wish the paint took less time to dry.” (Huddleston, 1984, p. 80)

5.3.2 In the subordinate clause of conditional sentence type 2

The hypothetical past is mainly used in subordinate clause of conditional sentence that relate to present or future time and expresses what is contrary to the belief or expectation of the speaker.

[160] “He would come if you called him.” (Allen, 1974, p. 144)

6. To refer to the future for narration in science fiction

[161] “In the year A.D. 2201, the interplanetary transit vehicle Zeno VII made a routine journey to the moon with thirty people on board.” (Leech, 2004, p. 10)

7. In the auxiliary *did* before the main verb for emphasis

Did is followed by the infinitive form of the main verb in order to emphasize the positive declarative statement. For such construction, the main verb should be a single word verb.

[162] “Well I *did* think about it.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.250)

5.2.1.1.2.2 Past Progressive

Structure: *was/were* + present participle

Applications:

1. For an action in progress at a specific point of time in the past

[163] “The people who were coming by bus arrived late.” (Yule, 1998, p. 267)

1.1 To refer to a long background action or situation

The past progressive verb construction is often paired with another verb in a compound sentence. Another verb may be in a simple past form or in a past progressive form. Thus, in terms of time sequence, the simple past form expresses a short action that occurred in the longer action of past progressive. According to Quirk et al. (1985), “The relationship between a past progressive and simple past form is one of time–inclusion” (p. 209); In such a case, the past progressive form indicates that its action was happening at the same time of the previous verb or it may denote to the repeated action.

1.2 Before happening actions or events else

[164] “When we arrived, Jan was making some fresh coffee.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 209)

1.2.2 Repeated actions

[165] “When he worked here, Roger was always making mistakes.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 181)

1.3 Parallel actions

According to Leech (2004), in a compound sentence, the two pair of verbs can be in progressive form where there is no ‘frame’ that is, “We know nothing about the relation between their starting-points or finishing-points” (p. 18). Alexander (1988) stated that the progress of the two actions could be emphasized by using *while* or *at the time (that)*.

[166] “While she was working hard in the kitchen, her husband was sitting down in front of the television set.” (Leech, 2004, p. 18)

[167] “While I was working in the garden, my wife was cooking dinner.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 181)

2. Repetition or iteration of some ongoing past action in a limited duration

[168] “Jake was coughing all night long.” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 117)

3. For temporary and changeable actions and situations

[169] “I was standing there the other night.” (Biber et al., 1999, p.165)

4. To make something seem less important as a ‘background’, not the main ‘news’

Thomson & Martinet (1986) argued that the past continuous as an alternative to the simple past can be used to indicate deliberately that the action was in usual and unremarkable way. Besides, “it also tends to remove responsibility from the subject” (p. 164).

[170] “I was talking to Tom the other day.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 164)

5. With verbs of *saying*

The past progressive form of *say* is used to give more relative importance to the following verb- to what is said.

[171] “John was saying that he still can’t find a job.” (Swan, 2005, 396)

6. In some non-progressive (stative) verbs with deliberate actions or special and different meaning

6.1 Perception verbs

6.1.1 Feel

[172] “The doctor was feeling her pulse.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 157)

6.1.1.1 Verb bodily sensation or ‘internal sensation’

[173] “I wasn’t feeling very well.” (Huddleston, 1984, p. 206)

6.1.2 Look

[174] “He was looking tired.” (Leech, 2004, p. 110)

6.1.3 Smell

[175] “When she passed the kitchen, the turkey was smelling good.” (Leech, 2004, p. 110)

6.1.4 Taste

Taste here denotes action.

[176] “She was tasting the pudding to see if it was sweet enough.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 155)

6.2 volitional /desideration

6.2.1 Intend

[177] “She was intending to talk to Tony about the idea, but she didn’t get the opportunity.” (Murphy, 2004, p. 16)

6.2.2 Want

[178] “They were wanting to speed its flight.” (www.goodreads.com)

6.3 For developments and changes in progress

[179] It was growing late, and we must reach Anzino before dark. (Dekesier et al., 1999, p. 445)

6.4 In the attitudinal past of distancing

The attitudinal past or social distancing in requests, questions and statement is used to make them less indirect, more polite or more tentative alternative to the simple present or the simple past. The most commonly used verbs for this function include *think*, *want*, *hope* and *wonder*.

[180] “I was wondering if you could help me.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 210)

[181] “I was hoping you could lend me \$10.” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 118)

7. For annoying or unreasonable habitual intended activity

[182] “They were forever leaving the gate open.” (Palmer, 1974, p. 70)

8. Back-shifted present

It is used for a past equivalent of the present continuous in indirect speech.

[183] “He said he was living in London.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 164)

9. In the subordinate clause of a conditional sentence type 2

It can be used present progressive in the *if*-clause instead of simple past to indicate a past action or a future in the past arrangement.

[184] “If my car was working, I would drive you to the station.” (Thomas & Martinet, 1986, p. 200)

10. To express a definite future in the past

Regarding this use of the past progressive, Leech (2004) remarked that the happenings are anticipated in the past and Palmer (1974) justified such construction that “In epistemic tense at which the event was envisaged as future” (p. 65).

[185] “They were getting married the following spring.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 210)

[186] “I was meeting him next week.” (Palmer, 1974, p. 65)

5.2.1.1.2.3 Past perfect/ Pluperfect

Structure: *had* + past participle

Applications:

1. For an action completed in the earlier past

The pluperfect or the Past perfect verb (whether simple or progressive) in fact is a ‘past in the past’ verb; “that is, a time further in the past as seen from a definite viewpoint in the past” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 67).

[187] “I had seen him before he saw me.” (Jespersen, 1933, p. 246)

Among many grammarians, Thomson & Martinet (1986), Alexander (1988) argued that it is not necessary to use the past perfect when the events occurred in a sequence. Normally, the simple past tense is used instead when the sequence in relative clauses is clear.

[188] “Tom’s father died when Tom was eighteen. Before he died, he advised Tom not to marry till he was 35, and Tom at 23 still intended to follow this advice.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 176).

[189] “After I finished, I went home.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 186)

1.1 After *wh*-clause of *when*

The past perfect verb is used after *wh*-clause of *when* in order to emphasize, “the first action was completed before the second one started” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 177).

It is more likely that the main clause comes first and the *when* clause comes in the final position in the sentence.

[190] “The thieves had run away when the police arrived.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 197)

Jespersen (1933) believed that “With *when* it is sometimes, but not always, possible to use the preterite for a before-past” (p. 274). Jespersen’s idea could be right. Because sometimes depending on the context and the kind of the verb, *when* means ‘*immediately after*’ in the sentence. Hence, the simple past verb form can be semantically appropriate as well. Likewise, in accordance with Quirk et al. (1985), the following sentences, the former with past perfect in *when-clause* and the latter with simple past are virtually synonymous.

[191] “I ate my lunch when Sandra had come back from her shopping.”

[192] “I ate my lunch when Sandra came back from her shopping.”

1.2 After *as soon as*, *the moment*, *immediately*

1.2.1 As soon as

Sometimes both tenses of simple past and past perfect may be used.

[193] “We cleared up as soon as our guests had left.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 186)

1.2.2 The moment

[194] “In that moment, he had understood why the stormcloaks hated the empire so much.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 110)

1.2.3 Immediately

[195] “Immediately he had said it, he regretted it.”

[196] “George packed his suitcases immediately after he (had) decided to go.” (Krohn, 1971, p. 200)

1.3 With *till/until* and *before*

“The past perfect can be used with *till/until* and *before* to emphasize the completion or expected completion of an action. But note that in *till/until* + past perfect + simple past combinations the simple past action may precede the past perfect action; and in *before* + past perfect + simple past combinations the simple past action will always precede the past perfect action” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 177)

1.3.1 Till/until

It should be noted that in a past perfect combination with *till/until*, the simple action might precede the past perfect action.

[197] “He refused to go till he had seen all the pictures.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 177)

1.3.2 Before

Respecting the word order in such construction with *before*, the simple past action will always precede the past perfect action.

[198] “Before we had gone very far, we found that we had lost our way.” (Allen, 1974, p. 137)

“It is possible to use past perfect verbs in both clauses. For example,

[199] It was a very expensive town. Before we had here a week we had spent all our money” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 177)

1.4 With *after*

After is normally followed by a perfect tense in the sentence. Moreover, as Jespersen

(1933) pointed out, the simple past verb has often the same meaning of the past perfect whereas the clauses begin with *after*.

[200] “She called him after she had finished her dinner.” (Cowan, 2008, p.547)

2. In the subordinate clause of unreal conditional sentences

2.1 Type 2

In such constructions, the condition refers to an impossible present. In other words, it can be the present result of past condition.

[201] “If I had known, I would have come sooner.” (Yule, 1998, p. 139)

It is possible that the conditional conjunction *if* is omitted and the modal pluperfect *had* reversed and replaced at the head of clause. This construction is mainly used in literary texts.

[202] “Had I known you were here, I should have come at once.” (Zandvoort, 1969. p. 63)

2.2 Type 3

[203] “If I had gone to university, I would have studied medicine.” (Swan, 2005, p. 398)

3. In unreal events; after *wish*, *would rather*

3.1 Wish

According to Azar (1989), that’s a *wish* about the past.

[204] “I wish the doctor had been in his office yesterday.” (Krohn, 1971, p. 250)

3.2 Would rather

[205] “I’d rather she had asked me before borrowing the car.” (Swan, 2005, p. 398)

4. To say how long something had continued up to a past moment

[206] “She had lived in the north since she changed her job.” (Downing & Lock, 2006, p. 367)

5. With non-progressive verbs like *be*, *have* and *know*

5.1 Be

[207] “If the bowl had been stronger, my tale had been longer.” (Joos, 1964, p. 125)

5.2 Have

[208] “We had owned the car for six months before we discovered it was stolen.”

(Hewings, 2008, p. 14)

5.3 Know

[209] “I had known him for a long time.” (Givón, 1993, p. 167)

6. To emphasize that the first section is separate, independent of the second, completed before the second started with time conjunction *after, as soon as, when, once*

[210] “She didn’t feel the same after her dog had died.” (Swan, 2005, p. 398)

7. Unrealized hopes and wishes; things that did not happen

It is used with the verbs such as *hope, expect, intend, mean, suppose, think, want*. The hope, intention and desire which expressed by these verbs are not materialized. Zandvoort (1969) stated that the construction a perfect infinitive followed by the preterite of these verbs can express the same idea. In addition, according to Jespersen (1933), in this use, the past perfect *had hoped* is often equivalent to the simple past form *hoped*.

[211] “I had hoped to send him a telegram to congratulate him on his marriage, but I didn’t manage it.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 186)

[212] “I had hoped to have seen you.” (Jespersen, 1933, p. 247)

8. With superlative forms of adjective

[213] “That is the easiest test I’ve ever taken.” (Cowan, 2008, p. 587)

9. Back-shifted verb form

In this use, the sequence time of events in direct and indirect speech change.

9. 1 Present perfect tense in direct speech

The present perfect tense in a direct speech changes into the past perfect tense in an indirect speech that provided the introductory verb in the past tense.

[214] “I told her that the parcel had not arrived.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 197)

9.2 Simple past tense in direct speech

[215] “He asked where I had been all afternoon.” (Downing & Lock, 2006, p. 118)

9.3 An ‘eternal truth’ or something similar may be shifted

[216] “It was a saying of his, that no man was sure of his supper till he had eaten it.”

(Jespersen, 1933, p. 261)

9.4 The wrongness of a supposition

[217] “I thought you had been a gentleman.” (Jespersen, 1933, p. 262)

Jespersen (1933) stated, “The wrongness of a supposition may even lead to a further shifting into the pluperfect, though the real time-relation is the same as if the simple preterit had been used” (p. 262).

10. In the hypothetical clauses *if only*, *It’s time*, as if, as though

10.1 *if only*

It is used to express regret followed by the construction *if only*.

[218] “If only I hadn’t listened to my parents!” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 125)

10.2 As if

[219] “She seemed offended by his manner, as if he had had the intentions of hurting her”

(Quirk et al., 1985, p. 347).

10.3 As though

[220] “He grinned as though he’d been drinking for hours.” (Leech, 2004, p. 110)

11. Habitual

[221] “He had called on them every week, when they died.” (Palmer, 1974, p. 63)

5.2.1.1.2.4 Past Perfect Progressive

Structure: *had* + *been* + present participle

Applications:

1. For actions and situations began before a point of time in the past and that it was still

going on (in progress)

[222] “She was very tired. She had been typing letters all day.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 188)

2. For actions and situations began before a point of time in the past and that it had just stopped

[223] “I had been working beside my old barn.” (Givón, 1993, p. 158)

3. To say how long something had been happening up to a past moment

[224] “Jack had already been studying for 20 hours straight.” (Cowan, 2008, p. 373)

4. For repeated actions as well as continuous ones

[225] “He had been trying to get her on the phone.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 179)

5. In the subordinate clause of the conditional sentences type 3

[226] “I was wearing a seat belt. If I hadn’t been wearing one I’d have been seriously injured.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 200)

6. An ongoing past action or state, that becomes satisfied by some other event

[227] “I had been wanting to see that play, so I was pleased when I won the tickets.”
(Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 118)

7. Habitual

[228] “Whenever I saw him, he’d been playing golf.” (Palmer, 1974, p. 63)

7.1 For annoying or unreasonable habitual intended activity

[229] “He’d been continually stealing from his friends.” (Palmer, 1974, p. 70)

8. Back-shifted present perfect progressive

[230] “She realized that he had been spying on her.” (Givón, 1993, p. 215)

9. Resultative

[231] “Her eyes were red It was obvious she had been crying.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 188)

5.2.1.1.3 Future Tenses

Many grammarians believe there is no future tense in English. According to Thomson & Martinet (1986), “There is no future tense in modern English, but for convenience we often use the term ‘future simple’ to describe the form *will/shall* + bare infinitive” (p. 187). Kilby (1984) did not include future tense among the English tenses. As Klammer et al. (1995) mentioned there is no future tense marker or “future-tense morpheme” in English “to indicate that the action will take place in the future” (p. 172). Therefore, we should consider the ways of expressing future time. In consonance with Greenbaum (1996), the two most common of them are with the modal auxiliary *will* and its contraction form *'ll* or *shall* with the first personal subjects *I* and *we* and also with the semi-auxiliary *be going to*.

“A number of auxiliaries and semi-auxiliaries may have future reference when used in the present tense, generally in combination with other meanings” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 259).

5.2.1.1.3.1 Simple Future

5.2.1.1.3.1.1 With will

Structure: *shall/will* + infinitive without to

Shall is used for the first person singular and plural

Applications:

1. “An action to take place at some definite future time”

As Thomson & Martinet (1986) and Alexander (1988) affirmed, to express the speaker’s opinion, assumption, speculation and consideration about the future or to convey the lack of certainty, the simple future verb tense may be co-occurred by verbs and adverbs such

as assume, be afraid, be/feel sure, believe, daresay, doubt, expect, hope, know, suppose, think, wonder, perhaps, possibly, probably, surely

[232] “Joel will take the bar exam next month.” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 115)

[233] “(I’m sure) he’ll come back.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 189)

[234] “Ask him again Perhaps he’ll change his mind.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 190)

2. In predictions of future events

[235] “Tomorrow’s weather will be cold and cloudy.” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 71)

3. In the main clause of a conditional sentence type 1

[236] “If I drop this glass, it will break.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 189)

4. To express hopes, expectations, etc.

[237] “I hope she’ll get the job she’s applied for.”

5.2.1.1.3.1.2 With be going to

Structure 2: *am/is/are* + going to + infinitive verb

Roberts (1954) did not accept as pure future tense. “This is not usually called a future tense, but it would seem to have some title to that term, since it is often used to indicate pure futurity” (p. 153).

However, according to Leech (2004), the construction *be going to* + infinitive is the most important way of expressing future time after the construction *will/shall* + infinitive. He considered two meanings “the future culmination of present intention” and “the future culmination of present cause” for these two constructions respectively.

Applications:

1. To talk about plans in the future

Leech (2004) called this use of the construction “the future of present intention”. In other words, there is a tendency in this construction to indicate the future as a resulting and

fulfillment of the present. It goes without saying that the notion of intention and plan denotes to conscious exercise of will with ‘doing’ or ‘agentive’ verbs. Therefore, the construction mainly requires the human subject.

[238] “He’s going to be a doctor when he grows up.” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 71)

In cases like this sentence, the plan may be referred to the remote period. Consequently, as Leech (2004) noted the imminence concept is not a necessary semantic accompaniment of *be going to*. Instead, he used ‘present intention’ for it.

[239] “They’re going to get married in a registry office.” (Leech, 2004, p. 54)

2. To predict the future on the basis of present evidence

In this application, the time is usually not mentioned and a future action or event will happen soon or is starting to happen. The subject of the verb could be animate or inanimate. For this reason, Quirk et al. (1985) considered it as “future result of present cause with personal or non-personal subjects” (p. 214). Likewise, Leech (2004) used the technical term of ‘the future of present cause’ for this usage. Moreover, he stated that the verb is not necessarily ‘agentive’. “*The future of present cause* is found with animal and inanimate subjects, as well as with human subjects; it is also common to both ‘agentive’ and ‘non-agentive’ verbs. It thus, covers a wider range of contexts than the intentional meaning of *be going to*” (p. 55).

2.1 Animate subjects

[240] “She’s going to have a baby.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 214)

[241] “Look! He’s going to score a goal! (“I can see him moving up to the goal-mouth”)” (Leech, 2004, p. 55)

According to Leech (2004), “*Is going to score* here is almost equivalent to *is about to score* or *is on the point of scoring*”. (p. 55)

2.2 Inanimate subjects

According to Allen (1974), *going to* with things “has the meaning of probability or

inevitability in the mind of the speaker” (p. 117).

[242] “They’re going to be trouble.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 214)

[243] “Look out! The bus is going to overturn!” (Allen, 1974, p. 117)

Although it was already said that with such construction, the prediction of future event or action will take place in the near future, but in some sentences of “present cause or train of events” the mentioned time may be remote. For example:

[244] “If Winterbottom’s calculations are correct; this planet is going to burn itself out 200,000,000 years from now.” (Leech, 2004, p. 56)

[245] “It’s going to rain tomorrow.” (Decapua, 2008, p. 182)

3. For intention

3.1 For the near future with a time expression as an alternative to the present progressive

This use or so called by Quirk et al. (1985) “future fulfillment of present intention” is with agentive verb and personal subject.

[246] “George is going to get up early tomorrow.” (Krohn, 1971, p. 46)

3.1.1 Without a time expression

Without expressing time in the sentence, it usually refers to the immediate or near future.

[247] “Leila is going to lend us her camera.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 214)

3.2 In the main clause of a conditional sentence type 1 to emphasize the subject’s intention

Thomson & Martinet (1986) stated that with time clauses, the subject’s intention is emphasized.

[248] “He is going to be a dentist when he grows up.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 184)

[249] “If you don’t give me £5,000, I’m going to tell the police all about it.” (Walton, 1999, p. 44)

[250] “I’m going to switch on the TV, if that’s ok.” (Yule, 1998, p. 141)

5.2.1.1.3.2 Future Progressive

Structure: *shall /will* + be+ present participle

Applications:

1. For actions and events in progress in the future

Leech (2004) mentioned it as “the temporary situation in the future” and in accordance with Quirk et al (1985), the action in such special application happen “as a matter of course” in the future.

[251] “I shall be seeing him tomorrow afternoon.” (Klammer et al., 1995, p. 175)

[252] “The children will be sleeping by 10 p.m.” (DeCapua, 2008, p. 184)

[253] “ ‘Hurry up’ The guests will be arriving at any minute!” (Alexander, 1988, p. 191)

1.1 Duration of some specific future action

[254] “Mavis will be working on her thesis for the next three years.” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 118)

[255] “John will be eating his lunch when you call on him in five minutes.” (Comrie, 1985b. p.43)

[256] “We will be working on this project for a long time.” (Decapua, 2008, p. 184)

2. For fixed and expected plans and arrangements

Allen (1974) believed this use of future progressive is “definite but not so-immediate future” and has approximately the same meaning with the construction *be going to* with this difference that *be going to* indicates the present intentions of the actors while the future progressive tells of events at a future time and results of the intention. That is why the future progressive could be considered more polite in some interrogatives with simple future constructions. Leech (2004) includes this application of progressive future as ‘future as a matter of course’ in which it “indicates that a predicted event will happen independently of the will or intention of anyone concerned” (p. 62).

[257] “When will you be moving?” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 73)

[258] “The train will be arriving at eight o’clock.” (Leech, 2004, p. 62)

[259] “He’ll be playing some more later.” (Allen, 1974, p. 119)

3. To express a future without intention

[260] “I will be helping Mary tomorrow.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 189)

Regarding the connotation ‘matter of course’ in the future, Leech (2004) noted two restrictions of this construction. First, because of natural course of events in which the actions will take place “it generally refers to the near, but not too immediate future” (p. 64). Nevertheless, it is possible to see exceptions against the general rule that may indicate very imminent future like “*The train will be leaving in a second*”.

Secondly, avoidance of this construction from describing some uncommon, sudden or violent events that are not in agreement with ‘natural course of things’. For examples, the following sentences have a strange and semi-comic air.

[261] “Margot will be poisoning her husband when he gets home.”

[262] “We shall be blowing up the Houses of Parliament tonight.”

Furthermore, it can be employed as an idiomatic expression in colloquial English. “*You’ll be losing your head one of these days* (said to a very forgetful person) or *He’ll be buying himself an island in the Bahamas next* (said to someone aspiring to a life of luxury)” (Leech, 2004, p. 64).

4. For softening effect and more polite expression

Sometimes the future progressive verb indicates softening effect of a simple futurity or more polite than the corresponding simple future tense.

[263] “I’ll be working on this tomorrow, (futurity)”

[264] “When will you be seeing Mr White? (e.g. assistant to boss)”

5.2.1.1.3.3 Future Perfect

Structure: *will have* + past participle

This future construction is usually accompanied with a time expression beginning with *by*.

Applications:

1. For actions will be completed before a point in the future

[265] “When she leaves, he will have already gone to sleep.” (Givón, 1993, p. 165)

2. For states and accomplishments will be completed before a point in the future

[266] “I will have retired by the year 2020.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 193)

3. To express the duration or repetition of an event in the future

[267] “Next month I will have known Derek for 20 years.” (Hewings, 2008, p.30)

4. Hypothetical past

It is used to state hypothetical past or according to Zandvoort (1969) ‘assumption’ instead of using the constructions like *I suppose that, take it for granted that, expect that, imagine that*, etc. It appears in the second and third subject and usually used in speeches, lectures, debates and argumentative writing.

[268] “You’ll have noticed from my lecture how complicated this subject really is. = I imagine you have noticed ...” (Allen, 1974, p. 136)

[269] “You will have heard that I am going to America.” (Zandvoort, 1969. p. 77)

5.2.1.1.3.4 Future Perfect Progressive

Structure: *will/shall* + have been + present participle

“Like the future perfect, it is normally used with a time expression beginning with *by*” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 194)

Applications:

1. For actions that will be in progress before a point in the future

It is used when at present time, a durative or habitual action is happening at present time and will be continued until or through a specific time in the future.

[270] “By the end of the month, he will have been living/working/studying here for ten years.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 194)

2. “When the action is expressed as a continuous action”

[271] “He will have been studying by the time you arrive.” (Willis, 1950, p. 168)

Thomson & Martinet (1986) discussed two types of the conditional tenses: the present conditional tense and the perfect conditional tense. According to them, the present conditional tense is used: (a) In conditional sentences type II, (b) In special uses of *would* and *should*, (c) As a past equivalent of the simple future. And the perfect conditional tense is used: (a) In conditional sentences type III, (b) In special uses of *would* and *should*, (c)

3. For a state that will be in progress before a point in the future

[272] “On Saturday, we will have been living in this house for a year.” (Hewings, 2008, p. 28)

4. Hypothetical past

It is used to state hypothetical past instead of using the constructions like *I suppose that*, *take it for granted that*, *expect that*, *imagine that*, etc. It is usually used in speeches, lectures, debates and argumentative writing.

[273] “You will have been wondering all this time how my invention works.” (Allen, 1974, p. 136)

5.2.2 Subjunctive Mood

a) Definition

The subjunctive mood expresses unreal conditions and conveys desires, wishes and assumptions that are not necessarily to be fulfilled in reality. The subjunctive mood is mainly used when we are not certain of happening of the events. There is no implication of fact or true in this mood. As Willis (1950) explained, “The subjunctive verb forms

express doubt, unlikelihood, condition, wish, uncertainty, desirability, denial, potentiality, and perhaps other such concepts (rather than facts or falsehoods)” (p.174). Subjunctive mood in English has no specific morphomic feature or inflectional marker in the sentence. Curme (1929) commented that the subjunctive mood is an idea and a mere conception of the mind. It has no particular form and is always expressed by a variety of means to represent action or state not as something real or as a fact (p. 390).

According to Willis (1950), the subjunctive mood is the most complex moods among three moods of indicative, subjunctive and imperative “and the only one that requires much explanation” (p. 174). Subjunctive mood is used in English less than in many other Indo-European languages. Linguists, among them (Cannon, 1959), (Downing & Locke, 2006), (Quirk et al, 1985), affirmed that the use of subjunctive mood in English is something of a linguistic fossil. It is used in specific figures or speech in a set of specific circumstances. The subjunctive mood is of little use in Modern English and it has almost disappeared from the English language. It is more obvious in a few sentence structures remained from the English classic literature. “Roberts asserts that at present most of the uses of the subjunctive are archaic though sometimes cultivated” (Cannon, 1959, p. 18). In other words, the subjunctive mood is hardly used in every day conversations and writings.

According to Depraetere & Reed (2006), subjunctive mood or *thought mood* is a reference to a state of affairs dealing with the possible world. On the other hand, the indicative mood or *fact mood* represents situations as facts, “but the indicative past tense and past perfect can also be used modally to represent situations as non-factual or counterfactual: It would be great if it *rained* tonight” (p.1). On the other hand, he remarked that “The subjunctive mood creates an intensional domain in the sense that there is reference to a state of affairs

that is the case in a possible world, but the speaker does not assert that the state of affairs holds (or held, or will hold) in the actual world” (p.270).

b) History

Many scholars pointed out the gradual disappearance of the subjunctive mood in English language. They also indicated that the decline of the subjunctive mood is not of the recent origin (Cannon, 1959). Pooley (1947), Fowler (1927), Fries (1940), Poutsma (1922), and Jespersen (1931) agree that the subjunctive is in a state of comparative desuetude. “The language expressing this judgment may vary, but there is a general agreement concerning it” (Cannon, 1959, p. 18).

A minor group of grammarians was not in agreement with the generally accepted conclusion that use of the subjunctive mood was decreasing. Among them, Curme (1929) and Lloyd (1937) were more outspoken. Curme (1929) asserted that the disappearance of the old form of English subjunctive mood did not mean the decline of English expression. He claimed that the modals function in a modern way instead of the inflectional forms as the old forms of English subjunctive. Nevertheless, Cannon (1959) had a critical review to his claim, “Some of the unquestioned popularity of the modals may be ascribed to the fact that they fulfill the desire for concreteness which the simple subjunctive could not convey. “The modals did not come to be used simply as a result of the loss of the inflectional endings for the subjunctive, for some of the modals were employed at a time ‘when the subjunctive had distinctive endings.’” (p. 12).

Lloyd (1937) disagreed and firmly rejected the moribundity of the subjunctive mood. In his opinion, the constructors of ‘*that*-clause’ and ‘set phrases’ of optative mood are still in active use. He maintained that “an unawareness of subjunctive use, especially in *that*-

clauses and in set phrases, rather than an actual disuse, is responsible for an opinion which seems to him erroneous” (as cited in Cannon, 1959, p. 17).

Cannon (1959) asserted four reasons for declining and disusing of the subjunctive mood in every day English. He clarified that two reasons are dealing with the represented definition of this kind of mood regarding notional and formal terms. “In the first place, ‘the notion of uncertain fulfillment, although inherent in the circumstances described is not [always] present to the speaker’s mind.’ In the second place, “the dearth of exclusively subjunctive forms in itself blunts the power of discriminating between the subjunctive and the indicative. “Since the person who may feel the attitude will not be able to express it formally in many instances because of the few instances in which the subjunctive mood has any formal indicator, the force of the subjunctive mood is consequently weakened” (Cannon, 1959, p. 17).

The third reason, in accordance with Cannon, is that the simple subjunctive has no clear, obvious distinction in form and meaning as well. Finally, the fourth reason is that the modal auxiliaries are functioning much of the work of subjunctive. Of course, the latest reason is “for those who define the subjunctive purely in formal terms” (Cannon, 1959, p. 18).

Jespersen (1933) demonstrated that in the earlier English language the concepts like uncertainty, hesitation, and difference were exposed through various clauses for different kinds of subjunctive mood. These meanings are no longer felt to be expressed with the same force and manner as formerly. In addition, Jespersen mentioned a remarkable point regarding decline of the subjunctive mood in which can be inquired dealing with the ‘principle of minimum effort’ in stylistics and historical linguistics. “It may now, to a

great extent, be considered a literary trick to remove the style from everyday associations” (Jespersen, 1933, p. 294). Although this is true that the subjunctive mood is rarely used and has no longer its formerly application in Modern English language, but it still exist. As Quirk et al (1985) noted the subjunctive is an optional and stylistic construction, “it is not so unimportant as is sometimes suggested” (p. 155).

c) Structure

In this study, it is tried to get an overall outline of various ideas represented about the forms and uses of the subjunctive mood by different scholars. In general, the modern English subjunctive can be divided into two tenses: present and past. Quirk et al (1985) believed that the use of the forms which is traditionally called present and past subjunctive relates more to mood rather than to tense. Furthermore, Depraetere & Reed, (2006) stated that these two traditional labels refer more to form than to meaning. It may be true because the form which is used in the subordinate clause of the present subjunctive is the base form of the verb or in other word bare infinitive. Besides, the verb form of *were* in the past subjunctive is the only distinct from the past indicative for the first and third persons singular.

The English subjunctive mood is usually found in complex sentences. It is used in a dependent clauses attached to an independent clause. Hence, it should also be noted that the time reference in subordinate clause of a subjunctive, might be different due to various independent clauses. “The terms present subjunctive and past subjunctive should not be taken to refer to the time reference of the forms in question. The present subjunctive can be embedded in a clause with present, past or future time reference” (Depraetere & Reed, 2006, p.270).

Sometimes it is problematic to distinguish the subjunctive mood from the indicative or imperative moods. There is rare formal indicator for subjunctive mood. In other words, there is no signal touchstone in all situations to determine its application. “In some situations the use of the subjunctive will be patent to almost anyone who can recognize a verb, but in others, many or all tests may be inconclusive. One of the hallmarks of the subjunctive is the fact that the tense of the verb rarely corresponds to the notional time implied by the name of the tense” (Cannon, 1959, p. 14). In addition, as Roberts (1954) stated in a side by side examination of indicative and subjunctive constructions, it will be found out that their verb forms are identical.

5.2.2.1 Subjunctive Mood and the Tense

5.2.2.1.1 Present Tense

5.2.2.1.1.1 Present Subjunctive

The present subjunctive mood can appear in both subordinate clauses and main clauses. According to Huddleston (1984) in the main clause, only the archaic and formulaic sentences are found. This type of the subjunctive mood is called *Optative* or *Formulaic*. The present subjunctive in the subordinate clause restricted to certain types of *that* clauses, adverbial clauses. The latter include conditional clauses and concessive clauses. The subjunctive mood in *that* clauses is called a *Mandative* clause.

The structure that is used in the present subjunctive is bare infinitive. In other words, “The present subjunctive is identical with the base form of the main verb” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.266). Although in British English the constructor *should* with infinitive is used more common rather than structure bare infinitive. Moreover, the constructor *should* + infinitive can also use in informal American English. Anyhow, whenever the bare infinitive of the verb is used in the subclauses, a problem raises dealing with distinguishing structurally the present subjunctive (except with *be*) from the present

indicative particularly when the subject is plural or first person singular. According to Huddleston (1984), “There is no verb in English where the present subjunctive, the (present) imperative and the infinitive are distinct, so that we have no grounds for making an inflectional difference here, a difference of morphological form” (p.82).

The present subjunctive *be* is taken an exception. Because the indicative forms of *be* for the first person singular, the third person singular and plural persons are *am*, *is*, *are* respectively. Hence, Zandvoort (1969) pointed out the case of *be* as the formal opposition subjunctive and indicative in all singular and plural persons. In regard to *be* in the present subjunctive, Thomson & Martinet (1986) also affirmed, “The present subjunctive has exactly the same form as the infinitive; therefore the present subjunctive of *to be* is *be* for all persons, and the present subjunctive of all other verbs is the same as their present tense except that *s* is not added for the third person singular” (p. 253).

By considering the verb forms in which subjunctive and indicative moods are identical, Robert (1954) concluded that the definition of mood should not be undertaken by form alone. Moreover, Depraetere & Reed (2006), for the same reason, stated, “The base form of the subjunctive present in referring to the form can be embedded in a clause with present, past or future reference.” (p.1). To determine the subjunctive mood, there are few formal clues and indicator in English. In the present subjunctive, the only indication is the bare infinitive of the verb. Obviously, it is easy to distinguish the present subjunctive when the subject is third person singular. Because the third person singular of a verb may occur with or without *s*. Cannon (1959) argued that, the only applicable formal indication for the subjunctive present mood is the uninflected form of the verb in the third person singular. Zandvoort (1969) mentioned the opposition of subjunctive and indicative mood in literary English in the third person singular. “The present subjunctive is most easily

distinguished from the present indicative when the subject is 3rd person singular: the subjunctive lacks the –s ending. Thus in *I know that he takes the bus* the subordinate clause has an indicative verb, whereas in *I recommend that he take the bus* it has a subjunctive” (Huddleston, 1984, p. 80). Huddleston’s view was asserted by Hirtle (2007) that “The absence of –s here is significant because this is one of the marks for recognizing a verb in the subjunctive mood in English” (p. 39).

The majority of grammarians asserted the decline, disuse or rarely use of the subjunctive mood nowadays. In addition, they accept that there is a tendency to use the corresponding indicative sentences. That is, the indicative form can be replaced in some subjunctive clauses at least informally. Notwithstanding, as Willis (1950) illustrated occasionally “an indicative form is awkward, as in “I recommend that he comes with us” (176). It should bear in mind that it is not sometimes easy to determine the type of mood represented in the subordinate clauses. For example, the following sentence is difficult to be realized as indicative or subjunctive.

[274] “I insist that we *reconsider* the Council’s decision. [indicative or subjunctive]”

(Quirk et al., 1985, p. 155)

Quirk et al. (1985) discussed that it was reasonable to say that there is a neutralization of two moods of indicative and subjunctive present where the base form of the verb can be attributed to both. The below example is an instance of neutralizations of present indicative and present subjunctive constructions.

[275] (1b) “Our decision is that the schools *remain* closed.”

While the following sentences can be distinguished because of having the criterions of ‘the absence of Do-supporter’ and also ‘–s inflection of third person singular’ for present subjunctive mood.

[276] “(1) Our decision is that the school *remain* closed. [subjunctive]

[277] (1a) Our decision is that the school *remains* closed. [indicative]

[278] (2) They insisted that we *not eat* meat. [subjunctive]

[279] (2a) They insisted that we *do not eat* meat. [indicative] ” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 157).

Zandvoort (1969) clarified that if the conditions of the sentences are the same “the opposition subjunctive_ indicative may be felt potentially in other persons than the third singular if the conditions are otherwise the same:

When Pierre insisted that they quit the house...

As we passed through Pevensey he suggested that we stop and have a look over the castle” (p.87).

a) Subordinate Clauses

Jespersen (1924) noted that one of the functions of the subjunctive is simply in subordinate clauses. That is true. Because the subjunctive mood is typically used in dependent clauses. In other words, “The subjunctive is found mainly in subordinate clauses” (Palmer, 2001, p.5). According to Palmer (2001), “It is, in fact, no coincidence that the term ‘subjunctive’ is a translation of the Classical Greek *hypotaktiké* which literally means subordinate. Indeed, in Latin, the subjunctive was increasingly used in subordinate sentences even where there seemed to be no notion of irrealis” (p. 108).

a.1 That-clause (Mandative Clause)

Such sentences in *that* clause merely represent the hypothetical and unfulfilled actions. They contrast with the indicative mood in which their verb expresses an ambiguous fact. The request sentences can be considered subjunctive mood because the main clauses of such constructions can be derived from the sentences including *should* to express

obligation, request. Leech & Svartvik (2003) maintained that in some *that* clause, “the clause expresses an intention” (p. 128).

The use of such construction is becoming rare in English, particularly in British English. However, it seems to be alive in written American English. According to Palmer (2001), “It is merely the simple form of the verb, which has several functions in English, particularly those of the infinitive and the imperative. Little is gained by calling it ‘subjunctive’ rather than acknowledging that it represents one function of the simple, uninflected, form” (p. 202).

This kind of subjunctive mood which is used in the subordinate clause of *that* clause is called *Mandative* mood. As Greenbaum (1996) described, *That* clauses “complement verbs, adjectives, or nouns when the clauses convey an order, request, or intention” (p. 268). The main use of the subjunctive mood in present-day English is in *that*-clause. Korrel (1991) believed that the present subjunctive express positive possibility and “What the subjunctive discusses are the chances of the event being actualized” (p. 14).

a.1.1 After Particular Verbs

The subjunctive mood can be used after verbs such as demand, require, ask, command, order, propose, recommend, suggest, request, insist, decide, intend, urge, move, prefer and request.

According to Huddleston (1984), “Subjunctive is used for the verb form associated with subordinate clauses involving non-factuality (e.g. *Liz insisted that he take the bus*, where *take* is in a subordinate clause and where I am not reporting a factual assertion of liz’s, but a speech act in which she was concerned to bring about a certain event) (p.78).

[280] “Israel insists that it *remain* in charge on the borders [. . .] [*International Herald Tribune*, 24 January 1994, p. 8]” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.266)

[281] “I insist that the Council *reconsider* its decision.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 155)

[282] “I desire that he leave at once.” (Willis, 1950, p.175)

Sometimes the verb *insist* which is used before *that* clause in the subjunctive mood, could make ambiguity in determining subjunctive or indicative mood. “The use of the subjunctive after *insist* depends on meaning. When this verb introduces an indirect statement, the indicative is used, but when it introduces an indirect directive, the subjunctive is more likely:

She *insists* that he *is* guilty of fraud.

We *insist* that he *be* admitted to hospital immediately” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 157).

There is an important point in reference to object in the subordinate clauses after some verbs of this group. The object may be included only infinitive construction or *that* clause.

If the object is with infinitive construction, the sentence is not subjunctive mood.

For examples, by considering the following examples, it is realized that the first sentence is mandative mood. Since the object is all *that* clause.

[283] “We ask *that the government be circumspect*.

[284] We ask the Government *to be circumspect*.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 157)

We found out so far that the mandative mood is used in subordinate clauses which are attached to and depended to an independent or main clause. Therefore, “It is indifferent whether the verb in the main clause is in the present or in the past tense” (Zandvoort, 1969, p.86). As a matter of fact, examples of the latter are by far the most frequent. The following are two more examples adapted from Zandvoort (1969):

[285] “Miss Dorothy L. Sayers has passed to us your letter of June 22 and has asked to
thank you for your suggestion that she come over to Holland to lecture next
Autumn or Winter.” (Zandvoort, 1969, p.86)

[286] “The men had said that he must have been delayed, and had suggested that she wait.
Jonna had insisted that he come.” (Zandvoort, 1969, p.87)

In the subjunctive mood, all verbs except the past tense of *be*, the subjunctive is the same as bare infinitive, that is, infinitive without *to*. “The present subjunctive of verbs other than *be* is only distinct from the present indicative in the third person singular, where the indicative has the –s form” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.266). In other words, the verbs in the subjunctive mood do not change according to person. *Be* can be used as the subjunctive form in the progressive auxiliary (present participle) and also in passive auxiliary (past participle).

[287] “The technology of hard disk systems requires that the disk *be spinning* at about
3,000 revolutions per minute.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.266)

[288] “He proposed last June that American Medical *be acquired* by a new employee-
stock ownership plan.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.266)

a.1.1.1 With *should* + infinitive

Palmer (2001) stated that the construction *should* with infinitive is “as such of comparable with the subjunctive” (p. 202) and it “is also used to express the deontic notions of weak obligation” (p. 127). In British English the construction of *should* with infinitive in present subjunctive is usually used rather than bare infinitive in the mandative mood. This tendency is “more especially when the finite verb is *be* (e.g. in the passive voice)” (Quirk et al, 1985, p. 157). In addition, in consonance with Greenbaum (1996) the alternative indicative sometimes can be used.

The *should* in this construction was termed *putative* by Quirk et al. (1985). Because “it refers to putative situations that are recognized as possibility existing or coming into

existence” (Palmer, 2001, p. 202). The construction *should* + infinitive in American English “is a less formal alternative” (Depraetere & Reed, 2006, p.271) and it is quite common “in newspaper language” Leech & Svartvik (2003, p. 128) and “in less formal contexts the indicative or *should* + infinitive are now used by many speakers. (We recommend that *he gets/should get a visa.*)” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 196). Further examples:

[289] “He suggested that a petition (should) be drawn up.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 253)

[290] “Congress has voted/decided/decreed/ insisted that the present law should continue to operate. *Should* is also can be omitted.” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 128)

Khlebnikova (1976) believed that the combination of *should* with infinitive “is often assigned to the conjunctive mood or set aside in a special mood” (p.22). Conjunctive mood in his opinion has two varieties of subjunctive and conditional moods.

a.1.1.2 After Adjectival Expressions

The subjunctive mood can be used after similar adjectival expressions with the adjectives like *desirable, crucial, essential, important, imperative, necessary, advisable, fitting, vital* or *urgent* indicating the idea that something is desirable or important.

[291] “It is right that this House *debate* this issue.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 196)

[292] “It is essential that he *take* her with him.” (Huddleston, 1984, p.80)

“The use of this subjunctive occurs chiefly in formal style and especially in American English” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 294). Huddleston (1984) remarked that the construction like above could be alien to the dialects of some speakers.

a.1.1.2.1 With *should* + infinitive

[293] “It is necessary *that every member* should inform himself of these rules.” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 294)

a.1.1.3 After Particular Noun Clauses

According to Willis (1950) with the noun clauses that state concepts such as obligation and propriety the subjunctive is commonly used. Therefore, the subjunctive present can be used after similar noun clauses with the nouns like *decision, demand, decree, insistence, proposal, recommendation, request, requirement, suggestion, order, requirement, resolution* indicating the idea that something is desirable or important

a.2 In Adverbial Clause

Present subjunctive can be also used in other subordinate clauses such as adverbial clause in other contexts. According to Zandvoort (1969) and Greenbaum (1996) the subjunctive in adverbial clauses is chiefly found in conditional and concessive clauses.

[294] “The Labour Party’s 1983 election manifesto, which committed it to a nonnuclear defence policy and, *be it remembered*, to withdrawal from the European Community, became known as the "longest suicide note in history”. (Greenbaum, 1996, p.267)

The present subjunctive is accompanied by subject-verb inversion in the absence of a subordinator:

[295] “There is very little tax manoeuvre uh for the Chancellor *come* the budget (‘when the budget comes’)” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.267)

The adverbial clauses are usually accompanied with subordinating conjunctions such as *if, as if, though, as though, even though, whether, whatever, lest*.

a.2.1 If, Even if

“The subjunctive is used in conditional clauses in a number of languages” (Palmer, 2001, p.125).

[296] “The inventor may, if he *live* in London, or *visit* that city, search the files of the

Patent Office.” (Zandvoort, 1969, p.87)

[297] “(Even) *if* that *be* the official view, it cannot be accepted. (formal)” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 158)

Roberts (1954) believed that above all archaic usage of this kind of present subjunctive construction, “they are sometimes cultivated in Choice English to give tone to the discourse. For instance, the present subjunctive is sometimes used in preference to the more normal indicative in doubtful conditions” (p. 164)

[298] “If night *fall* before we get out of the swamp, we are lost.” (Roberts, 1954, p. 164)

[299] “If she *sing* again, I shall leave the room.” (Roberts, 1954, p. 166)

[300] “If he *be* ready to help us, let him come forward.” (Roberts, 1954, p. 164)

“*If need be* (‘if need exists’, ‘if there is need’) and *be it remembered* (‘it should be remembered’, with subject-verb inversion) are fixed expressions:

[301] You can teach him *if need be*.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.267)

a.2.1.1 With *should* + infinitive

[302] “If John should come, Bill will leave.” (Palmer, 2001, p.202)

In Comparing with ‘If John comes, Bill will leave.’

Regarding the construction *should* + infinitive in the conditional clause, Palmer (2001) commented that it expresses some uncertainty and is different from the conditional sentences type 2. He believed that it is not at issue the *should* construction be called subjunctive or not. “They have some parallel with subjunctives in other languages, but, on the other hand, the term ‘subjunctive’ used to indicate an inflectional category. *Should* is formally merely the past tense form of a modal verb” (Palmer, 2001, p.202).

a.2.2 *Lest* or *for fear*

The present subjunctive can be used in the conditional clause with the conditional

conjunction *lest* or its corresponding phrase *for fear* can be used. Quirk et al. (1985) clarified this construction clause as “Clauses of condition or negative purpose introduced by *lest* or *for fear*” (p. 158). According to him, *lest* construction is more common in American English; but in British English, it is limited to very formal language.

[303] “The President must reject this proposal, *lest* it *cause* strife and violence.

(formal)” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 158)

[304] “I asked him to ring first lest we were out.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 39)

a.2.3 *As/so long as*

[305] “So long as a volume hold together, I am not much troubled as to its outer appearance.” (Zandvoort, 1969, p.87)

a.2.4 *Though, as though, even though, as if*

[306] “Though everyone desert you, I will not.” (Zandvoort, 1969, p.87)

There is a very low frequency in using such a construction in modern English language.

“It occurs very rarely in concessive (though) clauses when the concession is thought of as impossible of fulfillment” (Roberts, 1954, p. 164)

[307] “Though he *make* a million dollars, what does he gain?” (Roberts, 1954, p. 164)

[308] “He ate as though (as if) he were famished.” (Willis, 1950, p.176)

[309] “But on the other hand if we’re advancing, even though that *be* quite slow, quite different attitudes uh prevail.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.267)

a.2.5 *Whether* (correlative conjunction)

[310] “The students would keep a record of what it is that’s going on whether it *be*

routine mundane day by day things or something out of the ordinary.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.267)

[311] “Whether it be fowl or fish, we will eat it.” (Willis, 1950, p.176)

a.2.6 *Whatever*

[312] “Whatever *be* the reasons for it, we cannot tolerate disloyalty (= ‘Whatever the reasons for it may be ...’)” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 128)

b) Main Clauses

The present subjunctive can also be used in the main clauses. “It is found only in archaic or formulaic sentences” (Huddleston, 1984, p.80) and “its uses there are rather more simply explained than its uses in subordinate clauses” (Palmer, 2001, p.108).

b.1 Optative Subjunctive

Few languages like Sanskrit, Old Iranian (Old Persian, Avestan), Old Greek, Albanian, Finnish, Japanese, have a distinct mood of optative mood. In most languages, optative mood overlap with the subjunctive mood.

Optative or Formulaic mood is contributed to the subjunctive construction which is used in independent clauses and indicates “a desire or some stronger expression of will” or “a wish or hope, very often involving supernatural powers” in accordance with Curme (1929) and Thomson & Martinet, (1986) respectively. The different grammarians have referred to identical constructions of optative or formulaic by using various terms and expressions. These constructions are archaic and formulaic and as Roberts (1954) rightly remarked, such set of phrases has been preserved from old present subjunctive. It seems these particular constructions will be kept continuing to use. They are stylistically formal, rather old-fashioned and sometimes rather elevated and cultivated. According the

following linguists and grammarians, the optative subjunctive constructions are “a set of phrases to express a realizable wish”, Jespersen (1933), “various traditional subjunctive forms” Willis (1950), “a number of traditional phrases” Zandvoort (1969), “fossilized expressions” Cannon (1959), “certain exclamation” Thomson & Martinet (1986), “certain idioms” Leech & Svartvik (2003), “a few expressions of a fairly fixed type” Quirk et al. (1985), “in fossilized stereotyped expressions” Downing & Locke (2006).

In this construction, sometimes the word orders of subject and verb inverted. “There may be subject-verb inversion” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.268). Hence, Quirk et al. (1985) mentioned it as one of irregularities in English sentences. “One type of irregular sentences contains the optative subjunctive, used to express a wish. ... It is combined with subject-verb inversion” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 839). According to Willis (1950) such phrases are not likely to change because they have been left from a time in the far past that subjunctive was more prominent.

The following sentences are the optative subjunctive with subject-verb inversion:

Quirk et al. (1985) believed that the force of subjunctive which can be conveyed by *let* and *may* in such constructions is similar that of an expression of will.

[313] “Far be it from me to spoil the fun.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 839)

[314] “Suffice it to say that we won.” [“Let it suffice...”] (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 158)

[315] “Poll tax is dead, long live the council tax!” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.268)

[316] “Be this purse an earnest of my thanks.” (Curme, 1929, 396)

[317] “Curse this fog!” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 254)

[318] “Come what may, we’ll stand by you!” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 254)

[319] “Long live the Queen! (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 196)

[320] “Perish the thought.” (Depraetere & Reed, 2006, p.271)

The optative subjunctive is also found without inversion in:

[321] “God save the Queen! [‘may God save the Queen’]” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 158)

[322] “God bless you!” (Curme, 1929, 396)

[323] “Heaven forbid!” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 128)

[324] “Heaven preserve us!” (Jespersen, 1933, p.294)

[325] “God save the Queen.” (Depraetere & Reed, 2006, p.271)

According to Greenbaum (1996), normal word order is found with other expressions:

“Woe betide the incumbent who raises taxes.

At last, after all these years, I’ve learnt the truth about Blue Peter. God rot the grown-up who told me it was the name of the galleon in the programme’s logo” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 268).

b.1.1 With *May*

“The old simple subjunctive is now more commonly replaced here by the form with may” (Curme, 1929, p. 398). As Quirk et al. (1985), Greenbaum (1996) discussed,

The subject- operator inversion construction with *may* (*may* + subject + prediction) is also used to express wishes and usually blessings. It is an alternative, less restricted and less archaic formula in optative subjunctive.

[326] “May you see many happy returns of the occasion!” (Curme, 1929, 396)

[327] “May you never have reason to regret your decision.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.268)

[328] “May the best man win!” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 839)

b.1.2 With *Would*

According to Quirk et al (1985), *would (to God)* is another archaic formula in optative subjunctive which is “followed by a *that*-clause with past forms of verb” (p.839).

[329] Would (to God) that I’d never heard of him!” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 839)

b.2 In Conditional Clauses

Notice also the phrase *if need be*, which means “if it is necessary”:

[330] “If they decide that it’s necessary then *so be it*.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.268)

[331] “If that’s how you feel, *so be it*.” (Depraetere & Reed, 2006, p.271)

[332] “If *need be* we can always bring another car.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 254)

5.2.2.1.2 Past Tense

5.2.2.1.2.1 Past Subjunctive

Two verbal constructions appear in the past subjunctive: *Should* + infinitive and *were*.

a) That Clause (Mandative Clause)

a.1 *Should* + Infinitive

The construction *should* + infinitive as a past subjunctive appears in a mandative clause or *that-clause as a subordinate clause in a compound clause*.

Palmer (2001) properly remarked that *should* can refer to the present or past time. He illustrated the sentence like “*It surprises me that you should say that*” can be equivalent to either of two following sentences:

It surprises me that you say that.

It surprises me that you said that.” (p.202)

Qurik et al. (1985) referred to this use of *should* as ‘putative’. By *putative* it means that it refers tentatively to putative situation, to a possible situation and potential existence rather than the situation as a fact. *Should* does not convey the meaning of obligation in such cases but it underlines an emotional reaction to a possible or presumed fact.

Here are some more subjunctive examples in contrast with their indicative parallels.

[333] “I’m surprised that he should feel lonely.”

[334] “I’m surprised that he feels lonely.” (Palmer, 2001, p.202)

[335] “It’s a pity that they should be so obstinate.”

[336] “It’s a pity if they are so obstinate.” (Palmer, 2001, p.202)

a.2 Were

The past subjunctive is sometimes called *were* subjunctive. Because the only formal verb structure that is used for all subject persons is *were*. In other words, the only existing past subjunctive form of *be* which is distinct for first and third person singular is *were*. The use of *were* is marginal, partly because it is used restrict in the subordinate clause of conditional sentences and also strictly, because there is one past tense form for all subjects in the sentences. “What is irregular is the use of *was* in the singular for all other past tense forms, for no other verb has different forms for singular and plural” (Palmer, 2001, p.202).

Were in the subjunctive mood either refers to “a hypothetical or to a counterfactual situation” (Depraetere & Reed, 2006, p.1), and to “the attitude of improbable concession (‘thought it were possible’)” (Roberts, 1954, p. 167); or expresses “negative possibility, a condition that is not real” (Zandvoort, 1969, p.112), (Korrel, 1991, p. 14), “the attitude of impossible condition (‘if it were possible’)” (Roberts, 1954, p. 167). Quirk et al. (1985) and Downing & Locke (2006) clarified that *were* in the plural and second person singular can be identified and it is distinguishable from the indicative form of *was* in the first and third person singular as well. Similarly, Zandvoort (1969) mentioned the verb form of *were* as the formal opposition of subjunctive-indicative. Despite all remarks in making distinction between the past subjunctive and the past indicative, Huddleston (1984) believed that “The status of the distinction between the past indicative and the past subjunctive is, however, more problematical” (p.83).

Sometimes the subject-verb inversion occurs for the past subjunctive *were*. In such cases, *were* introduces the clause instead of the conditional and concessive conjunctions *if*, *unless*, *as if*, *though* or *as though*.

[337] “*Were* it everywhere, all his poetry would be ruined.” (Roberts, 1954, p. 166)

[338] “*Were* this a Yoshizawa book, the designs would be yet more beautiful, but western writers are not usually permitted to publish the best of his work.”

(Greenbaum, 1996, p.269)

To find out an answer for the question why the past form is used in the subjunctive sentences, Jespersen (1933) tried to give a psychological reason. Jespersen discussed that the tense which is used in the past subjunctive is an imaginative tense to indicate unreality. The verbs of *wish* or *suppose* and the conditional conjunctions such as *if* do not to indicate real and notional time, while it indicates imagination and great improbability. He considered the concept of the past to ‘remoteness’. He says that use of the past “removed the idea from the actual present and keeps the action or state denoted by the verb at some distance” (Cannon, 1959, p. 14). In most other cases, *were* is indifferent as it regards time, and only expresses *Irreality*:

[339] “I wish it were over.” (Zandvoort, 1969, p.88)

Willis (1950), Roberts (1954), Thomson & Martinet (1986), Leech & Svartvik (2003), Huddleston (1984) and Greenbaum (1996) are among almost all the grammarians who advocate that *was* is often used in conversations and informal language. Dealing with the usage of the verb form of *was* instead of *were* in everyday English, Willis (1950) believed “any verb form that sounds natural is acceptable, at least in informal conversation” (p.176) and Leech & Svartvik (2003) affirmed that in the subjunctive sentences “*Was* can also be used and is more common in informal style” (p. 294). Nevertheless, Roberts

(1954) believed that “*was* in these clauses would be strong indication of the speaker’s lack of education” (p. 165).

[340] “If I was principal, I would expel the Ancient Rubrics.” (Willis, 1950, p.176)

[341] “He run as if he was fired.” (Willis, 1950, p.176)

[342] “I wish she was more courteous.” (Willis, 1950, p.176)

[343] “If she *were/was* to do something like that, ...” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 294)

[344] “He spoke to me as if *were/was* deaf.” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 294)

[345] “I wish I *were/was* dead.” (Leech & Svartvik, 2003, p. 294)

Greenbaum (1996) asserted that the application of past indicative *was* is more common than subjunctive *were* in informal contexts. He mentioned the fixed expression “*as it were*” as an exception. “In subordinate clauses referring to present time that are introduced by *as if* or *as though*, the present indicative is an alternative to subjunctive *were*” (p.269). Roberts (1954), Zandvoort (1969), Quirk et al. (1985), Downing & Locke (2006) and Greenbaum (1996) illustrated some examples as subjunctive auxiliary in progressive and passive forms or as semi-auxiliary in *were to*. Thus, subjunctive *were* can be used in past progressive tense as well. “We have so far distinguished a past subjunctive form only in the verb *be*, used either as a linking verb or as an auxiliary” (Roberts, 1954, p. 165).

[346] “She looked as though she *were* fainting.” (Zandvoort, 1969, p.88)

[347] “All this would be great news if oil *were selling* at \$40 a barrel.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.269)

[348] “If I/he/she *were* leaving, you would have heard about it. [subjunctive]” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 156)

[349] “These options would look more attractive if the capital-gains tax *were* reduced.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.269)

[350] “He said Sony would not object even if Columbia *were to make* a movie critical

of the late Emperor Hirohito, although he added that people in Japan might not want to see it.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.269)

In accordance with Greenbaum (1996) and Depraetere & Reed (2006) the past subjunctive *were* is used in hypothetical conditional clauses and in tentative situations or in other hypothetical constructions such as concessive clauses in counterfactual situations. It is important to note that the verb of the main clause may be past, present or future. That is, “the hypothetical or counterfactual situation may be located in the present, the past or the future” (Depraetere & Reed, 2006, p.271).

[351] “Jimmie wishes/wished/will wish his girlfriend *were* with him.” (Depraetere & Reed, 2006, p.271)

a.2.1 In Adverbial Clauses

a.2.1.1 Conditional Clauses

Subjunctive *were* in conditional clauses is usually co-occurred with conditional conjunctions such as *If, even if, unless*

[352] “If I *were* you, I should go.” (Zandvoort, 1969, p.88)

[353] “If I *were* you . . .” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 196)

[354] “What would you say if I *were* to refuse to go?” (Depraetere & Reed, 2006, p.271)

[355] “If she *were* living closer, I’d visit her more often.” (Depraetere & Reed, 2006, p.271)

[356] “If I *were* you, I’d apply for the York position just for the experience.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 269)

[357] “If my tabby, Genghis Khan, *were serenaded* by Mignon Dunn, he would speed down the fire escape never to return.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.269)

[358] “If I *were* President, I would resign.” (Willis, 1950, p.175)

Downing & Locke (2006) argued, there is one area in conditional sentences which contrast indicative and subjunctive. That area is in *if-clause* of conditional sentences type 2, where the indicative *was* contrasts with the subjunctive *were*. They gave the following examples:

[359] “If he *was* here I didn’t see him. (indicative)” ; [360] “If he *were* here I would surely see him. (subjunctive)”

“Only the second *if* clause is truly conditional. The first, meaning “if it is true that he was here”, is rhetorical condition in that his being here is not a condition for my seeing him. This is also referred to as pragmatic conjunction” (p. 196).

a.2.1.2 Concessive Clauses

The concessive conjunctions like *though*, *as though*, *even though*, *as if* accompanied in the adverbial clause *were* subjunctive.

[361] “As it *were*. (stereotyped phrase)” (Zandvoort, 1969, p.88)

[362] “And this is a French Revolutionary satire which tells uh projects as it *were* the fate of the British government uh if the French were to invade, in seventeen ninety-three.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.269).

[363] “I felt as if I *were standing* in the grim grocery store Mr. Gumbel describes with such meaningful detail.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.269)

[364] “He orders me about as if I were his wife. (but I am not)” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 254).

[365] “He spoke as if he were inspired” (Willis, 1950, p.175)

[366] “It’s as though there *were* a garden round him.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.269)

[367] “He behaves as though he were the owner. (But he is not the owner.)” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 253)

a.2.4 In Nominal Clause

a.2.4.1 With the Verb *wish*

[368] “Jimmie wishes/wished/will wish his girlfriend *were* with him.” (Depraetere & Reed, 2006, p.1)

[369] “In fact, I rather think you wish it *were* true.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.269)

[370] “I wish she were coming.” (Willis, 1950, p.175)

“And occasionally the condition or concession is introduced otherwise:

[371] Let us suppose it *were* someday proved ... (Peter Viereck, *Harper's*)” (Roberts, 1954, p. 166).

5.2.3 Imperative Mood

The scholars like Roberts (1954), Huddleston (1984), Quirk et al. (1985), Huddleston & Pullum (2002), Depraetere & Reed (2006) believed that imperative construction is not tensed formally. In other words, there is no distinction tense in the imperative. Nevertheless, Jespersen (1933) maintained that the tense of the imperative is future. Because the meaning of an imperative is a request and the reference of a tense is future. On one hand, Willis (1950) stated that the tense of imperative might be said to be in the present tense for simplicity. However, he did not consider tense as a factor. As the imperative is used only in request or command sentences, the request sentence is referred to an audience of one or more. “This fact of required audience is germane to the question of whether the imperative verb as a subject” (p. 177). In his view, the imperative verb form is always the stem and has no any number. It may take complements and modifiers the same as that of indicative.

Roberts (1954) affirmed that it should not be emphasized on concept of command in the imperative. “Because commands are expressed in many ways: “You will please be ready

at seven,” “I wish you to be ready at seven,” etc.” (p. 167). He proposed to consider the imperative and the present subjunctive as one mood in order to represent a way to describe English mood soundly and to learn it readily. Since they are inflectionally unmarked and they are used “for commands, indirect orders, conditions of doubt, hypothetical statements, etc.” (p.168). He exemplified the following sentences for his proposal:

[372] “Be ready.” ; [373] “I insist that you be ready.”

[374] “It is imperative that you be ready.” ; [375] “Be ready, and you have no regrets.”

[376] “If you be ready, you will have no regrets.”

According to Huddleston (1984), the imperative mood is used in the imperative forms usually in requests and commands. These forms “occur in what we are calling imperative clauses” (p. 80). In addition, “An imperative sentence will typically be used to issue what we shall call a “directive”- a term that covers requests, commands, prohibitions, instructions and the like” (p.351).

Huntley (1984) mentioned some common uses of imperative mood such as orders, commands, demands, requests, threats, exhortations, permissions, concessions, warnings and advice. He discussed that these variable illocutionary act examples must be interpreted with regard to the context and based on a pragmatic theory. “It needs to be determined, however, to what extent the interpretation of an utterance of an imperative as constituting the performance of a particular illocutionary act is determined by the semantic structure of the sentence, and to what extent it is determined by context” (p. 103). Quirk et al. (1985) commented that the time reference of imperative structures is immediate or more remote future and thus the parts of speech like the adverbial times in past or with habitual reference, disjuncts, tag questions with imperatives are inappropriate:

**Come yesterday.*

**Usually drive your car.*

**Unfortunately, pay your rent now.*

In accordance with Celce-Murcia et al. (1999) imperative sentences are ‘tenseless’ and the highest evidence for his view “are those imperatives formed with the copula *be*” (p. 229). Because there is a remarkable distinction between declarative and imperative sentences when the verb is *be*. “This is because *be* has retained different forms for person and tense (*am, is, are*)” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 193)

[377] “You *be* quite!” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 229)

[378] “*Be* quiet!” (Cowan, 2008, p. 110)

[379] “*Be* glad that you escaped without injury!” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 828)

[380] “*Don’t be* a stranger!” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 828)

[381] “You *be* the doctor and I’ll be the nurse.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 193)

[382] “*Be* ready when the bell rings!” (Huntley, 1984, p. 105)

[383] “Be an angel and fetch me my slippers please.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 197)

Depraetere & Reed (2006) stated that the imperative is not marked for tense and it is formally realizable by its base form of the verb. “Huddleston and Pullum et al. (2002:89-90) point out that although the form used in the imperative construction is never tensed, there are grounds for considering an imperative clause to be more like a finite clause than it is like a nonfinite clause” (Depraetere & Reed, 2006, p.287).

Dealing with the structure and form in the sentence and verb in imperative mood, we may encounter different ideas and comments of linguists. As it was mentioned above, indicatives have no particular inflection marker. The imperative form is the base form or

the bare infinitive form of the verb. Nonetheless, various constructions may be employed for imperative. Furthermore, its structural characteristics should be determined to help in distinguishing them from other moods.

a) Imperative Construction

For more easy study and investigation, the imperative construction can be classified based on subject persons in the sentence. Zanuttini (2008) mentioned four types of imperative subjects: “null subjects, the overt pronoun *you*, certain quantificational subjects and bare noun phrases” (p. 187).

According to the linguists like Huddleston (1984), Downing & Locke (2006), Zanuttini (2008), the imperative subjects can be interpreted by inclusive or exclusive the implicit subject *we*. “The interpretation of imperative clauses typically involves an individual that corresponds to the addressee in the given context, or a set of individuals that coincides or overlaps with the set of addressees” (Zanuttini, 2008, p. 186). The inclusive imperatives are the same as second person imperatives. Moreover, the exclusive imperatives are the third person imperative constructions.

a.1 Second Person

Lyons (1977) affirmed that the imperative mood could strictly be used with the subject sentence of second person. Thus, in accordance with him, the other imperatives with first or third person are not included as imperative. Palmer (2001) contended that Lyons’ remark could be treated as a terminological issue, “since first and third person ‘imperatives’ are often simply called ‘jussives’” (Palmer, 2001, p.81). In addition, Zannutini (2008) believed that imperative subjects are puzzling in several respects: “null subjects are possible with a definite interpretation, unlike in other clause types;

quantificational subjects are often restricted to range over a set containing the addressee and exhibit binding possibilities not readily available to them in declaratives and interrogatives and third person referential subjects are for most speakers limited to bare noun phrases” (p. 185).

a.1.1 Bare Infinitive Forms

a.1.1.1 Without *You*

Thomson & Martinet (1986) explained that commands are expressed by the imperative. As Greenbaum (1996) clarified the imperative with second person subject is the major construction and extremely frequent among other imperatives. Commonly the second person subject does not appear in the sentence, but *you* is implied as subject. Such sentences are called subjectless. Zanuttini (2008) employed the term “null subject” for the imperatives with second person features while they can bind second person pronoun and anaphors. Obviously, the term “null subject” distinctively is different from the terms null subject (pro-drop) and non-null subject languages in linguistic typology. “Traditional grammarians have referred to the null subject of the imperative sentence as the ‘understood you. In other words, the subject of an unmarked form of an imperative is the second person-singular or plural subject pronoun, *you*” (p. 110).

[384] “Kneel down.” (Russell, 2007, p. 137)

[385] “Pass me the salt, please.” (Yule, 1998, p. 195)

[386] “Tell me what you want.” (Huddleston, 2005, 175)

[387] “Don’t be shy.” (Aarts, 2011, p. 171)

Zanuttini (2008) stated, the fact of the second person as the subject of a sentence is confirmed when it followed by a tag question as shown in the following examples:

[388] “Raise your hand! → Raise your hand, won’t you?” (Zanuttini, 2008, p. 188)

[389] “Wash yourselves!→ Wash yourselves, won’t you?” (Zanuttini, 2008, p. 188)

In addition, Quirk et al. (1985) represented three ways for demonstrating the dropped second person subject pronoun in an imperative sentence. In such cases, the meaning of indicative implies the omission of subject. “The implication can be deducted by the occurrence of:

a. *you* as subject of a following tag question

Be quiet, will you?

b. *yourself* or *yourselves* as the second reflexive pronouns

Behave yourself.

Behave yourselves.

c. the emphatic possessive *your own*

Use your own comb” (Quirk et al.,1985, p. 828).

a.1.1.1.1 With *Do*

According to Quirk et al. (1985), Downing & Locke (2006),Greenbaum (1996), to make a verb more persuasive or insistent, less abrupt in an affirmative imperative, *Do* (with a nuclear tone) can be added before the affirmative verb. This construction is more frequent in British English. Quirk et al. (1985) stated that in this construction, “*Do* reinforces the positive sense of the imperative. For many people this persuasive use of *do* seems more typical of female than male speech” (p. 833) and “to some speakers, *do* sounds rather old-fashioned now” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 194) and in the line with Thomson & Martinet (1986), it could also express irritation.

[390] “Do be quiet, please!” (Leech et al., 2001, p. 212)

[391] “Do keep still, Pat!” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 194).

[392] “Do kneel down.” (Russell, 2007, p. 137)

This type of *Do* acts as an introductory imperative marker. Downing & Locke (2006) called it second person emphatic imperative. Quirk et al. (1985) commented that it is different from the emphatic *do*. “They are not introduced to make good the lack of an operator, but indeed are added to the front of an operator if one is present” (Quirk et al, 1985, p. 833).

[393] “Do be seated.” (Quirk et al, 1985, p. 833)

[394] “Don’t be lazy.” (Cowan, 2008, p.111)

“Furthermore, this peculiarity of imperative *do* is also found in the quasi-imperative *why don’t you* construction: *Why don’t you be more careful?*” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 833)

Celce-Murcia et al. (1999) believed that negative imperative is more complicated than their affirmative counterparts. He mentioned negative imperative occurs in three construction types: “contracted negative; subject present”, “contracted negative; subject absent”, and “uncontracted negative; subject absent” The two latter appear without *you*. ‘*Don’t*’ precedes the infinitive form of the verb.

[395] “Don’t shoot!” (Zandvoort, 1969, p.208)

[396] “But don’t underestimate the problems.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 50)

[397] “Don’t be silly!” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 194)

[398] “Don’t kneel down.” (Russell, 2007, p. 137)

In the uncontracted negative, *Do not* precedes the verb.

[399] “Do not kneel down.” (Russell, 2007, p. 137)

[400] “Do not run!” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 229)

a.1.1.2 With *You*

The terms ‘Overt pronoun *you*’, and ‘overt pronominal subject’ are the two technical terms used by Zanuttini (2008) for the second imperative construction including subject pronoun *you*. The pronoun *you* is seldom employed. Two functions can be considered for its use in the imperative sentence. According to Thomson & Martinet (1986), it is used when “the speaker wishes to be rude, or wishes to make a distinction, as in:

You go on; I’ll wait” (p. 245).

Greenbaum (1996) pointed out the two applications of *you* in an imperative sentence:

“For contrast or for some kind of emphasis (entreaty or warning)” (p. 50).

[401] “You pay now and I’ll pay next time.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 50)

[402] “You be careful, now!” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 194)

[403] “You do it!” (Zanuttini, 2008, p. 190)

Quirk et al. (1985) explained that the subject *you* in an indicative sentence is stressed and “may be noncontrastive and admonitory” or “contrastive in the sense of addressee-distinguishing, singling out one person or one set of persons” (p. 828). Indeed, the contrastive *you* is vocative which is not accounted as imperative.

a.1.1.2.1 Noncontrastive *You*

Noncontrastive *you* is often expressed in the sentence either with strong irritation,

[404] “You be QUIet!” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 828)

[405] “You mind your own business.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 197)

Or with merely insistence. Therefore, they may be persuasive.

[406] “You show me what to DO.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 828)

[407] “You take the BOOK.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 828)

Confusion may be made between imperative sentences with directive *you* in giving street direction and indicative sentences with *you* as subject. Since the verb form in both sentences is infinitive, there would be a potentially structural ambiguity. “This is disambiguated only in speech, by stress on the imperative subject” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 193). The subject of the indicative is unstressed contrary to the directive subject which is stressed. Moreover, “admonitory tone of the directive would be quite unsuitable in giving street directions (The negative *don’t you* is less peremptory.)” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 829). The following sentences are some examples of imperative and indicatives:

[408] “You go up there until you reach the bridge, then you turn right...” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 829)

[409] “A: How do we get tickets for this show?

B: *You* go and stand in the queue. (unstressed, declarative use of ‘generic’ *you* = ‘one’)” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 193)

[410] “A. What shall we do, then?

B. *You* go and stand in the queue while *I* park the car. (stressed, imperative)” (Downing & Locke, 1992, p. 193)

a.1.1.2.1.1 Tag Question

Will you, would you, could you, can you, won’t you, can’t you, wouldn’t you, couldn’t you? are the tag question phrases which can be appended to imperative sentences in order to invite the listener consent. In addition to these phrases, Quirk et al. (1985) commented the familiar wh-question *why don’t you?* can sometimes be tagged on:

[411] “Take a rest, why don’t you?” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 829)

[412] “Look after your money, won’t you?” (Leech et al., 2001, p. 212)

[413] “Turn on the light, will you?” (Cowan, 2008, p. 68)

a.1.1.2.2 Contrastive *You*

A vocative or a hand gesture such as pointing can help in identifying of the subject personal pronoun. The vocative *you* is usually impolite.

[414] “Don’t tell ME to be quiet. YOU be quiet!” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 828)

The imperative *you* and vocative *you* as the subject of the sentence can be confused.

According to Platzack & Rosengren (1998), the imperative pronoun *you* is internal to the clause, while the vocative *you* is a pronoun “outside the prosodic contour of the clause” (p. 178).

[415] “(i) You, open the door!” (Platzack & Rosengren, 1998, p.178)

[416] “(ii) Open the door, you!” (Platzack & Rosengren, 1998, p.178)

The following dialogue could be a good example of uses of two kinds of *you*: as subject of an imperative or as a vocative. The adapted dialogue is exchange between two women friends was overheard on the London Underground when a seat became vacant.

A1 Sit down!

B2 No, you sit down!

A3 You’re the one with the feet.

B4 So are you. You sit down!

A5 Sit down with the feet, you!

You in B2 and B4 subject of imperative. *You* in A5 vocative after an imperative” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 192).

In the negative imperative construction with *you* or according to Celce-Murcia et al. (1999), ‘Contracted negative; subject present’, ‘*Don’t*’ precedes the infinitive form of the verb and the second person subject *you* appears between them. According to Zandvoort (1969), “For the sake of emphasis or precision, *Don’t* may be followed by *you* in the function of a subject” (Zandvoort, 1969, p.208)

[417] “Don’t you forget it!” (Zandvoort, 1969, p.208)

[418] “Don’t you speak to me like that!” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 194)

[419] “Don’t you wait in the car/bring the stuff inside.” (Russell, 2007, p. 137)

a.1.2 Progressive Form

“The imperative verb lacks tense distinction and does not allow modal auxiliaries. The progressive form is rare, and the perfective even rarer” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 827)

a.1.2.1 With *Be*

[420] “Be listening to this station the same time tomorrow night.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 827)

[421] “(You) be writing the letter when I get there!” (Huntley, 1984, p. 105)

To negate the imperative progressive form, ‘*Don’t*’ precedes *be* + present participle.

[422] “Don’t be kneeling when the priest arrives.” (Russell, 2007, p. 137)

a.1.2.2 With *Let’s get*

The progressive construction with *let’s* usually appear with *get*+ present participle.

[423] “Let’s get moving.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 332)

[424] “Let’s get going.” (Downing & Lock, 2006, p. 194)

a.1.3 Perfective Form

The perfective imperative is even rarer than the progressive form.

[425] “Have done with it. (Idiomatic)” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 828)

[426] “Get it finished before you go to bed.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 828)

[427] “Get it repaired without delay.” (Huddleston et al., 2005, 60)

According to Quirk et al. (1985) the above sentence “is to be contrasted with the common causative complex-transitive *Have it finished before you go to bed*, where *have* is an active imperative and *finished* is a simple passive in the dependent clause. However, the two sentences have close meaning” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 828).

a.1.4 Passive Form

Imperative passive forms occur usually with two verbs *be* or *get*. Passive form with *be* chiefly appears in negative directives, “where they generally have the meaning ‘Don’t allow yourself to be...’” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 828).

a.1.4.1 With *Be*

According to Quirk et al. (1985), this construction is less common in positive directives.

[428] “Be guided by what I say”. [429] “Be reassured by me.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 827)

[430] “Be seated!” , [431] “Be warned!” , [432] “Be prepared!” (please) (Alexander, 1988, p. 199)

Quirk et al. (1985) mentioned the constructions like *be seated* and *be prepared* as examples of pseudo-passives.

To negate the imperative passive form, ‘*Don’t*’ precedes *be* + past participle.

[433] “Don’t be deceived by his looks.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 827)

[434] “Don’t be overwhelmed by this.” (Cowan, 2008, p. 297)

[435] “Don’t be intimidated by vehicles following too close behind.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.51).

a.1.4.2 With *Get* and *Let’s get*

What might be treated as passives occur with *get*:

[436] “Get washed.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 199)

[437] “Get transferred.” [913] Get known. [914] Get dressed. [915] Get weighed.

[438] “Get introduced.” [917] “Get lost.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 827)

[439] “Let’s get started.” (Downing & Lock, 2006, p. 207)

It seems that negative construction with *get* is much less rather than positive.

[440] “Don’t get missed by their promises.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 827)

[441] “Don’t get dressed yet.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 827)

a.2 First Person

a.2.1 With *Let*

According to Quirk et al. (1985), first person imperative can be formed when the objective pronouns *me* or *us* and its colloquial alternative and common abbreviated *’s* followed by *let*. Nonetheless, he pointed out that *let’s* in very colloquial English is sometimes used for a first person singular as well. For example, *Let’s give you a hand.* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 830)

It should be noted that there are two kinds of *let* in modern English. The specified one was called *let^{gr}*, ‘grammaticalised *let*’ by Huddleston (1984) and ‘particle *let*’ by Downing & Locke (2006) opposed to *let^{lex}*, ‘lexical *let*’ the ordinary catenative verb with the meaning ‘allow’, ‘permit’. According to Greenbaum (1996), “*Let* may be a main verb (‘allow’), but *let’s* must be the imperative auxiliary” (p. 50). *Let* in the statements like ‘*He won’t let us go to the beach*’ is indicative. However, *Let^{lex}* can be imperative if the objective pronouns + bare infinitive are followed by *Let*. In such case, the objective pronoun in the first person plural cannot be contracted form to (*’s*). Huddleston (1984), Quirk et al. (1985), Downing & Locke (2006), Celce-Murcia et al. (1999) named the imperative with *let^{lex}* ‘type I imperative’, ‘ordinary 2nd person imperative’, ‘normal imperative’ and ‘exclusive imperative’ respectively. According to Jespersen (1933), “this is not the case if *let* has its original meaning and *us* is used in contrast to the person(s) addressed: “*Let us go*” (= set us free), “*Let us know the time of your arrival.*” (Jespersen, 1933, p. 295).

“*Let alone* is often used in such a way that the original meaning is ‘lost sight of’, and the whole phrase comes to mean ‘not to mention, still less’:

I couldn’t have stood this for two days, let alone two months” (Jespersen, 1933, p. 295).

[442] “Let us go to the beach.” (Huddleston, 1984, p. 361)

[443] “Let’s schedule our next meeting on Monday.” (Cowan, 2008, p. 217)

[444] “Let me put it this way.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 50)

The subject pronoun *you* is rarely used with *let*^{lex}. For example:

[445] “You let us go!” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 194)

Huddleston (1984) argued the *let*^{gr} construction as type II imperative is somehow imprecise and unclear. “Some writers take the *let* as an auxiliary or “particle” and *us* as the subject, but it is not clear that the specialization just described provides valid grounds for assigning distinct constituent structures to, say, *Let us go*, according as it is interpreted as belonging to construction I or II” (Huddleston, 1984, p.362).

However, Huddleston (1984) suggested the following properties in order to distinguish *let*^{gr} from *let*^{lex}:

(a) It is restricted to imperatives and (hence) to main clauses, whereas *let*^{lex} occurs in all clause types and in subordinate clauses as well as main ones.

(b) *Let*^{gr} cannot take *you* (or any other NP) as subject, witness **You let’s go to the beach*; *let*^{lex} by contrast enters into imperatives of type IB as well as IA (*You let your brother have a look*) in its non-declarative interpretation).

(c) The difference in the ‘scope’ of the negation that we find with *let*^{lex} in, say, *Don’t let him eat it* (‘prevent him ...’: *let* is inside the scope of the negative) vs. the comparatively rare but perfectly grammatical *Let him not eat it [if he’s not hungry]* (‘Allow him not to ...’: *let* is outside the scope of the negation), is lost with *let*^{gr}: *Don’t let’s bother* and *Let’s not bother* are equivalent.

(d) *us* following *let^{gr}* may be – and generally is – contracted to *'s*, but such contraction is not possible in construction I: *Let us/ * 's come with you*.

(e) Whereas *we* can normally be interpreted ‘inclusively’ or ‘exclusively’ (i.e. as referring to a group including or excluding the addressee(s): see (7.4), *us* following *let^{gr}* forces an inclusive interpretation– if I say *Let's go to the beach* I'm proposing that you go too. In the verbal component there will often be ambiguity (*Let us see the film* can be type II, roughly ‘I propose that we see the film’ or type IA ‘Allow us to see the film’); I chose *Let us come with you* to exemplify IA because the following *you* effectively rules out an inclusive interpretation of *us*.

(f) *Let^{gr}* cannot of course be replaced by *allow* or *permitted* without changing the construction” (Huddleston, 1984, p.362).

Obviously, *Let^{gr}* and *let^{lex}* can occur in the same clause. For example, *Let's let them in now*. The first *let* is *Let^{gr}* and the latter is *let^{lex}*. Jespersen (1933) mentioned the construction *let* in the word order V-S-V- (O), “Which is extensively used in desires and exhortations” (p. 295). In this construction, *let us* or its contracted form *let's* come before the bare infinitive form of the verb and the implicit subject is *we*. The common use of *let us* or *let's* as *let^{gr}* is to suggest or exhort a collaborative action. Celce-Murcia et al. (1999) mentioned this type of imperative as ‘inclusive imperative’ that include both speaker and addressee(s). “By *let us (let's)* the speaker can urge his hearers to act in a certain way, or express a decision which are expected to accept, or express a suggestion” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 245).

[446] “Let's have a closer look at some of those maneuvers.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 50)

[447] “Let's go to the movies.” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 233)

Let's in terms of historical linguistics is derived from *let us*. Both function often as suggestions, not commands. Nowadays, *let us* is very formal and used in formal situations, including church services and functions more like commands in which exhort and urge "to follow the speaker's instructions or to agree with the judgment that the speaker expresses" (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 233).

[448] "Let us pray." (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 233)

[449] "Let us consider the possible alternatives." (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 194)

[450] "Let us stand together in this emergency." (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 245)

Downing & Locke (2006), commented that *let's* can be used "as a disguised order by speakers in authority" (p. 194). For example:

[451] "Let's have some silence now!" (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 194)

"*Let's* can be used in a short answer in reply with *shall* or *should*.

[452] A: Should we watch the game? B: Yes, let's / No, let's not" (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 833).

a.2.1.1 With *Do*

The persuasive and insistent use of *do* can be applied with *let* construction as well.

[453] "DÒ let's go for a walk." (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 833)

[454] "Do let's have another game." (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 50)

"The negative imperative constructions with *let*, that is, *let him/her/them* + negative bare infinitive are not used commonly in modern English. Instead, we would use negative modal auxiliary *must not* or negative pseudo auxiliary *is/are not to*.

They must not/are not to go by air" (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 245)

For the negative with *Let^{lex}*, we normally put *not* before the infinitive.

[455] “Let me not fall into temptation.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 51)

Alternatively, don’t is inserted before let me (especially in British English)

[456] “Don’t let me think about it.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 51)

The negation of Let^{gr} in formal language is the same as let^{lex}. *Not* is placed after *let us* or *let’s*.

[457] “Let us not be alarmed by rumors.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 245)

[458] “Let’s not waste any more time.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 194)

[459] “Oh let’s not get touchy.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 51)

[460] “Let’s not say here any longer.” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 233)

“*Let’s not* are used in isolation as negative elliptical directives:

[461] A: Should we watch the game? B: Yes, let’s / No, let’s not” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 833)

“But it is possible in colloquial English to put *don’t* before *let’s* (especially in British English) or after *let’s* (especially in American English).

[462] “Don’t let’s be alarmed by rumors.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 245)

[463] “Oh, *don’t let’s* talk about it, Len.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 194)

[464] “Don’t let’s tell the police.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 51)

[465] “Don’t let’s stay here any longer. (less likely)” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 233)

[466] “Let’s don’t tell anyone.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 51)

a.3 Third Person

a.3.1 Bare Infinitive Form

a.3.1.1 Quantificational Subject

“Quantificational subject imperative’ and ‘diffuse imperative’ are two grammatical terms used by Zanuttini (2008) and Celce-Murcia et al. (1999) respectively. Huddleston (1984)

discussed that the subject of an imperative sentence can express a semantic argument by referring to the definite or indefinite members of the set addressees in the sentence. Here, quantificational subjects are indefinite third person pronouns. For examples, the subjects *everybody*, *everyone* will be interpreted pragmatically as subject *all* in the sentences ‘*Everybody stand still*’. or ‘*Everybody close your eyes*’. This is why the tag question ‘*will you*’ can be attached to such imperative sentences. Celce-Murcia et al. (1992) commented that the subjects *everybody*, *everyone* in diffuse imperative as a special kind of imperative are directed to all who is present. Accordingly, the subjects *somebody* and *nobody* are realized ‘one of you here’ and ‘none of you here’ respectively. Russel (2007) formulated the certain noun phrase quantifiers as every NP, some NP, and any NP. “Though *any* must be licensed by a downward entailing operator; e.g., Don’t anyone move!” (p. 137).

[467] “Someone close the door!” (Huntley, 1984, p. 105)

[468] “Everyone keep quiet! Keep still everybody.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 197)

[469] “Everyone/someone/nobody kneel down.” (Russell, 2007, p. 137)

[470] “Nobody say anything.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 50)

[471] “Don’t anybody move!” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 232)

Celce-Murcia et al. (1999) argued that the diffuse imperatives would be odd if in a dialogue two people are conversing. While a speaker alone can use a diffuse imperative for example, *somebody help me!* Whereas he/she “is addressing an imaginary or wished-for audience” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 232).

Reflexive pronoun can occur in the suffice imperative. For example, the two sentences *Everyone behave yourselves* and *Everyone behave themselves* both seem acceptable. However, with a vocative, only the 2nd person reflexive, in agreement with the understood subject, is allowable: *Behave yourselves, everybody*” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 829).

In diffuse imperative, a subject pronoun *you* cannot occur “because their subjects are indefinite person pronouns, note the definite second person pronoun:

*Somebody, you open the door” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 233).

a.3.1.1.1 Third Person Referential Subject

In Zanuttini’s view (2008), there are two kinds of third person referential subjects in English imperative: proper names and bare nouns.

The person addressed is very often not mentioned. Nevertheless, it can be expressed by a noun placed at the end of the phrase or before the verb that is much less usual than the former. Some linguists believe that in the imperative, such nouns at the end of the phrase or before the verb are vocatives.

a.3.1.1.2 Proper Names

Proper names as imperative subject are accepted by the scholars such as Quirk et al. (1985), Davies (1986) and Potsdam (1998), Downing & Locke (2006), Zanuttini (2008).

It should be noted that the proper names can appear as a vocative or subject imperative in an imperative sentence. Therefore, it is important to be able to distinguish proper name vocative from that of subject imperative’s. As Downing & Locke (2006) stated the common vocatives are first names *David, John, Mary*, kinship names *dad, mum/mom, granddad*, endearment terms *darling, love, honey, baby, pet*, proper nouns + noun *you guys, you people* (used to address women as well as men), surnames and titles, *Mr Roberts, Doctor, Professor*, and less common nowadays, *sir, madam*.

Vocatives may have various functions in the sentence depending on context, situation and the tone of the speaker. In accordance with Downing & Locke (2006), vocatives fulfill important interpersonal functions in getting someone’s attention, singling out one

individual among a group and maintaining relationships, either of a close or friendly nature or, less commonly nowadays, marking distance and respect” (p. 192).

[472] “Be quiet, Tom! (Nonpronominal / vocative) (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 245)

[473] “Vieni! Come!” (Zanuttini, 2008, p. 189).

Russell (2007) exemplified the following sentence as an instance which “Many studies of imperatives have claimed that proper names are suitable subjects for imperatives” (p. 137). On the other hand, the scholars such as Davies (1986) and Potsdam (1998) argued that the proper names can be subjects of the imperative sentence and vocatives as well.

[474] “Tom wait in the car; Mary bring the stuff inside.” (Russell, 2007, p. 137)

Quirk et al. (1985) clarified two characteristics for the vocative noun phrase in distinguishing from the diffuse imperative:

- a. the vocative as an element can appear in initial, medial and final positions in the sentence, contrary to the imperative subject which always precedes the verb.
- b. vocative in initial position has typically fall-rise intonation while the subject in the imperative sentence receive ordinary word stress.

In the followings, proper name *Mary* in the first two sentences are vocative and in the third sentence is the subject of an imperative sentence.

[475] “Vocative: MǎRY, play on MÝ side.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 829)

“Play on MÝ side, MǎRY.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 829)

[476] “Subject: 'Mary play on MÝ side.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 829)

It is possible to co-occur the vocative and the subject imperative *you* in a sentence. This can corroborate the distinctness of them as a whole.

[477] “JŎHN, 'you listen to MÈ!” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 829)

In addition, as Zanuttini (2008) mentioned proper names as subjects of imperatives can be exhibited with “the characteristic properties of elements with 2nd person features, both from the point of view of interpretation and of binding” (p. 193).

[478] “Gabriel comb your hair, Dani put on your shoes!” (Zanuttini, 2008, p. 193)

[479] “John come here, Mary stay where you are!” (Zanuttini, 2008, p. 193)

a.3.1.1.3 Bare Noun Phrase

According to Zanuttini (2008), “The second type of third person, non-quantificational subject that is widely possible in English imperatives is bare nouns” (p. 193).

[480] “*Parents* with children go to the front.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 829)

[481] “Eat your dinner, boys.” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 245) (nonquantificational)

[482] “Boys be the cops and girls be the robbers.” (Zanuttini, 2008, p. 193)

[483] “Slower traffic keep right.” (Zanuttini, 2008, p. 193)

[484] “Girls go to the front of the room, boys to the back!” (Huntley, 1984, p. 105)

Potentially there may be ambiguity between the imperative sentences with third person subject of ‘bare noun phrase’ and the indicative sentences in which the subject is plural with the same verb in both. However, “intonation, pause, gesture and common sense serve to clarify the meaning in a specific context” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 193)

[485] “Ticket-holders (pause) come this way!” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 193)

[486] “Ticket-holders come this way.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 193)

[487] “Those in agreement (pause) raise their hands! Those in agreement raise their hands.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 193)

a.3.1.2 With *Let*

This kind of imperative form with third person is not very common in modern English.

They are “generally rather archaic and elevated in tone” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 830). Instead, the modal auxiliary like *must* or pseudo auxiliary *be to* are used. “The third person imperative can be formed by preposing the verb *let* followed by a subject in the objective case. *Let* him/her/it/them + bare infinitive :

[488] *Let* them go by train. (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 245)

[489] *Let* them go by train. “It would be more usual to say: They are to go/must go by train” (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 245).

[490] “*Let* no one think that a teacher’s life is easy.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 829)

[491] “*Let* each man decide for himself.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 829)

[492] “The motto of the market is ‘*Let* the buyer beware.’” (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 50)

According to Celce-Murcia et al. (1999) and Downing & Locke (2006), in addition to above examples, there is another kind of exclusive imperative indicating power or authority that expects what is stated will occur or introduce a wish like optative mood and is used in formal language.

[493] “Let there be light!” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 233)

[494] “Let the word go forth.” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 233)

“A weaker form of this *let* can mean *may*, as in the following toast:

[495] Let this be a new start for both of us” (Celce-Murcia et al., 1999, p. 233).

b) Imperative Illocutionary Acts

Secondly, Imperative is performative and subjective in that the speaker actually gives the “command” in the act of speaking. For this reason, unlike the directives, it does not normally occur in a subordinate clause.

Compare:

[496] “You must come” I said that she must come.” (Palmer, 2001, p.80)

[497] “Come in!” *I said that come in” (Palmer, 2001, p.80)

The English imperatives are typically (not always) directives while the opposite is not necessarily the case. As Lock (1996) stated “The relationship between mood and speech act is in fact much less close with directives than with statements and questions” (p.185). Although the basic speech act in imperative sentences is to express a command, however, the imperative verbs are not used only to give commands. “It can imply attitudes and intentions that are not actually formulated in the clause” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 205).

The illocutionary force of an utterance in an imperative is the speaker’s intention directed to the addressee(s). The illocutionary acts and their illocutionary force in English could be different from other languages. Because, indeed, the illocutionary act as a kind of speech act is defined and characterized based on cultural concepts.

There are various illocutionary forces of English imperatives. It is not always possible to make definite borderline between them. For instance, the difference between commands and other directives such as requests, invitations and advice is not clear-cut. According to Palmer (2001), the imperative sentence “Come in!” “may be interpretable as either *You may come in* or *You must come in*” (p. 80). Because in one hand “the illocutionary force depends on the relative authority of speaker and hearer and on the relative benefits of the action to each” (Quirk et al, 1985. p. 832). Thus, politeness strategy and benefit from the fulfillment of the action in two interlocutors could be justifiable. Regarding to politeness (more polite, less polite) in an imperative sentence, the illocutionary act could seem rude or demanding. Therefore, the more the action is to benefit to addressee, the more socially acceptable will be. Furthermore, in dealing with benefit from the fulfillment of the action

in an imperative sentence, Downing & Locke (2006) noted, “a piece of advice benefits the addressee, whereas a request benefits the speaker. Good wishes (*Get well soon!*) rarely refer to agentive acts (see 14.1) and so aren’t directives” (p. 206).

On the other hand, it depends on some conventional aspects of the illocutionary situations in the context and can be interpreted based on the background knowledge of the context and the relationships that exist between the speaker and addressee(s).

“The interjection *please* and to a lesser extent, the adverb *kindly* can be added to the imperative sentence to make the illocutionary forces such as request softened and more polite. Of course, the discourse factors such as emergency (*Help!*), attention seeking in conversation (*Look, what I meant was . . .*) override politeness. For examples:

[498] Please eat up your dinner;

[499] Kindly move to the next seat.”

“Requests are often expressed by questions and statements, *eg*:

Will you shut the door, please?,

Would you mind shutting the door?,

Could you shut the door for me?,

I wonder whether you would mind shutting the doo.

Questions that convey indirect requests need not have a question mark” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 832).

The illocutionary force of the construction varies as follows:

b.1 Order, command

[500] “Follow me.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 196)

b.2 Prohibition

[501] “Keep off the grass.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 206)

b.3 Request

[502] “Shut the door, please.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 832)

b.4 Plea

[503] “Help!” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 832)

b.5 Advice, Recommendation

[504] “Don’t forget to take some warm clothing.” (Lock, 1996, p. 185)

b.6 Warning

[505] “Be careful with that hot plate!” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p.206)

b.7 Suggestion

[506] “Ask me about it again next month.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 832)

[507] “Let’s go jogging!” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 206)

b.8 Instruction

Imperatives for instruction are often used in writing and in abbreviated form.

[508] “Use a moderate oven and bake for 20 minutes.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 196)

b.9 Indicative

[509] “You go straight on until you come to some traffic lights.” (Leech et al., 2001, p. 126)

b.10 Invitation

[510] “Come in!” (Palmer, 2001, p. 80)

[511] “Come and have dinner with us soon.” (Alexander, 1988, p. 196)

b.11 Offer

[512] “Have a cigarette.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 832)

b.12 Granting permission; permission

[513] “Don’t hesitate to contact me.” (Cowan, 2008, p. 126)

b.13 Good wishes

[514] “Sleep well!”(Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 206)

b.14 Imprecation

[515] “Go to hell!” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 832)

“Expressing rudeness: Shut up! Push off!”

b.15 Incredulous Rejection

[516] “Oh, come now.” (“You don’t really mean that.”)

[517] “Don’t tell me you’ve passed your driving test! (Disbelief)” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 206)

b.16 Self-deliberation

[518] “Let me see now. (‘should I go straight home?’)” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 832)

b.17 Promise; Condition of Promise

[520] “Pass your exams and we’ll buy you a bike.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 206)

b.18 Threat; Condition of Threat

“These two sentences convey the same meaning, but the positive imperative carries a stronger expectation of the hearer’s readiness to move.

[521] Make a move and I’ll shoot.

[522] Don’t make a move or I’ll shoot.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 832)

[523] “Do that again and you’ll be sorry.”(Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 206)

b.19 Showing Interest/Involvement

[524] “Just listen to this!” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 206)

b.20 Encouragement

[525] “Come on now, don’t cry!/ Go on, have a go!” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 206)

b.21 Considering a Possible Happening

[526] “Suppose he doesn’t answer.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 206)

b.22 Rejecting Thanks

[527] “Think nothing of it.” (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 207)

[528] “Don’t mention it!”

CHAPTER 6

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF TENSE AND MOOD IN PERSIAN AND ENGLISH

6.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the similarities and differences between the Persian and English tenses and moods will be indicated and discussed in regard to the applied rules for each language. Thus, through CA approach, the linguistic difficulties are predicted for Persian learners in acquiring English as a foreign language. In other words, the potential errors or interlingual errors are predicted from interference by the Persian language as their first or source language. It should be remembered that the prediction for a few rules may not be considered for two reasons: a) The English verb tenses sometimes do not have a one-to-one equivalence to Persian verb tenses, for example, present infinitive in English could be equivalent to Persian present subjunctive verb tense, and (b) Predictions are based on the evaluation of learning English by Persian EFL learners.

In addition, the three moods – indicative, subjunctive and imperative will be presented in a CA approach. For each mood, the tenses for English and Persian will be contrasted based on the rules of the tenses (discussed in Chapters 4 and 5) and then the predictions for potential errors will be made and explained.

6. 1 Indicative Mood

6.1.1 Present Tenses

6.1.1.1 Simple Present

Rule 1: For showing a process or a current state with the stative verbs *be* and *have*, the simple present is used in both languages. As it has already been mentioned in Chapter 4,

compound verbs have a high frequency in Persian. Here, the Persian equivalent stative verbs to the English *be* and *have* such as *belong to*, *contain*, *consist of*, *cost*, *depend on*, *deserve*, *have*, *matter*, *own*, *resemble* are the compound verbs with the verbal-element of *bud-an* ‘to be’ and *dâšt-an* ‘to have’. Although, the two languages use the simple present for the current state with the stative verbs *be* and *have*, there are some exceptions in English that the present progressive is used. (cf. 5.2.1.1.1.2 Present progressive).

Prediction 1: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present for the stative verbs *be* and *have*.

Rule 2: For habitual and iterative actions, both languages are similar in using the simple present.

Prediction 2: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple present.

Rule 3: For general, natural, scientific rules and inductively known facts, the simple present is used in English and Persian.

Prediction 3: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the simple present.

Rule 4: English and Persian are almost the same in using the simple present in historic present/dramatic present. For ‘summaries’, ‘historical summaries’, ‘table of dates’, ‘photo caption’, ‘stage directions’, ‘verbs of communication’ in both languages, the simple present tense is used. Nonetheless, there are some differences in the subdivisions ‘installments of serial stories’ and ‘Chapter heading’. In Persian, for ‘installments of serial stories’ the present perfect can be used too and for ‘chapter heading’ the infinitive form is usually used. In addition, to narrate something by a well-known person in the past in Persian sometimes can be similar to some instances of the rule ‘with verbs of communication’.

Prediction 4: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple present in the historic present/dramatic present. For ‘summaries’, ‘historical summaries’, ‘table of dates’, ‘photo caption’, ‘stage directions’, ‘verbs of communication’.

Prediction 5: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect for ‘installments of serial stories’ as a historic present.

Prediction 6: Persian EFL learners may use the full infinitive for ‘chapter heading’.

Prediction 7: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present or present perfect to narrate something by a well-known person in the past.

Rule 5: In Persian, the simple present can be used to state how long something has been happening. It can be used for an action or state (except for the stative verbs such as ‘sit’, ‘stand’, ‘lie down’, ‘sleep’, ‘loungue’, ‘squat’, and ‘wear’) which began in the past and continued up to the present. In such cases, sometimes the adverbials of time can appear in the main clause of a cleft sentence which is followed by a *that*-clause. However, in English, the present perfect or present perfect progressive are used.

Prediction 8: Persian EFL learners may have a tendency to use the simple present for dynamic and stative verbs except for ‘sit’, ‘stand’, ‘lie down’, ‘sleep’, ‘loungue’, ‘squat’, and ‘wear’, instead of the English present perfect or present perfect progressive.

Rule 6: In Persian, the simple present is used in the main clause of a conditional sentence in the present and future time reference. However, in the English equivalent, there are two options: a) the simple present is used in the real conditions of fact in the present or future b) the simple future is used in the real condition of prediction (type 1).

Prediction 9: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present in the main clause of a conditional sentence with the real condition of fact in the present or future.

Prediction 10: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present in the main clause of a conditional sentence with the real condition of prediction in the present or future (conditional sentence type 1).

Rule 7: Sometimes in a real conditional sentence in Persian, the simple present appears in the *If*-clause. In such a case, the English equivalent tense forms are the simple present

or the present progressive depending on the context and the kind of verb in terms of being stative or active.

Prediction 11: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present in the subordinate clause of a real conditional sentence.

Rule 8: In Persian, the simple present is usually used to refer to the future time while in English, the simple present with future time reference is only used for fixed events such as ‘timetables’, ‘itineraries’, ‘directions’, ‘cross reference’ and ‘instruction’.

Prediction 12: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the simple present for future time.

Rule 9: In Persian for the future in past, the verb can appear in the simple future form or in the simple present tense. However, in English, the construction ‘modal *would* + infinitive’ is used for the future in the past.

Prediction 13: Persian EFL learners may use the simple future or the simple present for the future in the past construction ‘*would* + infinitive’.

Rule 10: Persian and English are common in using the simple present in the instantaneous events such as ‘commentaries’, ‘Demonstrations and self-commentaries’ and ‘speech acts/ performative verbs’. However, there are some differences in the instantaneous event ‘special exclamatory sentence with initial adverbials’ between Persian and English. In English, the simple present is used in such sentences, while in Persian, the simple past tense is usually used.

Prediction 14: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple present in the instantaneous events such as ‘commentaries’, ‘Demonstrations and self-commentaries’ and ‘speech acts/ performative verbs’.

Prediction 15: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past instead of the simple present for an English equivalent instantaneous event such as a ‘special exclamatory sentence with initial adverbials’.

Rule 11: In English, the non-progressive verbs are used in the simple present tense. However, there are some exceptions as follows (Rules 12-17):

Rule 12: In English, the perception verbs such as *feel, look, sound, appear, smell, taste, see, hear* are used in the simple present. Nevertheless, some of them may be used with the other tenses such as present progressive, past progressive or present perfect progressive. In Persian, all these verbs are used in the simple present too except for the verb *hear*. In Persian, if *hear* functions as a communication verb, the present perfect form is used. However, if it is a real perception verb, two verb tenses are used: the simple present and the present progressive. The present progressive form has an emphasis on the action *hear*.

Prediction 16: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present with the verbs of perception except *hear*.

Rule 13: In English, *look* as a perception verb can be used in the present progressive besides the simple present. In the Persian equivalent, the simple present is used.

Prediction 17: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple present when the verb *look* is used in the present progressive form.

Rule 14: In English, all the verbs of cognition can be used in the simple present but when they function as a mental activity, the present progressive is used. The verbs of cognition in Persian are also used in the simple present tense and when they denote a mental activity, the simple present and the present progressive are used.

Prediction 18: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple present for the verbs of cognition.

Prediction 19: Persian EFL learners may employ the simple present tense or the present progressive for the verbs of cognition with mental activity.

Rule 15: In English and Persian, the verbs of affection are used in the simple present.

Prediction 20: It is predicted that no errors are committed by Persian EFL learners in using the simple present for the verbs of affection.

Rule 16: In English, volition or desideration verbs are more frequently used in the simple present other than polite applications in which the present progressive is employed whereas in Persian, the simple present is usually used and there is only one particular application for the verb *want* that can be used in imperfective simple past for more polite and indirect statement.

Prediction 21: Persian EFL learners have a tendency to use the simple present for the verbs of volition and desideration.

Prediction 22: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present for polite usage of volition or desideration.

Rule 17: In English, the verbs of bodily sensation (*ache, feel, hurt, itch, tingle, etc.*) can be used in both the simple present and the present progressive without changing the meaning. In Persian, the verbs of internal sensation are usually used in the simple present. Nonetheless, the present progressive can be used when it emphasizes instantaneous events.

Prediction 23: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present or present progressive for verbs of bodily sensation except the verbs such as *feel* and *hurt*.

Prediction 24: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple present for the verbs *feel* and *hurt* as an external sensation verbs.

Rule 18: In English, the simple present is used in the subordinate clauses such as the adverbial clauses, conditional clauses or *that*-clauses that follow the verbs such as *hope, assume, suppose* when the verb in the above clauses refers to future. In Persian, in adverbial and conditional clauses and also in *that*-clauses following the verb *hope*, the present subjunctive is used whereas in *that*-clauses following the verbs such as *assume, suppose*, the present subjunctive or the simple present can be used.

Prediction 25: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present in the adverbial clauses, conditional clauses or *that*-clauses that follow the verbs such as *hope, assume, suppose* when the verb in the above clauses refers to future. English present subjunctive and Persian subjunctive present are different formally. The English indicative simple present and present subjunctive have a minor difference in their structures.

Rule 19: To express hope when the verb follows *if only*, in English the simple present is used. In Persian in such a construction, the present subjunctive is employed.

Prediction 26: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present because the English simple present and present subjunctive are similar in form except in the use of the third person singular subject which lacks the *s* in English.

Rule 20: Generally, newspaper headlines in English use the simple present whereas in Persian the simple past is usually used.

Prediction 27: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the simple past for newspaper headlines.

Rule 21: The application of ‘changeless’ in English sentences is with the simple present tense. In Persian, in the compound sentences which begin with the pair conjunctions ‘*either... or*’, the first sentence is used with the present subjunctive while the simple present tense appears in the second sentence. This is also applicable for the conditional sentences; in *if*-clause the present subjunctive is employed and in the main clause, the two verb forms in the simple present or simple future are used.

Prediction 28: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present because they may perceive that there is no exact equivalent formally for the present subjunctive in English. Hence, they use the simple present.

Rule 22: In Persian, for emphatic imperative or recommendation, the simple present is used while in English an imperative should be employed.

Rule 23: In Persian, there is a substitution for the subjunctive simple present by using the adverb *ehtamâlan* ‘probably’. There are two English equivalent constructions which are shown in the simple future: The first construction is ‘the modals *may* or *might* + bare infinitive’ and the second one is ‘the modal *will* + *probably*+ bare infinitive’.

6.1.1.2 Present Progressive

Rule 24: In English, the present progressive is used for an action taking place in the present. However, in Persian both the simple present and the present progressive can be used for a state or action taking place in the present. The present progressive is usually used for emphasis on the progress of the action.

Prediction 29: Persian EFL learners may use the present progressive or the simple present tenses for the action is taking place in the present.

Rule 25: In Persian, for the near future action, the present progressive is used. However, in English, there are two constructions for actions referring to the immediate future: the present progressive verb form and the structure ‘be about to + infinitive’.

Prediction 30: Persian EFL learners may not consider the construction ‘be about to + infinitive’ for the near future action.

Rule 26: In Persian, the present progressive can be used for dynamic actions in *that*-clause of a cleft sentence while in the subordinate clause it is mentioned how long something has been happening. However, in English equivalent, the present perfect progressive is used.

Prediction 31: Persian EFL learners may use the present progressive to mention how long something has been happening.

Rule 27: In Persian, the present progressive or simple present may be used for dynamic actions that will be in progress in a definite time in the future whereas in English, the future progressive is used.

Prediction 32: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present for dynamic actions that will be in progress in a definite time in the future.

Rule 28: In English, repetition or iteration in a series of similar ongoing actions is expressed by using the present progressive while in Persian both the verb tenses - simple present or present progressive can be used.

Prediction 33: Persian EFL learners may show a balanced tendency in using the simple present or present progressive forms.

Rule 29: In English, for temporary present in a limited duration, the present progressive is used whereas in Persian, the simple present is commonly used and the present progressive is rarely used for emphasis with dynamic verbs. It should be noted that in Persian some stative past participles such as *nešast-e* ‘sitting’, *istâd-e* ‘standing’, *xâbid-e* ‘sleeping’, *lamid-e* ‘reclining/lounging’ and *pušid-e* ‘wearing’ appear in the form of the progressive aspect in English and function as a present participle in English. Hence, such constructions in Persian on the one hand can be similar to the simple present when the base forms of the linking verb such as *am*, *is*, *are* are followed by present participle as an adjective. On the other hand, it would resemble to the present perfect since the present perfect is combined of the past participle + indicative suppletive verb ‘to be’. Therefore, the progressive verb form ‘is standing’ in the sentence [182] ‘He is standing over there.’ can be interpreted in Persian as two verb tenses: the simple present *ast* ‘is’ with adjective *istâd-e* ‘standing’ or the present perfect with the combination *istâd-e ast* ‘is standing’.

Prediction 34: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present more frequently and use the present progressive very less frequently with dynamic actions.

Prediction 35: Persian EFL learners may use the present progressive or the present perfect with stative verbs in which the past participle as an adjective follows the auxiliaries *am*, *is* or *are*.

Rule 30: In English, the present progressive can be used for temporary habits while in Persian, the simple present is usually used and the present progressive is very rarely used in some cases with the dynamic verbs.

Prediction 36: Persian EFL learners are inclined more to use the simple present with the dynamic and stative actions. However, it is rather than the present progressive for temporary habits.

Rule 31: In English, the present progressive is used when the construction of *being* with an adjective phrase indicates current behavior as opposed to a general description and with a noun phrase it makes a sense of acting a part in the sentence. In addition, the construction *having* sometimes conveys the meaning of pretending. On the other hand, in Persian the simple present is used.

Prediction 37: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple present when in English: a) the construction of *being* with an adjective phrase indicates current behavior as opposed to a general description, b) the construction of *being* with a noun phrase makes a sense of acting a part in the sentence, c) with the construction *having* sometimes conveys the meaning of pretending.

Rule 32: In English, when the verbs of perception denote an action, the simple present is used whereas in Persian, both the simple present and simple present progressive can be used. It should be noted that in Persian there are different equivalent verbs for the verbs such as *smell* and *taste* as stative or active verbs.

Prediction 38: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present or the present progressive for the verbs of perception to denote an action.

Rule 33: In English, the verb *feel* in the sense of ‘touch’ or ‘try to find something by touching’ can be used in the present progressive. However, in Persian for such a sense for the verb *feel*, the simple present can be used besides the present progressive.

Prediction 39: Persian EFL learners may use the present progressive or the simple present for the verb *feel* as an external sensation verb.

Rule 34: In English and Persian *look (at)*, *look for/in/into/out* and *look on* (= watch) as deliberate actions can be used in the present progressive. However, the verb *look* as a linking verb and *look* in the sense perception can appear in the simple present or present progressive whereas in Persian only the simple present is used.

Prediction 40: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the present progressive for the verbs *look (at)*, *look for/in/into/out* and *look on* (= watch) as deliberate actions.

Rule 35: In English, the verb *see* in the meaning ‘meet by appointment’ (usually for business), ‘interview’, and ‘visit’ (usually as a tourist) can be used in the present progressive to refer to the near future whereas in Persian, *see* in the above meanings is used in the simple present.

Prediction 41: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the simple present for the verb *see* to refer to the near future.

Rule 36: In English, the verb *see* is used in the present progressive to emphasize a conscious involvement while in Persian the simple present is used.

Prediction 42: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present *see* for emphasizing a conscious involvement.

Rule 37: In English, *hear* can be used in the continuous form when it means ‘listen formally to’. In Persian, the simple present is usually used. Nonetheless, it can be used in the present progressive when it emphasizes the instantaneity. (cf. 5-1-7, p140). It also can be used in the present progressive to show vividness. (cf. 5.1.7.1, p140)

Prediction 43: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present for the verb *hear* in the meaning of ‘listen carefully to’.

Prediction 44: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present for the verb *hear* to show vividness.

Rule 38: In English, *assume* can be used in the continuous form when it means ‘take an idea as true’ or ‘take over control of something’. Take an idea as true- start new job- take over control of something- begin to have something- pretend feeling/attitude while in Persian, the simple present is employed.

Prediction 45: Persian EFL learners may use simple present for the verb *assume* in the meaning ‘take an idea as true’ or ‘take over control of something’.

Rule 39: In English, *understand* can be used in the present progressive to show a limited duration whereas in Persian the simple present is used. Notwithstanding, *understand* in Persian and English can be used in the present progressive when it introduces change in states by focusing on differences in degree across time.

Prediction 46: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the simple present for the verb *understand* to show a limited duration.

Prediction 47: Persian EFL learners have a tendency to use the present progressive with the verb *understand* as a mental activity to tell about the change in states.

Rule 40: In English, the volition or desideration verbs such as *expect*, *hope* and *intend* can be used in the present progressive while in Persian, the simple present is used.

Prediction 48: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present for the volition and desideration verbs such as *expect*, *hope* and *intend*.

Rule 41: In English, the affection verbs such as *hate*, *like* and *love* can be used in the present progressive to intensify the emotion. Since there is no such an application in Persian, the simple present is used.

Prediction 49: Persian EFL learners may use simple present for affection verbs.

Rule 42: In English, for developments and changes in progress, the present progressive is used while in Persian, simple present is used more frequently than the present progressive.

Prediction 50: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present with a high frequency rather than present progressive tense for developments and changes in progress.

Rule 43: In English, for distancing in requests, questions and statements, the present progressive is used whereas in Persian, for politeness and social distancing, there is only imperfective simple past *xâst-an* ‘want’. Here, in the sentences [238] and [240] the simple present is used without any connotation of distancing as it is applied in English. In the Persian equivalent for the verb *am wondering* in the sentence [239], the appropriate adverbs or cleft sentences for polite requests are used.

Prediction 51: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present for distancing in requests, questions and statements.

Rule 44: In English, for approvals or disapprovals of frequently repeated actions, unplanned occurrences, unexpected events or present habitual behaviors, present progressive is used while in Persian simple present appears.

Prediction 52: Persian EFL learners have a tendency to use the simple present for approvals or disapprovals of frequently repeated actions, unplanned occurrences, unexpected events or present habitual behaviors.

Rule 45: In English, the present progressive can be used in the subordinate clause of a conditional sentences type 1 whereas in Persian there are two procedures: a) If the action is in progress, the simple present or the present progressive (except when the verb is negative) can be used, for example, the sentences [249], [250]. b) If the action has a ‘gradual continuity’ meaning, only the present progressive is appropriate, for example, the sentence [251].

Prediction 53: Persian EFL learners may have a balanced tendency in using the simple present or the present progressive in the subordinate clause of a conditional sentences type 1, when the action is in progress. Moreover, the Persian EFL learners do not use the present progressive when the verb is in the negative.

Prediction 54: Persian EFL learners may use the present progressive in the subordinate clause of a conditional sentence type 1, when the action has a ‘gradual continuity’ meaning.

Rule 46: In English, the perception verb *know* is followed by a present progressive verb in an embedded sentence while in such a similar construction in Persian, both the simple present and present progressive forms can be used without any semantic differences.

Prediction 55: Persian EFL learners may have a balanced tendency in using the simple present or the present progressive for the perception verb *know*.

6.1.1.3 Present Perfect

Rule 47: In English, the present perfect is used for a continuative perfect. In Persian, the present perfect is used for a dynamic action of continuative perfect while regarding the stative verbs, two different verb tenses may appear: with the verb *know* with the meaning of ‘be familiar with’ the simple present is used and with the verbs such as *be* and *live* both the simple present and present perfect tenses can be used.

Prediction 56: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present perfect for the continuative perfect of dynamic actions.

Prediction 57: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present or present perfect for the continuative perfect of stative actions. (with the verb *know* in the meaning of ‘be familiar with’ the only simple present is used).

Rule 48: English and Persian use present perfect for a resultative perfect which is about the past events with results in the present time. Notwithstanding, in Persian the simple past may be used in some sentences.

Prediction 58: Persian EFL learners may use present perfect or simple past for the resultative perfect.

Rule 49: In Persian, besides the simple present verb for the communicate verb, the present perfect can be used to refer to the sayings or writings of famous persons whereas in the English equivalent, the simple present or the simple past are used.

Prediction 59: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the simple present or present perfect to refer to the sayings or writings of famous persons.

Rule 50: The present perfect can be used in both Persian and English to express the idea of completion or achievement. In such sentences, the adverbs meaning ‘at some/ any time up to now’ can be used. The most commonly used adverbs in Persian and English include: *hičgah, hič, hargez, hičtâkonun, tâhâla, tâ be hâl, tâal?ân*, ‘ever’, *hičgâh, hičvaqt, hič, hargaz, abadan, aslant* ‘never’, *tâkonun, tâ be hâl, tâal?ân, hanuz*, ‘yet’, *tâze, be tâzegi, tâzegi-hâ, jadidan, axiran, dar in avâxer* ‘recently/ lately’, *pišaz in, qablan* ‘already’, *andak-ipiš, čandlahzepiš, al?ân, assâ?e, haminhâlâ, dorosthaminal?ân*, ‘just’. However, in Persian with the adverbs such as *at last, finally* only the simple past is used.

Prediction 60: Persian EFL learners may have no difficulty in using the present perfect as the appropriate verb tense to express the idea of completion or achievement with the adverbs meaning ‘at some/any time up to now’.

Prediction 61: Persian EFL learner will probably use the simple past with the adverbs such as *finally* and *at last* in the sentences in which the verbs refer to the completion or achievement.

Rule 51: In Persian, present perfect can be used to refer to the actions that will be completed before a point in the future while in English, the future perfect is used.

Prediction 62: Persian EFL learners have a tendency in using the present perfect to refer to the actions that will be completed before a point in the future.

Rule 52: In Persian, the present perfect can be used for states and accomplishments that will be completed before a point in the future whereas in the English equivalent, the future perfect is used.

Prediction 63: Persian EFL learners have a tendency in using the present perfect for states and accomplishments that will be completed before a point in the future.

Rule 53: In Persian and English, the present perfect can be used for the habitual and repetitive actions up to now.

Prediction 64: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present perfect for the habitual and repetitive actions up to now.

Rule 54: In English, the present perfect can be used in newspapers and broadcasts to introduce an action or announce news of recent events whereas in the Persian equivalent, the present perfect or the simple past may be used.

Prediction 65: Persian EFL learners may have a balanced tendency in using the present perfect or the simple past in newspapers and broadcasts to introduce an action or announce news of recent events.

Rule 55: In English, the present perfect can be used with the superlative forms of adjectives while in equivalent Persian the simple present, present progressive or the present perfect forms are used. The present progressive or the simple present can be used especially when the action is durative or in progress as well. In such a case, the present progressive is normally used less than the simple present.

Prediction 66: Persian EFL learners have a balanced tendency in using the simple present, present progressive or present perfect with the superlative forms of adjectives.

Rule 56: English and Persian are common in using the present perfect in the subordinate clause of a conditional sentence type 1. They are different in the way that in English the present perfect also can be used in the temporal clauses while in Persian the present subjunctive is used.

Prediction 67: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect in the subordinate clause of a conditional sentences type 1.

Prediction 68: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the simple present in the temporal clause.

Rule 57: In English, the present perfect is used in some specific sentences in letter writing to reply to the addressees regarding their requests or applications. In such cases, the simple past is usually used in the Persian equivalent.

Prediction 69: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past in letter writing to reply to the addressees regarding their requests or applications.

Rule 58: In English, the present perfect with the construction ‘*have/has + been + adjective*’ is used to describe a temporary situation while in the Persian equivalent construction, the simple past is usually used.

Prediction 70: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past for a temporary situation.

Rule 59: The Perfect of experience is the same in Persian and English. In both languages, the present perfect is used.

Prediction 71: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect tense for the perfect of experience.

Rule 60: In Persian, the present perfect of *âvard-an* ‘bring’ in the third person plural is used to begin the narration at the beginning of a story and fiction. However, in English the passive voice construction ‘It is said’ or the active voice construction ‘The story goes (like this)’ are employed.

6.1.1.4 Present Perfect Progressive

Rule 61: In English, the present perfect progressive is used for actions and situations which began in the past and are still going on. The Persian equivalent tenses are the present perfect and the present progressive. Since using the present perfect in some sentences may have any connotation of ‘perfect of experience’ or ‘resultative perfect’, the Persian speakers use the present progressive to avoid making any ambiguity. It is more

normal to use the present progressive when the start of time is stated in the sentence by using an adverbial time. For example, the present perfect and the present progressive tenses can be used for the sentences [289] and [290] but for the sentence [291] the present progressive is appropriate.

Prediction 72: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect or present progressive for actions and situations which began in the past and are still going on.

Rule 62: In English, the present perfect progressive can be used for actions or states that are referred to the past events with results in the present time. It looks like the ‘resultative perfect’ while it may have an emphasis on the continuity of the action in the past.

Prediction 73: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect or past progressive.

Rule 63: In English, the present perfect progressive can be used for habitual actions and situations leading up to now. The adverbial of time such as *recently*, *lately*, *this week*, *since*, *for* may be used to refer a period continuing up to now. In Persian, in such a case the present progressive or narrative past imperfective is used. [299]

Prediction 74: Persian EFL learners may use the present progressive, present perfect or simple present depending on the verbs and adverbs which are used in the sentence. For example, with the adverb *whenever* it co-occurs with the present perfect, the main clause can appear in the present perfect progressive where the Persian equivalent is narrative past imperfective. Since there is no identical application for narrative past imperfective in English, the Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect or the simple present.

Rule 64: In English, the present perfect progressive is used for potential incompleteness. However, in the Persian equivalent the present perfect or the present progressive are used depending on the verb.

Prediction 75: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect or the present progressive for potential incompleteness.

Rule 65: In English, the present perfect progressive is used for actions and situations which have just stopped but have present results. However, in Persian the present perfect is usually used.

Prediction 76: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the present perfect for actions and situation which have just stopped but have present results.

Rule 66: In English, the present perfect progressive is used for repeated and continuous actions with the adverbials of time referring to a period of time like *recently, lately, this week, since, for*. However, in Persian the present perfect and the present progressive are used. Using the present progressive is more appropriate when the beginning of time is expressed by an adverb.

Prediction 77: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect or the present progressive. The present progressive is used especially when the adverbials of time in the sentence show the beginning of time.

Rule 67: In English, the present perfect progressive is used to talk about how long something has been happening whereas in Persian the present perfect, the simple present and the present progressive may be used. Moreover, it should be noted if a communicate verb precedes the present perfect progressive and the start of time is mentioned in an English sentence, in Persian besides the present perfect, the narrative past imperfective tense is used as well.

Prediction 78: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the present perfect to talk about how long something has been happening.

Prediction 79: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present to say how long something has been happening .

Prediction 80: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present to say how long something has been happening .

Rule 68: In English, the present perfect progressive is used when a state changes over time. However, in Persian the present perfect is used while the present progressive also can be used in colloquial language.

Prediction 81: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect or the present progressive when a state changes over time.

Rule 69: In English, the present perfect progressive can be used with the perception verb *hear*. In the Persian equivalent, the present perfect or the simple present can be used. It seems that the simple present can be used when the start of time is expressed in the sentence.

Prediction 82: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect or the simple present with the perception verb *hear*.

Rule 70: In English, the present perfect progressive can be used with the volition or desideration verbs *want* and *intend*. However, in Persian, the present perfect and narrative past imperfective are used.

Prediction 83: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect with the volition and desideration verbs *want* and *intend*.

Rule 71: In English, the present perfect progressive can be used with the state verb of *having*. In such a case, the Persian equivalent is the simple present *dâšt-an* ‘have’.

Prediction 84: Persian EFL learners have a tendency in using the simple present tense for the verb *have*.

Rule 72: In English, the present perfect progressive is used for temporary actions while in Persian the present perfect is used.

Prediction 85: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect for temporary actions.

Rule 73: In English, the present perfect progressive is used as an evaluative comment for something observed over time triggered by current evidence. In such a case in Persian,

the simple present or the present progressive is used without any difference in the meaning.

Prediction 86: Persian EFL learners have a balanced tendency in using the simple present or present progressive as an evaluative comment for something observed over time triggered by current evidence.

Rule 74: In English, the present perfect progressive is used for annoying or unreasonable habitual intended activity while in Persian the present progressive is used.

Prediction 87: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the present progressive for annoying or unreasonable habitual intended activity.

6.1.2 Past Tenses

6.1.2.1 Simple Past

Rule 75: The simple past tenses in Persian and English are the same for a definite single completed event or action in the past.

Prediction 88: Persian EFL learners probably will not have any problems with this particular application in using the simple past.

Rule 76: In Persian, in the main clause of a compound sentence the simple past can be used while the verb denotes a definite single completed event or action and the subordinate clause is an adverbial clause with the adverbial time 'before'. However, in English the past perfect is usually used in such a compound sentence.

Prediction 89: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past in the main clause of a compound sentence while the adverbial of time 'before' in the subordinate clause appears.

Rule 77: In English and Persian, the simple past can be used for a durative action in the past. The verbs which are used in these sentences have durative aspect as usual.

Prediction 90: It is predicted that the Persian EFL learners use the simple past with the verbs which have durative aspect in some particular sentences in which the verbs refer to a durative action in the past.

Rule 78: Persian and English are the same for indicating a state in the past.

Prediction 91: It is predicted that Persian EFL learners are able to use the simple past to indicate a state in the past without any difficulty.

Rule 79: In Persian, the simple past, likewise the present subjunctive can be used in the adverbial clause to refer to the future time with the conjunctions such as *pas, baʔd* ‘after’, *hengâmi, vaqti, mowqeʔi, zamâni* ‘when’, ‘while’ or the adverbial phrases like *pas az in (ân)* ‘after’ which are usually followed by the conjunctions *ke, inke, ânke* ‘that’. It seems the use of the simple past by the speaker shows more certainty than the present subjunctive. In the English equivalent, the simple present is used.

Prediction 92: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past in the adverbial clause with the conjunctions such as ‘after’, ‘when’ and ‘while’ to refer to the future time.

Rule 80: In Persian, the simple past can be used in the subordinate clauses of a conditional sentence type 1. However, in the English equivalent, the simple present is usually used.

Prediction 93: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past in the subordinate clause of a conditional sentence type 1.

Rule 81: In Persian, the simple past or the present progressive can be used for an action to be completed while in English only the present progressive form is appropriate.

Prediction 94: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past tense for an action to be completed.

Rule 82: In Persian, the simple past can be used for future time instead of the subjunctive present when the simple past verb co-occurs with the adverbs of possibility. In the English equivalent, either the simple future with the modal *will* appear with the adverbs of

possibility such as *perhaps* and *maybe* or the simple future with *may* is used without the adverbs because the modal *may* has the concept of possibility in itself.

Prediction 95: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past to refer to the future with the adverbs of possibility.

Rule 83: In Persian, the simple past and the present perfect are used when the repetition of an action is expressed. In such a case in English, only the present perfect is used.

Prediction 96: Persian EFL learners may have a balanced tendency in using the simple past or the present perfect for repeated and iterative actions up to now.

Rule 84: In English, besides the simple past for the verbs of perception such as (*feel, hear, see, smell, taste*), the construction *could* + infinitive form of the verb can be used as well. However, in Persian, only the simple past is used.

Prediction 97: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past form with the perception verbs instead of the construction ‘*could* + infinitive’.

Rule 85: In English, for a habitual or repeated event or action in the past or for an event or state with duration in the past, the simple past form is used while in Persian the imperfective simple past appears in the sentence.

Prediction 98: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past for repetition or habitual actions in the past, because there is no exact equivalent in English for the imperfective simple past. In addition, the simple past is structurally more similar than other verb forms.

Rule 86: In English, besides the present perfect, the simple past can be used in an idiomatic expression with *always, ever, and never* to refer to a state or habit leading up to the present. However, in Persian, the present perfect or imperfective simple past is used.

Prediction 99: Persian EFL learners have a balanced tendency in using the present perfect or the simple past in an idiomatic expression with *always, ever, and never* to refer to a state or habit leading up to the present.

Rule 87: In English, the simple past is used in an indirect speech or thought in order to refer to the present as a back-shifted present, while in Persian there is no tense agreement rule in a reported speech.

Prediction 100: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the simple present or present perfect in an indirect speech or thought to refer to the present as a back-shifted present.

Rule 88: In English, the simple past can be used for the attitudinal past of distancing or social distancing while in Persian ‘imperfective simple past’ is used only for the verb *xâst-an* - ‘to want’.

Prediction 101: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past for the attitudinal past of distancing or social distancing.

Rule 89: In English, the simple past can be used in the hypothetical past cases in: a) modal preterite with the constructions such as *It's (high) time, if only, as if, as though, even though, suppose, imagine, would rather, wish*. b) In the subordinate clause of a conditional sentence type 2. In Persian, different tenses are used as follows: the present subjunctive is used after the construction *It's (high) time*. As Persian is a null-subject language, it does not make difference that the impersonal sentence is followed by an infinitive clause or a *that*-clause with a personal subject. Nevertheless, the verb in the impersonal sentence will be the simple past, if the verb in that-clause refers to the past time. In the construction with *if only*, the simple past can be used with the stative verbs *be* and *have* otherwise the imperfective simple past is used. For example, the Persian equivalent verbs of the sentences [353] and [354] are simple past whereas the tense the imperfective simple past is used for the sentence [355]. Moreover, in Persian present subjunctive or present perfect can appear with the verbs *suppose* and *imagine*, and a imperfective simple past is employed in the sentence with the verbs *would rather* and *wish* and in the same way in the subordinate clause of conditional sentence type 2 as well.

Prediction 102: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple present with the construction *it's (high) time*.

Prediction 103: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past with *if only* because there is no exact equivalent in English for the imperfective simple past.

Prediction 104: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present or present perfect with the verbs *suppose* and *imagine*.

Prediction 105: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past with the verbs *would rather* and *wish* because the simple past seems to be the closest form to the imperfective simple past rather than other verb tenses.

Prediction 106: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past in the subordinate clause of conditional sentence type 2.

Rule 90: In English and Persian, the simple past can be used to refer to the future for narration in a science fiction.

Prediction 107: It is predicted that the Persian EFL learners have no difficulty for narration in a science fiction.

Rule 91: In English, the simple past *did* as an auxiliary appears before the main verb for emphasis while there is no such construction in Persian.

Prediction 108: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past tense with or without *did*.

6.1.2.2 Imperfective Simple Past

Rule 92: In Persian, 'imperfective simple past' is used for a continuous action in the past. In English, the past progressive is used instead.

Prediction 109: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past or the present progressive for a continuous action in the past.

Rule 93: In Persian, ‘imperfective simple past’ is used for a continuous action or durative event in the past before a point of time in the past and that it had just stopped. However, in the English equivalent the past perfect progressive is used.

Prediction 110: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past or the past progressive for a continuous action or durative event in the past before a point of time in the past and that it had just stopped.

Rule 94: In Persian, ‘imperfective simple past’ is used for repetition or habitual action in the past. In English, the simple past is used (see prediction 90). Nevertheless, the construction ‘*used to + infinitive*’ may be used a) for the habitual actions regularly happened in the past but no longer happens. b) for something was true but no longer is.

Prediction 111: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past repetition or habitual action in the past whether it continues or not.

Rule 95: In Persian, the imperfective simple past is used for an impossible action or state referring to the past or present in the main clause of conditional sentences. However, in English the construction ‘*would + infinitive*’ or ‘*would + be + present participle*’ in the main clause of conditional sentence type 2 or the construction ‘*would + have + past participle*’ or ‘*would + have + been + present participle*’ in the main clause of conditional sentence type 3.

Prediction 112: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past in the main clause of a conditional sentence type 2 while the verb in the subordinate clause is the simple past.

Prediction 113: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past or the past progressive in the main clause of a conditional sentence type 2 while the verb in the subordinate clause is the past progressive.

Prediction 114: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past in the main clause of a conditional sentence type 3 while the verb in the subordinate clause is the past perfect.

Prediction 115: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past or the past progressive in the main clause of a conditional sentence type 3 while the verb in the subordinate clause is the past perfect progressive.

Rule 96: In Persian, the imperfective simple past is used for making a hypothetical wish about the present and future time whereas in English the simple past is used for making a

wish with the past reference and the construction $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{would} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{was/were going to} \end{array} \right. + \text{infinitive}'$ is

used for making a wish to refer to the future time as well.

Prediction 116: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past for making a hypothetical wish about the past.

Prediction 117: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past for making a hypothetical wish about the future.

Rule 97: In Persian, the imperfective simple past is used after auxiliaries *bâyad* or *bâyest* 'must, should, ought to, have to' referring to the past. However, in English, the past modal

constructions $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{should} \\ \text{have to} \\ \text{must} \\ \text{ought to} \\ \text{need} \end{array} \right. + \text{have} + \text{past participle}'$ or '*had to* + infinitive' are used.

Prediction 118: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past for the past modal

constructions $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{should} \\ \text{have to} \\ \text{must} \\ \text{ought to} \\ \text{need} \end{array} \right. + \text{have} + \text{past participle}'$

Prediction 119: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past for the past modal construction '*had to* + infinitive'

Rule 98: In Persian, the simple past is used for a durative action in which the process has started in the past and will end in the near future while in English the present progressive is employed in such a sentence.

Rule 99: In Persian, sometimes the simple past tense is used for the simple present tense when certain compound verbs with the verbal element *šod-an* ‘to become, to get’, indicating either a state which began in the past and continues into the present, or a state which has just come to pass. In addition, it is used with certain compound verbs formed with the verbal element *kard-an* ‘to do’ or *âmad-an* ‘to come’. However, in English the simple present tense is used for such constructions.

Rule 100: In Persian, for politeness, in place of the simple present, the imperfective simple past *xâst-an* ‘to be’ is used while for the English equivalent construction, the past progressive is used.

Rule 101: In Persian, the imperfective simple past is used for *xâst-an* as a kind of auxiliary meaning ‘to be about to’ in the past. In English, the equivalent constructions such as ‘was/were about to’, ‘was/were on the point of’ are used to refer to the immediate future in the past.

6.1.2.3 Narrative Past Imperfective

Rule 102: In Persian, the narrative past imperfective tense is used for continuous actions in the past while in English the simple past is used in the simple sentence and the past progressive is used in the subordinate clause of a compound sentence.

Rule 103: In Persian, the narrative past imperfective is used for a continuous action before another action in the past. In the English equivalent, depending on the verb and the context, the past progressive or the simple past construction with the quasi modal ‘used to’ are employed.

Rule 104: In Persian, the narrative past imperfective is used for repetitive actions in the past while in English the simple past is usually used.

Rule 105: In Persian, the narrative past imperfective in the main clause of some conditional sentences can be used while in the English equivalent, the simple past is used.

Rule 106: In Persian, the narrative past imperfective is used after the auxiliary *bâyad* ‘should, ought to, must, need, has to/have to’ whereas in English the past modal

constructions ‘ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{should} \\ \textit{ought to} \\ \textit{has to/have to} + \textit{have} + \textit{past participle} \\ \textit{must} \\ \textit{need} \end{array} \right.$ ’ are used.

6.1.2.4 Past Progressive

Rule 107: In English, the past progressive is used for an action in progress at a specific point of time in the past. In the Persian equivalent, two verb tenses can be used: ‘past progressive’ or imperfective simple past.

Prediction 120: Persian EFL learners will probably use the past progressive or the simple past for an action in progress at a specific point of time in the past.

Rule 108: In English, the past progressive is used to refer to a long background action or situation. For the Persian equivalent, two verb tenses can be used: the ‘imperfective simple past’ or ‘past progressive’. There is not much difference between them but it is more emphasized on the progress of the action in the past progressive.

Prediction 121: Persian EFL learners may use the past progressive or simple past to refer to a long background action or situation.

Rule 109: In English, the past progressive is used for repetition or iteration of some ongoing past action in a limited duration. In the equivalent Persian, ‘the imperfective simple past’ and ‘the past progressive’ can be used. There is a restriction on using the past progressive for those verbs which may have a connotation for the application ‘near future’.

Prediction 122: Persian EFL learners may use the past progressive or simple past for repetition or iteration of some ongoing past action in a limited duration.

Rule 110: In English, the past progressive is used for temporary actions and situations. In the Persian equivalent, the ‘imperfective simple past’ is usually used while the past perfect is used for verbs such as ‘sit’, ‘stand’, ‘lie down’, ‘sleep’, ‘loungue’, ‘squat’, and ‘wear’.

Prediction 123: Persian EFL learners will probably use the past perfect for the verbs such as ‘sit’, ‘stand’, ‘lie down’, ‘sleep’, ‘loungue’, ‘squat’ and ‘wear’.

Prediction 124: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple past for the verbs other than ‘sit’, ‘stand’, ‘lie down’, ‘sleep’, ‘loungue’, ‘squat’ and ‘wear’.

Rule 111: In English, the past progressive is used to make something seem less important as a ‘background’, not the main ‘news’ while in the Persian equivalent, the imperfective simple past is used.

Prediction 125: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past as an English equivalent for the past progressive to make something seem less important as a ‘background’.

Rule 112: In English, the past progressive is used with the verb of *say* to give more relative importance to the following verb - to what is said. In the Persian equivalent, the simple past or the imperfective simple past is used.

Prediction 126: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple past with the verb of *say* to give more relative importance to the following verb - to what is said.

Rule 113: In English, the past progressive can be used for some non-progressive (stative) verbs with deliberate actions or special and different meaning. However, in Persian different tenses may appear as follows:

- a) With the verb *feel* in the sense of ‘external sensation’, the imperfective simple past or the past progressive can be used.
- b) With the verb *feel* in the sense of ‘internal sensation’ or ‘bodily sensation’ the simple past tense is used.
- c) With *look* and *smell*, the imperfective simple past is used.
- d) With *taste* as an action, the imperfective simple past or the past progressive are used.
- e) With the volitional/desideration verb *want* and *intend*

the imperfective simple past is used. f) For developments and changes in progress with the verbs such as *grow* and *become*, the imperfective simple past or the past progressive can be used. g) In the attitudinal past of distancing, the simple present is accompanied with some polite request words for *was/were wondering*, *was/were hoping*. Nonetheless, the imperfective simple past can be used for *was/were wanting*.

Prediction 127: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the past progressive with the verb *feel* in the sense of ‘external sensation’.

Prediction 128: Persian EFL learners have a tendency in using the simple past with the verb *feel* in the sense of ‘internal sensation’ or ‘bodily sensation’.

Prediction 129: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past with *look* and *smell*.

Prediction 130: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple past or past progressive with *taste* as an action.

Prediction 131: Persian EFL learners have a tendency to use the simple past with the volitional/desideration verb *want* and *intend*.

Prediction 132: Persian EFL learners may use the past progressive with the verbs such as *grow* and *become* for developments and changes in progress.

Prediction 133: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present for attitudinal past of distancing with the verb *wonder* or *help*

Prediction 134: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past for attitudinal past of distancing with the verb *want*.

Rule 114: In English, the past progressive can be used for annoying or unreasonable habitual intended activity. In the Persian equivalent, the imperfective simple past is used.

Prediction 135: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple past for annoying or unreasonable habitual intended activity.

Rule 115: In English, the past progressive is used as a back-shifted present from the present progressive. In Persian, there is no verb agreement; therefore, the simple present or the present progressive can be used.

Prediction 136: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present or present progressive for the English equivalent past progressive as a back-shifted present from the present progressive.

Rule 116: In English, the past progressive can be used in the subordinate clause of a conditional sentence type 2 while in Persian the imperfective simple past is used.

Prediction 137: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past in the subordinate clause of a conditional sentence type 2.

Rule 117: In English, the past progressive can be used to express a definite future in the past. In the Persian equivalent, the imperfective simple past is used. It seems the Persian speakers usually add the third person singular possessive pronoun to the adverbials of time.

Prediction 138: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple past for the English equivalent of the past progressive to express a definite future in the past

Rule 118: In Persian, the past progressive is used for near future and sometimes with the force of ‘to be about’. In the English equivalent, the past progressive form or the construction ‘*was/were + about to + infinitive*’ are used.

Prediction 139: Persian EFL learners will probably use the past progressive form for referring to the near future and sometimes with the force of ‘to be about’.

6.1.2.5 Narrative Past Progressive

Rule 119: In Persian, the narrative past progressive tense can be used to narrate a continuous action or state taking place in the past. In the English equivalent, the past progressive is used.

6.1.2.6 Past perfect

Rule 120: In Persian and English, the past perfect is used for an action completed in the earlier past.

Prediction 140: Persian EFL learners may use the past perfect for an action completed in the earlier past.

Rule 121: In English and Persian, the past perfect is used after the *wh*-clause *when* to emphasize that the first action was completed before the second one started.

Prediction 141: Persian EFL learners will probably use the past perfect after the *wh*-clause *when* to emphasize that the first action was completed before the second one started.

Rule 122: In Persian and English, the past perfect is used for the far past.

Prediction 142: Persian EFL learners will probably employ the past perfect easily for the far past.

Rule 123: In Persian, the past perfect is used to denote an action before a definite time. In the English equivalent, the past perfect is used except for the verbs such as '*sit*', '*stand*', '*lie down*', '*sleep*', '*lounge*' and '*squat*' which are used in the past progressive forms.

Prediction 143: Persian EFL learners will probably have no difficulty in using the appropriate tense past perfect to denote an action before a definite time. There may be some difficulties in choosing the correct tense for the verbs like *sit*, *stand*, *lie down*, *sleep*, *lounge* and *squat*.

Rule 124: In Persian and English, the past perfect can be used for unfulfilled wishes about the past.

Prediction 144: Persian EFL learners will probably have no difficulty in choosing the past perfect for unfulfilled wishes.

Rule 125: In English, the past perfect is used after the adverbs like *as soon as*, *the moment* and *immediately*. Notwithstanding, in some sentences in English the simple past can be used after the adverb *as soon as*. In Persian, the simple past is used with such adverbs.

Prediction 145: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past after the adverbs like *as soon as*, *the moment* and *immediately*.

Rule 126: In English, the past perfect can be used with the adverbs *till/until* and *before* in a compound sentence. However, in Persian ‘the present subjunctive’ is used instead.

Prediction 146: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present with adverbs *till/until* and *before* in a compound sentence.

Rule 127: In English, the past perfect, besides the simple past, can be used with *after* in an adverbial clause. However, in Persian the simple past is used.

Prediction 147: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the simple past for the English equivalent of the past perfect with *after* in an adverbial clause.

Rule 128: In English, the present perfect is used in the subordinate clause of unreal conditional sentences type 1 and type 2. In the Persian equivalent construction, the past perfect is used as well

Prediction 148: Persian EFL learners will probably use the appropriate past perfect verb in the subordinate clause of unreal conditional sentences type 1 and type 2.

Rule 129: In English, the past perfect can be used as unreal events after *would rather*. In Persian equivalent, past perfect is used as well.

Prediction 149: Persian EFL learners may use the past perfect as unreal events after *would rather*.

Rule 130: In English, the past perfect is used to say how long something had continued up to a past moment. In the Persian equivalent, the past perfect can be used except for the verbs *bud-an* ‘to be’ and *dâšt-an* ‘to have’ because in Persian there is no past perfect for them. In such cases, the present perfect is used instead.

Prediction 150: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present perfect for the verb *be* and *have* and.

Prediction 151: Persian EFL learners will probably use the past perfect for the verbs other than *be* and *have*.

Rule 131: In English, the past perfect can be used with non-progressive verbs like *be*, *have* and *know*. However, there are some differences in Persian with these types of verbs:

a) The Persian equivalent verb for the past perfect ‘had been’ is the present perfect ‘has been’. b) There is no past perfect form for the verb *dāšt-an* ‘to have’. Therefore, the simple past form is used instead. c) When the verb ‘know’ means ‘learn, understand’, ‘recognize’, the past perfect can appear. Nevertheless, in the Persian equivalent, the imperfective simple past can be used when the verb ‘know’ means ‘be familiar with’, ‘use particular name’, ‘feel certain about’ and ‘have learned something’.

Prediction 152: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present perfect for the non-progressive verbs *be*.

Prediction 153: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple past for the non-progressive verb *have*.

Prediction 154: Persian EFL learners will probably use the past perfect for the verb *know* in the meanings ‘learn’, ‘understand’ and ‘recognize’.

Prediction 155: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple past for the verb *know* in the meanings ‘be familiar with’, ‘use particular name’, ‘feel certain about’ and ‘have learned something’.

Rule 132: In English, the past perfect is used in a compound sentence to emphasize that the first section is separate, independent of the second, completed before the second started with the time conjunctions, *after*, *as soon as*, *when*, *once*. However, in the Persian equivalents, the past perfect or the simple past tenses are used.

Prediction 156: Persian EFL learners have a balanced tendency in using the past perfect or the simple past to emphasize that the first section is separate, independent of the second, completed before the second started with the time conjunctions, *after, as soon as, when, once*

Rule 133: In English, the past perfect can be used for unrealized hopes and wishes with the verbs such as *hope, expect, intend, mean, suppose, think, want*. In the Persian equivalents, the past perfect can be used as well.

Prediction 157: Persian EFL learners may use the past perfect for unrealized hopes and wishes with the verbs such as *hope, expect, intend, mean, suppose, think, and want*.

Rule 134: In English, the past perfect can be used with the superlative forms of adjectives. In the Persian equivalent verbs, the past perfect or the ‘Imperfective simple past’ can be used.

Prediction 158: Persian EFL learners may use the past perfect or the simple past with the superlative forms of adjectives.

Rule 135: In English, the past perfect can be used in the back-shifted verb form when a) The verb is the present perfect tense in direct speech b) The verb is the simple past in direct speech c) An ‘eternal truth’ or something similar is shifted d) the wrongness of a supposition. In Persian, the present perfect is used in indirect speech when the verbs in direct speech are the simple present or the present perfect. Depending on the verbs, the same rule is applicable for the sentences with ‘the eternal truth’. However, here in the sentence [580], Persian equivalent verb is past subjunctive because of the presence of ‘till’ before the verb. Regarding the wrongness of a supposition, in Persian the present perfect is usually used. Nonetheless, for the verbs such as ‘be’, ‘have’ and ‘know’, the simple present is normally used.

Prediction 159: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present perfect when the verb is the present perfect tense in direct speech. Nonetheless, for the stative verbs such as ‘be’, ‘have’ and ‘know’, the simple present is normally used.

Prediction 160: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect when the verb in the direct sentence is in the simple present.

Prediction 161: Persian EFL learners have inclined to use the simple present for the wrongness of a supposition.

Rule 136: In English, the past perfect can be used in the hypothetical clauses with constructions such as *if only*, *as if*, *as though*. In Persian, the past perfect is used with *if only* while the present perfect tense is used with *as if* and *as though*.

Prediction 162: Persian EFL learners will probably use the past perfect in the hypothetical clause with *if only*.

Prediction 163: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present perfect in the hypothetical clause with *as if* and *as though*.

Rule 137: In Persian, the past perfect is used for politeness instead of the present perfect. In its English equivalent, the simple past is used.

6.1.2.7 Narrative Past Perfect

Rule 138: In Persian, the narrative past perfective tense is used to narrate the anterior of two actions or states in the past which do not follow one another immediately. In the English equivalents, the past perfect or past perfect progressive may be used.

6.1.2.8 Past Perfect Progressive

Rule 139: In English, the past perfect progressive is used for actions and situations that began before a point of time in the past and that are still going on (in progress). In

Persian, the past perfect is usually used. Nonetheless, the narrative past perfect can be used only when the subject is the third person and what had happened is narrated.

Prediction 164: Persian EFL learners will probably use the past perfect for actions and situations that began before a point of time in the past and that are still going on (in progress).

Prediction 165: Persian EFL learners will probably use the past perfect progressive for such an application when the subject is a third person and the event is narrated.

Rule 140: In English, the past perfect progressive is used for actions and situations that began before a point of time in the past and that have just stopped. However, in the Persian equivalences, the past perfect is used in these circumstances. Nonetheless, the past perfect progressive can be used only when the subject is the third person and the actions that had happened are narrated.

Prediction 166: Persian EFL learners will probably use the past perfect for actions and situations that began before a point of time in the past and that have just stopped.

Prediction 167: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the past perfect progressive for such an application when the subject is a third person and the event is narrated.

Rule 141: In English, the past perfect progressive is used to say how long something had been happening up to a past moment. In Persian equivalent, past perfect is usually used. Nonetheless, the past perfect progressive can be used only when the subject is the third person and the actions that had happened are narrated.

Prediction 168: Persian EFL learners will probably use the past perfect to say how long something had been happening up to a past moment.

Prediction 169: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the past perfect progressive for such an application when the subject is a third person and the event is narrated.

Rule 142: In English, the past perfect progressive is used for repeated actions as well as for continuous actions. In the Persian equivalent, the past perfect is usually used.

Nonetheless, the past perfect progressive can be used only when the subject is the third person and the actions that had happened are narrated.

Prediction 170: Persian EFL learners will probably use the past perfect for repeated actions as well as for continuous ones.

Prediction 171: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the past perfect progressive for such an application when the subject is third person and the event is narrated.

Rule 143: In English, the past perfect progressive can be used in the subordinate clause of the conditional sentences type 3. However, in Persian, past perfect is used.

Prediction 172: Persian EFL learners will probably use past perfect in the subordinate clause of the conditional sentences type 3.

Rule 144: In English, the past perfect progressive is used as an ongoing past action or state that becomes satisfied by some other event. The Persian equivalent for the sentence [227] is ‘imperfective simple past’ because in such a case, it is the appropriate tense for the verb ‘want’.

Prediction 173: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple past or the past perfect as an ongoing past action or state that becomes satisfied by some other event.

Rule 145: In English, the past perfect progressive can be used for habitual (approval/disapproval) actions. However, the Persian equivalent, the past perfect is usually used. Nonetheless, the past perfect progressive can be used only when the subject is the third person and the actions that had happened are narrated.

Prediction 174: Persian EFL learners will probably use the past perfect for habitual (approval/disapproval) actions.

Prediction 175: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the past perfect progressive for habitual (approval/disapproval) actions when the subject is a third person and the event is narrated.

6.1.3 Future Tenses

6.1.3.1 Simple Future

6.1.3.1.1 With Will

Rule 146: In Persian and English, the simple future can be used for an action that will take place at some future time. However, it should be noted that in Persian the simple present is used more frequently.

Prediction 176: Persian EFL learners may use the simple future or the simple present for an action that will take place at some definite future time.

Rule 147: In Persian and English, the simple future can be used in predictions of future events. In such a case, the simple future is used as formal and literary language indicating certainty or emphasis in the future. Otherwise, the simple present can usually be used in both languages. Notwithstanding, in Persian the construction ‘simple present *xâst-an* ‘to want’ followed by a present subjunctive’ can be referred to predicted dynamic actions and events.

Prediction 177: Persian EFL learners may use the simple future or the simple present for making predictions of future events.

Rule 148: In English, the simple future is used in the main clause of a conditional sentences type 1. In the very formal and literary Persian language, the simple future is used. Nonetheless, the simple present is commonly used in such cases.

Prediction 178: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple future or simple present in the main clause of a conditional sentence type 1.

Rule 149: In Persian, the simple future can be used as intimidation. In the English equivalent, the simple future is used for such an application as well.

Rule 150: In Persian, the simple future is used to prevent asking a question or expressing an objection by the audience. In the English equivalent, the simple future is used.

6.1.3.1.2 With Be going to

Rule 151: In English the simple future with *be going to* is used to talk about plans in the future. In the Persian equivalent, the conjugated verb *xâst-an* ‘to be’ in the simple present is followed by the present subjunctive form of the main verb.

Prediction 179: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple present to talk about plans in the future.

Rule 152: In English the simple future with *be going to* is used to predict the future on the basis of present evidence. In the Persian equivalent, the present progressive is usually used for very near future or on the point of happening in a simple sentence without mentioning the time of occurrence. Moreover, simple present can be used in that of simple sentences in which the time reference appear. However, in the conditional sentences, the simple future with the modal *will* or the simple present can be used as well. Notwithstanding, in Persian the construction ‘simple present *xâst-an* ‘to want’ followed by a present subjunctive’ can be referred to predicted dynamic actions and events.

Prediction 180: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the present progressive in the simple sentences without time reference to predict a very near future or on the point of occurring based on present evidence.

Prediction 181: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple future with the modal *will* or simple present in the dependent sentences or conditional sentences to predict the future on the basis of present evidence.

Rule 153: In English the simple future with *be going to* is used for intention. In the Persian equivalent, the conjugated verb *xâst-an* ‘to be’ in the simple present is followed by the present subjunctive form of the main verb.

Prediction 182: Persian EFL learners have a tendency in using the simple present for expressing intention.

6.1.3.2 Future Progressive

Rule 154: In English, the future Progressive is used for actions and events in progress in the future. In the Persian equivalent, on the one hand, the present perfect is used with the verbs such as ‘sit’, ‘stand’, ‘lie down’, ‘sleep’, ‘loungue’, ‘squat’ and ‘wear’. On other hand, the future progressive is used in three ways with the verbs other than ‘sit’, ‘stand’, ‘lie down’, ‘sleep’, ‘loungue’, ‘squat’ and ‘wear’: a) The simple future with the main verb of the sentence b) The present progressive with the main verb of the sentence while emphasizing the duration or progress of the action. c) Two terms *mašqul-e* ‘be involved in’ or *dar hâl-e* ‘be engaged in’ precede the construction ‘infinitive of the main verb + simple future *bud-an* ‘to be’.

Prediction 183: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect for actions and events in progress in the future with the verbs such as ‘sit’, ‘stand’, ‘lie down’, ‘sleep’, ‘loungue’, ‘squat’ and ‘wear’.

Prediction 184: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple future for actions and events in progress in the future with the verbs other than ‘sit’, ‘stand’, ‘lie down’, ‘sleep’, ‘loungue’, ‘squat’ and ‘wear’.

Prediction 185: Persian EFL learners may use the present progressive for actions and events in progress in the future with the verbs other than ‘sit’, ‘stand’, ‘lie down’, ‘sleep’, ‘loungue’, ‘squat’ and ‘wear’.

Rule 155: In English, the future progressive is used for actions and events in progress in the future by mentioning the duration of the action/event. In the Persian equivalent, the simple future or the simple present tenses are used.

Prediction 186: Persian EFL learners may use the simple future or the simple present for actions and events in progress in the future by mentioning the duration of the action/event.

Rule 156: In English, the future progressive is used for fixed and expected plans and arrangements. In the Persian equivalent, the simple future or the simple present is used.

Prediction 187: Persian EFL learners have a balanced tendency in using the simple future or the simple present.

Rule 157: In English, the future progressive is used to express a future without intention. In the Persian equivalent, the simple future or the simple present is used.

Prediction 188: Persian EFL learners may use the simple future or the simple present to express a future without intention.

6.1.3.3 Future Perfect

Rule 158: In English, the future perfect is used for actions that will be completed before a point in the future. However, in this situation for the Persian equivalent, the simple future or the present perfect is used.

Prediction 189: Persian EFL learners may use the simple future or the present perfect for actions that will be completed before a point in the future.

Rule 159: In English, the future perfect is used for states and accomplishments that will be completed before a point in the future. In the Persian equivalent, the simple future or the simple present is used. Nonetheless, in the sentence [622], the present subjunctive is used because the verb *hope* precedes the future verb.

Prediction 190: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple future or the simple present for states and accomplishments, that will be completed before a point in the future.

Rule 160: In English, the future perfect is used to express the duration or repetition of an event in the future. In the Persian equivalent, the present perfect is used.

Prediction 191: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect to express the duration or repetition of an event in the future.

Rule 161: In English, the future perfect is used for the hypothetical past. However, in the Persian equivalent, the present perfect is used instead.

Prediction 192: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present perfect for the hypothetical past.

6.1.3.4 Future Perfect Progressive

Rule 162: In English, the future perfect progressive is used for actions that will be in progress before a point in the future. In the Persian equivalent, the present perfect, simple present or present progressive may be used. The two tenses simple present and the present progressive are usually used when the adverbials of time are expressed in the main clause of a copula sentence which is followed by a *that*-clause.

Prediction 193: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect, simple present or present progressive tenses for the actions that will be in progress before a point in the future.

Rule 163: In English, the future perfect progressive is used when the action is expressed as a continuous action. However, in the Persian equivalent, the present perfect, simple present or present progressive may be used. The two tenses simple present and the present progressive are usually used when the adverbials of time are expressed in the main clause of a copula sentence which is followed by a *that*-clause.

Prediction 194: Persian EFL learners have a tendency to use the simple present or present perfect when the action is expressed as a continuous action.

Rule 164: In English, the future perfect progressive is used for a state that will be in progress before a point in the future. However, in the Persian equivalent, the present perfect, the simple present or present progressive may be used. Nonetheless, it should be noted that the stative verbs *have*, *possess*, *be* will not appear in the progressive form. Furthermore, the stative verbs such as *sit*, *stand*, *lie down*, *sleep*, *lounge*, *squat* and *wear* only appear in the present perfect form.

Prediction 195: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect for a state that will be in progress before a point in the future.

Prediction 196: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present for a state that will be in progress before a point in the future.

Prediction 197: Persian EFL learners may use the present progressive for a state (except for the stative verbs such as *have, possess, be*).

Rule 165: In English, the future perfect progressive is used for the hypothetical past. However, in the Persian equivalent, the present perfect is used.

Prediction 198: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present perfect for the hypothetical past.

6. 2 Subjunctive Mood

6.2.1 Present Subjunctive

Rule 166: In Persian, the present subjunctive may be used for a state or condition about which there is an element of doubt, or which might or might not happen. The English equivalents can appear in two ways: a) The simple future with the auxiliary modal *will* which is accompanied with the correspondent adverbs *ehtemâlan*, ‘probably’, ‘likely’, ‘presumably’, ‘in all likelihood’, ‘in all probability’ *šâyad* ‘perhaps’, ‘maybe’ or the correspondent sentences *momken ast, emkân dêrad* ‘It is possible’, *ehtemâl dêrad* ‘It is probable’. b) The simple future with the auxiliary models such as *may* and *might* which is followed by the bare infinitive.

Prediction 199: Persian EFL learners may use the bare infinitive after the modals *may* or *might*.

Prediction 200: Persian EFL learners may use the bare infinitive after the modal *will* that is co-occurred with the adverbs such as *probably, likely, presumably, in all likelihood, in all probability, perhaps* and *maybe*.

Prediction 201: Persian EFL learners may use the bare infinitive after the modal *will* when the verb follows the sentences such as *It is possible, It is probable*.

Rule 167: In Persian, the present subjunctive is followed by the conjugated verb *tavânest-an* ‘to be able to’ in the simple present, present subjunctive, present perfect, simple past, past perfect, imperfective simple past and narrative imperfective past. However, in the English equivalent, the modals *can, could* and the semi-modal *be able to* may be followed by the bare infinitive or perfective form of the main verbs.

used after the verb *tavânest-an* ‘to be able to’ while in the English equivalent, after the modals *can* and *could* and the semi-modal *be able to*, the bare infinitive occurs. It should be noted

Prediction 202: Persian EFL learners will probably use the bare infinitive form after the modals *can* and *could* and after the semi-modals *be able to*.

Rule 168: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used after the modal *bâyad* ‘should, ought to, has (got) to, have (got) to, must, need (to), $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{am} \\ \text{is to,} \\ \text{are} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{am} \\ \text{is supposed to,} \\ \text{are} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{am} \\ \text{is bound to,} \\ \text{are} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$

in the concept of obligation, necessity which refers to the present or future. In the English equivalent, the above English modals and semi-modals are followed by the bare infinitive.

Prediction 203: Persian EFL learners will probably use the bare infinitive after the modals such as *should, ought to, has (got) to, have (got) to, must* and after the semi-

modals such as *need (to), $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{am} \\ \text{is to,} \\ \text{are} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{am} \\ \text{is supposed to,} \\ \text{are} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{am} \\ \text{is bound to,} \\ \text{are} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ as well.*

Rule 169: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used in a cleft sentence when the cleft constituent has the adjective or noun element carrying the meaning of necessity. In English, the present subjunctive can be used in the *that*-clause or ‘mandative clause’ to represent the hypothetical and unfulfilled actions after:

- a) Adjectival expressions with adjectives such as *desirable, crucial, essential, important, imperative, necessary, advisable, fitting, vital* or *urgent*

b) Similar noun clauses with nouns like *decision, demand, decree, insistence, proposal, recommendation, request, requirement, suggestion, order, requirement, and resolution* indicate the idea that something is desirable or important.

Prediction 204: Persian EFL learners may use the present subjunctive or the simple present in a *that*-clause. The English present subjunctive and the simple present are identical structurally except for the third person singular in which the subjunctive present verb lacks the –s ending.

Rule 170: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used after the adverb *šâyad* ‘perhaps, maybe’ to refer to the present or future. In the English equivalent, the simple present tense is used to refer to the simple time and the simple future is employed to refer to the future events.

Prediction 205: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the simple present after the adverbs *perhaps* or *maybe* which is followed by a main verb in the simple present tense.

Prediction 206: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the simple present after the adverbs *perhaps* or *maybe* which is followed by a main verb in the simple future tense.

Rule 171: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used in the adverbial clause with the conjunctions such as *piš, qabl* ‘before’, *pas, baʔd* ‘after’, *hengâmi, vaqti, mowqeʔi, zamâni* ‘when’, ‘while’ or the adverbial phrases like *piš az in (ân)* ‘before’ or *pas az in (ân)* ‘after’ which are usually followed by the conjunctions *ke, inke, ânke* ‘that’. In the English equivalent, the simple present or the simple past are used when the verb in the adverbial clause refers to the future time or the past time respectively.

Prediction 207: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present in the adverbial clause with the conjunctions such as ‘before’, ‘after’, ‘when’ and ‘while’.

Rule 172: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used in the subordinate clauses after the conditional conjunctions such as: *agar* ‘if’, *hargâh* ‘if (whenever)’, *ke* ‘if’, *čonânče* ‘if’, *dar suratike* ‘if’, *be šart-e inke (ânke)* ‘if (with this condition)’, *mašrut bar inke* ‘if (with

this condition), *be farz-e inke (ânke)* ‘if (with this/that supposition), *magar (inke)*, ‘unless’, *bedun-e inke* ‘unless (without this/ that), *tâ* ‘unless’. However, in the English equivalent, the simple present is usually used.

Prediction 208: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present in the conditional clauses with the conditional conjunctions such as ‘if’, ‘on the condition’, ‘unless’.

Rule 173: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used with the two correlative conjunctions *če* ‘whether’ that precede two different verbs. In English, the present subjunctive *be* is sometimes used but generally the simple present is employed.

Prediction 209: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present subjunctive with the verb *be*.

Prediction 210: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple present with the verbs other than *be*.

Rule 174: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used as a jussive in the first and third singular and plural persons while in the English equivalent *let us* is followed by the bare infinitive of the main verb.

Prediction 211: Persian EFL learners will probably use the bare infinitive after *let us/let’s*.

Rule 175: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used for wish in the near future. In the English equivalent, with the verb *wish* the construction ‘*would* + infinitive’ is used while with the verb *hope*, the simple present or the simple future may be used.

Prediction 212: Persian EFL learners have a tendency to use the simple present with the verb *wish* that are followed by a verb referring to the future time.

Prediction 213: Persian EFL learners are inclined to use the simple present with the verb *hope* which are followed by a verb referring to the future time.

Rule 176: In Persian and English, the present subjunctive is used in the optative verbs. In other words, in the English equivalents, the optative subjunctive phrases are used. It

should be noted that the old simple subjunctive is more commonly replaced by the modal form with *may*. Moreover, there is an archaic formula with the auxiliary modal *would (to God)* which is followed by a *that*-clause with past forms of the verb.

Prediction 214: Persian EFL learners may use the present subjunctive with the optative verbs.

Rule 177: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used to ask for instructions and decisions, to offer services and to make suggestions. In the English equivalent, the modal verb ‘shall + infinitive’ is used.

Prediction 215: Persian EFL learners may use bare infinitive after the modal *shall*.

Rule 178: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used in the relative clauses with the verbs refer to the present and future time and are followed by the relative pronouns or conjunctions such as *harče, har ânče, har andâze, har ânčizi* ‘whatever’, *har gâh, har vaqt, har zamân, har lahze, har ân* ‘whenever’, *har jâ* ‘wherever’, *har ke, har kas* ‘whoever’. On the other hand, with the equivalent adverbs in English the present subjunctive *be* is very seldom used singly though it can be combined with the modal *may*. Furthermore, it may be used in the simple present tense.

Prediction 216: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present subjunctive *be* with the adverbs such as *whatever, whenever, wherever* and *whoever*.

Prediction 217: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present with the adverbs such as *whatever, whenever, wherever* and *whoever*.

Rule 179: In English, the present subjunctive can be used in a *that*-clause with the combination ‘*should* + infinitive’ which is followed by the verbs such as *demand, require, ask, command, order, propose, recommend, suggest, request, insist, decide, intend, urge, move, prefer, request*. In the Persian equivalent, the present subjunctive is used.

Prediction 218: Persian EFL learners may use the present subjunctive or the simple present.

Rule 180: In English, the present subjunctive can be used in a *that*-clause with the construction ‘*should* + infinitive’ follows the adjective expressions with the adjectives like *desirable, crucial, essential, important, imperative, necessary, advisable, fitting, vital* or *urgent* indicating the idea that something is desirable or important. In the Persian equivalent, the present subjunctive is used.

Prediction 219: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present subjunctive or the simple present.

Rule 181: In English and Persian, the present subjunctive can be used in a *that*-clause after a group of verbs like *demand, require, ask, command, order, propose, recommend, suggest, request, insist, decide, intend, urge, move, prefer, request*.

Prediction 220: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present subjunctive or simple present in a *that*-clause after a group of verbs like *demand, require, ask, command, order, propose, recommend, suggest, request, insist, decide, intend, urge, move, prefer, request*.

Rule 182: In English, the present subjunctive can be used with the conjunction *lest* or its corresponding phrase *for fear*. In the Persian equivalent the two optative terms *mabâdâ* and *nakonad* are used in the meaning ‘May it never come’, ‘May it not happen’ and ‘lest’.

Prediction 221: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present subjunctive or the simple present for the English equivalent of the conjunction *lest* or its corresponding phrase *for fear*.

Rule 183: In English, the present subjunctive can be used with the adverb ‘as/so long as’. In Persian, the present subjunctive or the simple present can be used.

Prediction 222: Persian EFL learners may use the present subjunctive or the simple present for the English equivalent with the adverb ‘as/so long as’.

Rule 184: In English, the present subjunctive may be used with the conjunctions and adverbs such as *though, as though, even though, as if*. In Persian, the present subjunctive can be used when the verb is *be*. In others cases, the simple present is usually used.

Prediction 223: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present subjunctive *be* when it is followed by the conjunctions and adverbs such as *though, as though, even though, as if*.

Prediction 224: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple present when any verb but *be* is followed by the conjunctions and adverbs such as *though, as though, even though, as if*.

Rule 185: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used in the purpose clause with the conjunctions *ke* and *tâ* ‘in order to, in order that, so, so that, lest’ while its English equivalents are the verbs which are followed by the above adverbs of purpose in the adverbial clause of purpose. The most common type of the subordinators is (*in order*) *to* which is followed by a dependent clause that its embedded sentence subject is the same with that of matrix sentence. However, the other dependent clauses with the subordinators such as *in order that, so, so that* and *lest*, the subject of the embedded sentence may be the same or different from the subject in the main clause. Notwithstanding all above indicative English equivalents, there could be an English equivalent in the subjunctive mood in the Mandative clause or *that*-clause. (cf. 5.2.2.1.1.1 Present subjunctive).

Prediction 225: Persian EFL learners may use the bare infinitive after the subordinator (*in order*) *to* in an embedded sentence.

Prediction 226: Persian EFL learners may use the simple present after the subordinators such as *so, so that, in order that, lest*.

Rule 186: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used after the temporal conjunction *tâ* ‘as long as, until, by the time that’, *haminke, be mahze inke* ‘as soon as’ while the verb

refers to the present or future. However, in the English equivalent, the simple present is used.

Prediction 227: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple present when the verb refers to the present and future time and it is followed by the temporal conjunctions such as ‘as long as’, ‘until’, ‘by the time that’ and ‘as soon as’.

Rule 187: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used after the verb *xâst-an* ‘to want’ whereas in the English equivalent, the present infinitive is followed by the verbs such as *like, want, wish* (in the meaning want).

Rule 188: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used to refer to the ‘future with doubt’ with the interrogative *âyâ*. In the English equivalent, depending on the context, the modal verbs *will* (volitional), *shall* (asking for suggestion or instruction) and *should* (advice) can be used.

Rule 189: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used when the verb refers to the present or future time and is followed by the compound adverbs such as *be jây-e inke, dar avaz-e inke* ‘instead of doing something’, *(be) jöz inke, (be) qeyr az inke* ‘except, other than’. However, in the English equivalent, the constructions like bare infinitive, full infinitive or gerund can be used.

Rule 190: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used after the adverbs and conjunctions like *pišazinke, qablazinke* ‘before’, *bedun-e inke* ‘unless’, *be jây-e inke, daravaz-e inke* ‘instead of’, *(be) jözinke, (be) qeyrazinke* ‘except, other than’. Dealing with the above adverbs and conjunctions in English sentences, different verb tenses are found: a) With ‘unless’ the simple present or present perfect are used. b) With ‘instead of’ the gerund appears. c) With ‘before’ two different verb tenses may occur; if the verb that is followed by *before* has the present or future time reference, the verb appears in the simple present tense however if the verb refers to the past time, the simple past tense is used. Moreover,

if the verb that occurs after the conjunction *before* refers to the future time in the past, the

modal verb constructions $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{would} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{was/were going to} \end{array} \right. + \text{infinitive}$ are employed.

Rule 191: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used for curse words which are used for causing bad luck. However, in the English equivalent, the simple present is usually used.

Rule 192: In Persian, the third person singular present subjunctive *bâšad* is used for admitting a request or an offer as a concession. The English equivalents are the interjections ‘ok!’ and ‘All right!’.

Rule 193: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used to deny something in the future or present or to show the anger of the speaker. However, the English equivalent is the construction ‘would it be + infinitive’.

Rule 194: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used for warning while for the English equivalents the imperative verbs such as ‘Be careful’, ‘Take care’ ‘Watch out’, ‘Look out’, ‘Mind out’, are followed by the negative main verb.

Rule 195: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used after impersonal sentences while in the English equivalent, the present infinitive is used.

Rule 196: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used after the verbs *â?datkard-an* ‘to become /grow/get accustomed to something’ ‘to get used to (doing) something’, *â?datdâšt-an* ‘to be accustomed to (doing) something’, ‘to be used to (doing) something’ *farâmuškard-an* ‘forget’. In the English equivalent, for the verbs *â?datkard-an*, *â?datdâšt-an*, the terms ‘used to/accustomed to’ are followed by the present infinitive and for the verb *farâmuškard-an* ‘forget’, the main verb is followed by the present infinitive.

Rule 197: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used for a state of fear and worry whereas in the English equivalent depending on the verbs in the sentence, the simple future or the present infinitive is used.

Rule 198: In Persian, the present subjunctive is used for the impersonal verb of *nâgoft-e na-mând-an ke* , *na-goft-e na-mân-ad* ‘It should be said ...’, *pušid-e namân-ad ke*, *penhânnâ-mân-ad ke* ‘It should be uncovered (mentioned)...’ while in English the corresponding meaning can be found in ‘It should be said ..’.

6.2.2 Past Subjunctive

Rule 199: In Persian, the past subjunctive is used to refer to an action or state in the past about which there is an element of doubt. In the English equivalent, the past modal *may* or *might* in the perfective form (*have* + past participle) is used.

Prediction 228: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present perfect to refer to an action or state in the past about which there is an element of doubt.

Rule 200: In Persian, the past subjunctive is used to refer to an action presumed to have been already performed while in the English equivalent, the present perfect or the past modal *may* or *might* in the perfective form (*have* + past participle) may be used.

Prediction 229: Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect to refer to an action presumed to have been already performed.

Rule 201: In Persian, the past subjunctive is used for deduction and necessity after the modals *bâyad* or *bâyest* ‘should, ought to, must’, referring to past time. In the English equivalent, the past modal constructions $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{must} \\ \text{ought to} + \text{have} + \text{past participle} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$ are used.

Prediction 230: Persian EFL learners may use the bare infinitive or the simple past after the modals *must*, *ought to* or *should*.

Rule 202: In Persian, the past subjunctive is used after the adverb *šâyad* ‘perhaps’ to refer to the past unless the action or state is referred to is continuous or forms the apodosis of an impossible condition in the past. In the English equivalent, the present perfect or the future perfect is used.

Prediction 231: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present perfect after the adverb *šâyad* ‘perhaps’ to refer to the past unless the action or state is referred to is continuous or forms the apodosis of an impossible condition in the past.

Rule 203: In Persian, the past subjunctive is used for obligation, necessity and deduction after *mi-bâyest* ‘ought to have’. In the English equivalent, the past modal construction ‘ought to + *have* + past participle’ is used.

Prediction 232: Persian EFL learners may use the bare infinitive or the simple past after the modal *ought to*.

Rule 204: In Persian, the past subjunctive can be used in the subordinate clauses of conditional sentences while in the English equivalent, the present perfect is used.

Prediction 233: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present perfect in subordinate clauses of conditional sentences.

Rule 205: In Persian, the past subjunctive is used for hopes and wishes about the past actions. In the English equivalent, the verb *hope* is followed by a simple past verb.

Prediction 234: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple past with the verb *hope*.

Rule 206: In Persian, the past subjunctive is used after the adverbs *guyiyâ, guyâ, guyi, pendâri, mesleinke, mânândinke* ‘It seems that’, ‘as if/though’. In the English equivalent, depending on the context, the simple past or the past perfect is used.

Prediction 235: Persian EFL learners may use the past perfect after the adverbs ‘as if/though’.

Rule 207: In Persian, the past subjunctive is used after *magar, magariinke, ĵoz, ĵozânke, be ĵozinke, ellâ, ellâânke, be estesnâye, qeyrazinke*, ‘unless, except that’. In the English equivalent, the conjunction *unless* is followed by a simple past or the past perfect verbs.

Prediction 236: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past or the past perfect after ‘unless, except that’.

Rule 208: In Persian, the past subjunctive can be used as an imperative form in a few compound verbs with the verbal element *dâšt-an* ‘to have’. In the English equivalent, the imperative construction of the passive form with *be* (*be* + past participle) is used.

Prediction 237: Persian EFL learners will probably use the imperative simple form for the English equivalent of the imperative construction of the passive form with *be* (*be* + past participle)

Rule 209: In English, the past subjunctive can be used in a *that*-clause with the putative should construction ‘should + infinitive’. However, in the Persian equivalent the present subjunctive is used because there is no agreement verb tense in Persian.

Prediction 238: Persian EFL learners may use the present subjunctive or the simple present for the past subjunctive in a *that*-clause with the putative *should*.

Rule 210: In English, the past subjunctive is used with *were* a) In the subordinate clause of a conditional sentence type 2 b) After the verb *wish* or *suppose* when it refers to unreal time and improbable events. In the Persian equivalent, the simple past of *bud-an* ‘to be’ is used.

Prediction 239: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple past *was* or *were* in the subordinate clause of a conditional sentence type 2.

Prediction 240: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple past *was* or *were* after the verb *wish* and *suppose* when they refer to unreal time and improbable events.

Rule 211: In English, the past subjunctive may occur with *were* in a past progressive in a) a subordinate clause of the conditional sentence type 2 (b) in a concessive clause c) after the verb *wish*. In the Persian equivalent, the imperfective simple past tense is used for the cases (a) and (c). Notwithstanding, in a concessive clause with *as if/ as though*, different verb tenses past progressive, past perfect, the imperfective simple and the past subjunctive may be used in Persian.

Prediction 241: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past in a subordinate clause of the conditional sentences type 2.

Prediction 242: Persian EFL learners may use the simple past after the verb *wish*.

Prediction 243: Persian EFL learners may use the past perfect in a concessive clause with *as if/ as though* with the verbs of a static nature such as ‘sit’, ‘stand’, ‘lie down’, ‘sleep’, ‘loungue’, ‘squat’.

Prediction 244: Persian EFL learners may use the past progressive or the simple past in a concessive clause with *as if/ as though* with the verbs other than ‘sit’, ‘stand’, ‘lie down’, ‘sleep’, ‘loungue’, ‘squat’.

Rule 212: In English, the past subjunctive can be used with *were to*. In the Persian equivalent, the modal *bâyad* $\begin{cases} \text{am to} \\ \text{is to} \\ \text{are to} \end{cases}$ is followed by the imperfective simple past of the main verb or the cleft sentence *qarâr bud* ‘was /were to’ is followed by the present subjunctive.

Prediction 245: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present subjunctive, the simple present or the construction semi modals $\begin{cases} \text{am to/ is to/ are to} \\ \text{was to/ were to} \end{cases}$ are followed by the bare infinitive.

Rule 213: In English, the past subjunctive can be used with *were* in a concessive clause. In the Persian equivalent, the conjugated indicative simple present *ast / hast* ‘am, is, are’ or *bâš-ad* ‘the third person singular present subjunctive to be’ is used.

Prediction 246: Persian EFL learners will probably use the present subjunctive *be* or the simple present of the conjugated linking verb ‘to be’: *am, is* and *are*.

Rule 214: In Persian, the past subjunctive is used instead of the present subjunctive after *ke* ‘that’ or *tâ* ‘until’ which function as final conjunctions meaning ‘in order to’. In the English equivalent, the present infinitive is usually used.

6. 3 Imperative Mood

In Persian and English, the imperative is used:

- a) to express an order or command in the present and future time
- b) for advice and recommendation
- c) for request and plea
- d) for encouragement and persuasion
- e) for offer and invitation
- f) for prayer.

Rule 215: In English, the imperative can be used in the simple form for all above applications.

Prediction 247: It is predicted that the Persian EFL learners employ the simple form in the English imperative for all the above applications.

Rule 216: In English, the imperative can be used in the progressive form in which the verb *be* is followed by the present participle. However, in Persian, there is no present progressive form and the simple form is used instead.

Prediction 248: Persian EFL learners use the simple form of the imperative verb.

Rule 217: In English, the imperative can be used in the progressive form in which *let's get* is followed by the present participle. In the Persian equivalent, the conjugated imperative form for the first plural pronoun is used that is structurally similar to that of the present subjunctive.

Prediction 249: Persian EFL learners will probably use the imperative auxiliary *let us/let's* that is followed by a bare infinitive.

Rule 218: In English, the imperative can be used in the perfective form in which the verbs *have* or *get* is followed by the past participle while there is no such construction in Persian.

Prediction 250: Persian EFL learners will probably use the simple form of the imperative verb.

Rule 219: In English, the imperative can be used in the passive voice in which the verb *be* or *get* is followed by the past participle. In Persian, the imperative verb *bâš* or *bâš-id* ‘be’ are followed by an adjective for the imperative passive voice with the imperative verb *be* while for the imperative passive form with *get*, the past participle does not function as an adjective but the imperative simple form is derived from it.

Prediction 251: Persian EFL learners may use the imperative verb *be* that is followed by an adjective.

Prediction 252: Persian EFL learners will probably use the imperative verb derived from the past participle without using the imperative verb *get*.

Prediction 253: Persian EFL learners will probably use the imperative auxiliary *let us/let’s* that is followed by a bare infinitive.

Rule 220: In English, the imperative can be used with *let me* or *let us/let’s* in the first person singular and plural respectively. In the Persian equivalent, the imperative form for the first person plural subject is used. However, for the imperative form with *let me*, *let* appears as an imperative verb meaning ‘allow’ and *me* functions as an objective pronoun and the verb which is followed by *let me* is a present subjunctive verb.

Prediction 254: Persian EFL learners will probably use the imperative verb with first person plural subject for the verb which is followed by *let us/let’s*.

Prediction 255: Persian EFL learners will probably use the imperative verb for *let* in the meaning of ‘allow’.

Rule 221: In English, the imperative can be used with the persuasive and insistent *do* which precedes *let us/let’s*. In Persian, there is no similar construction for persuasive and insistent *do*.

Prediction 256: Persian EFL learners will probably not consider persuasive and insistent *do* and only employ *let us/let’s* which is followed by a bare infinitive.

Rule 222: In English, the imperative can be used as a ‘quantificational subject imperative’ or ‘diffuse imperative’ with the third person singular or plural subjects. In Persian, the conjugated imperative for third person singular or plural are used which are formally similar to those of the present subjunctive.

Prediction 257: Persian EFL learners will probably use the imperative simple form.

CHAPTER 7

ERROR ANALYSIS OF TENSE AND MOOD IN PERSIAN AND ENGLISH

7.0 Introduction

This chapter analyses the errors committed by the participants through a fill in the blank test. The errors are categorized based on different tenses and moods. Then based on the classified errors, the degree of difficulty is calculated in order to contribute the weak and strong points of the participants in English language learning.

The participants were sixty Iranian undergraduate students from Shiraz University in Iran. They are all from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and their major is not English language. Regarding their proficiency level of English as a foreign language (EFL), they are in the intermediate level. The participants were selected based on a preliminary English language test on tenses given to them. Those who obtained more than 35% and less than 65% were selected as the sample for this study. Furthermore, their mother tongue is Persian and their ages range from 19 to 25 years old.

The type of test given to them was a 'fill in the blanks' test. It was a structural test comprising one hundred items. The participants were required to put the appropriate form of the given verb in the blanks. Each item has only one answer except for a few instances that were intentionally represented in order to compare their preferences among the correct answer sets. The test was administered to cover all the tenses and almost all of the verb constructions. To ensure reliability and validity of the test, a pilot study was also conducted. In this test for the study, the participants were allowed to ask the meaning of probable difficult words to them and they had to answer the test in 70 minutes.

7. 1 Classification of the Errors

In this part, the errors are classified in terms of the different moods and tenses based on the data analysis for this study and are shown in tables. Each table shows the frequency of the correct and incorrect responses in its raw form and in percentages. Moreover, the average percentage of correct responses and error responses are represented for each category. For some particular categories of tenses and moods with regard to the structure or function, a separate table is given.

7.1.1 Indicative Mood

7.1.1.1 Present Tense

7.1.1.1.1 Simple Present Errors

Table 7.1: Results for the Simple Present Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
1	60	100%	0	0%
3	52	86.7%	8	13.3%
10	52	86.7%	8	13.3%
15	60	100%	0	0%
20	48	80%	12	20%
33	53	88.3%	7	11.7%
37	54	90%	6	10%
41	35	58.3%	25	41.7%
53	60	100%	0	0%
61	56	93.3%	4	6.7%
67	60	100%	0	0%
69	49	81.7%	11	18.3%
75	60	100%	0	0%
79	57	95%	3	5%
84	47	78.3%	13	21.7%
87	57	95%	3	5%
90	60	100%	0	0%
92	60	100%	0	0%
Total	980	1633.3%	100	166.7%
Average		90.7%		9.3%

7.1.1.1.2 Present Progressive Errors

Table 7.2: Results for the Present Progressive Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
5	52	86.7%	8	13.3%
16	41	68.3%	19	31.7%
21	15	25%	45	75%
35	5	8.3%	55	91.7%
48	15	25%	45	75%
72	37	61.7%	23	38.3%
85	37	61.7%	23	38.3%
Total	202	403.3%	218	296.7%
Average		57.6%		42.4%

7.1.1.1.3 Present Perfect Errors

Table 7.3: Results for the Present Perfect Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
13	19	31.7%	41	68.3%
30	0	0%	60	100%
46	48	80%	12	20%
65	60	100%	0	0%
76	28	46.7%	32	53.3%
82	44	73.3%	16	26.7%
Total	199	331.7%	161	268.3%
Average		47.3%		44.7%

7.1.1.1.4 Present Perfect Progressive

Table 7.4: Results for the Present Perfect Progressive Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
2	0	0%	60	100%
11	3	5%	57	95%
70	3	5%	57	95%
83	5	10%	55	90%
95	3	5%	57	95%
Total	14	25%	286	475%
Average		5%		95%

7.1.1.2 Past Tenses

7.1.1.2.1 Simple Past Errors

Table 7.5: Results for the Simple Past Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
4	50	83.3%	10	16.7%
9	54	90%	6	10%
22	57	95%	3	5%
24	30	50%	30	50%
34	0	0%	60	100%
40	34	56.7%	26	43.3%
52	38	63.3%	22	36.7%
58	44	73.3%	16	26.7%
62	60	100%	0	0%
68	47	78.3%	13	21.7%
80	57	95%	3	5%
88	39	65%	21	35%
Total	510	849.9%	210	350.1%
Average		70.8%		29.2%

7.1.1.2.1.1 Used to

Table 7.6: Results for the Verb *Used to* Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
19	17	28.3%	43	71.7%
99	20	33.3%	40	66.7%
Total	37	61.6%	83	138%
Average		30.8%		69.2%

7.1.1.2.2 Past Progressive Errors

Table 7.7: Results for the Past Progressive Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
7	30	50%	30	50%
54	9	15%	51	85%
89	35	75%	15	25%
98	54	90%	6	10%
Total	128	230%	102	170%
Average		57.5%		42.5%

7.1.1.2.3 Past Perfect Errors

Table 7.8: Results for the Past Perfect Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
26	27	45%	33	55%
45	2	3.3%	58	96.7%
51	4	6.7%	56	93.3%
57	40	66.7%	20	33.3%
60	20	33.3%	40	66.7%
Total	93	155%	217	345%
Average		31%		69%

7.1.1.2.4 Past Perfect Progressive Errors

Table 7.9: Results for the Past Perfect Progressive Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
17	0	0%	60	100%
29	4	6.7%	56	93.3%
Total	4	6.7%	115	193.3%
Average		3.35%		96.65%

7.1.1.3 Future Tenses

7.1.1.3.1 Simple Future Errors

Table 7.10: Results for the Simple Future Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
8	39	65%	21	35%
12	7	11.7%	53	88.3%
18	8	13.7%	52	86.7%
23	60	100%	0	0%
36	30	50%	30	50%
44	49	81.7%	11	18.3%
56	38	63.5%	22	36.5%
61	4	6.7%	56	93.3%
64	60	100%	0	0%
73	24	40%	36	60%
91	48	80%	12	20%
Total	367	612.3%	293	488.1%
Average		55.66%		44.37%

7.1.1.3.2 Future Progressive Errors

Table 7.11: Results for the Future Progressive Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
6	0	0%	60	100%
50	18	30%	42	70%
Total	18	30%	102	170%
Average		15%		85%

7.1.1.3.3 Future Perfect Errors

Table 7.12: Results for the Future Perfect Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
38	4	6.7%	56	93.3%
59	4	6.7%	56	93.3%
Total	8	13.4	112	186.6
Average		6.7%		93.3%

7.1.1.3.4 Future Perfect Progressive Errors

Table 7.13: Results for the Future Perfect Progressive Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
43	3	5%	56	95%
63	3	5%	56	95%
Total	6	10%	112	190%
Average		5%		95%

Table 7.14: Average Percentages of Correct and Incorrect Responses for the Indicative Mood

Tenses	Average Percentage of Correct Responses	Average Percentage of Error Responses
Simple Present	90.7%	9.3%
Present Progressive	57.6%	42.4%
Present Perfect	44.3%	44.7%
Present Perfect Progressive	5%	95%
Simple Past	50.8% [70.8% + 30.8%]	49.2% [29.2% + 69.2%]
Past Progressive	57.5%	42.5%
Past Perfect Progressive	3.35%	96.65%
Past Perfect	31%	69%
Simple Future	55.7%	44.3%
Future Progressive	15%	85%
Future Perfect	6.7%	93.3%
Future Perfect Progressive	5%	95%

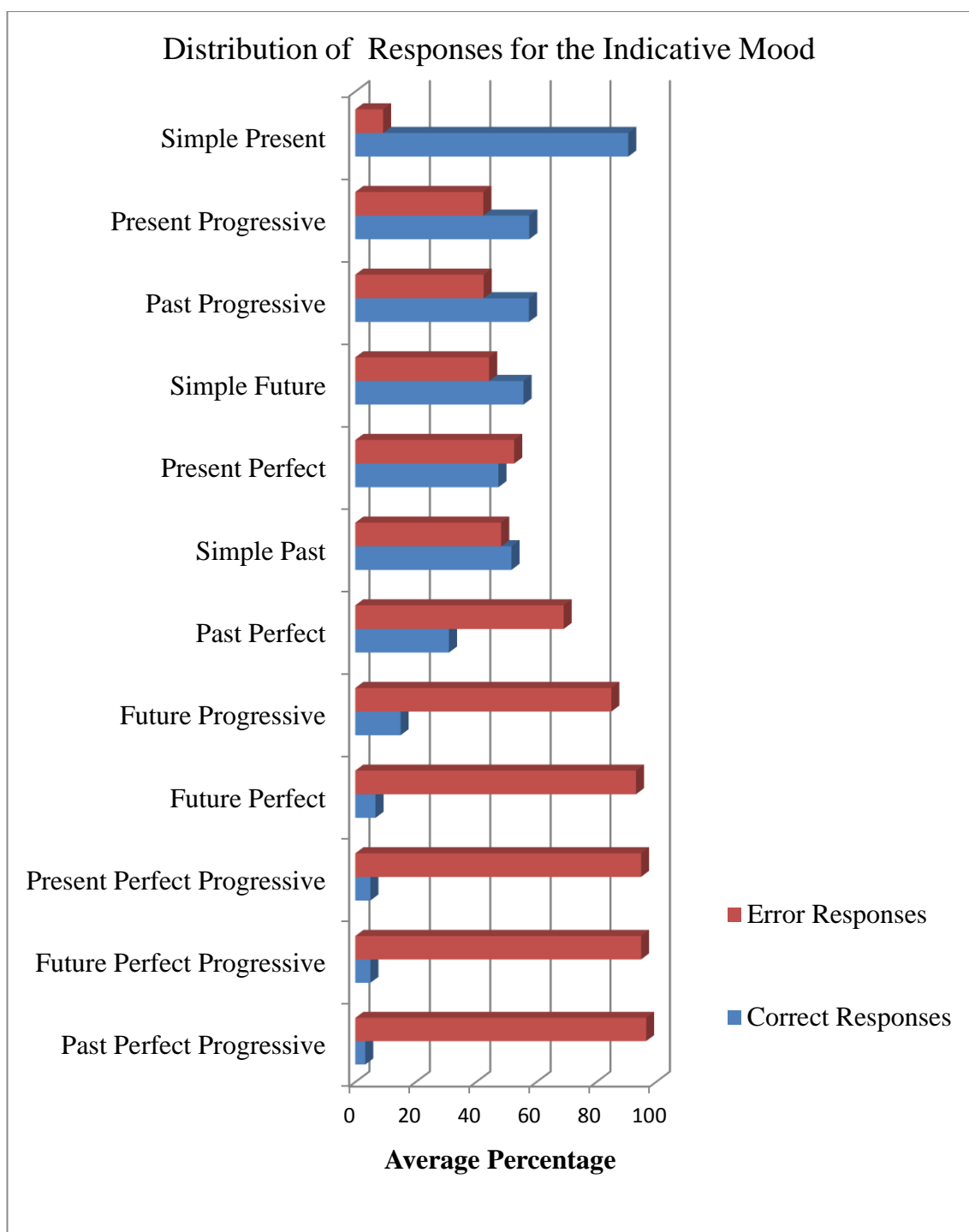


Figure 7.1: Distribution of Responses for the Indicative Mood

Table 4.14 and Figure 7.1 illustrate that the maximum to minimum average rate of errors committed by the participants who are Persian EFL learners are in the hierarchy as follows:

1. Past perfect progressive

2. Future perfect progressive
3. Present perfect progressive
4. Future perfect
5. Future progressive
6. Past perfect
7. Simple past
8. Present perfect
9. Simple future
10. Present progressive & Past progressive
11. Simple present

It should be noted that two-thirds of the average rate of errors in the simple past relate to the pseudo modal “used to”. If we here exclude the verb *used to* from the simple past tenses, the use of the simple past tense will get the second minimum in average rate of errors after the simple present tense.

7.1.2 Subjunctive Mood

7.1.2.1 Conditional Sentence Type two

Table 7.15: Results for the Conditional Sentences Type 2 Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
39	31	51.7%	29	48.3%
81	0	0%	60	100%
94	12	20%	48	80%
Total	43	71.7%	137	228.3%
Average		24%		76.1%

7.1.2.2 Conditional Sentence Type Three

Table 7.16: Results for the Conditional Sentence Type Three Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
25	9	15%	51	85%
47	12	20%	48	80%
71	0	0%	60	100%
Total	21	35%	159	265%
Average		11.7%		88.3%

7.1.2.3 Hypothetical Wish Constructions

Table 7.17: Results for Hypothetical *Wish* Constructions Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
14	2	3.3%	58	96.7%
68	46	76.7%	14	23.3%
Total	48	79.9%	72	120
Average		40%		60%

7.1.2.4 Modal *May*

Table 7.18: Results for the Modal *May* Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
78	60	100%	0	0%
27	4	6.7%	56	93.3%
Total	60	100%	0	0%
Average		100%		0%

7.1.2.5 Modal *Might*

Table 7.19: Results for the Modal *Might* Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
28	56	93.3%	4	6.7%
Total	56	93.3%	4	6.7%
Average		93.3%		6.7%

7.1.2.6 Future in the Past

Table 7.20: Results for the Future in the Past Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
31	4	6.7%	56	93.3%
55	3	5%	57	95%
Total	7	11.7%	113	188.3%
Average		5.8%		94.2%

7.1.2.7 Modal Past *Have to* (*Had to*)

Table 7.21: Results for the Modal *Had to* Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
42	16	26.7%	44	73.3%
Total	16	26.7%	44	73.3%
Average		26.7%		73.3%

7.1.2.8 Modal *Should*

Table 7.22: Results for the Modal *Should* Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
49	60	100%	0	0%
100	3	5%	57	95%
Total	63	105%	57	95%
Average		52.5%		47.5%

7.1.2.9 Modal *Must*

Table 7.23: Results for the Modal *Must* Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
23	60	100%	0	0%
66	0	0%	60	100%
Total	60	100%	60	100%
Average		50%		50%

7.1.2.10 Modal *Could*

Table 7.24: Results for the Modal *Could* Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
62	60	100%	0	0%
74	0	0	60	100%
Total	60	100%	60	100%
Average		50%		50%

7.1.2.11 Adverbial Clause *Lest*

Table 7.25: Results for the Adverbial Clause *Lest* Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
77	12	20%	48	80%
Total	12	20%	48	80%
Average		20%		80%

7.1.2.12 *That*-clause with Adjectives

Table 7.26: Results for the *That*-clause with Adjectives Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
93	22	36.7%	38	63.3%
Total	22	36.7%	38	63.3%
Average		36.7%		63.3%

7.1.2.13 Optative Subjunctive

Table 7.27: Results for the Optative Subjunctive Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
96	48	80%	12	20%
Total	48	80%	12	20%
Average		80%		20%

Table 7.28: Average Percentages of Correct and Incorrect Responses in the
Subjunctive Mood

Subjunctive Mood and Modals	Average Percentage of Correct Responses	Average Percentage of Error Responses
Conditional Sentence Type 2	24 %	76%
Conditional Sentence Type 3	11.7%	88.3%
Hypothetical <i>wish</i> about the Future	3.3%	96.7%
Hypothetical <i>wish</i> about the Present	76.7%	23.3%
Adverbial Clause with <i>lest</i>	20%	80%
<i>That</i> -clause with Adjective	36.7%	63.3%
Optative Subjunctive	80%	20%
Future in the Past	5.8%	94.2%
Present <i>may</i> (permission)	100%	0%
Past <i>may</i> (possibility) with perfective form	6.7%	93.3%
Present <i>might</i> (probability)	93.3%	6.7%
Past <i>could</i> (possibility) with perfective form	0%	100%
Past <i>could</i> (possibility) with infinitive form	100%	0%
Present <i>should</i> (advice)	100%	0%
Past <i>should</i> (necessity)	5%	95%
Past <i>must</i> (deduction)	0	100%
Present <i>must</i> (deduction)	100%	0%
Past <i>have to</i> (<i>had to</i>) (obligation/necessity)	26.7%	73.3%

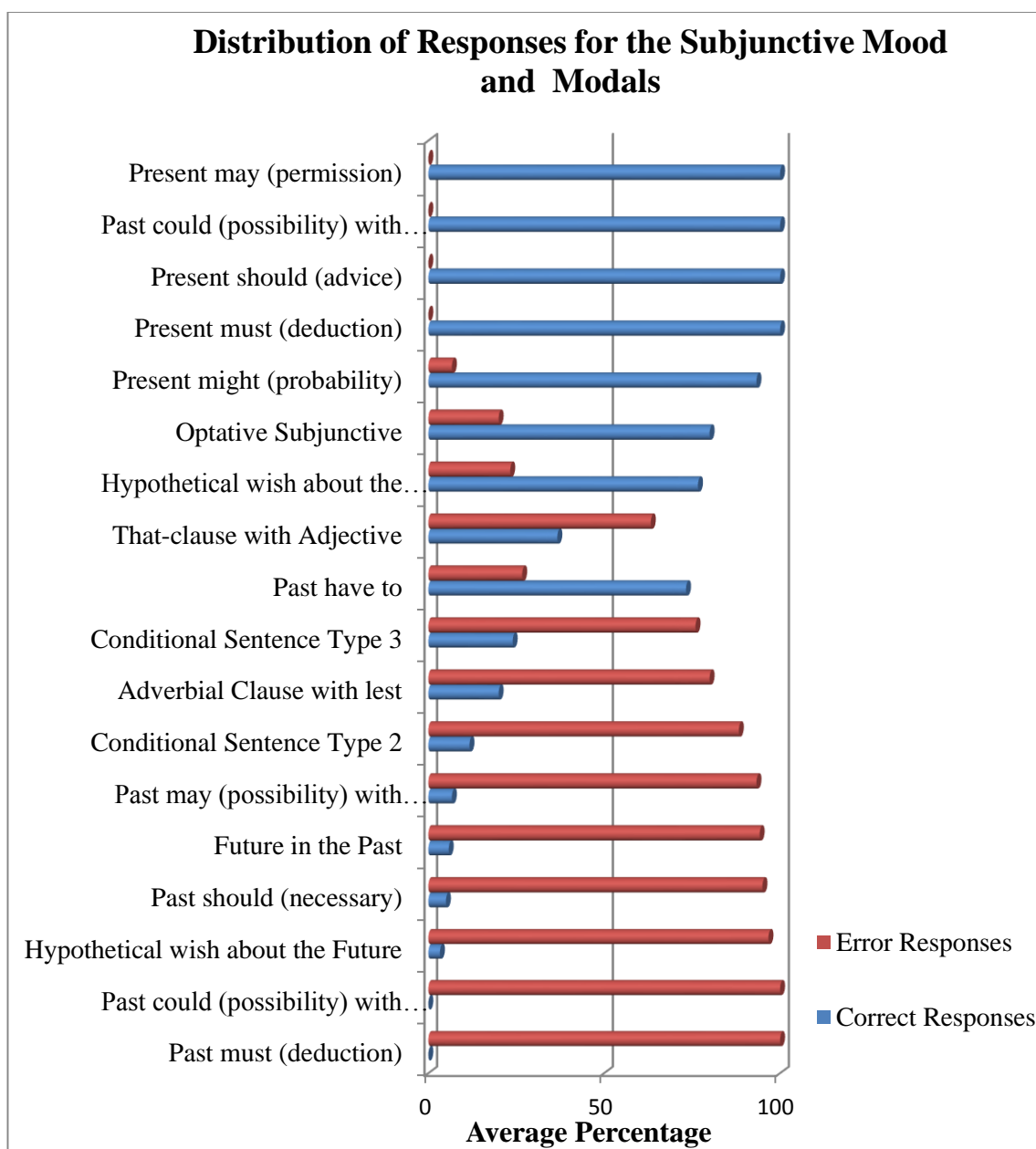


Figure 7.2: Distribution of Answers for the Subjunctive Mood and Modals

Table 7.28 and Figure 7.2 illustrate that the maximum to minimum average rate of errors committed by the participants who are Persian EFL learners are in the hierarchy as follows:

1. Past *Could* (possibility) with perfective form, Past *Must* (deduction)
2. Hypothetical *wish* about the Future
3. Past *should* (necessity)
4. Future in the Past

5. Past *may* (possibility)
6. Conditional Sentence Type 3
7. Adverbial Clause with *lest*
8. Conditional Sentence Type 2
9. Past *have to* (*had to*)
10. *That*-clause with Adjective
11. Hypothetical *wish* about the Present
12. Optative Subjunctive
13. Present *might*
14. Present *may* (permission), Present *should* (advice), Present *must* (deduction), Past *could* (possibility) with infinitive form

7.1.3 Imperative Mood

Table 7.29: Results for the Imperative Mood Errors

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage	Error Responses	Percentage
86 let us	60	100%	0	0%
97	60	100%	0	0%
Total	120	100%	0	0%
Average		100%		0%

Table 7.30: Average Percentages of Correct and Incorrect Responses in the
Imperative Mood

Imperative mood	Average Percentage of Correct Responses	Average Percentage of Error Responses
	100%	0%

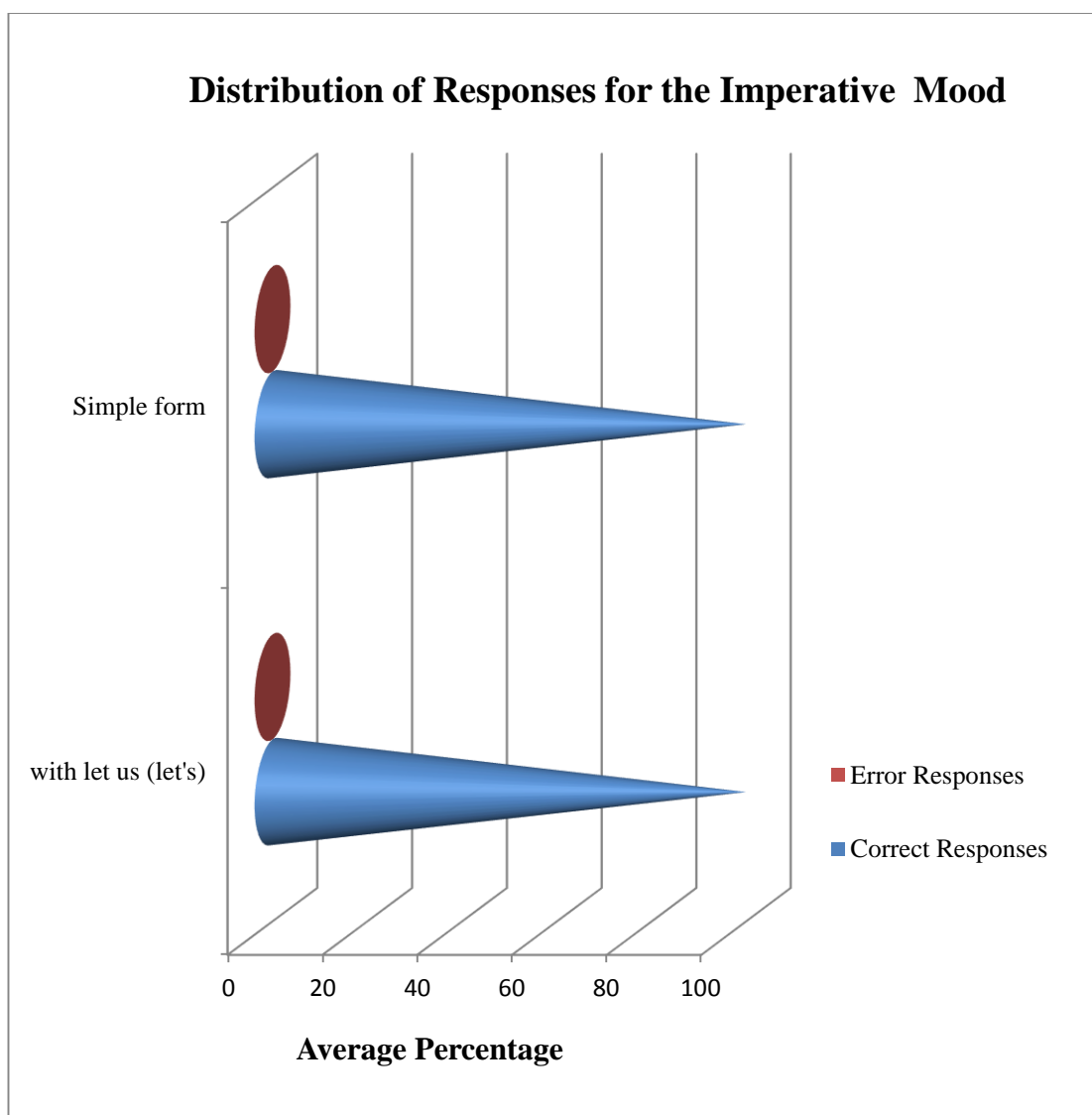


Figure 7.3: Distribution of Responses for the Imperative Mood

Table 7.32 and Figure 7.3 illustrate that no error was committed by the participants. It can be concluded that Persian EFL learners have no difficulty in the simple form of the imperative mood.

7.2 Analysis and Interpretation of the Results

In this part, the correct and incorrect responses are analyzed based on the predictions (cf. Chapter Six) in the contrastive analysis approach. Then the sources of errors are identified. To investigate the causes of the errors, the researcher considered two major sources of errors as follows:

1) Interference errors or interlingual errors as the learners' failures indicate the differences between Persian as the source language and English as the target language. English for Persian native speakers in Iran is a foreign language.

2) Intralanguage errors are as follows:

- a) Overgeneralization
- b) Ignorance of rule restrictions
- c) Incomplete application of rules
- d) False concepts hypothesized

Interlingual and intralingual errors (see Chapter Three) are the two out of the four sources which Brown (1980)'s model represented. Moreover, the four major causes of intralingual errors are from those suggested by Richards (1971)'s model. For this study, both these models are used.

The next section will analyze the sources of the errors made by the participants of the study against the Predictions made in Chapter Six. The causes of the errors are also given.

7.2.1 Indicative Mood

7.2.1.1 Present Tenses

7.2.1.1.1 Simple Present

Item 1. Water around at 100° Celsius. (boil)

Responses: { correct responses 100%
wrong responses 0%

According to Prediction 3, the participants were expected to use the simple present correctly. All the participants responded correctly because in the source language, Persian, for natural facts and scientific rules, the simple present is used as well.

Item 3. I will go to bed after I my work. (finish)

Responses: { correct responses 86.7%
wrong responses 13.3% Wrong responses: { finished 8.3%
have finished 5%

According to Predictions 207 and 92, it was expected that the participants use the simple present or the simple past respectively. However, 95% fulfilled the expectation as the majority (86.7%) used the simple present (*finish*) as the positive interference and a small number (8.3%) employed the simple past (*finished*). On the other hand, a very small number (5%) made the intralingual error ‘ignorance of rule restrictions’ by using the present perfect (*have finished*).

Item 10. I’ll call you if any problems. (there be)

Responses: { correct responses 86.7%
wrong responses 13.3% Wrong Responses: { there was 11.6%
there would be 1.7%

In accordance with Predictions 208 and 93 a great number (98.3%) fulfilled the expectation as the great majority (86.7%) used the simple present (*there is*) as the positive interference and a small number (11.6%) used the simple past as the negative interference. However, only a very small number (1.7%) committed the intralingual error ‘ignorance of rule restrictions’ by using *there would be*.

Item 15. I’m going to eat breakfast before I to class tomorrow. (go)

Responses: { correct responses 100%
wrong responses 0%

Regarding Prediction 207 the expectation was fulfilled completely as all the students used the simple present (*go*) as the positive interference.

Item 20. If the weather not too bad tomorrow, we’ll play golf. (be)

Responses: { correct responses 80%
wrong responses 20% Wrong Responses: { be 10%
was 8.3%
would 1.7%

In regard to Predictions 208 and 93, the expectation was fulfilled almost completely since the great majority used the simple present as the positive interference and two small groups (10%) and (8%) used the bare infinitive *be* and the simple past *was* respectively as negative interferences. Besides, very few students (1.7%) committed the intralingual error ‘ignorance of rule restrictions’ by using the modal *would*.

Item 37. After I dinner at 8:00 tonight, I’m going to study in my room.
(eat)

Responses: { correct responses 90%
wrong responses 10% Wrong Responses: *ate* 16.7%

With regard to Predictions 207 and 92, only 10% used the simple past (*ate*) as the negative interference. The great majority (90%) of the participants used the simple present as the positive interference.

Item 33. If my dad time next week, we will paint my room. (have)

Responses: { correct responses 88.3%
wrong responses 11.7% Wrong Responses: { had 8.3%
will have 1.7%
would have 1.7%

Again according to Predictions 207 and 93, here the expectation was not fulfilled completely as a great majority (88.3%) used the simple present (*has*) as the positive and a small number (8.3%) used the simple past (*had*) as the negative interference. In addition, 3.4% of the participants made the intralingual error, ‘ignorance of rule restrictions’ by using *will have* and *would have*.

Item 41: Do you know what you want to do after you? (graduate)

Responses: { correct responses 58.3%
wrong responses 41.7% Wrong Responses: { graduated 16.7%
are graduated 11.7%
be graduated 8.3%
will graduate 5%

Regarding Predictions 207 and 92, only 16.7% of the students used the simple past. Nevertheless, more than half (58.3%) of the students employed the simple present (*graduate*) as the correct answer and a small number (25%) committed the intralingual error ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple future (*will graduate*). However, there are some explanatory notes about this particular item in which two wrong constructions *are graduated* and *be graduated* were employed by 20% of students. These two constructions can be seen as interference errors because on the one hand, the equivalent verb *graduate* in Persian is a compound verb and as we know one of the most common intransitive compound verbs in Persian is comprised of (adjective + *šod-an* ‘to get’, ‘to become’/ *bud-an* ‘to be’). On the other hand, the passive voice in Persian is constructed with (predicative adjective + *šod-an* ‘to get’, ‘to become’). Here, the past participle *graduated* can function as a predicative adjective in the passive voice or compound adjective in a compound verb in Persian.

Item 53: If she her exam again, she’ll be really upset. (fail)

Responses: { correct responses 100%
wrong responses 0%

In respect of Predictions 208 and 93 the participants used the simple present (fails) correctly as the positive interference.

Item 61: I’ll give Rita your message when I her. (see)

Responses: { correct responses 93.3% Wrong Response: *saw* 6.7%
wrong responses 6.7%

Concerning Predictions 207, and 92, all the expectations were fulfilled since the majority of the participants (93.3%) used the simple present (*see*) as the positive interference and a small number of the participants (6.7%) used the simple past as the negative interference.

Item 67: If I don't eat breakfast, I always hungry during class. (*feel*)

Responses: { correct responses 100%
wrong responses 0%

As it was expected in Prediction 9, the students used the simple present (*feel*) as the positive interference.

Item 69: I'm going to go to Chicago whether or not John (go)

Responses: { correct responses 81.7%
wrong responses 18.3% Wrong Responses: { is going to 8.3%
will go 8.3%
going 1.7%

With regard to prediction 210, the simple present verbs can be used with the correlative conjunction *whether* except for the verb *be*. Thus, the majority of the participants (81.7%) wrote the right answer (*goes*). On the other hand, although the time reference *go/goes* is the future, 16.6% of the participants used the two wrong verb forms *is going to go* and *will go*. In fact, they committed the intralingual error of 'ignorance of rule restriction', that is, they ignored that the simple present tense appears in the subjunctive clause.

Item 75: I a raincoat whenever it rains. (*wear*)

Responses: { correct responses 100%
wrong responses 0%

Here the prediction is fulfilled according to Prediction 217. All the students used the simple present (*wear*) as the correct answer.

Item 79: There is another train to New York. It the station at 6 p.m.
(*leave*)

Responses: { correct responses 95%
wrong responses 5% Wrong Responses: { will leave 3.3%
left 1.7%

The great majority (95%) used the simple present (*leaves*) according to Prediction 12 for timetables. Nevertheless, 3.3% of the participants made the intralingual error of

‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple future. Moreover, very few students (1.7%) used the simple past form *left* because of ‘faulty knowledge’ of the determiner meaning *another* in the previous sentence. *Another* can be a clue in referring to the future time for the verb *go*.

Item 84: William is going to be a pilot when he (grow up)

Responses: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{correct responses 78.3\%} \\ \text{wrong responses 21.7\%} \end{array} \right.$ Wrong Responses: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{will grow up 11.7\%} \\ \text{grew/growed up 8.3\%} \\ \text{has grown up 1.7\%} \end{array} \right.$

The expectation was not fulfilled completely in accordance with Prediction, 207, 92. Hence, a large number of the participants (78.3%) employed the simple present (grows up) as the positive interference and a small number (8.3%) employed the simple past as the negative interference. However, 11.7% of the participants committed the intralingual error, ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the wrong form, ‘*will grow up*’ because they ignored that ‘*is going to be*’ here is a simple future tense in the main clause and consequently in the subordinate clause, a simple tense form should appear. In addition, 8.3% of the participants used the simple past because of being interfered by the source language, Persian, in which a simple past tense form can be used in the adverbial clauses of time with conjunctions such as ‘when’. Finally, the wrong answer ‘*has grown up*’ is a mistake without any justification.

Item 87: You’ll get hungry during class unless you breakfast. (eat)

Responses: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{correct responses 95\%} \\ \text{wrong responses 5\%} \end{array} \right.$

A great majority (95%) of the participants used the simple present (eat) with regard to Prediction 207. However, 5% of the participants used the simple past tense (ate) because as an intralingual error they ignored the rule restriction that a simple present should occur in the main clause of conditional sentences type 1. Furthermore, a reason can be

considered that some few students used the simple past (ate) because they supposed *class* as a definite class. If so, the appropriate tense for the verb (eat) would be the past subjunctive. That may be why they used the simple past tense as there is no equivalent past subjunctive in English.

Item 90: John is strong. He home every day. (walk)

Responses: { correct responses 100%
wrong responses 0%

Here Prediction 2 was fulfilled completely when all the participants used the simple present (*walks*) correctly.

Item 92: Wow! These flowers good. (smell)

Responses: { correct responses 100%
wrong responses 0%

According to Prediction 16, the expectation was fulfilled completely as the perception verb *smell* was used in the simple present as the correct answer by all the participants.

7.2.1.1.2 Present Progressive

Item 5: Look! It! (snow)

Responses: { correct responses 86.7% Wrong Responses: { snows 11.6%
wrong responses 13.3% will be snowing 1.7%

According to prediction 29, the great majority of the participants (86.7%) used the present progressive (is snowing) as the positive interference. However, 11.6% of the participants used the simple present tense (*snows*) as the negative interference. Moreover, very few of the participants (1.7%) used the wrong answer *will be snowing* that must have been caused by ignoring the clue word *Look* in the sentence which semantically and pragmatically denotes the present progressive.

Item 16: My father by the window at present. (stand)

Responses: { correct responses 68.3%
wrong responses 31.7% Wrong Responses: { stands 20%
has stood 11.7%

According to Predictions 32, the expectation was not fulfilled completely because the majority of the participants (68%) used the present progressive (is standing) as the positive interference and a small number (11.7%) of the participants used the present perfect as the negative interference. On the other hand, less than a quarter of the participants (20%) used the simple present as the intralingual error, ‘false concept hypothesized’.

Item 21: Paola is the student who at the back of the class at present. (sit)

Responses: { correct responses 25%
wrong responses 75% Wrong Responses: { sits 56.7%
has sat 8.3%
sat 5%
* is sat 3.3%
* is sit 1.66%

Again, regarding Predictions 32, the present progressive and the present perfect were expected to be used as the right and wrong answers respectively. Accordingly, a quarter of the participants used the present progressive as the positive interference and a small number (8.3%) of the participants employed the present perfect as the negative interference. 56.7% used the simple present *sits* and 5% used the simple past *sat* because they did not notice the clue adverb *at present* that refers to the instantaneity of time. 8.3% of the participants used the present perfect *has sat* because of the same reason mentioned for item 16. Besides, 3.3% used **is sat* because they wrongly combined the past participle *sat* with the indicative Persian suppletive *ast* ‘is’. The participant who answered **is sit* most probably committed the error, ‘incomplete application of rules’ in which he omitted *–ing* from the main verb *sit*.

Item 32: At present, I with him for a while. (*stay*)

Responses: { correct responses 70%
wrong responses 30% } Wrong Responses: { stay 28.3%
have been staying 1.7% }

In accordance with prediction 34, the expectation was not fulfilled completely as only 28.3% of the participants used the simple present for stative verb (*stay*) as the negative interference for the above sentence and 70% of the participants used the present progressive (*is staying*) as the correct answer. On the other hand, very small number (1.7%) committed the lingual error ‘the ignorance of rule restriction) by using the present perfect progressive (*have been staying*).

Item 35: I a novel nowadays. (*read*)

Responses: { correct responses 75%
wrong responses 25% } Wrong Responses: { read 21.7%
have read 3.3% }

Based on Prediction 34, the simple present and the present progressive were expected to be used more frequently and less frequently respectively. Here the expectation was not fulfilled completely, as three quarters of the participants (75%) used the present progressive tense (*am reading*) as the positive interference and less than one quarter of the participants (21.7%) employed the simple present as the negative interference. It must be remembered that in a Persian sentence with the adverb time of *nowadays*, both verb forms - the simple present and the present perfect can be used in the sense of present progressive and a finished event respectively. Nevertheless, only a small number of the participants (3.3%) used the present perfect as another negative interference.

Item 48: I dislike people always me what to think. (*tell*)

Responses: { correct responses 8.3%
wrong responses 91.7% } Wrong Responses: { tell 81.7%
to tell 10% }

In regard to Prediction 52, a majority of the participants (81.7%) used the simple present as the negative interference. However, a small number of the participants (8.3%) used

the present progressive as the correct response and 10% of the participants used the infinitive (*to tell*) because of the ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ as an intralingual error.

Item 72: George is in the garden. He the roses. (smell)

Responses: { correct responses 61.7%
wrong responses 38.3% } Wrong Responses: smells 38.3%

According to Predictions 29, the predictions were fulfilled correctly, as more than half of the participants (61.7%) used the present progressive as the positive interference and less than half of the participants (38.3%) used the simple present as the negative interference.

Item 85: Mary over there now. (sleep)

Responses: { correct responses 61.7%
wrong responses 38.3% } Wrong Responses: { sleeps 26.7%
has slept 11.7% }

Based on Prediction 35, the present progressive (is sleeping) and the present perfect were predicted to be chosen by the participants. The majority of the participants (61.7%) used the present progressive as the positive interference and a small number of the participants (11.7%) used the present perfect as the negative interference. However, 26.7% of the participants used the simple present as the wrong answer. For using the simple present in this sentence, two probable reasons can be considered: First, it could be due to the negative interference of the source language in which sometimes depending on the context in some sentences the adverb *now* with the simple present is used to refer to the near future. Thus, it is possible that 26.7% of the participants used the wrong answer *sleeps* to refer to the near future. Second, the participants committed the intralingual error, ‘the ignorance of rule restriction’.

7.2.1.1.3 Present Perfect

Item 13: My best friend and I each other for over fifteen years. (know)

Responses: { correct responses 31.7%
wrong responses 68.3% Wrong Responses: { know 66.6%
had known 1.7%

With reference to Prediction 57, the simple present *know* with the meaning of ‘be familiar to’ was predicted as here the majority of the participants (66.6%) used it as the negative interference. However, 38.3% of the participants gave the right answer by using the present perfect (have known). In addition, very few of the participants (1.7%) used the past perfect tense because of ‘the ignorance of rule restriction’ as an intralingual error.

Item 30: At last! I (finish)

Responses: { correct responses 0%
wrong responses 100% Wrong Responses: { finished 95%
finish 5%

In accordance with Prediction 60, the great majority (95%) of the participants used the simple past as negative interference. Notwithstanding, only a small number (5%) committed the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple present (*finish*). It seems the participants did not pay attention to the exclamation mark after ‘*at last!*’ as a clue indicating that the time reference of the action is the past not the future and this could be why they committed the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ (faulty of knowledge). In addition, since the sentence without exclamation mark can refer to the future time and in such a case, using the simple present in Persian would be grammatical.

Item 46: I my Seiko quartz watch for two years. (have)

Responses: { correct responses 80%
wrong responses 20% Wrong Responses: { have 11.7%
had 8.3%

According to Prediction 57, the use of the two tenses - present perfect and simple present were predicted. Here, a great majority of the participants (80%) used the present perfect as the positive interference and a small number of the participants (11.7%) used the simple

present as the negative interference. Moreover, 8.3% of the participants used the simple past because of the intralingual error, ‘false concepts hypothesized’

Item 76: This is the first time that I her sing. (hear)

Responses: { correct responses 46.7%
wrong responses 53.3% } Wrong Responses: { hear 33.3%
am hearing 20% }

According to Prediction 66, the present perfect, the simple present and the present progressive may be used. Hence, 46% of the participants used the present perfect as the positive interference and 53.3% used the simple present (33.3%) and the present progressive (20%) as the negative interference.

Item 82: His English since he moved to Australia. (improve)

Responses: { correct responses 73.3%
wrong responses 26.7% } Wrong Responses: { improved 21.7%
is improving 5% }

Regarding the Prediction 56, the major (73.3%) of the participants used the present perfect as the positive interference. Notwithstanding, 25.7% of them used the simple past and present progressive as the wrong answers because of intralingual error of ‘false concepts hypothesized’.

7.2.1.1.4 Present Perfect Progressive

Item 2: She tennis for half an hour now. (play)

Responses: { correct responses 0%
wrong responses 100% } Wrong Responses: { is playing 60%
plays 20%
* has playing 10%
* will play 10% }

In accordance with Predictions 78, 79 and 80, the simple present, present perfect and the present progressive were anticipated. However, the majority of the participants (80%) used the simple present and present progressive as the negative interference and none of the students used the present perfect for this item. Besides, 10% of the participants

committed the intralingual error ‘ignorance of the rule restriction’ by using the simple present *plays* and the simple future *will play*. In addition, 10% of the participants made the intralingual ‘incomplete application of rules’ by using **has playing*.

A cleft sentence with a present light verb is used to mention the time of the action which has been happening and followed by an embedded sentence with a present perfect. Such a construction can help to reduce the ambiguity meaning with the resultative present perfect.

Item 11: She too much television lately. (watch)

Responses: { correct responses 5%
wrong responses 95% Wrong Responses: { watches 50%
watched 45%

Prediction 74 gave a preview of using the present perfect or present progressive by the participants. However, the expectation was not fulfilled at all. A very small percentage of the participants (5%) used the present perfective progressive as the right answer while a great majority (95%) committed the intralingual error ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple present *watches* and the simple past *watched*.

Item 65: I cigarettes since I was seventeen. (smoke)

Responses: { correct responses 100%
wrong responses 0%

In this item, Prediction 72 was fulfilled completely and all the students used the present perfect tense (have been smoking) as the positive interfere.

Item 70: It..... since I came home. (rain)

Responses: { correct responses 5%
wrong responses 95% Wrong Responses: { has rained 58.3%
rained 25%
was raining 11.7%

According to Predictions 78, 79 and 80, the use of the simple present, present perfect or the present progressive was predicted. However, in this item, very few of the participants (5%) used the present perfect progressive (has been raining) as the correct answer and only 58.3% of the prediction was fulfilled as the negative interference by using the present perfect. Besides, 36.7% of the participants made the intralingual error, 'ignorance of rule restriction' by using the simple past and the past progressive.

Item 83: We for more than an hour. Let's rest for a while. (climb)

Responses: { correct responses 8.3%
wrong responses 91.7% Wrong Responses: { have climbed 61.7%
are climbing 30%

According to predictions 78, 79 and 80, 8.3% of the participants used the present perfect progressive as the correct answer. The majority of the participants (91.7%) employed the present perfect and the present progressive as the negative interference.

Item 95: They since 2 o'clock. (sleep)

Responses: { correct responses 5%
wrong responses 95% Wrong Responses: { have slept 90%
slept 5%

A small percentage of the participants (5%) used the present perfect progressive (have been sleeping) as the correct answer. Prediction 72 predicted the use of the present perfect and here a great majority of the participants (90%) used the present perfect. Moreover, 5% of the participants made the intralingual error, 'ignorance of rule restriction' by using the simple past.

7.2.1.2 Past Tenses

7.2.1.2.1 Simple Past

Item 4: I had never seen such a beautiful beach before I to Hawaii. (go)

Responses: { correct responses 83.3%
wrong responses 16.7% Wrong Responses: { go 10%
had gone 6.7%

Based on Prediction 207, the expectation was not fulfilled because the majority of the participants (83.3%) used the simple past and only 10% of the participants used the simple present as it was predicted. 6.7% of the participants committed the intralingual error, ‘ignorance of rule restriction’.

Item 9: We to the park every day last month. (walk)

Responses: { correct responses 90% Wrong Responses: { had worked 8.33%
 { wrong responses 10% used to walk 1.7%

Although a majority of the participants (90%) gave the correct answer and fulfilled Prediction 98 by using the simple past, 10% of the participants committed the intralingual error, ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ and gave the wrong answer.

Item 22: When I opened the window, the cat out. (jump)

Responses: $\begin{cases} \text{correct responses 95\%} \\ \text{wrong responses 5\%} \end{cases}$ Wrong Responses: was jumping 5%

The majority of the participants (95%) used the simple past as the positive interference in accordance with Prediction 88. However, very few participants (5%) used the past progressive as the wrong answer. In other words, 5% of the participants committed the intralingual error, ‘ignorance of rule restriction’.

Item 24: Why are you crying? ‘Gramy..... me. (hit)

Response: : $\begin{cases} \text{correct responses 50\%} \\ \text{wrong responses 50\%} \end{cases}$ Wrong Responses: has hit 50%

Regarding to Prediction 88, the expectation was not fulfilled because half of the participants used the present perfect as the wrong answer. Here, the participants committed an interlingual error due to negative interference. In Persian, sometimes a present perfect verb tense can be also used for the completed action. For examples,

Persian speakers often use the present perfect tense in the following sentences while in English, the simple past is usually used:

The Chinese invented paper.

That's a nice picture. Did you painted it yourself?

Item 34: It's time you a job. (get)

Responses: $\begin{cases} \text{correct responses 0\%} \\ \text{wrong responses 100\%} \end{cases}$ Wrong Responses: $\begin{cases} \text{get 85\%} \\ \text{to get 13.3\%} \\ \text{getting 1.7\%} \end{cases}$

In respect of Prediction 102, the expectation was not fulfilled completely as the majority of the participants (85%) used the simple present. Moreover, less than a quarter of the participants (15%) made the intralingual error, 'ignorance of rule restrictions' by using the full infinitive and gerund.

Item 40: I asked whether / if she any letters for me (have)

Responses: $\begin{cases} \text{correct responses 56.7\%} \\ \text{wrong responses 43.3\%} \end{cases}$ Wrong Responses: $\begin{cases} \text{has 35\%} \\ \text{has had 8.3\%} \end{cases}$

Prediction 100 predicted the use of simple present or present perfect by Persian EFL learners. However, only 43.3% of the participants fulfilled the expectation as the negative interference while more than half (56.7%) of the participants used the simple past as the correct answer.

Item 52: I should have looked in the mirror before I out. (go)

Responses: $\begin{cases} \text{correct responses 63.3\%} \\ \text{wrong responses 36.7\%} \end{cases}$ Wrong Responses: $\begin{cases} \text{go 28.3\%} \\ \text{had gone 5\%} \\ \text{gone 1.7\%} \\ \text{be gone 1.7\%} \end{cases}$

Only 28.3% fulfilled Prediction 207 by using the simple present as the negative interference. However, most of the participants (63.3%) used the correct answer by using

the simple past (went). Besides, 8.4% of the participants committed the intralingual error, 'ignorance of rule restriction'.

Item 58: It surprised me that he still in bed. (be)

Responses: { correct responses 73.3%
wrong responses 26.7% Wrong Responses: is 26.7%

Regarding Prediction 100, the expectation was not fulfilled completely as the great majority of the participants (73.3%) used the simple past and the rest of the participants (26.7%) used the simple present as it was already expected.

Item 80: They television last night. (watch)

Responses: { correct responses 95%
wrong responses 5% Wrong Responses: were watching 5%

The expectation was fulfilled completely with regard to Predictions 90. The majority of the participants (95%) used the simple past (*watched*) as the positive interference in accordance with prediction 85, while a minor number (5%) used the past progressive as the negative interference according to Prediction 103. That is why in Persian, the durative verbs such as *watch* can be used as simple past or imperfective simple past in a sentence like the above sentence.

Item 88: How funny! I thought she me. (like)

Responses: { correct responses 65%
wrong responses 35% Wrong Responses: { likes 30%
has liked 5%

Prediction 100 predicted the using of the simple present and present perfect by Persian EFL learners. Therefore, only 35% of the prediction was fulfilled as the negative interference and more than half of the participants (65%) used the simple past (liked) as the positive interference.

Item 19: I volleyball when I was young, but I don't any longer.
(play)

Responses:	{	correct responses 28.3%	Wrong Responses:	{	played 30%
		wrong responses 71.7%			play 16.7%
					<i>have played</i> 16.7%
					<i>am playing</i> 3.3%
					<i>use to play</i> 3.3%
					<i>can play</i> 1.7%

According to prediction 111, 28.3% of the participants used the correct construction *used to play* to denote an action as a regular happening in the past that no longer happens. However, 30% of the participants used the simple past *played* as the negative interference because in the Persian equivalent, a durative verb like *play* can be used as the simple past or imperfective simple past. On the other hand, a small number of the participants (3.3%) made the intralingual error 'incomplete application of rules' by using *use to play*. Besides, 38.4% committed the intralingual error, 'ignorance of rule restriction' by using other wrong answers.

Item 99: Now I'm not shy. I shy when I was a child. (be)

Responses:	{	correct responses 33.3%	Wrong Responses:	{	<i>was</i> 50%
		wrong responses 66.7%			<i>had been</i> 16.7%

According to prediction 111, more than a quarter of the participants (33.3%) used the correct answer *used to be*. However, half of the participants used the simple past as negative interference and 16.7% committed the intralingual error of 'ignorance of rule restriction' by using the past perfect'.

Item 94: It would be better if we it in the other way up. (turn)

Responses:	{	correct responses 20%	Wrong Responses:	<i>turn</i> 80%
		wrong responses 80%		

Regarding Prediction 105, only 20% of the participants fulfilled the expectation by using the simple past. On the other hand, the majority of the participants (80%) made intralingual errors of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple present.

7.2.1.2.2 Past Progressive

Item 7: I saw you in the park yesterday. You on the grass and
reading a book. (sit)

Responses: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{correct responses 50\%} \\ \text{wrong responses 50\%} \end{array} \right.$ Wrong Responses: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{had sat 33.3\%} \\ \text{sat 16.7\%} \end{array} \right.$

In accordance with Prediction 123, only 33.3% of the expectation was fulfilled in this sentence by using the past perfect as the negative interference. However, half of the participants employed the past progressive as the correct answer. In addition, 16.7% made the intralingual error, ‘ignorance of rule restriction’.

Item 54: ‘Was Carol at the party last night?’ ‘Yes, she a really nice
dress.’ (wear)

Responses: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{correct responses 15\%} \\ \text{wrong responses 85\%} \end{array} \right.$ Wrong Responses: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{had worn 40\%} \\ \text{weared 31.7\%} \\ \text{was worn 6.7\%} \\ \text{has worn 3.3\%} \\ \text{wear 3.3\%} \end{array} \right.$

Again, like item 7, the expectation was not fulfilled completely according to Prediction 123 as the majority of the participants (40%) used the past perfect as the negative interference. However, 15% of the participants used the past progressive as the correct answer. On the other hand, 45% of the participants committed the intralingual error ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the other verb forms such as the simple past, passive simple past, present perfect and the simple present.

Item 89: It the whole time I was on holiday. (rain)

Responses: { correct responses 75%
wrong responses 25% Wrong Responses: { *rained* 23.3%
had been raining 1.7%

Concerning Prediction 120, the majority of the participants (98.3%) used the past progressive or simple past tenses as it was already anticipated. Three quarters of the participants, (75%) used the past progressive (was raining) as positive interference and less than a quarter (23%) used the simple past as the negative interference. In addition, a very small number of the participants (1.7%) committed the intralingual error ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the past perfect progressive.

Item 98: While he to class, he saw Mrs. Smith. (walk)

Responses: { correct responses 90%
wrong responses 10% Wrong Responses: { *walked* 8.3%
have walked 1.7%

Again, according to Prediction 121, the past progressive and the simple present were anticipated to be used. Thus, the majority of the participants (90%) used the past progressive as the positive interference and a small number (8.3%) used the simple past as the negative interference. Besides, very few of the participants (1.7%) made the intralingual error, ‘ignorance of rule restriction’.

7.2.1.2.3 Past Perfect

Item 26: We so many different places, before we came back hotel.
(visit)

Responses: { correct responses 45%
wrong responses 55% Wrong Responses: { *visited* 40%
was vissiting 8.3%
have visited 5%
will visit 1.7

The expectation was not fulfilled completely according to Prediction 140 as the majority of the participants (45%) used the past perfect. The rest of the answers by the participants (55%) were regarded as intralingual errors from ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ which were

spread out over the four mistakes with higher to less frequency usage as follows: the simple past, the past progressive, the present perfect, and the simple future. Regarding the use of the simple past as one of the wrong responses in this sentence, it seems that the participants employed the simple past because in Persian, the simple past also can be used as a completed action in a main clause while the conjunction *before* is used in the adverbial clause of a compound sentence.

Item 45: I was sorry to sell my car. I it since 1999. (have)

Responses:	{	correct responses 3.3%	Wrong Responses:	{	have had 66.7%
		wrong responses 96.7%			had 25%
					have 3.3%
					* have been had 1.7%

Here the expectation dealing with Prediction 153 was not fulfilled completely because only 25% of the participants used the simple past as the negative interference and only 3.3% used the past perfect (had had) as the right answer. In addition, a large number of the participants (71.7%) committed the intralingual error, ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the present perfect, the simple present and the odd construction **have been had*. It seems that the majority of the participants (66.7%) used the present perfect (have had) because they did not pay enough attention to the semantic correlation between the previous sentence (I was sorry to sell my car.) with the past time verb (was) and the next sentence which was in the past perfect (had had) form.

Item 51: She told me that her father ill since Christmas. (be)

Responses:	{	correct responses 6.7%	Wrong Responses:	{	has been 76.7%
		wrong responses 93.3%			was 10%
					is 6.7%

Again, according to Prediction 159, the use of the present perfect was predicted. Nonetheless, a great majority of the participants (76.7%) used the present perfect and only a small number of the participants (6.7%) used the simple present as negative interference.

Besides, 6.7% of the participants used the past perfect as the correct answer while 10% of the participants used the simple past and this was an intralingual error from ‘false concepts hypothesized’.

[there is no positive transfer in such a kind of sentence. Because there is no past perfect tense for the stative verb ‘be’.]

Item 60: I told her that I (finish)

Responses:	{	correct responses 33.3%	Wrong Responses:	{	<i>finished</i> 40%
		wrong responses 66.7%			<i>have finished</i> 16.7%
					<i>finish</i> 6.7%
					<i>will finish</i> 3.3%

With reference to Prediction160, the expectation was not fulfilled completely as only 16.7% of the participants used the present perfect as the negative interference whereas more than a quarter of the participants (33.3%) used the past perfect (had finished) as the right answer. On the other hand, half of the participants (50%) made the intralingual error, ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple past, the simple present and the simple future.

Item 57: It was the first time my friend abroad. (be)

Responses:	{	correct responses 66.7%	Wrong Responses:	{	<i>was</i> 20%
		wrong responses 33.3%			<i>has been</i> 13.3%

Though according to prediction 158, the present perfect tense was expected, only (13.3%) respondents use the present perfect as negative interference. Two-third the respondents used the past perfect as the correct answer while one-third answered wrongly. (20%) of them made the intralingual error ‘ignorance of rule restriction’. Even though it seems the respondents followed the agreement rule for two verbs in the first sentence as the main clause and the second sentence as the dependent clause, they could not realized the concept of ‘had been’ and its close meaning with the corresponding verb ‘had gone’.

Therefore, the respondents used the simple past ‘*was*’ as a linking verb instead of the past perfect tense ‘*had been*’.

7.2.1.2.4 Past Perfect Progressive

Item 17: Pefter finally found his sister after long years. He told our reporter, “ Imy sister all my life.” (look for)

Responses:	{	correct responses 0%	Wrong Responses:	{	<i>had looked for</i> 76.7%
		wrong responses 100%			<i>looked for</i> 16.7%
					<i>have looked for</i> 5%
					<i>had been looked for</i> 1.7%

Regarding Prediction 168, my expectation was not fulfilled completely as the majority of the participants (76.7%) used the past perfect.

On the other hand, less than a quarter of the participants (21.7%) committed the intralingual error, ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple past and present perfect tenses. Moreover, a very small percentage of the participants (1.7%) made the intralingual error, ‘incomplete application of rules’ by using *had been looked for*.

Item 29: The police the criminal for two years before they caught him. (look for)

Responses:	{	correct responses 6.7%	Wrong Responses:	{	<i>had looked for</i> 45%
		wrong responses 93.3%			<i>was looking for</i> 38.3%
					<i>looked for</i> 10%

Again, in accordance with Prediction 168, the expectation was not fulfilled completely since less than half of the participants (45%) used the past perfect. On the other hand in respect of the prediction 169, 6.7% of the participants used the correct answer and less than half of the participants (48.3%) committed the intralingual error, ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the past progressive and the simple tenses.

7.2.1.3 Future Tenses

7.2.1.3.1 Simple Future

Item 8: They with friends until they find a hotel. (stay)

This item was designed on purpose to investigate on one hand, what numbers of the participants were familiar with the use of the present progressive as ‘temporary present in limited duration’ and on the other hand, how many of the participants use the simple future tense with modal *will* or semi-modal *be going to*.

Responses: { correct responses 65%
wrong responses 35%

Wrong Responses: { stay 16.7%
stayed 11.7%
have stayed 3.3%
had stayed 3.3%

According to Prediction 32, the expectation was not fulfilled completely as none of the participants used the present progressive and only 16.7% of the participants used the simple present as well.

According to Prediction 176, the majority of the participants (65%) used the simple future *will stay* as the positive interference and a small number of the participants (16.7%) used the simple present as the negative interference. Besides, less than a quarter of the participants (18%) committed the intralingual error, ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple past, present perfect and past perfect tenses. In the same way, according to Prediction 179, the expectation was not fulfilled completely as only very few of the participants (1.7%) used *be going to* as the correct answer and a small number of the participants (16.7%) used the simple present as the negative interference.

Item 12: Sarah is coming to the party. Oliver there as well. (be)

Responses: { correct responses 11.7%
wrong responses 88.3% } Wrong Response: is 88.3%

Regarding Prediction 177, the expectation was fulfilled completely as 11.7% used the simple future as the positive interference while the majority of the participants (88.3%) used the simple present as the negative interference.

Item 18: Maybe it tomorrow. If it rains tomorrow, I'm going to stay home. (rain)

Responses: { correct responses 13.3%
wrong responses 86.7% } Wrong Responses: { rains 83.3%
will be raining 1.7%
would be raining 1.7%

With regard to Prediction 205, the largest part of the expectation was fulfilled when only 13.3% of the participants used the simple future as the correct response while a great number of the participants (83.3%) used the simple present. The other wrong answers given by the participants (3.4%) are considered as the intralingual errors from 'ignorance of rule restriction'.

Item 27: I'm going on a trip. I Judy until Tuesday. (not see)

Responses: { correct responses 60%
wrong responses 40% } Wrong Responses: { *have not seen* 23.3%
don't see 15%
wouldn't see 1.7%

This item has two correct answers simple future and future progressive. According to Predictions 178 and 176, no participants used the future progressive as the correct response. Nevertheless, 75% of the participants' expectation was fulfilled by using the simple future and the simple present. More than half of the participants (60%) used the simple future as the correct answer and less than a quarter of the participants (15%) used the simple present as the negative interference. Moreover, one quarter of the participants (25%) committed the intralingual error, 'ignorance of rule restriction' by using *have not seen* and *wouldn't see*.

Item 36: According to the weather report, it cloudy tomorrow. (be)

Responses: { correct responses 50%
wrong responses 50% Wrong Responses: { *is* 48.3%
would be 1.7%

The simple future with the modal *will* and the semi-modal *be going to* are the two correct answers. In connected with Prediction 177, the majority of the participants (98.3%) fulfilled the expectation as half of the participants (50%) used the simple future as the positive interference and less than half (48.3%) employed the simple present as the negative interference. In addition, very few of the participants (1.7%) committed the intralingual error, ‘ignorance of rule restriction’, by using *would be*. Unlike Prediction 169, the expectation was not fulfilled completely in Prediction 172 because the present progressive was not used. Nonetheless, it is similar with other predictions as the above case.

Item 44: When you come back home, youeverything. (find out)

Responses: { correct responses 81.7%
wrong responses 18.3% Wrong Responses: { *find out* 13.3%
found out 3.3%
have found out 1.7%

Regarding Prediction 177, the majority of the participants (95%) fulfilled the expectations. A large number of the participants (81.7%) used the simple future as the positive interference while a smaller number of the participants (13.3%) used the simple present as negative interference. Besides, very few of the participants (5%) committed the intralingual error, ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple past and present perfect.

Item 56: Look at those black clouds! Itsoon . (rain)

Responses: { correct responses 63.5%
wrong responses 36.5% Wrong Responses: { *rains* 25%
is raining 5%
will be raining 5%
would be raining 1.7%

According to Predictions 180 and 181, the expectation was not fulfilled completely because the correct tense forms for this item are the simple future with *be going to* and *will* as well. As it had already predicted Persian EFL learners prefer to use the simple future with *will* than *be going to*. Since the participants did not get the point, a large number of the participants (60%) used the simple future with *will* and only a minor number of them used the simple future with *be going to* for prediction. As a consequence, 36.7% of the participants made the intralingual error ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the above wrong response.

Item 64: David tomorrow morning. (leave)

This item was designed deliberately to measure how many of the participants use the simple future or the present progressive as correct answers.

Responses: $\begin{cases} \text{correct responses 100\%} \\ \text{wrong responses 0\%} \end{cases}$

In accordance with prediction 176, all respondents used the simple future with *will* as the correct answer. However, as the above results show none of the participants used the simple future with *be going to*, or present progressive verb tense referring to the immediate future.

Item 73: Be careful! You yourself! (hurt)

Responses: $\begin{cases} \text{correct responses 40\%} \\ \text{wrong responses 60\%} \end{cases}$ Wrong Responses: $\begin{cases} \text{are hurting 33.3\%} \\ \text{hurt 26.7\%} \end{cases}$

In respect of Prediction 177, the expectation was not fulfilled completely because 40% of the participants used the simple future as the positive interference and 26.7% of the participants used the simple present as the negative interference. In addition, 33.3% of the participants committed the intralingual error ‘ignorance of rule restriction’. It seems

the participants were tempted to use the present progressive because of the phrase *be careful* at the beginning of the sentence as an imperative.

Item 91: Who wants to erase the board? Are there any volunteers? ~ I it. (do)

Responses: { correct responses 80%
wrong responses 20% } Wrong Responses: *do* 20%

With regard to Prediction 176, the expectations were fulfilled completely as the majority of the participants (80%) used the simple future as the positive interference and a small number of the participants (20%) used the simple present as the negative interference.

7.2.1.3.2 Future Progressive

Item 6: Maryat the library tonight, so she will not see Jennifer when she arrives. (study)

Responses: { correct responses 0%
wrong responses 100% } Wrong Responses: { *will study* 53.3%
was studing 43.3%
** will studying* 1.7%
am studying 1.7%

In accordance with Prediction 185, the expectation was not fulfilled completely as slightly more than half of the participants (53.3%) used the simple future as the negative interference. However, less than half of the participants (45%) made the intralingual error ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the present and past progressive tenses. Besides, very few of the participants (1.7%) committed the intralingual error of ‘incomplete application of rules’ by using **will studying*.

Item 50: This time tomorrow I..... in the sun. (sit)

Responses: { correct responses 30%
wrong responses 70% } Wrong Responses: { *will sit* 53.3%
sit 11.7%
am going to 3.3%
** will be sited* 1.7%

Regarding Prediction 183, only 56.6% of the participants fulfilled the expectation by using the simple future with modal *will* or semi-modal *be going to* as negative positive. Nevertheless, 30% of the participants used the future progressive as the correct answer and 11.7% of the participants committed the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple present and very few of the participants (1.7%) made the intralingual error of ‘incomplete application of rules’ by using *will be sited* instead of *will be sitting*.

7.2.1.3.3 Future Perfect

Item 38: Sam by next week. (leave)

Responses:	{	correct responses 6.7%	Wrong Responses:	{	<i>will have</i> 78.3% <i>leaves</i> 10% <i>are going to leave</i> 3.3% <i>is leaving</i> 1.7%
		wrong responses 93.3%			

With respect to Prediction 189, a great number of the participants (81.6%) fulfilled the expectation by using the simple future as the negative interference. Notwithstanding, 6.7% of the participants used the future perfect as the correct answer and 11.7% of the participants committed the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of the rule restriction’.

Item 59: The mechanic the car by the time I come home from work. (fix)

Responses:	{	correct responses 6.7%	Wrong Responses:	{	<i>will fix</i> 56.6% <i>has fixed</i> 13.3% <i>fixes</i> 8.33% <i>fixed</i> 5% <i>will be fixed</i> 5% <i>would have fixed</i> 1.7% <i>has been fixing</i> 1.7% <i>had fixed</i> 1.7%
		wrong responses 93.3%			

Regarding Prediction 189, more than half (69.9%) of the participants fulfilled the expectations by using the simple future and present perfect. In addition, 6.7% of the participants used the future perfect as the correct answer and 16.7% of the participants

committed the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple present, simple past, present perfect progressive and the past perfect. It seems 6.7% of the participants made the intralingual error of ‘incomplete application of rules’ by using the construction *will be fixed* and *would have fixed*.

7.2.1.3.4 Future Perfect Progressive

Item 43: The teacher my children for 5 years next month. (teach)

Responses:	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{correct responses 5\%} \\ \text{wrong responses 95\%} \end{array} \right.$	Wrong Responses:	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{will teach 48.3\%} \\ \text{has taught 25\%} \\ \text{will have taught 8.3\%} \\ \text{will be teaching 6.7\%} \\ \text{teaches 6.7\%} \end{array} \right.$
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With reference to Prediction 194, the expectation was not fulfilled completely since only 25% of the participants used the present perfect. On the other hand, a small number of the participants (5%) used the future perfect progressive as the correct answer and the majority of the participants (70%) committed the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple future, future perfect, future progressive and the simple present.

Item 63: By next fall I here for 2 years. (study)

Responses:	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{correct responses 5\%} \\ \text{wrong responses 95\%} \end{array} \right.$	Wrong Responses:	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{will study 75\%} \\ \text{have studied 13.3\%} \\ \text{will be studying 3.3\%} \\ \text{* will be study 1.7\%} \\ \text{* have been studied 1.7\%} \end{array} \right.$
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With regard to Prediction 193, only 13.3% of the participants fulfilled the expectation by using the present perfect as the negative interference. However, a minor number of the participants (5%) used the future perfect progressive as the correct answer and a great number of the participants (81.7%) made the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule

restriction' by using the simple future, future progressive, the odd construction **will be study* and the ungrammatical construction **have been studied*.

7.2.2 Subjunctive Mood

7.2.2.1 Conditional Sentence Type Two

Item 39: If I had the money now I..... a car. (buy)

Responses:	{ correct responses 51.7%	Wrong Responses:	{	<i>bought</i> 40%
	{ wrong responses 48.3%		{	<i>had bought</i> 3.3%
			{	<i>have bought</i> 3.3%
			{	<i>will buy</i> 1.7%

Regarding Prediction 112, only two-fifths (40%) of the participants fulfilled the expectation by using the simple past as the negative interference. Slightly more than half of the participants (51.7%) answered correctly by using '*would buy*'. On the other hand, (8.3%) committed the intralingual errors 'false concepts of hypothesized' by using the simple present, past perfect, present perfect and the simple future.

Item 81: If I were living in Chile, I at a bank. (work)

Responses:	{ correct responses 24%	Wrong Responses:	{	<i>was working</i> 53.3%
	{ wrong responses 100%		{	<i>worked</i> 23.7%

Again, according to Prediction 113, the expectation was not fulfilled as (53.3%) of the participants employed the simple progressive and smaller number (23.7%) of them used the simple past as the negative interference. However, almost one quarter of the participants used the correct answer (*would work*).

7.2.2.2 Conditional Sentence Type Three

Item 25: I yesterday if you had asked me. (play)

Responses:	{ correct responses 15%	Wrong Responses:	{	<i>would play</i> 73.3%
	{ wrong responses 85%		{	<i>played</i> 10%
			{	<i>had played</i> 1.7%

According to Prediction 114, only 10% of the participants fulfilled the expectation by using the simple past. However, less than a quarter (15%) of the participants answered correctly by using the construction *would have played* and the majority of the participants (85%) committed the intralingual errors of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple past, past perfect and the construction *would play*.

Item 47: If Alex had asked me, I..... the documents (email)

Responses:	{	correct responses 20%	Wrong Responses:	{	<i>would email</i> 41.7%
		wrong responses 80%			<i>emailed</i> 33.3%
					<i>will email</i> 3.3%
					<i>has mailed</i> 1.6%

Again, regarding Prediction 114, the expectation was not fulfilled completely as the simple past tense was employed by only 33.3% of the participants. However, 20% of the participants used the construction *would have emailed* as the correct answer and on the other hand, 46.7% of the participants made intralingual errors of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple future, present perfect and the construction *would email*.

Item 71: If I had been living in Chile last year, I at a bank. (work)

Responses:	{	correct responses 11.7%	Wrong Responses:	{	<i>would work</i> 43%
		wrong responses 100%			<i>worked</i> 23%
					<i>was working</i> 20%
					* <i>had been worked</i> 3.3%
					<i>had been working</i> 1.7%

Again, regarding Prediction 115, only 23% of the participants fulfilled the expectation by using the simple past as the negative interference. On the other hand, no participant used the construction *would have been working* as the right answer and the majority of the participants (88.3%) committed the intralingual errors of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the past progressive, past perfect progressive, the construction *would work* and the ungrammatical construction **had been worked*.

7.2.2.3 Wish Construction

Item 68: I cannot understand the text. I wish I French. (know)

Responses: { correct responses 78.3%
wrong responses 21.7% } Wrong Responses: { know 20%
had known 1.7% }

Prediction 116 predicted the use of the simple past. Here, the great number of the participants (78.3%) used the simple past as the positive interference. However, less than a quarter of the participants (21.7%) made the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’.

Item 14: The neighbors are making noise. I wish they making noise. (stop)

Responses: { correct responses 3.3%
wrong responses 96.7% } Wrong Responses: { stop 65%
stopped 21.7%
will stop 10% }

With regard to Prediction 117, the expectation was not fulfilled at all because no one used the simple past tense. Nonetheless, a very small number of the participants (3.3%) used *would stop* as the correct answer and a great number of the participants (96.7%) committed the intralingual errors of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple present and the simple future.

7.2.2.4 Modal May

Item 78: May I your phone? (use)

Responses: { correct responses 100%
wrong responses 0% }

According to Prediction 197, the expectation was fulfilled completely by using the bare infinitive after the modal *may*.

Item 27: They may hours ago. (arrive)

Responses: { correct responses 6.7%
wrong responses 93.3% } Wrong Response: { arrive 10 %
arrived 28.3%
had arrived 55%

In regard with Prediction 228, the expectation was not fulfilled since no participant used the present perfect. Only small number of them used the perfective form *may* while the majority errors were caused by the ‘false concept of hypothesized’ of intralingual errors. Persian EFL learners will probably use the present perfect to refer to an action or state in the past about which there is an element of doubt.

7.2.2.5 Modal *Might*

Item 28: Paul might a letter tomorrow from scholarship institute.
(receive)

Responses: { correct responses 93.3%
wrong responses 6.7% } Wrong Responses: { received 5%
have received 1.7%

Concerning Prediction 199, this time the expectation was not fulfilled completely as the majority of the participants (93.3%) used the bare infinitive form after the modal *might* as the positive interference. However, a small number of the participants (6.7%) made the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple past and present perfect.

7.2.2.6 Modal *Should*

Item 49: You are not well. You should a doctor. (see)

Responses: { correct responses 100%
wrong responses 0%

In respect of Prediction 203, the expectation was fulfilled completely since all the participants employed the bare infinitive after the modal *must* as the positive interference.

Item 100: I didn't study for the test last night. I should last night.
(study)

Responses: { correct responses 5%
wrong responses 95% Wrong Responses: { *study* 91.7%
studied 3.3%

Again, with regard to Prediction 118, only very few of the participants (3.3%) fulfilled the expectation. However, a small number of the participants (5%) used the past modal *should have studied* as the correct answer while the majority of the participants (91.7%) committed the intralingual error of 'ignorance of rule restriction' by using the simple present.

7.2.2.7 Modal *Must*

Item 23: He is not so old. He must nearly 50 years old. (be)

Responses: { correct responses 100%
wrong responses 0%

In regard to Prediction 203, the expectation was fulfilled completely since all the participants employed the bare infinitive after the modal *must* as the positive interference.

Item 66: A woman phoned while you were out. ~ It must..... Mary. (be)

Responses: { correct responses 0%
wrong responses 100% Wrong Response: *be* 100%

With respect to Prediction 230, the expectation was fulfilled completely by using the bare infinitive after the modals as negative interference while no one used *have been* to complete the past modal construction with *must* (*must have been*). Consequently, all the participants made the intralingual error of 'ignorance of rule restrictions'.

7.2.2.8 Modal *Could*

Item 62: Julia walk before she was a year old. (can)

Responses: { correct responses 100%
wrong responses 0%

Prediction 90 was anticipated correctly as the simple past was used by all the participants. It should be noted there are two tenses in Persian which are equivalent for *could*: the simple past and the imperfective simple past. The former denotes the instantaneity or punctuality of the action or event as a momentary verb while the latter has emphasis on duration of the action or state as a durative verb.

Item 74: We could there on time, but you insisted on eating first. (get)

Responses: $\begin{cases} \text{correct responses } 0\% \\ \text{wrong responses } 100\% \end{cases}$ Wrong Responses: $\begin{cases} \text{get } 95\% \\ \text{got } 5\% \end{cases}$

Regarding Prediction 202, the majority of the participants (95%) fulfilled the expectation by using the bare infinitive as the positive interference while nobody used the correct answer and only very few of the participants (5%) committed the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’.

7.2.2.9 Semi-modal *Have to*

Item 42: We were alone but we finish it by today. (have to)

Responses: $\begin{cases} \text{correct responses } 28.3\% \\ \text{wrong responses } 71.7\% \end{cases}$ Wrong Response: *have to* 71.7%

In regard to Prediction 119, only 28.3% of the participants fulfilled the expectation by using the simple past *had to* as the positive interference while the majority of the participants (71.7%) made the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple present *have to*.

7.2.2.10 Future in the Past

Item 31: I knew you me one day! (help)

Responses: $\begin{cases} \text{correct responses } 6.7\% \\ \text{wrong responses } 93.3\% \end{cases}$ Wrong Responses: $\begin{cases} \text{will help } 80\% \\ \text{help } 13.3\% \end{cases}$

With regard to Prediction 13, only 80% of the participants fulfilled the expectation by using the simple past and the simple future as the negative interference. Moreover, 6.7% of the participants used the future in the past construction *would help* as the correct answer while 13.3% of the participants committed the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the present tense.

Item 55: You promised me the car ready on Monday. (be)

Responses: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{correct responses 5\%} \\ \text{wrong responses 95\%} \end{array} \right.$ Wrong Responses: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{will be 83.3\%} \\ \text{is 10\%} \\ \text{to be 1.7\%} \end{array} \right.$

Again, regarding Prediction 13, the majority of the participants (93%) fulfilled the expectation by using the simple future and the simple present as the negative interferences. In addition, a small number of the participants (5%) used the future in the past construction *would be* as the correct answer and very few of the participants (1.7%) committed the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using *to be*.

7.2.2.11 Adverbial Clause with Lest

Item 77: She turned away from the window lest anyone them. (see)

Responses: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{correct responses 20\%} \\ \text{wrong responses 80\%} \end{array} \right.$ Wrong Responses: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{saw 43.3\%} \\ \text{sees 33.3\%} \\ \text{have seen 1.7\%} \\ \text{to see 1.7\%} \end{array} \right.$

According to Prediction 221, the expectation was not fulfilled completely as 20% of the participants used the present subjunctive as the positive interference and 33.3% of the participants used the simple present as the negative interference. In addition, less than half of the participants (43%) committed the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple past and very few of the participants made the intralingual error of ‘incomplete application of rules’.

7.2.2.12 *That*-clause with Adjectives

Item 93: It is important she the meeting. (attend)

Responses: { correct responses 36.7%
wrong responses 63.3% Wrong Responses: *attends* 63.3%

With regard to Prediction 203, the expectation was fulfilled completely as less than half of the participants (36.7%) used the present subjunctive as the positive interference and more than half of the participants (63.3%) employed the simple present as the negative interference.

7.2.2.13 Optative Subjunctive

Item 96: May God you! (bless)

Responses: { correct responses 80%
wrong responses 20% Wrong Responses: *blesse*s 20%

Concerning Prediction 214, the majority of the participants (80%) fulfilled the expectation as the positive interference while a smaller number of the participants (20%) committed the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple present.

7.2.3 Imperative Mood

Item 86: Let us over there for half an hour. (sit down)

Responses: { correct responses 100%
wrong responses 0%

In accordance with Prediction 211, the expectation was fulfilled completely by using the bare infinitive after *let us* as the positive interference.

Item 97: me what time it is. (tell)

Responses: { correct responses 100%
wrong responses 0%

With regard to Prediction 247, the expectation was fulfilled completely as all the participants used the simple form as the positive interference.

CHAPTER 8

ANALYSIS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND INTERVIEWS

8.0 Introduction

The current chapter includes two surveys questionnaire and email interviews. Since one of the objectives of this research dealt with the learning process of English as a foreign language by Persian students in Iran in the one hand, and the pedagogical practices and approaches of the teachers in the other hand, an interactive research inquiry with the teachers was required to seek and survey their attitudes, methods and techniques. Hence, the two surveys of questionnaire and interviews were the best available instruments for collecting data and information regarding the teachers.

8.1 Objectives

The surveys were aimed to obtain the necessary information on (a) the instructional approaches to teaching, (b) various factors contributing in teachers' difficulties in teaching English grammar specifically in teaching the two grammatical categories tense and mood in English, (c) problem areas of students were identified by the teachers ,(d) practical techniques and methods to help students for coming over their problems and enhancing their own proficiency in learning English tenses and moods.

8.2 Subjects

The subjects for the questionnaire survey were thirty English teachers from ten universities in Iran. For the interview survey, half of the same respondents (15 teachers) to the questionnaire survey volunteered to participate in the email interview.

8.2.1 Background Information about Teachers

Almost one-fourth (26.7%) of the respondents were male and the rest were female. Among the teachers, 20% had a master degree while 33% were PhD candidate and almost half (46.7%) held a doctorate degree. Less than one-fifth (16.7%), taught English for 1-3 years, one-fifth taught for 3-5 years and a bit more than one-fifth (23.3%) taught for 5-10 years and finally two-fifths had more than 5 years' experience in teaching English language. Almost half of the teachers (46.7%) had a full-time job as English teachers and a bit more than half (53.3%) taught as a part-time job. Almost one-fourth (26.7%) of them had taught only General English in the classrooms, while a bit more than half of the teachers (53.4%) had taught both General English and English for Academic Purposes (EAP), the small number (13.3%) taught General English, EAP, International English Language Teaching System (IELTS), Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and the smaller number (6.7%) had experienced teaching General English and (IELTS) and (TOEFL). Regarding the average number of students per classrooms, Two-fifth of the teachers had 20-30 students while the other two-fifth of the them had 30-45 students and only one-fifth of the teachers had 15-20 students which include a number of students at the IELS and TOEFL classes. The two-thirds of the participants in the email interview had also experience in teaching EAP, IELTS and TOEFL.

8.3 Survey Instruments

The survey instruments were a questionnaire and email interviews. Therefore, this part of the research has a mixed mode and design in quantitative and qualitative methods.

8.3.1 Questionnaire

The most part of the questionnaire survey was taken from that of Burgess & Etheringtonh (2002). The questionnaire was designed in a Likert type with five scales including:

1. Strongly disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Neutral or undecided, 4. Agree, 5. Strongly agree.

The 40-item questionnaire was taken to inquire the perception of Persian EFL teachers of English grammar. Nonetheless, some words in the statements were necessarily changed to modify the sentences or narrow the scope study to the two grammatical categories tense and mood in English. In addition, section three regarding background information was replaced with the first section and the final section, was added to the first three sections of the questionnaire to get an indicated part dealing with teachers' opinions, views, methods and techniques in students' problems with the English tenses and moods.

8.3.2 Email Interview

An unstructured interview was conducted as a supplementary qualitative survey to remove the potential deficiency of the questionnaire survey. According to Burgess & Etherington (2002), "[t]he lack of follow-up interviews is a major limitation to the study" (as cited in Barnard & Scampton, 2008, p. 65). The email interview was carried out by the teachers who had already responded the questionnaire survey. In the email interview survey, half of the respondents in the questionnaire survey volunteered to take part in the interview.

The email interview provided three sections to inquire their personal feelings, opinions, attitudes and practical procedures dealing with the teaching English tenses and moods at the classes. In the first part of the interview, some of their vague and implicit attitudes involving the questionnaire responses were asked in some simpler and more illustrative notes and questions. At most cases, they answered in good agreement with their other responses in the questionnaire survey. In the second part, the teachers were asked to tell how they dealt with the difficulties or troublesome problems in teaching and learning English tenses and moods, to explain what kinds of methods and techniques they apply.

In the last part of the interview, the teachers were made feel free and persuasive to mention about any problem regarding teaching or learning process in English as a foreign language for Iranian students.

8.4 Questionnaire Analysis

8.4.1 Approaches to Teaching of Grammar

8.4.1.1 The Role of Grammar in Language

More than half of the respondents (60%) agreed or strongly agreed that grammar could be *“a framework for the rest of the language”* (statement 1.a) and almost three fourth (73.3%) agreed that grammar can be seen *“as the building blocks of language which are combined to form a whole”* (statement 1.b). However, all respondents rejected the idea that the language is merely *“a refinement of more basic language knowledge”* (statement 1.c). All respondents agreed or strongly agreed that grammar could be an equal pillar for linguistic proficiency (1.d).

8.4.1.2 Explicit Grammar Teaching

More than half of respondents (63.3%) agreed or strongly agreed with statement 1.20 that *“explicit discussion of grammar rules is helpful for students.”* However, 30% disagreed with it and 6.7% were undecided. The great majority of the respondents (90%) agreed or strongly agreed to statement 2.3 *“My students expect teachers to present grammar points explicitly.”* However, 63.3% agreed or strongly agreed to statement 2.13 that *“A lack of explicit grammar teaching leaves my students feeling insecure.”*

8.4.1.3 Instruction Versus Exposure

The notion that grammar can be learned through exposure in natural use (statement 1.2) was agreed by 66.3% of the respondents. More than half of the respondents (53.3%)

agreed or strongly agreed that the “*formal instruction helps learners to produce grammatically correct language*” (statement 1.3). However, 30% of the respondents were undecided to this statement.

8.4.1.4 Declarative and Procedural Knowledge

Two-thirds of the respondents (66.6%) agreed or strongly agreed to statement 2.1, “*My students find it difficult to transfer their grammatical knowledge into communicative language use.*”

8.4.1.5 The Importance of Conscious Knowledge

Three statements inquired teachers’ belief about the role of students’ conscious knowledge:

- a) 43.4% of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed while 30% were undecided to the statement 1.4 about the learners’ language use: “*Students use of language does not involve conscious knowledge of the grammatical system and how it works.*”
- b) The majority of the respondents (73.4%) agreed or strongly agreed to the statement 1.6 that “*students need a conscious knowledge of grammar in order to improve their language.*”
- c) Finally, statement 1.9: “*Students need to be consciously aware of a structure’s form and its function before they can use proficiency*”, did not produce conclusive results because half of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed to conscious of form/function matches while 40% disagreed or strongly disagreed and 10% were undecided.

8.4.1.6 Comparison and Contrast of Structures

The majority of the respondents (70%) agreed or strongly agreed to statement 1.17 that

“Comparison and contrast of individual structures is helpful for students learning grammar.” 13.3% of the respondents were undecided.

8.4.1.7 The Use of Grammatical Terminology

Almost one-fourth of the respondents (76.6%) agreed or strongly agreed to statement 2.14, *“My students find grammatical terminology useful.”* In contrast to the positive response above, statement 2.19, *“My student find it difficult to use grammatical terminology”*, made no conclusive results, as half of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed and three-fifths of another half of the respondents (30%) disagreed or strongly disagreed while one-fifth of the respondents (20%) showed an indecision view to the statement.

8.4.1.8 Problem Solving

Over two-thirds of the respondents (70%) showed agreement or strong agreement with statement 2.2, *“My students are motivated by problem-solving techniques for learning grammar.”* However, 70% showed disagreement or strong disagreement to the statement 2.20, *“My students are frustrated by problem-solving techniques for learning grammar.”*

8.4.1.9 Error Correction

a) 43.4% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed to statement 1.16 that *“teachers should only correct student errors of form which interfere with communication”* while 33.3% were undecided and 23.4% disagreed or strongly disagreed.

b) The majority of the respondents (73.3%) agreed or strongly agreed *“form-focused correction helps students to improve their grammatical performance”* (statement 1.18) 13.3% of respondents disagreed and similarly 13.3% were undecided.

c) The statement 2.15, “*Teachers find it difficult to correct student errors of grammar within a written communicative context*”, did not produce conclusive results because 33.3% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement’ while 36.7% showed disagreement or strongly disagreement to it and 20% were undecided.

d) Similarly, the statement 2.16, “*Teachers find it difficult to correct student errors of grammar within a spoken communicative context*”, did not produce conclusive result since 50% of the respondents were disagreed or strongly disagreed while 30% showed agreement or strongly disagreement and 20% showed indecision view to the statement.

8.4.1.10 Presentation in Authentic, Complete Text

a) The majority of respondents (83.4%) agreed or strongly agreed to statement 1.15 that “*students learn grammar more successfully if it is presented within a complex text.*”

b) Less than half of the respondents (46.6%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 2.6, “*My students find it difficult to handle grammar presented within authentic texts*”, while 20% showed disagreement to it and 33.3% were undecided.

c) Almost three fourths of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 2.9, “*My students find authentic texts difficult because of the vocabulary used*”, while 10% showed disagreement to the statement and 13.3% were undecided to it.

d) Almost two thirds of the respondents (63.3%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 2.11, “*Teachers find the use of authentic material too time-consuming.*”

8.4.1.11 The Role of Practice

a) The majority of the respondents (80%) agreed or strongly agreed to statement 1.5 that “*students can improve their grammatical accuracy through frequent practice of structures.*”

b) The majority of the respondents (83.3%) showed agreement or strongly agreement with statement 1.12 that “*productive practice of structures is a necessary part of the learning process.*”

c) Again, the majority of the respondents (86.7%) agreed or strongly agreed statement 1.14 that “*participating in real-life tasks with language is the best way for students to develop their grammatical knowledge.*”

8.4.1.12 Analytic Approach

a) Three-fifths of the respondents (60%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement 1.11, “*Decontextualized practice of structures has a place in language learning*”, while 30% agreed or strongly agreed with it.

b) 30% of the respondents showed disagreement or strong disagreement with the statement 2.4, “*My students prefer to learn grammar from one sentence examples*”, and 36.6% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement and 33.3% were undecided.

8.4.1.13 Experiential Approach

a) Almost three-fourths of the respondents (73.3%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 1.7, “*Practice of structures must always be within a full, communicative context.*”

b) In contrast, (70%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement 1.10, “*The separation of work with a grammar focus from the rest of the language syllabus is useful for students.*”

c) Over three-fourths of the respondents (80%), agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 1.13, “*Grammar is best taught through work which focuses on message.*”

8.4.1.14 Focus on Forms

More than half of the respondents (53.3%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement 1.19, “*Grammar is best taught through a focus on individual structures.*” while 20% agreed with it and 26.7% were undecided.

8.4.1.15 Focus on Form

a) Almost three-fourth of the respondents (73.3%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 2.5, “*My students prefer to find matches between meaning and structure for themselves.*”

b) The statement 2.7, “*My students find authentic texts difficult because of the wide variety of structures which appear*”, did not produce conclusive results, as there was a 50:50 exact split between the respondents who agreed and those who disagreed (13.3%) and were undecided (36.7%).

c) Similarly, the same for the statement 2.8, “*My students find authentic texts difficult because they are too culture bound*”, 33.3% were disagreed or strongly disagreed and 16.7% had indecisive view to the statement.

d) More than half of the respondents (53.3%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 2.10, “*My students cannot find form-function matches in authentic texts without explicit direction from teachers*”, while 33.3% were undecided to it.

e) Over half of the respondents (60%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 2.12, “*Teachers find it difficult to produce tasks of a suitable level from authentic texts*”, while 23.3% of the respondents were undecided to it.

f) The statement 2.16, “*Teachers find it difficult to correct student errors of grammar within a spoken communicative context*”, did not produce conclusive results because 50% of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement while 30% showed agreement or disagreement to it and 20% showed indecision view to it as well. g)

Regarding the statement 2.17, “*My students find it difficult to improve the accuracy of their grammatical language within a totally communicative writing activity*”, 36.7% agreed or strongly agreed while 26.6% showed disagreement or strongly disagreement and 36.7% were indecisive to the statement.

h) Similarly, the same result is true for the statement 2.18, “*My students find it difficult to improve the accuracy of their grammatical language within a totally communicative speaking activity.*”

8.4.2 Attitudes to Teaching and Learning English Tenses and Moods

It should be noted when a minor number of the respondents showed a very different view rather others or were indecisive to show agreement or disagreement to the question, the question was repeated in the email interview as the next survey. In almost all cases, the respondents revised them and chose one side except in the statement 4.14. The data analysis and findings of this section dealing with different tenses and moods in English as follows:

a) All respondents showed agreement or strong agreement to the statement 4.1, *My students find it more difficult to use the Present Perfect Progressive rather than the Present Perfect.*

b) All teachers, after a revision of their views in the email interview, showed agreement or strong agreement with the statement 4.2, *My students find it more difficult to use the Future Progressive rather than the Simple Future.*

c) Regarding the statement 4.3, *My students find it the most difficult to use the Future Perfect Progressive among the future tenses*, all respondents agreed or strongly agreed with it after a very small number of them revised their views.

d) In respect of statement 4.4, less than one quarter of the teachers (23.3%) were undecided to agree or disagree whether their *students find it the easiest to use the simple*

present among present tenses. However, almost three-fourths of the respondents (76.6%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement.

e) The statement 4.5 did not provide conclusive results. Since less than one-fourth of the teachers (20%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement 4.5, *My students find it easier to use the present progressive rather than the simple present*. on the other hand, 30% were undecided and half of the teachers (50%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement.

f) The statement 4.6, *My students find it more difficult to use the Past Perfect Progressive rather than the Past Perfect*, was agreed or strongly agreed to by 93.3% and only 6.7% teachers were undecided with it.

g) All the teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement 4.7, *My students find it more difficult to use the conditional sentence type 2 rather than the conditional sentence type 1*.

h) The great majority of teachers (93.3%) agreed or strongly agreed that the use of conditional sentence type 3 is the most difficult among other conditional sentences. However, 6.7% teachers were undecided with the statement 4.8.

i) All the teachers agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 4.9, *My students find it more difficult to use the Past Must (deduction) to use the Present Must (deduction)*.

j) Only a small number (6.7%) of the teachers were undecided to the statement 4.10, *My students find it difficult to use the Future in the Past*. However, the great major (93.3%) agreed or strongly agreed.

k) Regarding the statement 4.11, *My students find it difficult to use the construction hypothetical wish about the present*, almost three-fourths (73.3%) of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed while 6.7% disagreed and the statement was undecided by 20%.

- l) Over three-fourth (80%) of the teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement 4.12, *My students find it difficult to use the simple imperative form*. However, 10% were undecided and 10% agreed with it.
- m) Over three-fourths (80%) agreed or strongly agree with the statement 4.13, *My students find it more difficult to use the past construction Could (possibility) + perfective form rather than Could + infinitive form*. On the other hand, 6.7% showed disagreement with it and 13.3% were undecided.
- n) The statement 4.14, *My students find it more difficult to use the construction Used to + infinitive as a simple past tense*, agreed or strongly agreed by the great majority (93.3%) while the small number of the teachers showed disagreement.
- o) Statement 4.15, *My students find the simple past tense easier rather than the simple present tense*, was disagreed and undecided by 56.7% and 43.3% respectively.

8.5 Interview Analysis

- a) The teachers mentioned present perfect progressive, past perfect progressive, future perfect progressive, future perfect, conditional sentences as the recent examples of their students' problem in two grammatical categories of tense and mood.
- b) The majority of the teachers (80%) stated that they treated the recent grammar problem of their students. One fifth of the all teachers (20%) used the eclectic methods in order to treat the problems because they believed that it was the best way to deal with the students in different levels regarding the kind and point of grammatical problem they encounter. The rest of the teachers (60%) used the examples of real life situations to help students in understanding difficult English tenses. Some teachers (10%) who applied the real life situation and task-based approach used the timeline of past, present and future as well

while they employ different tenses. Some others (6.7%) ask the students to imagine the real life situation while they use the examples sentences.

c) More than half of the teachers (60%) believed that the *Comparison English verb structures with Persian verb structures* sometimes could be *helpful for learning English verb tenses*. Some of them argued that it would be helpful only when the meaning and the use of verb tenses in the two languages are the same. However, 40% strongly disagreed that any comparison of verb structures between the two languages would help the students.

d) In reply to the question how the teacher handles to teach present perfect and present perfect progressive, their answers are as follows:

One fifth of the teachers (20%) tried to use the various verb tenses in a context, then make a comparison between them, and finally elicit the grammar rule.

Less than half of the teachers (40%) taught present perfect and present perfect progressive through comprehensible input and real-life contexts by giving various examples of each usage of the verb tense and linking the concept and the usage to the students' personal experience and then asked the students to answer the exercises. Again, less than half of the teachers (40%) used the various examples to illustrate different usage of the verb tenses. They first taught the present perfect by giving some examples, then taught present perfect progressive, and then explained the differences between them in form and meaning.

e) All teachers emphasised on different contexts particularly in the form of conversations and dialogues as the best way for teaching the various future tenses. They could compare the different future tenses within the sentences and elicit the grammar rule.

f) None of the teachers mentioned the kind of the mood when they taught conditional sentences to their students. All of them taught the conditional sentences by giving example sentences of each type and then compared their different structures and meanings together. Half of the teachers tried to teach the conditional sentences through a text.

g) The majority of the teachers had not attempted to prepare any lesson plan to introduce a list of stative or dynamic English verbs to the student and discuss about the nature of the verbs in the classrooms. In addition, most of the teachers had not tried to get the students familiar enough with the linguistic concepts of states, actions, events, achievements, completion, perfective or imperfective by giving definition and illustrative examples.

h) More than half of the teachers (60%) taught ‘future in the past’ by giving some examples and one third of them (20%) commented that if their students could not get the concept of the ‘future in the past’ through different examples, they would use Persian translation. However, less than half of 40% of the teachers tried to provide a real-life or task-based situation for their students to use the future in past construction.

i) None of the respondents had any particular technique dealing with teaching hypothetical *wish* construction. All of them confirmed the exemplification as the best way.

j) 60% mentioned the exemplification as the best way for teaching the perfective forms with the modals *could/would/should/must/ought to/need* + have+ Past Participle). However, 40% of the teachers preferred to provide a real-life context or task-based

situation for their students for example students' personal experience to use the perfective forms with the modals.

k) To ensure that students practice current structure, 60% mentioned eclectic method because it depended on two parameters in general: a) language learners' characteristics such as age, gender, level, needs b) the type of the grammar rules. 40% answered that they monitor any work activity of their students.

l) All the teachers assured that practice is necessary part of the classroom sessions. All of them said that some practices of new lesson are done in the classroom and some left for the homework. They usually followed up the rest of the exercises in the next session before they began teaching the next lesson.

m) All teachers said that the exercises should be written or done orally and in written. However, they emphasized they orally should be done orally first.

n) In general, more than half of the time in class was spent doing practice in the classroom.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the findings from the previous chapters will be discussed based on the descriptive and contrastive studies through the CA and EA approaches on one hand and the findings from the two surveys comprising a questionnaire and interviews on the other hand. In fact, this study is like the three sides of an equilateral triangle consisting of language, language learners and language teachers, are investigated through the above approaches and surveys. The language here refers to its three components of content, form and use as Bloom and Lahey (1978) mention them as three separate but overlapping ones. Regarding educational technologies and strategies for educational innovations, the didactic triangle characteristics of language, students and teachers should be described first and then the pedagogical relations between these three nodes should be highlighted and analyzed.

The main questions that were addressed in this research included (a) identifying the types and patterns of errors in terms of tenses and moods by Persian EFL learners, (b) determining the frequencies and sources of the committed errors, (c) suggesting solutions and recommendations with respect to considering teachers' attitudes and methods. Undoubtedly, one of the main difficulties that students face in language learning is usually concerned with tenses and moods. The more the languages are similar in structure and function, the easier it will be to learn or teach them. The present study focused on the difficulties of learning and teaching the two grammatical categories of tense and mood in English for the Persian students in Iran. It tried to cast light on the nature of difficulties in learning different kinds of tenses and moods in English by Persian EFL learners in

interlingual and intralingual transfer through the two approaches of CA and EA; the interlingual and intralingual errors through the interference of Persian as the first or source language and English as a source or target language. These research findings will facilitate and assist learning and teaching methods through effective interactions between language learners and teachers.

9.1 Tense and Mood in Persian and English

Persian as one of the Iranian languages and English as a West Germanic language belong to the Indo-European family of languages. They may be similar in some respects or dissimilar in many others. With regard to the two grammatical categories of tense and mood, the number of tenses and moods are the same in both the languages. There are twelve tenses and three moods in Persian and English. Nonetheless, the number of present, past and future tenses do not match between these two languages. There are three present tenses in Persian including the simple present, present progressive and present subjunctive while in English there are four: simple present, present progressive, present perfect and present perfect progressive. Persian has double past tenses compared to the English language which has only four past tenses. The eight past tenses in Persian include simple past, past progressive, narrative past progressive, imperfective simple past, narrative imperfective past, *gozaštaye naqli* (present perfect), past perfect and narrative past perfect. It must be noted that *gozaštaye naqli* in Persian corresponds to the present perfect in English and like the verb tense *passé compose* in French, it is categorized in the past tenses. However, in English there are four past tenses including simple past, past progressive, past perfect and past perfect progressive. Quite on the contrary, the number of future tenses in English is four times more than in Persian. There is only one future tense ‘the simple future’ in Persian whereas in English, besides the simple future that is

in common with Persian, there are three more future tenses including the future progressive, future perfect and future perfect progressive.

It would be interesting to know that regarding the moods, English and Persian traditional grammarians mentioned many types of moods in their books. Despite this, modern grammarians and linguists decreased the various kinds of moods into three which are the indicative, subjunctive and imperative moods. It goes without saying that there would be some differences in the subjunctive mood in Persian and English in terms of the function and the usage. The most important difference concerning the subjunctive mood is that grammaticalization is an obvious aspect of the Persian language whereas the two tenses (present subjunctive and past subjunctive) has been grammaticalized. On the other hand, the uses for the subjunctive mood in English are rare compared with the Persian and other Indo-European languages. According to Poutsma (1922), Fowler (1927), Jespersen (1931), Fries (1940), Pooley (1947), Cannon (1959), Hirtle (1964), Khlenikova (1976), Tuner (1980), James (1986), Hurfor (1994), Feuer (1995), Dons (2004), Dalton-Puffer (2006), Gotti et al. (2008), Locher & Strässler (2008), Canon (2010), Millward & Bar (2011), the subjunctive mood in modern English has declined even though we can say it is still alive.

The imperative mood in Persian is represented only by the simple form while in English, three verb forms can be considered. Though the imperative simple form is normally used in English, the progressive and perfective form can be used less frequently than the simple form as well.

9.2 Comparison between the Results of the CA and the EA

Concerning the didactic triangle characteristics of language, the English verb tenses were described in terms of forms and grammar usage and then they were contrasted with that

of the Persian language. In other words, that is a use-based analysis of tense and mood in Persian and English. By juxtaposing the two grammatical categories in English and Persian, and predicting the differences and similarities between these two languages and consequently identifying the existence of the problematic verb tenses for Persian EFL learners, many predictions were made based on the extracted grammar rules. The made rules and predictions are based on a detailed study of the application and uses of the different tenses and moods in the two languages. Here, the predictions are compared with the committed errors by the Persian participants of this study in an English test as output of the language learners in the process of learning the English verb tenses and moods.

In addition, the test results revealed that the hierarchy of difficulty regarding the English tenses from the maximum to minimum for the participants as Persian EFL learners is as follows:

(1) Past perfect progressive, (2) Future perfect progressive and Present perfect progressive, (3) Future perfect, (4) Future progressive, (5) Past perfect, (6) Simple past, (7) Present perfect, (8) Simple future (9) Present progressive and Past progressive, (10) Simple present.

As it was already mentioned, the two-thirds of the average rate of errors in the simple past relate to the pesdue modal “used to”. If we do not include it, the use of the simple past tense will get the second minimum in average rate of errors after the simple present tense. On the other hand, in regard to the English subjunctive mood and its related constructions, the hierarchy of problems with the most difficulty to the least difficulty for the Persian EFL learners who were the participants of this study is as follows:

(1) Past *could* (possibility) with perfective form, Past *must* (deduction), (2) Hypothetical *wish* about the Future, (3) Past *should*, (4) Future in the Past, (5) Past *may* (possibility) with perfective form, (6) Conditional sentence type three, (7) Adverbial Clause with *lest*, (8) Conditional sentence type two, (9) Past *have to* (*had to*), (10) *that*-clause with Adjective, (11) Hypothetical *wish* about the Present, (12) Optative subjunctive, (13) Present *might*, (14) Present *may*, Present *should*, Present *must* (deduction), Past *could* (possibility) with infinitive form.

Finally, the participants had no difficulty using the imperative mood with the simple form or in the construction with *let us* (*let's*).

9.2.1 Simple Present

The simple present tense has the lowest difficulty among the English tenses for Persian EFL learners. The results showed that in all grammatical rules dealing with the simple present, the positive interference is not less than 58.3%. Moreover, the majority of errors follow as a consequence of intralingual errors ‘ignorance of rule restrictions’.

9.2.2 Present Progressive

The test results showed that the present progressive is more problematic than the simple present. However, the negative interlingual transfers are caused by using the simple present and the present perfect tenses. Some scholars such as Farshidvard (2005) argued that the present progressive verb form in Persian was new and it had been affected by the translations from European languages which started two centuries ago. On the other hand, the simple present in Persian can have common uses with that of the English present progressive. Hence, one of the English equivalents for the present progressive verb tense is the simple present in Persian.

Persian EFL learners may use the present perfect verb as negative interference whereas the linking verbs *am*, *is* or *are*, are followed by the stative present participle such as *sitting*, *standing*, *sleeping*, *reclining*, *lounging*, *wearing* (cf. Rule 27) or the adverb *nowadays* appears in the sentence (cf. Rule 29). In Persian, the adverb *nowadays* can be used in the sentence with the accomplished actions. Notwithstanding the above interlingual transfers, two out of three intralingual errors were caused by ‘false concepts hypothesized’ in which some participants had faulty or wrong comprehension of the distinction in English language as the target language. Based on the results in the administered test, the intralingual errors of ‘false concepts hypothesized’ in Items 16 are concerned with the stative verbs such as *sit*, *stand*, *sleep*, *recline*, *lounge*, and *wear*. Consequently, (20%) of the participants committed the error by using the simple present because they misunderstood the meaning of the intransitive verb *stand* ‘to have an upright position’ or ‘to move into an upright position’. Furthermore, in item 48 too, the majority of the participants again committed the intralingual error of ‘false concepts hypothesized’ because of the semantic error in comprehending the disapproval notion by using the present progressive. On the other hand, in Item 21, more than half (56.7%) committed the intralingual error of, ‘ignorance of rule restrictions’ by using the simple present.

9.2.3 Present Perfect

Based on the data analysis of the two approaches - CA and EA, the present perfect has almost the same difficulty as the present progressive and it ranks as the second lowest problematic tense among the other verb tenses. The predictions in the major cases matched the EA results. However, the present perfect is almost in the middle of the hierarchical complexity among English verb tenses. Furthermore, the great number of errors dealt with the negative interlingual transfer by using the simple present or the simple past and in a less rate by using the present progressive.

9.2.4 Present Perfect Progressive

The present perfect progressive has the highest error rate for the participants. The results showed that the rates of negative interlingual or intralingual transfers are high in this verb tense. The negative interlingual transfers occur in a sequential order as follows the present perfect, present progressive or the simple present. Besides, almost half of the predictions matched the results obtained from the analysis.

9.2.5 Simple Past

According to the test results and without including the pseudo verb *used to*, the simple past had the lowest number of errors among the other English past tenses and it was one of the less problematic English tenses for the participants when compared to the other English verb tenses. Since almost one-tenth of the items in the administered test related to the simple past in different clauses and sentences, the predictions about some items may show different results. Nonetheless, the majority of the errors were caused by interlingual negative transfers. For instance, although it was predicted that the participants might use the present subjunctive or the simple present as the negative interlingual transfer, the majority of the participants used the simple past as the correct answer. Therefore, it will confirm the CAH that claimed all made errors can be attributed to the negative interlingual transfers.

The prediction for using the simple present for the Persian equivalent of the present subjunctive was not matched by the errors committed by the participants especially in the adverbial clauses with adverb time of *before*. In Items (52) and (4), more than half of the participants answered the simple past as correct answers.

The prediction for using the simple present for the Persian equivalent of the present subjunctive tense for the verbs followed by *It's (high) time* as one of modal preterite constructions of hypothetical past was fulfilled with the great majority (85%) by using the simple present or bare infinitive and by a minor percentage (13.3%) by using the full infinitive. Notwithstanding the above predictions, almost all the participants (98.3%) committed the errors because of negative interlingual transfers.

As there is no back-shift in Persian, one of the main source of errors in the simple past is attributed to the back-shift. Consequently, in the questions with the back-shifted orientation errors, there is a rather high negative interference while in all three questions, the predictions were not fulfilled by more than half by using the simple present or present perfect.

Of the major difficult areas dealing with the simple past tense, the construction of 'the pseudo verb *used to* + bare infinitive' can be noted. In such cases, the participants used the simple past tense as a negative interlingual transfer because the English simple past is the most similar verb tense in form to the equivalent Persian 'imperfectiv simple past'. Similarly, one of the most problematic grammar rules for participants with a high number of errors as seen from the results in the test, is the simple past verb in the main clause of conditional sentence type 2 while the equivalent Persian of that would be the imperfective simple past. Thus, the most frequent number of intralingual errors is in the usage of the simple past tense, is related to the application of the pseudo verb *used to* in the simple past verb forms and that of verb in the independent clause of conditional sentences type two as well.

9.2.6 Past Progressive

The past progressive for the participants was more difficult than the simple past while the average percentage of the error responses were (42.5%). On the other hand, the prediction was not fulfilled completely by using the past perfect for the stative verbs such as *sit*, *stand*, *lie down*, *sleep*, *lounge*, *squat* and *wear* as the Persian equivalent of English past progressive for such verbs. Hence, in one case (item 7) half of the participants answered the correct response and less than two-fifths (33.3%) used the past perfect as negative interlingual transfer. Besides, in another case (item 54) two-fifths of the participants committed the interlingual error by using the past perfect as a negative interference. However, in one hand only (15%) used the past progressive as the correct response and in another hand, less than half (45%) answered wrongly by using various responses were caused by intralingual errors ‘ignorance of rule restrictions’ and ‘false concepts hypothesized’. Notwithstanding the two above cases (items), the predictions were fulfilled completely in items (89) and (98) as the participants employed the past progressive or simple past tenses for the verbs other than the stative verbs such as *sit*, *stand*, *lie down*, *sleep*, *lounge*, *squat* and *wear*. As it had already predicted (cf. Predictions 100), the participants used the simple past as the closest verb form to the Persian equivalent of imperfective simple past.

9.2.7 Past Perfect

Past perfect was the most problematic tense among the past tenses. The test results showed that the past perfect tense had one of the highest rates in committed errors. However, concerning with the predictions in the past perfect items, some predictions matched the EA results and some others not. For examples, the predictions 133 and 84 matched the errors committed by the participants. That is, less than half (45%) used the past perfect as the positive interlingual transfer and two-fifths (40%) used the simple

present as the negative interlingual transfer while the small number (15%) of the participants made the intralingual errors ‘ignorance of rule restrictions’ by using past progressive, present perfect and simple future verb tenses. Similarly, in Item 45 only one-fourth of the answers matched the prediction whereas (25%) of the participants made the negative interlingual transfer by using the simple past for the stative verb *have*. One of the sources of committed errors by the participants in using the past perfect as the correct answer was back-shift. Except Item 57 that the participant’s correct response was more than half (Probably because of existence of the superlative adjective in the sentence as a clue for using the past perfective as the correct response), in the two other Items 51 and 60, totally less than half of the participants answered correctly. All the errors of these three items are intralingual errors of ‘false concepts hypothesized’.

9.2.8 Past Perfect Progressive

In accordance with the test results, past perfect progressive and past progressive were problematic almost at the same extent for the participants. Moreover, the predictions matched the EA results as the past perfect, simple past or past progressive were used by the participants. They committed the intralingual errors as Persian language lacks the past perfect progressive.

9.2.9 Simple Future

Concerning the test results, the simple future was the easiest tense among the future tenses while it was still one of the most problematic tenses among all English verb tenses as the average percentage of its error responses was a bit less than half (49.8%). The predictions matched the EA results as the major participants used the simple future as the positive interlingual transfer or simple present as the negative interlingual transfer. Nonetheless,

the participants committed the intralingual errors of ‘ignorance of rule restrictions’ and ‘false concepts hypothesized’ as follows:

In Item 73, less than two-fifths (33.3%) of the participants committed the intralingual error of ‘false concepts hypothesized’ by using the present progressive instead of the simple future for prediction of future events. In addition, in Item 56, very few of the participants answered by giving the correct response by using the simple future with *be going to* while the great majority of the errors were caused by intralingual errors of ‘false concepts hypothesized’. The correct answer could be the simple future with *be going to*, the intralingual errors for the simple future are because of the ‘ignorance of rule restrictions’ while dealing with the future progressive as the correct response, the errors are caused by the ‘false concepts hypothesized’. After all, none of the participants used the simple future with *be going to* as one of the correct answers in Items 36 and 64. Moreover, none of the participants used the present progressive as one of the correct answers. The participants’ avoidance of using the simple future *be going to* and present progressive can be considered as an indication that the participants had not been familiar enough with different usages of these two verb constructions.

9.2.10 Future Progressive

The predictions were not fulfilled since only a minor number (1.7%) used the present progressive with a dynamic action as a negative interlingual error in Item 6 while on the other hand, none of the participants used the present perfect for the stative verb *sit* as the negative interlingual error in Item 50. Notwithstanding, almost all the errors were caused by the intralingual transfer of ‘false concepts hypothesized’.

9.2.11 Future Perfect

Almost three-fourths (74.2%) of the predictions matched the EA results by using the

present perfect (13.3%) and the simple future (60.9%). The present perfect is used more in spoken language than the simple future as a Persian equivalent for the English perfect. Since there is no future perfect tense in Persian, the small number (6.7%) used the future perfect as the correct response whereas the great majority of the participants (93.3%) committed the intralingual errors of ‘false concepts hypothesized’.

9.2.12 Future Perfect Progressive

Less than one-fourth (22.5%) of the predictions matched the EA results by using the two verb tenses - the simple present and the present perfect. However, the great majority of the errors were caused by the intralingual error of ‘false concepts hypothesized’.

9.2.13 Conditional Sentences Types Two and Three

The imperfective simple past in Persian is the English equivalent ‘*would + infinitive*’ or ‘*would + be + present participle*’ in the main clause of the conditional sentences type 2. It had already predicted the use of the simple past in the test for the Persian equivalent of the imperfective simple past. In like manner, more than half (58.7%) of the predictions matched the EA results by using the simple past in Item 39 and simple past and past progressive in Item 81 as the negative interlingual errors. On the other hand, one-fourth (40%) of the participants committed the intralingual error in Item 39 while over three-fourths (77.3%) of the errors were caused by the intralingual error of ‘incomplete application of rules’ by using the simple past and past progressive verb tenses.

In the same way, the imperfective simple past in Persian is the English equivalent, ‘*would+ have + past participle*’ and ‘*would +have+ been + present participle*’. However, less than of one-fourth (21.6%) of the predictions matched the EA results by using the simple past for Items 25, 47 and 71 and by using the past progressive for Item 71 as well.

On the contrary, to the conditional sentences type 2, the great majority of the intralingual errors were due to ‘incomplete application of rules’ where the minority of the intralingual errors were caused by ‘false concepts hypothesized’.

9.2.14 Wish Construction

Over three-fourths (78.3%) of the expectations were fulfilled by using the simple past as the Persian equivalent of the imperfective simple past in Item 68. Hence, it could be considered as the positive interlingual transfer for the unreal past verbs followed by the hypothetical *wish*. Notwithstanding, the above construction with the imaginary *wish*, more than three-fourths (86.7%) of the expectations were fulfilled in Item 14 by using the simple past (10%) and the simple present (65%) as the negative interlingual errors while only very few (3.3%) of the participants employed ‘*would stop*’ as the correct answer for hypothetical *wish* about the future. However, with regard to the hypothetical *wish* about the present, (21.7%) of the participants committed the intralingual error, ‘ignorance of rule restrictions’ by using the simple present whereas for dealing with the hypothetical *wish* about the future, (10%) of the errors were caused by the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule restrictions’ by using the simple future ‘*will stop*’.

9.2.15 Present May, Might, Should and Must

The great majority (98.3%) of the predictions matched the EA results by using the bare infinitive followed by the present modals *may*, *might*, *should* and *must*. However, only in Item 28, a small number (6.7%) of the participants committed the intralingual error of ‘ignorance of rule restriction’ by using the simple past (5%) and the present perfect (1.7%) because as it had already been stated (cf. 4.2..2.1.1.1 Present subjunctive), in Persian, the present subjunctive is followed by the above modals for referring to the present time.

9.2.16 Past May, Might, Should, Must, Could, Have to

The EA results showed that the maximum rate of errors dealt with the past modals *may*, *should*, *must* and *could* in the perfective form. Nonetheless, the past modal *have to* in the simple form (*had to*) had one of the highest number of committed errors in the test. In Item 27, a small number (6.7%) answered by giving the correct response (*have arrived*) that was followed by *may* as the past modal in the perfective form to denote the possibility notion. However, only (10%) of the participants committed the negative interlingual transfer by using the bare infinitive while the great majority of the errors were caused by the intralingual transfer of ‘false concepts hypothesized’. On the other hand, in Items 100 and 66 with the perfective modals of *should* and *must* with the notions of necessity and deduction respectively, the predictions did not match the EA results as only very few (3.3%) of the participants used the simple past for the Persian equivalent of ‘imperfective simple past’ and the great majority (95.8%) of the errors were caused by the intralingual transfer of ‘false concepts hypothesized’ and (3.3%) of the participants in Item 100, committed the intralingual error of ‘incomplete application of rules’ by using the simple past (*studied*).

Dealing with the past modal *could* in the perfective form, the great majority (95%) of the predictions matched the EA results by using the bare infinitive as the negative interlingual transfer while only (5%) of the errors were caused by the intralingual transfer of ‘false concepts hypothesized’. Regarding the simple past form *could*, predictions were completely fulfilled by using the simple past form for the Persian equivalent of ‘imperfective simple past’. Here, *could* is a durative verb.

In Persian, five different verb tenses can be followed by *bâyad* which its English equivalent in different contexts could be ‘should, must, ought to, has to, have to, need’. The various Persian verb tenses can be followed by the above modals or semi-modals in

the notions of obligation, necessity and deduction and includes: present subjunctive, simple past (only with the third person singular subject), imperfective simple past, narrative imperfective past and past subjunctive). Here, the notions of obligation or necessity refer to the past time. Consequently, the Persian equivalent must be an imperfective simple past while the appropriate English modal referring to the past will be 'had to'. However, the major errors (71.7%) were caused by the intralingual transfer of 'false concepts hypothesized'.

9.2.17 Future in the Past

Future in the past was one of the most problematic constructions for the participants as very few (5.9%) of the participants answered correctly. Notwithstanding, the majority of the predictions matched the EA results by using the simple future or simple present tenses.

9.2.18 Adverbial Clause with *Lest*

The expectations were not fulfilled completely because only (33.3%) of the predictions matched the EA results by using the simple present as the negative interlingual transfer. Despite a minor number (1.7%) of errors were caused by the interlingual transfer of 'ignorance of rule restrictions' by using full infinitive (*to see*) and less than half (45%) of the participants committed the intralingual errors of 'false concepts hypothesized'.

9.2.19 *That*-clause with Adjectives

The predictions matched the EA results as more than half (63.3%) of the participants used the simple present as the negative interlingual transfer and less than half (36.7%) employed the present subjunctive as the positive interlingual transfer.

9.2.20 Optative Subjunctive

The majority (80%) of the predictions matched the EA results by using the present subjunctive (bare infinitive) as the positive interlingual transfer whereas the rest of the errors (20%) were caused by the intralingual transfer of ‘false concepts hypothesized’.

9.2.21 Imperative Mood

All the predictions were fulfilled completely by using the bare infinitive followed by *let us/s* in Item 86 which was the English equivalent to the present subjunctive or jussive in Persian, and also by using the imperative infinitive form in Item 97 as the positive interlingual transfer. It should be borne in mind that there are two other forms of progressive and passive in English for the imperative mood while Persian lacks such forms.

9.3 Grammar Language and Teachers’ Views

In this section, the teachers’ views, methods and techniques with regard to teaching tenses and moods are investigated. Grammar has been always considered as an important and essential part of language learning and teaching. As Podgorski (2008), remarked, “Learning a new language always implies learning its grammar” (p. 3). On the other hand, teachers play a major and critical role in providing any educational assessment, particularly in the process of language learning. Consequently, it is important to know teachers’ perceptions and views regarding the grammar and its role in the language teaching and learning processes. Teachers’ attitudes and beliefs regarding the grammar and its effective relations with language learning will determine the type of instructional approaches and teaching methods and techniques to be applied in the classrooms. The following results were obtained through two surveys of questionnaires and interviews with the English teachers from eight universities in Iran. It tried to inquire about their

perceptions and ideas about the significance of grammar in EFL learning, their attitudes toward the language learners, interaction of teachers and students, educational experience and teacher influence on the quality of teaching and learning.

Over three-fourths (77.7%) of the teachers affirmed the significant role of grammar in language learning. The usefulness of explicit grammar was agreed by more than half (63.3%) of the teachers while the majority of their students (76.7%) preferred explicit grammar as well. Nonetheless, Ponniah (2008) pointed out the weakness of the explicit instruction as it “will take up massive amounts of students’ time and mental energy and they may not be able to apply the learned rules in the actual performance” (p. 249).

With respect to the notion of exposure in language learning, it seemed while the teachers were aware of the exposure as one of the effective conditions to foreign or second language learning, it seemed they could not ignore the helpfulness of formal instruction in the language learning and teaching processes.

More than half (66.6%) of the teachers believed that their students had problems with the practical application of their grammatical knowledge in a communicative language activity. Again, more than half (58.4%) of the teachers disagreed with the conscious of knowledge of the grammatical system as a whole. Nevertheless, the teachers did not show a distinct view dealing with the conscious knowledge about structures, forms and functions. The reason may be that firstly, a conscious awareness is demanded differently in the various levels of language learning, secondly it is so difficult or impossible to determine and explain how the extent of the language learning is concerned with the consciousness. According to Schmidt (1990), “subliminal language learning is impossible, and that [the level of] noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for

converting input to intake. Incidental learning, on the other hand, is clearly both possible and effective when the demands of a task focus attention on what is to be learned” (p. 129).

A majority of the teachers (the respondents) agreed that the comparison and contrast of structures could be beneficial for student language learning. However, their views regarding the comparison between the English verb structures as the target language and the Persian verb structures as the source language were clarified more in this way as (60%) agreed and (40%) strongly disagreed. In addition, some of the teachers who agreed with this kind of comparison maintained that it would be helpful for the students only when the meaning and the use of verb tenses looked like each other.

The results for the question of the use of grammatical terminology showed that the communicative method in language learning has not been carried out and applauded seriously. On the other hand, the lessons in the classrooms were often organized for explicit grammar teaching and in accordance with Burgess & Etherington (2002), “It may also be related to students’ previous language learning experience: if they are based in the grammar-translation method, students will feel at home with this use of terminology” (p.444).

Almost three-fourths (70%) of the teachers believed that the problem solving techniques made more motivations in the language learning process. Less than half (43.3%) of the teachers agreed that the error corrections should be done only when the errors interfere with the communication. There is no agreement between the linguists and language researchers about the benefit of error corrections in second or foreign language learning. There are considerable controversy viewpoints about error corrections in second/foreign

language acquisition in which how teachers handle error corrections in the classroom or what errors should be corrected and how they should be corrected. Besides, error correction varies from one subject to another subject. Error correction can be self-correction, peer-correction, teacher-correction or a combination of all depending on the type of techniques and methods, language skill, proficiency level, and age. In the early methods such as the Grammar-Translation and Audio-Lingual method, errors were corrected by teachers. While recent methods are learner-oriented and emphasize communication and cognitive skills in language learning, corrective feedback can be through the learners' interactive output. For example, one of the famous opponents of error correction was Truscot who wrote an article in 1996 against grammar correction in L2 writing classes, "claimed that the error correction research in L2 writing was conclusive in demonstrating that grammar correction was ineffective in facilitating improvement in student writing."

However, almost three-fourths (73.3%) of the teachers agreed that form-focused correction would be helpful for students. James (1998) remarked that the correction is complex as a reactive move for someone who wants to make judgments about a speaker or writer's utterance and clarify that all or part of learners' articulation outcome as linguistic or factual wrong. Nonetheless, he called correction a 'metalinguistic act' "since it is a comment on language" (p.236). He argued, "EA limits its interest to linguistic deviance of course, and correction is form-focused rather than a reaction to truth-value" (p. 236).

Though the majority (83.4%) of the teachers agreed that the authentic and complete texts would be more helpful than the simplified texts for the students, more than half (63.3%) of them found it time-consuming for teaching, besides almost the same number (60.8%)

believed that it would be more problematic for students. The majority (83.2%) of the teachers viewed the frequent practice, creative practice and real life task would be helpful for language learning. More than half (60%) of the teachers, disagreed with the 'decontextualized practice of the structures' as an analytic approach in language learning. Almost three-fourths (74.4%) of the teachers affirmed the practices should be based on the experiential approach.

In regard to the two concepts of 'focus on form' and 'focus on forms' in the language learning process, the results did not reflect any trend followed by the teachers. That is why these two types of instruction for second language acquisition focus on authentic communication and student oriented teaching while the teachers did not attribute much to the methods such as the audio-lingual or communication methods.

Although all the teachers interviewed claimed that they did help their students to overcome their difficulties in learning English tenses, their methods, techniques and approaches did not appear to be systematic. Furthermore, they used the integrated or alternative methods in teaching depending on the students, skills and type of grammatical problems. For example, more than half (60%) of them used the examples of real life to help their students understand the difficult English tenses. Nonetheless, the teachers did not give enough attention to the communication strategies in language learning.

It seemed that the teachers had an inadequate knowledge of moods in Persian as the source language and in English as the target language. The results also demonstrated that there were controversies regarding the time, extent and quality of the feedback/error correction. Teachers followed explicit grammar instructions because (1) according to the educational system in EFL learning syllabus, grammar is given more importance. Consequently,

students preferred conscious rule learning to get through their examinations. (2) The time for English classes is not enough to let them focus on communicative and practical activities in the classrooms. (3) The methods and concepts such as grammar-translation method, explicit grammar instruction, and simplified texts with frequent and familiar words in the target language have been established for a long time. Teachers and students have been accustomed to these methods besides little insistence found on teachers to try some other new methods and techniques with little or no grammar trend or the use of formal and conscious knowledge of English for Persian EFL learners. The teachers usually used an integrated method with respect to the age, level, skill, textbook, and practice in accordance with their student needs.

The teachers' attitudes towards different English verb tenses and moods in all cases except three matched the EA results. In other words, there is too much considerable overlap between their views and the obtained results from the test. This indicated that the English teachers knew almost all the Persian EFL learners' problematic areas with respect to the verb tenses and structures. Notwithstanding, the three teachers' views that did not match the EA results are as follows: (1) The EA results showed that the participants had difficulty with the past perfect almost two times more than the past perfect progressive. On the contrary, the teachers agreed that the past perfect progressive is more difficult than the past perfect. (2) According to the EA results, conditional sentences type 2 and 3 had the same difficulty level whereas the teachers believed that the conditional sentences type 3 is the most difficult of all. (3) The hypothetical *wish* about the present and future time showed different difficulty in the test so that the participants had much problems with the hypothetical *wish* about the future. On the other hand, the teachers had not made a clear distinction among the different constructions with *wish*.

9.4 Pedagogical Suggestions for Teaching

Regarding the obtained results and findings from the two approaches of CA and EA on the one hand and the two surveys comprising a questionnaire and interviews on the other hand, the following recommendations are drawn:

- 1) Teachers should keep the best strategies in teaching tenses and moods under review with regard to the limitations and requirements.
- 2) Teachers should bear in mind that the kind of methodology in teaching will definitely depend on the aims of the training, language learners' motivation, attitudes, personalities, and past language learning history.
- 3) The communication approach should be developed and effective communicative, interactive students' activities should be promoted in the classrooms as well.

Consequently, teachers should try to increase the application of the communication approach as specifically as possible in teaching different forms and uses of tenses in classrooms.

- 4) Teachers should focus more on authentic communication instruction and student-oriented (learner-centered) activities.
- 5) Writing activities such as writing a composition, free-writing a letter, connecting jumbled sentences in a paragraph, fill in the blanks in a cloze exercise, or paraphrasing a text could be helpful.
- 6) Teachers should pay attention more to exposing their students to oral and written discourse activities. The teachers should draw the students to the situational language learning method.
- 7) Due to lack of enough time for English classes, spontaneous conversations between teacher and students in the classroom could be helpful in learning and teaching different tenses in correct contexts. As Brillanceau (2005) believed that it is a window into language learners' autonomy.

- 8) Teachers had better develop a useful instructional model for observing more of the students' reactions with regard to their motivation, age, and level of proficiency.
- 9) Teachers should investigate the effectiveness of explicit sentences in teaching rules.
- 10) Opportunities should be provided for teachers to report or present their views, ideas, educational experience, findings, solutions and remedies respecting the students' difficulties in the language learning process or strong and weak points of textbooks. Definitely, exchanging ideas, attitudes and knowledge in a teachers' community will be beneficial for English teachers, syllabus designers and test developers.
- 11) Teachers should know the different forms, functions, uses of tenses and moods in Persian as the first language of the students as well as those of English as a foreign language. Above all, it had been correctly asserted by scholars such as Manouchehri (1974), Eftekhari (1975) and Mir-Hassani (1985) that one of the main reason for EFL learning problems is that English teacher –native or non-native speakers- have no sufficient knowledge of Persian language.
- 12) By illustrating through enough examples, teachers should give the students sufficient knowledge of the notions of stative verbs, dynamic verbs, achievement verbs, durative verbs, punctual or instantaneous verbs, perfective and progressive aspects in English language.
- 13) The proposed rules and comments on the similarities and dissimilarities of the two languages in the current study can be considered by teachers. Besides, they should ask their students to do some specific and regular grammar exercises on problematic and confusing verb tenses and moods.
- 14) Avoid the confusion of teaching two rather similar tenses in forms or additionally two or more similar usages of the two tenses at the same time, particularly for lower levels of proficiency classes.

- 15) Make a balance between over-teaching of various verb tenses and moods and learners' understanding of language.
- 16) In an overall view, the obtained results and findings support CAH. It must be noted that it would not be a unique source for investigating. Nonetheless, CA and EA approaches can be helpful for teachers, textbook authors, and test designers.
- 17) It should be noted that the errors committed by language learners might not have single cause. Sometimes there could be more than one cause that may be operating at the same time.
- 18) Teachers do act like an error analyst and try to look for and identify the systematic errors, analyze the problematic points regarding the learning and teaching process of tenses and moods, and divide the errors into global and local errors.
- 19) Teachers should be more careful and alert to the high frequency of committed errors by each individual student.
- 20) As Burt (1975) suggested, teachers should focus more on global errors than on local errors.
- 21) It would be ideal if a teacher can trace his/her students' pre-systematic, systematic and post-systematic errors along their long-term training of using a language.
- 22) Teachers should select a remedy for errors.
- 23) Teachers should identify the fossilized errors.
- 24) It would be a great idea that teachers try to recognize the 'material-induced errors', and 'teacher induced errors' when they are teaching an English course.
- 25) Avoid using the traditional approach concerning the error corrections in which the teachers do all the error corrections. It is better to use the student-correction or teacher-correction approach with the help of the student. In the student-correction method, the students participate in correcting the errors while the teachers play the role of supervisors and coordinators and occasionally take part in the discussion.

- 26) The error corrections made should be a reminder of the deviations by giving the Persian EFL learners' sufficient information and help in understanding their errors.
- 27) The errors should be diagnostic errors. It is a great idea that teachers keep recording their students' errors on charts. These charts are useful for obtaining information on common problematic areas in language learning, for diagnostic language tests and for enhancing instructional methods and techniques in the learning and teaching processes.
- 28) Teachers should explain frequent, systematic or global errors as an illustration for all students.
- 29) The time of feedback and error correction is not sufficient. Teachers should dedicate more time to error correction.
- 30) Teachers had better use more selective feedback to their students rather than systematic feedback.
- 31) Teachers should give a chance to the students to enable them to do self-correction while guiding them by giving some clues and key words.
- 32) Teachers should avoid direct or straight error correction in which the student may be embarrassed.

9.5 Contribution of the Study

Four main contributions can be accounted for on this research methodology: First, to improve the description of Persian as the first language and English as the target language in the particular level of language learning including 222 Rules in Persian and English. Undoubtedly, to observe the structures and functions of parts of speech in any language could have effective advantages and benefits for language acquisition or language learning process. Secondly, to predict the potential interference of the mother tongue or first language reveals how much we know the grammatical similarities or dissimilarities of the

source language and target language (257 Predictions) in the one hand, and on other hand it helps the instructors and teachers to find out at what level and stage of language development their students are. Thirdly, to describe and explain the patterns and sources of difficulties in language learning of the students facilitates understanding the language learning processing and encourages the teachers and linguists to employ or design new techniques and specific methods and devices, and fourth, to improve language teaching by inquiring the attitudes, views and experiences of different teachers regarding ESl or EFL teaching techniques. Hence, this research consists of four major parts: i) CA of English and Persian in two grammatical categories of tense and mood, ii) EA of the Persian learners of English iii) analysis of gathered information from English teachers in Iran as the respondents through conducting two surveys questionnaire and unstructured interviews iv) preliminary suggestions on the basis of the findings and discussions.

Concerning CAH and the two approaches CA and EA, the present study showed that many errors can be traced and corrected through cross linguistic interference of interlingual and intralingual transfers and should not be overlooked. Two major intralingual errors related to the two grammatical categories of tense and mood in Persian and English include: ‘the ignorance of rule restrictions’ and ‘false concepts hypothesized’. The errors with high error gravity are related to the errors which are caused by ‘false concepts hypothesized’.

9.6 Suggestions for Further Research

For further research, future researchers in this field of CA and EA can attempt to work the following topics:

Modals and modalities in Persian and English: Contrastive and Error analyses

Conditional sentences in Persian and English: Contrastive and Error analyses

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APPENDICES

Appendix1: Test Sample

Fill in the blanks with the appropriate forms.

Name:

City/Town:

Major:

1. Water around at 100° Celsius. (boil)
2. She tennis for half an hour now. (play)
3. I will go to bed after I my work. (finish)
4. I had never seen such a beautiful beach before I to Hawaii. (go)
5. Look! It! (snow)
6. Maryat the library tonight, so she will not see Jennifer when she arrives. (study)
7. I saw you in the park yesterday. You..... on the grass and reading a book. (sit)
8. They with friends until they find a hotel. (stay)
9. We to the park every day last month. (walk)
10. I'll call you if any problems. (there be)
11. She too much television lately. (watch)
12. Sarah is coming to the party. Oliver there as well. (be)
13. My best friend and I each other for over fifteen years. (know)
14. The neighbors are making noise. I wish they making noise. (stop)
15. I'm going to eat breakfast before Ito class tomorrow. (go)
16. My father by window at present. (stand)
17. Pefter finally found his sister after long years. He told our reporter, "Imy sister all my life." (look for)
18. Maybe it tomorrow. If it rains tomorrow, I'm going to stay home. (rain)
19. I volleyball when I was young, but I don't any longer. (play)
20. If the weather not too bad tomorrow, we'll play golf. (be)
21. Paola is the student who at the back of the class at present. (sit)
22. When I opened the window, the cat out. (jump)
23. He is not so old. He must nearly 50 years old. (be)
24. Why are you crying? 'Gramy..... me. (hit)
25. I yesterday if you had asked me. (play)
26. We so many different places, before we came hotel. (visit)
27. They may hours ago. (arrive)
28. Paul might a letter tomorrow from the scholarship institute. (receive)
29. The police the criminal for two years before they caught him. (look for)
30. At last! I (finish)
31. I knew you me! (help)
32. At present, I with him for a while. (stay)
33. If my dad time next week, we will paint my room. (have)

34. It's time you a job. (get)
35. I a novel nowadays. (read)
36. According to the weather report, it cloudy tomorrow. (be)
37. After I dinner at 8:00 tonight, I'm going to study in my room. (eat)
38. Sam by next week. (leave)
39. If I had the money now I a car. (buy)
40. I asked whether / if she any letters for me. (have)
41. Do you know what you want to do after you? (graduate)
42. We were alone but we finish it by today. (have to)
43. The teacher my children for 5 years next month. (teach)
44. When you come back home, you everything. (find out)
45. I was sorry to sell my car. I it since 1999. (have)
46. I my Seiko quartz watch for two years. (have)
47. If Alex had asked me, I the documents (email)
48. I dislike people me what to think. (tell)
49. You are not well. You should a doctor. (see)
50. This time tomorrow I in the sun. (sit)
51. She told me that her father ill since Christmas. (be)
52. I should have looked in the mirror before I out. (go)
53. If she her exam again, she'll be really upset. (fail)
54. 'Was Carol at the party last night?' 'Yes, she a really nice dress.' (wear)
55. You promised me the car ready on Monday. (be)
56. Look at those black clouds! It (rain)
57. It was the first time my friend abroad. (be)
58. It surprised me that he still in bed. (be)
59. The mechanic the car by the time I come home from work. (fix)
60. They told me that they London last week. (arrive)
61. I'll give Rita your message when I her. (see)
62. Julia walk before she was a year old. (can)
63. By next fall I here for 2 years. (study)
64. David tomorrow morning. (leave)
65. I cigarettes since I was seventeen. (smoke)
66. A woman phoned while you were out. It must Mary. (be)
67. If I don't eat breakfast, I always hungry during class. (get)
68. I cannot understand the text. I wish I French. (know)
69. I'm going to go to Chicago whether or not John (go)
70. It since I came home. (rain)
71. If I had been living in Chile last year, I at a bank. (work)
72. George is in the garden. He the roses. (smell)
73. Be careful! You yourself! (hurt)
74. We could there on time, but you insisted on eating first. (get)
75. I a raincoat whenever it rains. (wear)
76. This is the first time that I her sing. (hear)
77. She turned away from the window lest anyone them. (see)
78. May I your phone? (use)

79. There is another train to New York. Itthe station at 6 p.m. (leave)
80. They television last night. (watch)
81. If I were living in Chile, I at a bank. (work)
82. His English since he moved to Australia. (improve)
83. Wefor more than an hour. Let's rest for a while. (climb)
84. William is going to be a pilot when he (grow up)
85. Mary over there now. (sleep)
86. Let us over there for half an hour. (sit down)
87. You'll get hungry during class unless you breakfast. (eat)
88. How funny. I thought she me. (like)
89. It the whole time I was on holiday. (rain)
90. John is strong. He home every day. (walk)
91. Who wants to erase the board? Are there any volunteers? ~ I it. (do)
92. Wow! These flowers good. (smell)
93. It is important she the meeting. (attend)
94. It would be better if we it in the other way up. (turn)
95. They since 2 o'clock. (sleep)
96. May God you! (bless)
98. While he to class, he saw Mrs. Smith. (walk)
99. Now I'm not shy. I shy when I was a child. (be)
100. I didn't study for the test last night. I should last night. (study)

Appendix 2: Questionnaire for Course Tutors

Section 1: Information about You and Your Teaching Situation.

1. Where you were born? Country City
2. Gender: a) male b) female
3. What is your first language?.....
4. What is your highest level of educational attainment?.....
5. How long have you taught academic English? (Please tick one)
 - 1-3 years
 - 3-5 years
 - 5-10 years
 - More than 10 years
6. Are you a full-time EAP (teacher)? Yes No
7. What types of teaching do you do? (Please tick as appropriate)
 - General English
 - ESP (English for Specific Purpose)
 - TOEFL or IELTS
 - Other (please specify)
8. What is the average number of students in class?
 - 15-20
 - 20-30
 - 30-45
 - More than 45
9. Name of the department and university/college

.....

Please add any other information about your teaching situation which you feel may be of interest to this survey.

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Section 2: Approaches to the teaching of grammatical categories tense and mood

Mood: Mood is a grammatical feature of verbs, used to signal modality. There are 3 moods in English: Indicative, Subjunctive and Imperative.

Please indicate how far you agree with the following statements about the role and teaching of grammatical categories of tense and mood on a typical pre-essential EAP

course. If you are **agree strongly** mark a **5** on the scale, if you **strongly disagree** mark a **1** on the scale. Please feel free to add any comments you wish to make.

Disagree Agree

		1	2	3	4	5
2.1.a	The role of grammar in language is as a framework for the rest of the language - a basic system to build everything else on.					
2.1.b	The role of grammar in language is as the building blocks of language which are combined to form a whole.					
2.1.c	The role of grammar in language is as something which is added on to language proficiency: a refinement of more basic language knowledge.					
2.1.d	The role of grammar in language is as an equal pillar in supporting language proficiency. (Other pillars could be knowledge about pronunciation, appropriacy or culture etc.)					
2.2	Students can learn tense and mood through exposure to language in natural use.					
2.3	Formal instruction helps learners to produce grammatically correct language.					
2.4	Student use of language does not involve conscious knowledge of the grammatical system and how it works.					
2.5	Students can improve their grammatical accuracy through frequent practice of structures.					
2.6	Students need a conscious knowledge of grammar in order to improve their language.					
2.7	Practice of verb structures must always be within a full, communicative context.					
2.8	Separate treatment of grammar fails to produce language knowledge which students can use in natural communication.					
2.9	Students need to be consciously aware of a structure's form and its function before they can use it proficiently.					
2.10	The separation of work with a grammar focus from the rest of the language syllabus is useful for students.					
2.11	Decontextualised practice of verb structures has a place in language learning.					
2.12	Productive practice of verb structures is a necessary part of the learning process.					
2.13	Tenses and moods are best taught through work which focuses on usage and application.					
2.14	Participating in real-life tasks with language is the best way for students to develop their grammatical knowledge of tenses and moods.					
2.15	Students learn tenses and moods more successfully if they are presented within a complete text.					
2.16	Teachers should only correct student errors of form which interfere with communication.					
2.17	Comparison and contrast of individual structures is helpful for students learning tenses and moods.					

2.18	Form-focused correction helps students to improve their grammatical performance.					
2.19	Tense and mood are best taught through a focus on individual structures.					
2.20	Explicit discussion of tenses and moods rules is helpful for students.					

Section 3: Students and Teacher Difficulties with Grammar in an overall view

These are questions about how students and teachers deal with grammar in the classroom. Again, please indicate your agreement or disagreement with these statements as above.

Disagree Agree

		1	2	3	4	5
3.1	My students find it difficult to transfer their grammatical knowledge into communicative language use.					
3.2	My students are motivated by problem-solving techniques for learning verb tenses and moods.					
3.3	My students expect teachers to present grammar points explicitly.					
3.4	My students prefer to learn grammar from one sentence example.					
3.5	My students prefer to find matches between meaning and structure for themselves.					
3.6	My students find it difficult to handle grammar presented within authentic texts.					
3.7	My students find authentic texts difficult because of the wide variety of structures which appear.					
3.8	My students find authentic texts difficult because they are too culture bound.					
3.9	My students find authentic texts difficult because of the vocabulary used.					
3.10	My students cannot find form-function matches in authentic texts without explicit direction from teachers.					
3.11	Teachers find the use of authentic material too time-consuming.					
3.12	Teachers find it difficult to produce tasks of a suitable level from authentic texts.					
3.13	A lack of explicit grammar teaching leaves my students feeling insecure					
3.14	My students find grammatical terminology useful.					
3.15	Teachers find it difficult to correct student errors of grammar within a written communicative context.					
3.16	Teachers find it difficult to correct student errors of verb tenses within a spoken communicative context.					
3.17	My students find it difficult to improve the accuracy of their grammatical language within a totally communicative writing activity.					
3.18	My students find it difficult to improve the accuracy of their grammatical language within a totally communicative speaking activity.					
3.19	My students find it difficult to use grammatical terminology					

3.20	My students are frustrated by problem-solving techniques for learning grammar.					
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Section 4: Students Difficulties with the Grammatical Categories of Tense and

Mood

These questions are about how students deal with the two grammatical categories of tense and mood in the classroom. Again, please indicate your agreement with these statements as above.

4.1	My students find it more difficult to use the Present Perfect Progressive rather than the Present Perfect.					
4.2	My students find it more difficult to use the Future Progressive rather than the Simple Future.					
4.3	My students find it the most difficult to use the Future Perfect Progressive among the future tenses.					
4.4	My students find it the easiest to use the simple present among present tenses.					
4.5	My students find it easier to use the present progressive rather than the simple present.					
4.6	My students find it more difficult to use the Past Perfect Progressive rather than the Past Perfect					
4.7	My students find it more difficult to use the conditional sentence type 2 rather than the conditional sentence type 1.					
4.8	My students find it the most difficult to use the conditional sentence type 3 among other conditional sentences.					
4.9	My students find it more difficult to use the Past <i>Must</i> (deduction) to use the Present <i>Must</i> (deduction).					
4.10	My students find it difficult to use the Future in the Past.					
4.11	My students find it difficult to use the construction hypothetical <i>wish</i> about the present.					
4.12	My students find it difficult to use the simple imperative form					
4.13	My students find it more difficult to use the past construction <i>Could</i> (possibility) + perfective form rather than <i>Could</i> + infinitive form					
4.14	My students find it more difficult to use the construction <i>Used to</i> + infinitive as a simple past tense					
4.15	My students find the simple past tense easier rather than the simple present tense.					

Appendix 3: Example (1) of Interview Questions

Dear

Many thanks for your responses to the first set of questions. Before we come on to the second topic (practice - below) there is one or two points we'd be grateful if you would expand upon based on your earlier comments:

- Can you give a recent example of grammar problem to your students?
- Did you treat it?

How did you deal with it? How much time did you spend on the treatment? (For the purposes of these interview questions, we would be glad if you could again focus on the same EAP class you reflected on in the first set of responses.)

The following statements were in the questionnaire. Of course, we do not know how you personally responded to these questions, so we would be grateful if you could, firstly, let us know the extent to which you agree with the statements by underlining one of the following responses (or by deleting the three inappropriate options):

- The authentic materials and situations as real-world tasks can help Persian EFL learners to learn English tenses and moods.

strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree

- English grammar definitions as English glossary of linguistic and grammatical terms are difficult for your students to use.

strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree

- Language learning should be based on conscious knowledge.

strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree

- The practice of verb structure should be in a context.

strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree

- Comparison English verb structures with each other is helpful for learning English verb tenses.

strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree

- Comparison English verb structures with Persian verb structures is helpful for learning English verb tenses.
strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree
- How do you teach Present Perfect and Present Perfect Progressive?
- What kinds of techniques do you use to teach the future tenses such as Future Progressive, Future Perfect, and Future Perfect Progressive?
- How do you try to help the students to come over the problems in learning conditional sentences? Do you mention of the kind of mood in such sentences while you are teaching them?
- What is your opinion about the best techniques in teaching ‘Future in the Past’ to Persian EFL learners?
- Do you have any particular techniques in teaching hypothetical wish constructions? How do you apply it?
- How do you teach the perfective forms with the modals $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right. + \text{have} + \text{Past Participle}$? Why the Persian EFL learners have problems in learning and using such constructions? Do you think using contrastive examples of Persian language can help them?

Would you now expand on these in any manner that you feel appropriate, for example:

- What methods do you employ in the classroom to ensure that students practice current structures?
- Is practice an essential part of your classroom sessions, or do you leave the practice of the target structures to homework, or cohort learning.
- If you can agree that practice is necessary and productive, should it be equally oral and written, or should there be a preponderance of one over the other.

Please feel free to add any further comments about your attitudes towards practice.

Appendix 4: Example (2) of Interview Questions

Dear

Many thanks for your responses to the first set of questions. Before we come on to the second topic (practice - below) there is one or two points we'd be grateful if you would expand upon based on your earlier comments:

- Can you give a recent example of grammar problem to your students?
- Did you treat it? How did you deal with it? How much time did you spend on the treatment? (For the purposes of these interview questions, we would be glad if you could again focus on the same EAP class you reflected on in the first set of responses.)

The following statements were in the questionnaire. Of course, we do not know how you personally responded to these questions, so we would be grateful if you could, firstly, let us know the extent to which you agree with the statements by underlining one of the following responses (or by deleting the three inappropriate options):

- Persian EFL learners should learn English language naturally, as they learned their first language.
strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree
- The practice of verb structure should be in a context.
strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree
- My students want to learn English grammar rules quickly through an explicit grammar.
strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree
- The Persian EFL learners can produce grammatically correct language when you try to aid learning by raising the learners' conscious about the English language rules.
strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree
- The authentic materials and situations as real-world tasks can help Persian EFL learners to learn English tenses and moods.
strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree
- It is difficult to handle grammar presented within a newspaper article, a rock song, a novel, a radio interview and a traditional fairy tale.
strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree
- English grammar definitions as English glossary of linguistic and grammatical terms are difficult for your students to use.
strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree

- Comparison English verb structures with each other is helpful for learning English verb tenses.
strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree
- Comparison English verb structures with Persian verb structures is helpful for learning English verb tenses.
strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree
- How you teach Present Perfect and Present Perfect Progressive?
- What kinds of techniques do you use to teach the future tenses such as Future Progressive, Future Perfect, and Future Perfect Progressive?
- How you try to help the students to come over the problems in learning conditional sentences? Do you mention of the kind of mood in such sentences while you are teaching them?
- What is your opinion about the best techniques in teaching 'Future in the Past' to Persian EFL learners?
- Do you have any particular techniques in teaching hypothetical wish constructions? How do you apply it?
- How do you teach the perfective forms with the modals $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right. + \text{have} + \text{Past Participle}$? Why the Persian EFL learners have problems in learning and using such constructions? Do you think using contrastive examples of Persian language can help them?

Would you now expand on these in any manner that you feel appropriate, for example:

- What methods do you employ in the classroom to ensure that students practice current structures?
- Is practice an essential part of your classroom sessions, or do you leave the practice of the target structures to homework, or cohort learning.
- If you can agree that practice is necessary and productive, should it be equally oral and written, or should there be a preponderance of one over the other.

Please feel free to add any further comments about your attitudes towards practice.

Appendix 5: Example (3) of Interview Questions

Dear

Many thanks for your responses to the first set of questions. Before we come on to the second topic (practice - below) there is one or two points we'd be grateful if you would expand upon based on your earlier comments:

- Can you give a recent example of grammar problem to your students?
- Did you treat it?
- How did you deal with it? How much time did you spend on the treatment? (For the purposes of these interview questions, we would be glad if you could again focus on the same EAP class you reflected on in the first set of responses.)

The following statements were in the questionnaire. Of course, we do not know how you personally responded to these questions, so we would be grateful if of the following responses (or by deleting the three inappropriate options):

- The Persian EFL learners can produce grammatically correct language when you try to aid learning by raising the learners' conscious about the English language rules.
strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree
- It is difficult to handle grammar presented within a newspaper article, a rock song, a novel, a radio interview and a traditional fairy tale.
strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree
- Comparison English verb structures with each other is helpful for learning English verb tenses.
strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree
- Comparison English verb structures with Persian verb structures is helpful for learning English verb tenses.
strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree
- How you teach Present Perfect and Present Perfect Progressive?
- What kinds of techniques do you use to teach the future tenses such as Future Progressive, Future Perfect, and Future Perfect Progressive?

- How you try to help the students to come over the problems in learning conditional sentences? Do you mention of the kind of mood in such sentences while you are teaching them? What is your opinion about the best techniques in teaching ‘Future in the Past’ to Persian EFL learners?
- Do you have any particular techniques in teaching hypothetical wish constructions? How do you apply it? How do you teach the perfective forms with the modals $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right. + \text{have} + \text{Past Participle}$? Why the Persian EFL learners have problems in learning and using such constructions? Do you think using contrastive examples of Persian language can help them?

Would you now expand on these in any manner that you feel appropriate, for example:

- What methods do you employ in the classroom to ensure that students practice current structures?
- Is practice an essential part of your classroom sessions, or do you leave the practice of the target structures to homework, or cohort learning.
- If you can agree that practice is necessary and productive, should it be equally oral and written, or should there be a preponderance of one over the other.

Please feel free to add any further comments to give some your attitudes towards practice.